Guanghui Lan

Lectures on Optimization Methods for Machine Learning

August 1, 2019

H. Milton Stewart School of Industrial and Systems Engineering
Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA
to Zhaohui and my lovely children: Jesse and Warrina.
Preface

Since its beginning, optimization has played a vital role in data science. The analysis and solution methods for many statistical and machine learning models rely on optimization. The recent surge of interest in optimization for computational data analysis also comes with a few significant challenges. The high problem dimensionality, large data volumes, inherent uncertainty, unavoidable nonconvexity, together with the increasing need to solve these problems in real time and sometimes under a distributed setting all contribute to create a considerable set of obstacles for existing optimization methodologies.

During the past 10 years or so, significant progresses have been made in the design and analysis of optimization algorithms to tackle some of these challenges. Nevertheless, they were scattered in a large body of literature across a few different disciplines. The lack of a systematic treatment for these progresses makes it more and more difficult for young researchers to step into this field, build up the necessary foundation, understand the current state of the art, and push forward the frontier of this exciting research area. In this book I attempt to put some of these recent progresses into a slightly more organized manner. I mainly focus on the optimization algorithms that have been widely applied or may have the applied potential (from my perspective) to large-scale machine learning and data analysis. These include quite a few first-order methods, stochastic optimization methods, randomized and distributed methods, nonconvex stochastic optimization methods, projection-free methods, and operator sliding and decentralized methods. My goal is to introduce the basic algorithmic schemes that can provide the best performance guarantees under different settings. Before discussing these algorithms, I do provide a brief introduction to a few popular machine learning models to inspire the readers and also review some important optimization theory to equip the readers, especially the beginners, with a good theoretic foundation.

The target audience of this book includes the graduate students and senior undergraduate students who are interested in optimization methods and their applications in machine learning or machine intelligence. It can also be used as a reference book for more senior researchers. The initial draft of this book has been used as the text for a senior undergraduate class and a Ph.D. class here at Georgia Institute of Tech-
nology. For a one-semester senior undergraduate course, I would suggest to cover the following sections: 1.1, 1.2, 1.4, 1.5, 1.6, 1.7, 2.1, 2.2, 3.1, 3.2, 4.1, and 7.1, and encourage students to work on a course project. For a one-semester Ph.D. course, I would suggest to cover Sections 1.1-1.7, 2.1-2.4, 3.1-3.6, 4.1-4.3, 5.1, 5.3, 5.4, 6.1-6.5, and 7.1-7.4, and encourage students to read and present those uncovered materials either in the book or from the literature.

Many of the materials that I selected to cover in this book originated from our research in the past few years. I am deeply indebted to my Ph.D. supervisors, former Ph.D. students, post-docs, and other collaborators. My foremost and sincerest appreciation will go to Arkadi Nemirovski, who guided me through different stages of my academic life and shaped me into whom I am now. Alex Shapiro provided much guidance to me regarding how to write the book and constantly reminded me of its status. Without his encouragement, I would probably have given up this effort. I am very thankful to Renato Monteiro for his kindness, support and friendship. Working on this book often refreshes my pleasant memory of collaborating in this area with some very dedicated colleagues such as Yunmei Chen and Hongchao Zhang, and highly talented former students and post-docs including Cong Dang, Qi Deng, Saeed Ghadimi, Soomin Lee, Yuyuan Ouyang, Wei Zhang, and Yi Zhou. I am fortunate that my present students also work quite independently which helped me to spare some time to be dedicated to this book.

Atlanta, Georgia, USA,

Guanghui Lan
May 2019
Contents

1 Machine Learning Models .............................................. 1
  1.1 Linear regression .................................................. 1
  1.2 Logistic regression .................................................. 4
  1.3 Generalized linear models .......................................... 7
      1.3.1 Exponential family ............................................. 8
      1.3.2 Model construction ............................................ 9
  1.4 Support vector machines ........................................... 11
  1.5 Regularization, Lasso and ridge regression ...................... 15
  1.6 Population risk minimization ..................................... 16
  1.7 Neural networks .................................................... 17
  1.8 Exercises and notes ............................................... 21

2 Convex Optimization Theory ......................................... 23
  2.1 Convex sets .......................................................... 23
      2.1.1 Definition and examples ....................................... 23
      2.1.2 Projection onto convex sets ................................... 25
      2.1.3 Separation theorem ............................................ 27
  2.2 Convex functions .................................................... 31
      2.2.1 Definition and examples ....................................... 31
      2.2.2 Differentiable convex functions ............................... 32
      2.2.3 Non-differentiable convex functions .......................... 33
      2.2.4 Lipschitz continuity of convex functions ..................... 34
  2.3 Lagrange duality .................................................... 39
      2.3.1 Lagrange function and duality ................................. 40
      2.3.2 Proof of strong duality ........................................ 41
      2.3.3 Saddle points .................................................. 43
      2.3.4 Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions ............................... 44
      2.3.5 Dual support vector machine .................................. 45
  2.4 Legendre-Fenchel conjugate duality ............................... 46
## 3 Deterministic Convex Optimization

3.1 Subgradient descent ........................................... 55
  3.1.1 General nonsmooth convex problems .................... 56
  3.1.2 Nonsmooth strongly convex problems ................. 58
  3.1.3 Smooth convex problems ................................. 60
  3.1.4 Smooth and strongly convex problems ................ 62
3.2 Mirror descent .................................................. 62
3.3 Accelerated gradient descent ................................. 66
3.4 Game interpretation for accelerated gradient descent ... 71
3.5 Smoothing scheme for nonsmooth problems .............. 74
3.6 Primal-dual method for saddle-point optimization .... 76
  3.6.1 General bilinear saddle point problems ............... 80
  3.6.2 Smooth bilinear saddle point problems ............... 81
  3.6.3 Smooth and strongly convex bilinear saddle point problems 82
  3.6.4 Linearly constrained problems ......................... 83
3.7 Alternating direction method of multipliers ............. 86
3.8 Mirror-prox method for variational inequalities ....... 88
  3.8.1 Monotone variational inequalities ..................... 89
  3.8.2 Generalized monotone variational inequalities ....... 91
3.9 Accelerated level method ..................................... 94
  3.9.1 Nonsmooth, smooth and weakly smooth problems .... 95
  3.9.2 Saddle point problems .................................. 104
3.10 Exercises and notes ........................................... 110

## 4 Stochastic Convex Optimization

4.1 Stochastic mirror descent .................................. 115
  4.1.1 General nonsmooth convex functions ................... 116
  4.1.2 Smooth convex problems ................................ 120
  4.1.3 Accuracy certificates ................................... 124
4.2 Stochastic accelerated gradient descent ................. 130
  4.2.1 Problems without strong convexity ..................... 136
  4.2.2 Nonsmooth strongly convex problems ................ 139
  4.2.3 Smooth and strongly convex problems ................. 141
  4.2.4 Accuracy certificates ................................... 146
4.3 Stochastic convex-concave saddle point problems ....... 150
  4.3.1 General algorithmic framework ......................... 151
  4.3.2 Minimax stochastic problems ........................... 155
  4.3.3 Bilinear matrix games .................................. 157
4.4 Stochastic accelerated primal-dual method ............... 160
  4.4.1 Accelerated primal-dual method ......................... 162
  4.4.2 Stochastic bilinear saddle point problems .......... 172
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>Randomized accelerated proximal-point methods</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.1</td>
<td>Nonconvex finite-sum problems</td>
<td>398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.6.2</td>
<td>Nonconvex multi-block problems</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>Exercises and notes</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Projection-free Methods</td>
<td>423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>Conditional gradient method</td>
<td>423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1.1</td>
<td>Classic conditional gradient</td>
<td>425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1.2</td>
<td>New variants of conditional gradient</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1.3</td>
<td>Lower complexity bound</td>
<td>441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Conditional gradient sliding method</td>
<td>446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.1</td>
<td>Deterministic conditional gradient sliding</td>
<td>448</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.2</td>
<td>Stochastic conditional gradient sliding method</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2.3</td>
<td>Generalization to saddle point problems</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>Nonconvex conditional gradient method</td>
<td>470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient</td>
<td>471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4.1</td>
<td>Basic scheme for finite-sum problems</td>
<td>471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4.2</td>
<td>Generalization for stochastic optimization problems</td>
<td>476</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient sliding</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5.1</td>
<td>Wolfe gap vs projected gradient</td>
<td>478</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.5.2</td>
<td>Projection-free method to drive projected gradient small</td>
<td>480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>Exercises and notes</td>
<td>483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Operator Sliding and Decentralized Optimization</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>Gradient sliding for composite optimization</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1.1</td>
<td>Deterministic gradient sliding</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1.2</td>
<td>Stochastic gradient sliding</td>
<td>498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1.3</td>
<td>Strongly convex and structured nonsmooth problems</td>
<td>506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>Accelerated gradient sliding</td>
<td>511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.1</td>
<td>Composite smooth optimization</td>
<td>514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.2.2</td>
<td>Composite bilinear saddle point problems</td>
<td>530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>Communication sliding and decentralized optimization</td>
<td>534</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.1</td>
<td>Problem formulation</td>
<td>537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.2</td>
<td>Decentralized communication sliding</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.3</td>
<td>Stochastic decentralized communication sliding</td>
<td>550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.4</td>
<td>High probability results</td>
<td>557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.5</td>
<td>Convergence analysis</td>
<td>559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>Exercises and notes</td>
<td>567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td></td>
<td>569</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1
Machine Learning Models

In this chapter, we introduce some widely used statistics and machine learning models in order to motivate our later discussion about optimization theory and algorithms.

1.1 Linear regression

To motivate our discussion, let us start with a simple example. Julie needs to decide whether she should go to the restaurant “Bamboo Garden” for lunch or not. She went to ask for her friends Judy and Jim, who had been to this restaurant. Both of them gave a rating of 3 in the scale between 1 to 5 for the service in this restaurant. Given these ratings, it is a bit difficult for Julie to decide if she should pay a visit to “Bamboo Garden”. Fortunately, she has kept a table of Judy and Jim’s ratings for some other restaurants, as well as her own ratings in the past, as shown in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Historical ratings for the restaurants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restaurant</th>
<th>Judy’s rating</th>
<th>Jim’s rating</th>
<th>Julie’s ratings?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodfellas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hakkasan</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo Garden</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To fix notation, let us use $u^{(i)}$ to denote the “input” variables (ratings of Judy and Jim in this example), also called input features, and $v^{(i)}$ to denote the “output” or target variable (rating of Julie’s) to predict. A pair $(u^{(i)}, v^{(i)})$ is called a training example, and the dataset — a list of $N$ training examples $\{(u^{(i)}, v^{(i)}) \mid i = 1, \ldots, N\}$, is called a training set. We will also use $U$ denote the space of input values, and $V$ the space of output values. In this example, $U = \mathbb{R}^2$ and $V = \mathbb{R}$. Specifically, $u_1^{(i)}$ and
are the Judy and Jim’s ratings for Goodfellas, respectively, and \( v^{(1)} \) represents Julie’s rating for Goodfellas.

Our goal is, given a training set, to learn a function \( h : U \to V \) so that \( h(u) \) is a “good” predictor for the corresponding value of \( v \). This function \( h \) is usually called a hypothesis or decision function. Machine learning tasks of these types are called \textit{supervised learning}. When the output \( v \) is continuous, we call the learning task \textit{regression}. Otherwise, if \( v \) takes values on a discrete set of values, the learning task is called \textit{classification}. Regression and classification are the two main tasks in supervised learning.

One simple idea is to approximate \( v \) by a linear function of \( u \):

\[
h(u) \equiv h_\theta(u) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 u_1 + \ldots + \theta_n u_n.\]

In our example, \( n \) simply equals 2. For notational convenience, we introduce the convention of \( u_0 = 1 \) so that

\[
h(u) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_i u_i = \theta^T u,
\]

where \( \theta = (\theta_0; \ldots; \theta_n) \) and \( u = (u_0; \ldots; u_n) \). In order to find the parameters \( \theta \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \), we formulate an optimization problem of

\[
\min_{\theta} \left\{ f(\theta) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} (h_\theta(u^{(i)}) - v^{(i)})^2 \right\}, \tag{1.1.1}
\]

which gives rise to the ordinary least square regression model.

To derive a solution of \( \theta \) for (1.1.1), let

\[
U = \begin{bmatrix}
u^{(1)T} \\
u^{(2)T} \\
\vdots \\
u^{(N)T}
\end{bmatrix}.
\]

\( U \) is sometimes called the design matrix and it consists of all the input variables. Then, \( f(\theta) \) can be written as:

\[
f(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (u^{(i)T} \theta - v^{(i)})^2
= (U \theta - v)^T (U \theta - v)
= \theta^T U^T U \theta - 2 \theta^T U^T v - v^T v.
\]

Taking the derivative of \( f(\theta) \) and setting it to zero, we obtain the normal equation

\[
U^T U \theta - U^T v = 0.
\]

Thus the minimizer of (1.1.1) is given by
\[ \theta^* = (U^T U)^{-1} U^T v. \]

The ordinary least square regression is among very few machine learning models that has an explicit solution. Note, however, that to compute \( \theta^* \), one needs to compute the inverse of an \((n + 1) \times (n + 1)\) matrix \((U^T U)\). If the dimension of \(n\) is big, to compute the inverse of a large matrix can still be computationally expensive.

The formulation of the optimization problem in (1.1.1) follows a rather intuitive approach. In the sequel, we provide some statistical reasoning about this formulation. Let us denote

\[ \epsilon^{(i)} = v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)}, i = 1, \ldots, N. \] (1.1.2)

In other words, \( \epsilon^{(i)} \) denotes the error associated with approximating \( v^{(i)} \) by \( \theta^T u^{(i)} \).

Moreover, assume that \( \epsilon^{(i)}, i = 1, \ldots, N, \) are i.i.d. (independently and identically distributed) according to a Gaussian (or Normal) distribution with mean 0 and variance \( \sigma^2 \). Then, the density of \( \epsilon^{(i)} \) is then given by

\[ p(\epsilon^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left( -\frac{(\epsilon^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2} \right). \]

Using (1.1.2) in the above equation, we have

\[ p(v^{(i)}|u^{(i)}; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left( -\frac{(v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2} \right). \] (1.1.3)

Here, \( p(v^{(i)}|u^{(i)}; \theta) \) denotes the distribution of the output \( v^{(i)} \) given input \( u^{(i)} \) and parameterized by \( \theta \).

Given the input variables \( u^{(i)} \) and output \( v^{(i)}, i = 1, \ldots, N, \) the likelihood function with respect to (w.r.t.) the parameters \( \theta \) is defined as

\[ L(\theta) := \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(v^{(i)}|u^{(i)}; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left( -\frac{(v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2} \right). \]

The principle of maximum likelihood tells us that we should choose \( \theta \) to maximize the likelihood \( L(\theta) \), or equivalently, the log likelihood

\[ l(\theta) := \log L(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left( -\frac{(v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)})^2}{2\sigma^2} \right) \right) = N\log \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \right) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)})^2. \]

This is exactly the ordinary least square regression problem, i.e., to minimize \( \sum_{i=1}^{N} (v^{(i)} - \theta^T u^{(i)})^2 \) w.r.t. \( \theta \). The above reasoning tells us that under certain probabilistic assumptions, the ordinary least square regression is the same as maximum likelihood estimation. It should be noted, however, that the probabilistic assumptions are by no means necessary for least-squares to be a rational procedure for regression.
1.2 Logistic regression

Let us come back to the previous example. Suppose that Julie only cares about whether she will like the restaurant “Bamboo Garden” or not, rather than her own ratings. Moreover, she only recorded some historical data indicating whether she likes or dislikes some restaurants, as shown in Table 1.2. These records are also visualized in Figure 1.1, where each restaurant is represented by a green “O” or a red “X”, corresponding to whether Julie liked or disliked the restaurant, respectively. The question is: with the rating of 3 from both of her friends, will Julie like Bamboo Garden? Can she use the past data to come up with a reasonable decision?

Table 1.2: Historical ratings for the restaurants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restaurant</th>
<th>Judy’s rating</th>
<th>Jim’s rating</th>
<th>Julie likes?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodfellas</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hakkasan</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo Garden</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar to the regression model, the input values are still denoted by \( U = (u^{(1)}T; \ldots; u^{(N)}T) \), i.e., the ratings given by Judy and Jim. But the output values are now binary, i.e., \( v^{(i)} \in \{0, 1\}, i = 1, \ldots, N \). Here \( v^{(i)} = 1 \) means that Julie likes the \( i \)-th restaurant and \( v^{(i)} = 0 \) means that she dislikes the restaurant. Julie’s goal is to come up with a decision function \( h(u) \) to approximate these binary variables \( v \). This type of machine learning task is called binary classification.

Julie’s decision function can be as simple as a weighted linear combination of her friends’ ratings:

\[
h_\theta(u) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 u_1 + \ldots + \theta_n u_n \quad (1.2.1)
\]

with \( n = 2 \). One obvious problem with the decision function in (1.2.1) is that its values can be arbitrarily large or small. On the other hand, Julie wishes its values to fall between 0 and 1 because those represent the range of \( v \). A simple way to force \( h \) to fall within 0 and 1 is to map the linear decision function \( \theta^T u \) through another function called the sigmoid (or logistic) function

\[
g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)} \quad (1.2.2)
\]

and define the decision function as

\[
h_\theta(u) = g(\theta^T u) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta^T u)}. \quad (1.2.3)
\]

Note that the range of the sigmoid function is given by \((0, 1)\), as shown in Figure 1.2.

Now the question is how to determine the parameters \( \theta \) for the decision function in (1.2.3). We have seen the derivation of the ordinary least square regression model
1.2 Logistic regression

as the consequence of maximum likelihood estimation under certain probabilistic assumptions. We will follow a similar approach for the classification problem.

We assume that \( v^{(i)} \), \( i = 1, \ldots, N \), are independent Bernoulli random variables with success probability (or mean) of \( h_\theta(u^{(i)}) \). Thus their probability mass functions are given by

\[
p(v^{(i)} | u^{(i)}; \theta) = [h_\theta(u^{(i)})]^{v^{(i)}} [1 - h_\theta(u^{(i)})]^{1 - v^{(i)}}, v^{(i)} \in \{0, 1\},
\]

and the associated likelihood function \( L(\theta) \) is defined as

\[
L(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ [h_\theta(u^{(i)})]^{v^{(i)}} [1 - h_\theta(u^{(i)})]^{1 - v^{(i)}} \right\}.
\]

In view of the principle of maximum likelihood, we intend to maximize \( L(\theta) \), or equivalently, the log likelihood

---

**Fig. 1.1:** Visualizing ratings of the restaurants
Logistic Regression (Binomial Family)

Logistic regression is used for binary classification problems where the response is a categorical variable with two levels. It models the probability of an observation belonging to an output category given the data (for instance $P(y = 1 | x)$). The canonical link for the binomial family is the logit function (also known as log odds). Its inverse is the logistic function, which takes any real number and projects it onto the $[0, 1]$ range as desired to model the probability of belonging to a class. The corresponding s-curve (or sigmoid function) is shown below, and the fitted model has the form:

$$
\hat{y} = P(y = 1 | x) = \frac{e^{\theta^T u}}{1 + e^{\theta^T u}}
$$

Accordingly, we formulate an optimization problem of

$$
\max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ -\log[1 + \exp(-\theta^T u^{(i)})] - [1 - v^{(i)}] \theta^T u^{(i)} \right\},
$$

Even though this model is used for binary classification, it is often called logistic regression for historical reasons.

Unlike linear regression, (1.2.4) does not have an explicit solution. Instead, we need to develop some numerical procedures to find its approximate solutions. These procedures are called optimization algorithms, a subject to be studied intensively later in our lectures.

Suppose that Julie can solve the above problem and find at least one of its optimal solutions $\theta^*$. She then obtains a decision function $h_{\theta^*}(u)$ which can be used to predict whether she likes a new restaurant (say “Bamboo Garden”) or not. More specifically, recall that the example corresponding to “Bamboo Garden” is $u = (1, 3, 3)$ (recall $u_1 = 1$). If $h_{\theta^*}((1, 3, 3)) > 0.5$, then Julie thinks she will like the restaurant, otherwise
she will not. The values of \( u \)'s that cause \( h_{\theta^*}(u) \) to be 0.5 is called the “decision boundary” as shown in Figure 1.3. The black line is the “decision boundary.” Any point lying above the decision boundary is a restaurant that Julie likes, while any point lying below the decision boundary is a restaurant that she does not like. With this decision boundary, it seems that Bamboo Garden is slightly on the positive side, which means she may like this restaurant.

1.3 Generalized linear models

In the previous two sections, we have introduced two supervised machine learning models: the ordinary least square regression and the logistic regression. In the former model, we had assumed that \( v|u; \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) \), and in the latter model, \( v|u; \theta \sim \text{Bernoulli}(q) \), for some appropriate definitions of \( \mu \) and \( q \) as functions of
We will show in this section that both of them are certain special cases of a broader family of models, called Generalized Linear Models (GLMs), which essentially apply maximum likelihood estimation for exponential distribution family.

### 1.3.1 Exponential family

An exponential family is a set of probability distributions given in the form of

\[
p(v; \eta) = b(v) \exp(\eta^T T(v) - a(\eta))
\]

for a fixed choice of \(T, a\) and \(b\). This family is parameterized by \(\eta\) in the sense that different distributions can be obtained by varying \(\eta\).

Let us first check that the normal distribution can indeed be written in the form of (1.3.1). For simplicity, we consider random variable \(v \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1)\), i.e.,

\[
p(v; \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(v-\mu)^2}{2}\right)
= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{v^2}{2}\right) \exp\left(\mu^T v - \frac{\mu^2}{2}\right).
\]

Clearly, \(p(v; \mu)\) is a special case of (1.3.1) with \(\eta = \mu\),

\[
b(v) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{v^2}{2}\right), T(v) = v \text{ and } a(\eta) = \frac{\mu^2}{2} = \frac{\eta^2}{2}.
\]

To check that Bernoulli is a special exponential distribution, we first rewrite its density function

\[
p(v; q) = q^v (1 - q)^{1-v}
= \exp(v \log q + (1 - v) \log(1 - q))
= \exp\left(v \log \frac{q}{1-q} + \log(1 - q)\right).
\]

Clearly, in view of (1.3.1), we have

\[
\eta = \log \frac{q}{1-q}, b(v) = 1, T(v) = v \text{ and } a(\eta) = -\log(1 - q).
\]

It is interesting to note that by the first identity, we have

\[
q = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta)},
\]

which gives exactly the logistic (sigmoid) function.

The exponential family covers a broad class of distributions, including normal, exponential, gamma, chi-squared, beta, Dirichlet, Bernoulli, categorical, Poisson, Wishart and Inverse Wishart distributions, etc.
1.3.2 Model construction

Following how we construct the ordinary least square and logistic regression models, we can summarize the basic elements of the GLM model as follows.

- We need to know the distribution of the response (output) \( v \), given input \( u \) and parameters \( \theta \) to be estimated. More specifically, we assume that \( v \mid u; \theta \) satisfies a family of exponential distribution parameterized by \( \eta \).
- Given \( u \), we need to construct a decision function (or hypothesis) \( h(u) \) to predict the outcome \( T(v) \) (in most cases \( T(v) = v \) as in the ordinary least square and logistic regression). \( T(v) \) is random and we expect that \( h(u) = \mathbb{E}[T(v) \mid u] \). For example, in logistic regression, we have chosen \( h \) in a way such that \( h_{\theta}(u) = \mathbb{E}[v \mid u] \).
- We assume that \( \eta \) linearly depends on the input values \( u \), i.e., \( \eta = \theta^T u \).

While the first two elements are assumptions we make, the last element is more related to the design of the model. In particular, with this type of design, the resulting models are most likely easier to fit.

Let us check these elements have indeed been used in our development for the ordinary least square model. Recall we assume that \( \varepsilon = v - \theta^T u \) is normally distributed according to \( \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \). Hence, \( v \mid u; \theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta, \sigma^2) \) with \( \eta = \theta^T u \). This implies all the above three elements hold since \( v \mid u; \theta \) is normally distributed, \( \eta = \mathbb{E}[v \mid u; \theta] \) and \( h(u) = \theta^T u = \eta \).

Next we can check that these elements also hold for the logistic regression. Recall we assume that \( v \mid u; \theta \) satisfies a family of Bernoulli distribution with mean

\[
q = h(u) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\theta^T u)}.
\]

Denoting \( \eta = \theta^T u \), and using it in the above identity, we obtain

\[
q = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\eta)}
\]

or equivalently,

\[
\eta = \log \frac{q}{1 - q},
\]

which is exactly the parameter we used to write Bernoulli distribution in the form of exponential family. These discussions imply that all the aforementioned elements of GLM hold.

Let us look at one more example of a GLM. Consider a classification problem in which the response variable \( v \) can take on any one of \( k \) values, i.e., \( v \in \{1, 2, \ldots, k\} \). The response variable is still discrete, but can now take on more than two values. This type of machine learning task is called multi-class classification.

In order to derive a GLM for modeling this type of task, we first assume that \( v \) is distributed according to a multinomial distribution and show that multinomial is an exponential family distribution.
To parameterize a multinomial over \( k \) possible outcomes, we could use \( k \) parameters \( q_1, \ldots, q_k \) to specify the probability of each outcome. However, these parameters would not be independent because any \( k - 1 \) of the \( q_i \)'s uniquely determines the last one due to the fact that \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} q_i = 1 \). So, we will instead parameterize the multinomial with only \( k - 1 \) parameters, \( q_1, \ldots, q_{k-1} \), where \( q_i = p(y = i; q) \). For notational convenience, we also let \( q_k = 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} q_i \).

To show that multinomial is an exponential distribution, let us define \( T(v) \in \mathbb{R}^{k-1} \) as follows:

\[
T(1) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(2) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \ldots, \quad T(k-1) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad T(k) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.
\]

Unlike our previous examples, here we do not have \( T(v) = v \). Moreover, \( T(v) \) is now in \( \mathbb{R}^{k-1} \), instead of a real number. We will write \( (T(v))_i \) to denote the \( i \)-th element of the vector \( T(v) \).

We introduce one more useful piece of notation. An indicator function \( I \{ \cdot \} \) takes on a value of 1 if its argument is true, and 0 otherwise. So, we can also write \( T(v) \) as:

\[
\sum_{v \geq 1} I \{ v = i \} q_i
\]

Moreover, \( q_i = p(y = i; q) \), and we would like \( T(v) \)'s in terms of \( \eta_i \)'s. Since \( \mathbb{E}[(T(y))_i] = p(y = i) = q_i \) and we would like \( h_i(u) = q_i \). By (1.3.2), we have

\[
\frac{q_i}{q_k} = \exp(\eta_i), \quad i = 1, \ldots, k-1.
\]

For convenience, let us also denote \( \eta_k = 0 \) and

\[
\frac{q_k}{q_k} = \exp(\eta_k).
\]
Summing up these identities and using the fact that $\sum_{i=1}^{k}q_i = 1$, we have $\frac{1}{q_k} = \sum_{i=1}^{k}\exp(\eta_i)$, and hence
\[
q_i = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k}\exp(\eta_i)}, i = 1, \ldots, k-1.
\] (1.3.4)

To finish the definition of the decision function, we assume $h_i(u) = q_i$ and set $\eta_i = \theta_i^T u$. Using these two relations together with (1.3.4), we obtain
\[
h_i(u) = \frac{\exp(\theta_i^T u)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k}\exp(\theta_i^T u)}, i = 1, \ldots, k-1.
\]

Finally, these parameters $\theta_i, i = 1, \ldots, k-1$, used in the definition of $h_i(u)$ can be estimated by maximizing the log likelihood
\[
l(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(v^{(i)}|u^{(i)}; \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( \frac{\exp(\eta_j)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k}\exp(\eta_j)} \right) I(v^{(i)} = j).
\]

1.4 Support vector machines

In this section, we will provide a brief introduction to support vector machines, which has been considered as one of the most successful classification models.

Consider the binary classification problem with $N$ training examples $(u^{(i)}, v^{(i)})$, $i = 1, \ldots, N$. For convenience, we assume throughout this section that the output $v^{(i)}$ is given by either 1 or $-1$, i.e., $v^{(i)} \in \{-1, 1\}$, rather than $v^{(i)} \in \{0, 1\}$ as in the previous sections. Observe that this is just a change of label for the class, but does not affect at all the fact that one particular example belongs one class or the other.

We assume for this moment that these observed examples are separable. Formally speaking, we assume that there exists a linear function of $u$, denoted by $h_{w,b}(u) = b + w_1 u_1 + w_2 u_2 + \ldots w_n u_n$, such that for all $i = 1, \ldots, N$,
\[
h_{w,b}(u^{(i)}) \begin{cases} > 0, & \text{if } v^{(i)} = 1, \\ < 0, & \text{Otherwise (i.e., } v^{(i)} = -1). \end{cases}
\]

In particular, $h_{w,b}(u) = 0$ defines a hyperplane that separates the observed examples into two different classes. The examples fall above the hyperplane are labeled by $v^{(i)} = 1$, while those below the hyperplane are labeled by $v^{(i)} = -1$. Notice that our notations for the decision function $h_{w,b}$ here also slightly differ from the previous sections. First of all, we get rid of $u_0$ which was assumed to be 1. Second, we denote the normal vector $w := (w_1, \ldots, w_n)$ and the intercept $b$ by different notations, rather than a single $n+1$ vector $(\theta_0, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n)$. The main reason is that we will investigate
the geometric meaning of the normal vector $w$ for the separating hyperplane $h_{w,b}(u) = 0$.

By using logistic regression, we can possibly define a separating hyperplane. Recall that we use a decision function $h_\theta(u) = g(\theta^T u)$ to approximate the probability $p(y = 1|x; \theta)$. Given an $u$, we predict its output to be either 1 or 0 depending on whether $h_\theta(u) \geq 0.5$ or $h_\theta(u) < 0.5$, or equivalently, whether $\theta^T u \geq 0$ or $\theta^T u < 0$. Therefore, this vector $\theta$ gives rise to a possible separating hyperplane as denoted by $H$ in Figure 1.4.

![Figure 1.4: Inspiration of SVM](image)

However, there exist quite many other hyperplanes separating these observed examples, e.g., $H_2$ and $H_3$ as shown in Figure 1.4. Given potentially an infinite number of separating hyperplanes, how should we evaluate their strength and thus choose the strongest separating hyperplane?

In order to answer this question, let us examine the so-called “margin” associated with a separating hyperplane $w^T u + b = 0$. For a given example $u^{(i)}$, i.e., the point $A = (u_1^{(i)}, \ldots, u_n^{(i)})$ in Figure 1.5, we first compute its distance to the separating hyperplane. Let $B$ be the projection of $A$ to the separating hyperplane, it suffices to compute the length of the line segment $BA$, denoted by $d^{(i)} = |BA|$. Note that the unit direction of $BA$ is given by $w/\|w\|$, and hence the coordinates of $B$ are given by $u^{(i)} - d^{(i)}w/\|w\|$. Meanwhile, since $B$ belongs to the separating hyperplane, we have
1.4 Support vector machines

\[ w^T \left( u^{(i)} - d^{(i)} \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right) + b = 0. \]

Solving the above equation for \( d^{(i)} \), we have

\[ d^{(i)} = \frac{w^T u^{(i)} + b}{\|w\|}. \quad (1.4.1) \]

In the above derivation, we have implicitly assumed that the point \( A \) sits above the separating hyperplane (i.e., \( v^{(i)} = 1 \)). In case the point \( A \) sits below the hyperplane (\( v^{(i)} = -1 \)), then the point \( B \) should be written as \( u^{(i)} + d^{(i)} w/\|w\| \), and hence

\[ d^{(i)} = -\frac{w^T u^{(i)} + b}{\|w\|}. \quad (1.4.2) \]

Putting (1.4.1) and (1.4.2) together, we can represent the distance \( d^{(i)} \) by

\[ d^{(i)} = \frac{v^{(i)} w^T u^{(i)} + b}{\|w\|} \quad (1.4.3) \]

for any \( i = 1, \ldots, N \).

Fig. 1.5: Inspiration of SVM

With the above computation of \( d^{(i)} \)'s, we can now define the margin associated with the separating hyperplane \( w^T u + b \) by
\[ d(w, b) := \min_{i=1,...,N} d_i \equiv \min_{i=1,...,N} \frac{v(i)[w^T u(i) + b]}{\|w\|}. \] (1.4.4)

The margin \(d(w, b)\) provides a way to evaluate the strength of a separating hyperplane. Intuitively, a larger margin implies that the separating hyperplane can distinguish these two different classes of examples more significantly.

Therefore, a reasonable goal is to find \((w, b)\) to maximize the margin \(d(w, b)\), i.e.,

\[
\max_{w, b} \min_{i=1,...,N} \frac{v(i)[w^T u(i) + b]}{\|w\|}.
\]

Specifically, this will result in a classifier that separates the positive and the negative training examples with a large “gap”. The above optimization problem can be written equivalently as

\[
\max_{w, b, r} \frac{r}{\|w\|} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad v(i)[w^T u(i) + b] \geq r, i = 1, \ldots, N.
\]

For many reasons, most importantly for tractability, we wish the formulated optimization problem for machine learning to be convex (see definitions in Chapter 2). However, neither of these two formulations are convex as their objective functions are nonconvex. Fortunately, observing that multiplying \(w, b\) and \(r\) by a scaling factor \(x\) does not change the optimal value of the above problem, we can then assume \(r = 1\) and reformulate it as

\[
\max_{w, b} \frac{1}{\|w\|} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad v(i)[w^T u(i) + b] \geq 1, i = 1, \ldots, N,
\]

or equivalently,

\[
\min_{w, b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad v(i)[w^T u(i) + b] \geq 1, i = 1, \ldots, N. \tag{1.4.5}
\]

The latter is a convex optimization problem as we will see shortly in Chapter 2.

Now we should provide some explanation regarding why the above model is called support vector machine. Suppose that we have a very large number of examples, i.e., \(N\) is very large. Once we solve (1.4.5) to optimality by identifying the optimal \((w^*, b^*)\), we will find out that only a small number (out of \(N\)) of constraints of (1.4.5) are active at \((w^*, b^*)\), i.e., only a small number of constraints are satisfied with equality. The corresponding \(u(i)\)'s are then called support vectors. Geometrically, the support vectors gave the shortest distance to the optimal separating hyperplane \((w^*)^T u + b^* = 0\) among all training examples. If we move the optimal separating hyperplane along the direction of \(w^*/\|w^*\|\) and stop until some vectors from the training examples are encoutered, we will find the first set of support vectors. Similarly, moving the optimal separating hyperplane along \(-w^*/\|w^*\|\), we will obtain another set of support vectors. These two set of support vectors resides on two hyperplanes parallel to the optimal separating hyperplane. They define the gap between these two different classes of training examples, which is exactly twice the objective value of (1.4.5).
The derivation of the SVM as presented so far assumed that the training examples are linearly separable. However, this might not be the case in practice. Moreover, in some cases it is not clear that finding a separating hyperplane is exactly what we want, since that might be susceptible to outliers. To see this, Figure 1.6.a) shows an optimal margin classifier. However, when a single outlier is added in Figure 1.6.b), the optimal separating hyperplane has to make a dramatic swing, leading to a much smaller margin for the resulting classifier.

In order to address these issues, we reformulate (1.4.5) as

\[
\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \xi_i, \\
\text{s.t. } \nu(i)[w^T u^{(i)} + b] \geq 1 - \xi_i, i = 1, \ldots, N, \\
\xi_i \geq 0, i = 1, \ldots, N,
\]

for some \( \lambda > 0 \). In the above formulation, we allow the constraints in (1.4.5) to be violated and then penalize the total amount of violations. Observe that problem (1.4.6) can be written equivalently as

\[
\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max\{0, 1 - \nu(i)[w^T u^{(i)} + b]\}.
\]

These formulations are called soft-margin support vector machine.

### 1.5 Regularization, Lasso and ridge regression

Many supervised machine learning models, including a few problems discussed above, can be written in the following form:

\[
f^* := \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(x^T u_i, v_i) + \lambda r(x) \},
\]

for some \( \lambda \geq 0 \), where \( L(\cdot, \cdot) \) and \( r(\cdot) \) are called the loss and regularization functions, respectively.
For instance, in SVM, we have $x = (w, b)$, $L(z, v) = \max\{0.1 - vz\}$ and $r(v) = \|w\|^2$. In the ordinary least square regression, we have $x = \theta$, $L(z, v) = (z - v)^2$ and $r(\theta) = 0$. In fact, we can add many different types of regularization to the square loss function to avoid over-fitting, reduce variance of the prediction error, and handle correlated predictors.

The two most commonly used penalized models are ridge regression and Lasso regression. Ridge regression is given in the form of (1.5.1) with $L(z, v) = (z - v)^2$ and $r(x) = \|x\|^2_2$, while Lasso regression is represented by (1.5.1) with $L(z, v) = (z - v)^2$ and $r(x) = |x|_1$. Here $\|x\|^2_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2$ and $|x|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|$. The elastic net combines both $l_1$ and $l_2$ penalty and is defined as

$$\lambda P_\alpha(\beta) = \lambda \left( \alpha |\beta|_1 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \alpha) \|\beta\|_2^2 \right).$$

Lasso regression leads to a sparse solution when the tuning parameter is sufficiently large. As the tuning parameter value $\lambda$ is increased, all coefficients are set to zero. Since reducing parameters to zero removes them from the model, Lasso is a good selection tool. Ridge regression penalizes the $l_2$ norm of the model coefficients. It provides greater numerical stability and is easier and faster to compute than Lasso. Ridge regression reduces coefficient values simultaneously as the penalty is increased without however setting any of them to zero.

Variable selection is important in numerous modern applications with many features where the $l_1$ penalty has proven to be successful. Therefore, if the number of variables is large or if the solution is known to be sparse, we recommend using Lasso, which will select a small number of variables for sufficiently high $\lambda$ that could be crucial to the interpretability of the model. The $l_2$ penalty does not have this effect: it shrinks the coefficients, but does not set them exactly to zero.

The two penalties also differ in the presence of correlated predictors. The $l_2$ penalty shrinks coefficients for correlated columns towards each other, while the $l_1$ penalty tends to select only one of them and set the other coefficients to zero. Using the elastic net argument $\alpha$ combines these two behaviors. The elastic net both selects variables and preserves the grouping effect (shrinking coefficients of correlated columns together). Moreover, while the number of predictors that can enter a Lasso model saturates at $\min(N, n)$, where $N$ is the number of observations and $n$ is the number of variables in the model, the elastic net does not have this limitation and can fit models with a larger number of predictors.

1.6 Population risk minimization

Let us come back to our motivating example. When Julie examines her decision process, she observes that her true objective was to design the decision function to predict her judgement about the restaurant “Bamboo Garden”, rather than just fit the historical data she collected. In other words, the problem she intended to solve was not really the one in (1.1.1). Rather, her problem could be better formulated as
where \( u \) and \( v \) are random variables denoting Judy’s and Jim’s ratings, and her own judgement for a restaurant. During the process, she has implicitly assumed that the optimal solution of (1.1.1) will be a good approximate solution to (1.6.1).

In fact, Julie’s intuition can be proved more rigorously. In stochastic optimization, (1.1.1) is called the sample average approximation (SAA) problem of (1.6.1). It can be shown that as \( N \) increases, an optimal solution of (1.1.1) will approximately solve problem (1.6.1). It is worth noting that in machine learning, problems (1.6.1) and (1.1.1) are called population and empirical risk minimization, respectively.

A few problems remain. Firstly, how should we solve problem (1.1.1) efficiently if both the dimension of examples and the sample size \( N \) are very large? Secondly, should we really need to solve the empirical risk minimization problem? Why should not we design an algorithm to solve the population risk minimization problem directly? These are the problems that we will deal with mostly in this book.

### 1.7 Neural networks

In the past few years, deep learning has generated much excitement in machine learning, especially in industry, due to many breakthrough results in speech recognition, computer vision and text processing. For many researchers, deep learning is another name for a set of algorithms that use a neural network as an architecture. Even though neural networks have a long history, they became more successful in recent years due to the availability of inexpensive, parallel hardware (GPUs, computer clusters), massive amounts of data, and the recent development of efficient optimization algorithms, especially those designed for population risk minimization. In this section, we will start with the concept of a linear classifier and use that to develop the concept of neural networks.

Let us continue our discussion about the restaurant example. In the above case, Julie was lucky because the examples are linearly separable which means that she can draw a linear decision function to separate the positive from negative instances. Her friend Jenny has different food tastes. If we plot Jenny’s data, the graph will look rather different (see Figure 1.7). Jenny likes some of the restaurants that Judy and Jim rated poorly. The question is how we can come up with a decision function for Jenny. By looking at the data, the decision function must be more complex than the decision we saw before. Our heuristic approach to solve a complex problem is to decompose it into smaller problems that we can solve. For our particular situation, we know that if we throw away the “weird” examples from the bottom left corner of the figure, then the problem becomes simpler. Similarly, if we throw the “weird” examples on the top right figure, the problem is again also simpler. We solve for each case using our presumed stochastic optimization algorithm and the decision functions look like Figure 1.8.
Is it possible to combine these two decision functions into one final decision function for the original data? Let us suppose, as stated above, that the two decision functions are \( h_1(u; (w_1, w_2), b_1) \) and \( h_2(u; (w_3, w_4), b_2) \). For every example \( u^{(i)} \), we can then compute \( h_1(u^{(i)}; (w_1, w_2), b_1) \) and \( h_2(u^{(i)}; (w_3, w_4), b_2) \). Table 1.3 lays out the data associated with these decision functions.

Table 1.3: Two separate linear decision functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restaurant</th>
<th>Judy’s rating</th>
<th>Jim’s rating</th>
<th>Jenny likes?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Goodfellas</td>
<td>( h_1(u^{(1)}) )</td>
<td>( h_2(u^{(1)}) )</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hakkasan</td>
<td>( h_1(u^{(2)}) )</td>
<td>( h_2(u^{(2)}) )</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamboo Garden</td>
<td>( h_1(u^{(n+1)}) )</td>
<td>( h_2(u^{(n+1)}) )</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now the problem reduces to find a new parameter set to weight these two decision functions to approximate \( v \). Let’s call these parameters \( \omega, c \), and we intend to
find them such that $h((h_1(u), h_2(u)); \omega, c)$ can approximate the label $v$. This can be formulated, again, as a stochastic optimization problem. In summary, we can find the decision function for Jenny by using the following two steps:

a) Partition the data into two sets. Each set can be simply classified by a linear decision. Then use the previous sections to find the decision function for each set,

b) Use the newly-found decision functions and compute the decision values for each example. Then treat these values as input to another decision function. Use stochastic optimization to find the final decision function.

Figure 1.9 provides a graphical way to visualize the above process.

What we have just discussed is a special architecture in machine learning known as “neural networks”. This instance of neural networks has one hidden layer, which has two “neurons”. The first neuron computes values for function $h_1$ and the second neuron computes values for function $h_2$. The sigmoid function that maps real value to bounded values between 0 and 1 is also known as “the nonlinearity” or the “activation function”. Since we are using sigmoid, the activation function is also
called “sigmoid activation function”. There exist many other types of activation functions. The parameters inside the network, such as \( w, \omega \) are called “weights” whereas \( b, c \) are called “biases”. If we have a more complex function to approximate, we may need to have a deeper network, i.e., one with more hidden layers and each layer with more than two neurons.

Let us get back to our problem of finding a good decision function for Jenny. It seems that in the above steps, we cheated a little bit when we divided the dataset into two sets because we looked at the data and decided that the two sets should be partitioned that way. Is there any way that such a step can be automated? It turns out that the natural way is to find the parameters \( \omega, c, w \) and \( b \) all at once on the complex dataset rather than doing the aforementioned two steps sequentially. To see this more clearly, let us write down how we will compute \( h(u) \):

\[
h(u) = g(\omega_1 h_1(u; w_1, w_2, b_1) + \omega_2 h_2(u, w_3, w_4, b_2) + c) \\
= g(\omega_1 g(w_1 u_1 + w_2 u_2 + b_1) + \omega_2 g(w_3 u_1 + w_4 u_2 + b_2) + c).
\]
We will find all these parameters $\omega_1, \omega_2, c, w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, b_1$ and $b_2$ at the same time by solving

$$\min_{\omega_1, \omega_2, c, w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, b_1, b_2} \mathbb{E}_{u,v}[(h(u) - v)^2].$$

This problem turns out to be a nonconvex stochastic optimization problem. The big question remains: how we solve this problem efficiently and whether we can provide any guarantees to our solution procedure?

## 1.8 Exercises and notes

### Exercises.

1. Consider the following loss function for logistic regression:

$$L(\theta) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( 1 + e^{-u^T \theta v} \right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log \left( h_\theta(v^{(i)}u^{(i)}) \right),$$

where $h_\theta(x) = g(\theta^T x)$ and $g(z) = 1/(1 + e^{-z})$. Find the Hessian $H$ for this function and show that $z^T H z \geq 0$ for any vector $z$.

2. Consider the poisson distribution parameterized by $\lambda$:

$$p(v; \lambda) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^v}{v!}.$$ 

Please show that the Poisson distribution is in the exponential family. If you would like to design a generalized linear model, what would be the decision function? How would you formulate the maximum log-likelihood for a given set of training examples $\{(u^{(i)}, v^{(i)})\}$?

3. Let $u$ and $v$ be given and denote $x = (w_1, w_2, b_1, w_3, w_4, b_2, \omega_1, \omega_2, c)$. Also let us denote

$$h(u; x) := g(\omega_1 h_1(u; w_1, w_2, b_1) + \omega_2 h_2(u, w_3, w_4, b_2) + c)$$

$$= g(\omega_1 g(w_1 u_1 + w_2 u_2 + b_1) + \omega_2 g(w_3 u_1 + w_4 u_2 + b_2) + c),$$

where

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-z)}.$$

and define $f(x) = [h(u; x) - v]^2$

a. Compute the Hessian of $f$ and show that $f$ is not necessarily convex.

b. Compute the gradient of $f$ with respect to $x$.

c. Discuss how to evaluate the gradient of $f$ efficiently in computer.

d. Derive the conditions under which the gradients of $f$ are Lipschitz continuous, i.e.,

$$||\nabla f(x_1) - \nabla f(x_2)|| \leq L ||x_1 - x_2||, \forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^9,$$

for some $L > 0$. 

Notes. Further reading on statistical learning models and deep learning architectures can be found in [37] and [9], respectively. Some recent online course materials for machine learning can be found, e.g., on [25].
Many machine learning tasks can be formulated as an optimization problem given in the form of

$$\min_{x \in X} f(x),$$

(2.0.1)

where $f$, $x$ and $X$ denote the objective function, decision variables and feasible set, respectively. Unfortunately, to solve an optimization problem is challenging. In general, we cannot guarantee whether one can find an optimal solution, and if so, how much computational effort one needs. However, it turns out that we can provide such guarantees for a special but broad class optimization problems, namely convex optimization, where $X$ is a convex set and $f$ is a convex function. In fact, many machine learning models we formulated so far, such as least square linear regression, logistic regression, and support vector machine, are convex optimization problems.

Our goal in this chapter is to provide a brief introduction to the basic convex optimization theory, including convex sets, convex functions, strong duality, and KKT conditions etc. We will also briefly discuss some consequences of these theoretic results in machine learning, e.g., the representer theorem, Kernel trick, and dual support vector machine. We include proofs for some important results but the readers can choose to skip them for the first pass through the text.

2.1 Convex sets

2.1.1 Definition and examples

We begin with the definition of the notion of a convex set.

**Definition 2.1.** A set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be convex if it contains all of its segments, that is

$$\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in X, \quad \forall (x, y, \lambda) \in X \times X \times [0, 1].$$


Note that the point $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$ is called a convex combination of $x$ and $y$. Figure 2.1 show the examples of a convex set (left) and a nonconvex set (right).

![Fig. 2.1: Convex vs. nonconvex sets](image-url)

It is easy to check that the following sets are convex.

a) $n$-dimensional Euclidean space, $\mathbb{R}^n$. Given $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we must have $\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

b) Nonnegative orthant, $\mathbb{R}^n_+ := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_i \geq 0, i = 1, \ldots, n\}$. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n_+$ be given. Then for any $\lambda \in [0, 1]$, $(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y)_i = \lambda x_i + (1 - \lambda)y_i \geq 0$.

c) Balls defined by an arbitrary norm, $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | \|x\| \leq 1\}$ (e.g., the $l_2$ norm $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ or $l_1$ norm $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ balls). To show this set is convex, it suffices to apply the Triangular inequality and the positive homogeneity associated with a norm. Suppose that $\|x\| \leq 1$, $\|y\| \leq 1$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. Then $\|\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y\| \leq \|\lambda x\| + \|(1 - \lambda)y\| = \lambda \|x\| + (1 - \lambda)\|y\| \leq 1$.

d) Affine subspace, $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax = b\}$. Suppose $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $Ax = b$ and $Ay = b$. Then $A(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) = \lambda Ax + (1 - \lambda)Ay = b$.

e) Polyhedron, $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | Ax \leq b\}$. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $Ax \leq b$ and $Ay \leq b$, we have $A(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) = \lambda Ax + (1 - \lambda)Ay \leq b$

for any $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.

f) The set of all positive semidefinite matrices $S^n_+$. $S^n_+$ consists of all matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $A = A^T$ and $x^T Ax \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Now consider $A, B \in S^n_+$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. Then we must have $[\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)B]^T = \lambda A^T + (1 - \lambda)B^T = \lambda A + (1 - \lambda)B$.

Moreover, for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T (\lambda A + (1 - \lambda)B)x = \lambda x^T Ax + (1 - \lambda)x^T Bx \geq 0$. 
g) Intersections of convex sets. Let \( X_i, i = 1, \ldots, k \), be convex sets. Assume that \( x, y \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k X_i \), i.e., \( x, y \in X_i \) for all \( i = 1, \ldots, k \). Then for any \( \lambda \in [0, 1] \), we have \( \lambda x + (1 - \lambda) y \in X_i \) by the convexity of \( X_i \), \( i = 1, \ldots, k \), whence \( \lambda x + (1 - \lambda) y \in \bigcap_{i=1}^k X_i \).

h) Weighted sums of convex sets. Let \( X_1, \ldots, X_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be nonempty convex subsets and \( \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k \) be reals. Then the set

\[
\lambda_1 X_1 + \cdots + \lambda_k X_k \\
\equiv \{ x = \lambda_1 x_1 + \cdots + \lambda_k x_k : x_i \in X_i, 1 \leq i \leq k \}
\]

is convex. The proof also follows directly from the definition of convex sets.

### 2.1.2 Projection onto convex sets

In this subsection we define the notion of projection over a convex set, which is important to the theory and computation of convex optimization.

**Definition 2.2.** Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a closed convex set. For any \( y \in \mathbb{R}^n \), we define the closest point to \( y \) in \( X \) as:

\[
\text{Proj}_X(y) = \arg\min_{x \in X} \| y - x \|_2^2.
\]  
(2.1.2)

\( \text{Proj}_X(y) \) is called the projection of \( y \) onto \( X \).

In the above definition, we require the set \( X \) to be closed in order to guarantee the existence of projection. On the other hand, if \( X \) is not closed, then the projection over \( X \) is not well-defined. As an example, the projection of the point \( \{2\} \) onto the interval \((0, 1)\) does not exist. The existence of the projection over a closed convex set is formally stated as follows.

**Proposition 2.1.** Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a closed convex set, and \( y \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be given. Then \( \text{Proj}_X(y) \) must exist.

**Proof.** Let \( \{x_i\} \subseteq X \) be a sequence such that

\[
\| y - x_i \|_2 \to \inf_{x \in X} \| y - x \|_2, \quad i \to \infty.
\]

The sequence \( \{x_i\} \) clearly is bounded. Passing to a subsequence, we may assume that \( x_i \to \bar{x} \) as \( i \to \infty \). Since \( X \) is closed, we have \( \bar{x} \in X \), and

\[
\| y - \bar{x} \|_2 = \lim_{i \to \infty} \| y - x_i \|_2 = \inf_{x \in X} \| y - x \|_2.
\]

The following result further shows that the projection onto a closed convex set \( X \) is unique.
**Proposition 2.2.** Let $X$ be a closed convex set, and $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be given. Then $\text{Proj}_X(y)$ is unique.

**Proof.** Let $a$ and $b$ be two closest to $y$ points in $X$, so that $\|y - a\|_2 = \|y - b\|_2 = d$. Since $X$ is convex, the point $z = (a + b)/2 \in X$. Therefore $\|y - z\|_2 \geq d$. We now have

$$
\frac{\|y - a + (y - b)\|_2^2}{\|y - z\|_2^2} = \frac{\|y - a\|_2^2 + \|y - b\|_2^2}{\|y - z\|_2^2} = \frac{2\|y - a\|_2^2 + 2\|y - b\|_2^2}{4d^2},
$$

whence $\|a - b\|_2 = 0$. Thus, the closest to $y$ point in $X$ is unique. \qed

In many cases when the set $X$ is relatively simple, we can compute $\text{Proj}_X(y)$ explicitly. In fact, in Section 1.4, we computed the distance from a given point $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to a given hyperplane $H := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n| w^T x + b = 0\}$ by using projection. Following the same reasoning (see Figure 2.2.a)), we can write down

$$
\text{Proj}_H(y) = y - \frac{(w^T y + b)w}{\|w\|_2^2}.
$$

As another example, let us consider the projection of $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto the standard Euclidean ball defined as $B := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n|\|x\|_2 \leq 1\}$ (see Figure 2.2.b)). We can easily see that $\text{Proj}_B(y) = \frac{y}{\|y\|_2}$.

Projection over a convex set will be used extensively as a subroutine for solving more complicated optimization problems later in this book.
2.1 Convex sets

2.1.3 Separation theorem

One fundamental result in convex analysis is the Separation Theorem. In this section, we will prove the separation theorem based on the projection onto a closed convex set and discuss some of its consequences.

We first discuss the separation of a point from a closed convex set.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a nonempty closed convex set, and a point $y \notin X$ be given. Then there exists $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $w \neq 0$ such that

$$\langle w, y \rangle < \langle w, x \rangle, \quad \forall x \in X.$$ 

**Proof.** Our proof is based on projecting $y$ onto the set $X$. In particular, let $\text{Proj}_X(y)$ be defined in (2.1.2), we show that the vector $w = y - \text{Proj}_X(y)$ separates $y$ and $X$. Note that $w \neq 0$ since $y \notin X$. Also let $x \in X$ be given and denote $z = tx + (1 - t)\text{Proj}_X(y)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$. Then we must have $z \in X$ and hence

$$\|y - \text{Proj}_X(y)\|_2^2 \leq \|y - z\|_2^2 = \|y - [tx + (1 - t)\text{Proj}_X(y)]\|_2^2,$$

$$= \|y - \text{Proj}_X(y) - t(x - \text{Proj}_X(y))\|_2^2 = \|w - t(x - \text{Proj}_X(y))\|_2^2.$$

Define $\phi(t) := \|y - \text{Proj}_X(y) - t(x - \text{Proj}_X(y))\|_2^2$. It then follows from the above inequality that $\phi(0) \leq \phi(t)$ for any $t \in [0, 1]$. We have

$$0 \leq \phi'(0) = -2w^T(x - \text{Proj}_X(y)),$$

which implies that

$$\forall x \in X : w^T x \leq w^T \text{Proj}_X(y) = w^T (y - w) = w^T y - \|w\|_2^2.$$

We can generalize the above theorem to separate a closed convex set from another compact convex set.

**Corollary 2.1.** Let $X_1, X_2$ be two nonempty closed convex sets and $X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$. If $X_2$ is bounded, there exists $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$\sup_{x \in X_1} w^T x < \sup_{x \in X_2} w^T x. \quad (2.1.3)$$

**Proof.** The set $X_1 - X_2$ is convex (the weighted sum of convex sets) and closed (the difference of a closed with a compact set). Moreover, $X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$ implies $0 \notin X_1 - X_2$. So by Theorem 2.1, there exists $w$ such that

$$\sup_{y \in X_1 - X_2} w^T y < w^T 0 = 0.$$

Or equivalently,
Since $X_2$ is bounded, the last infimum becomes a min. Moreover, it is finite and can be moved to the left-hand side.

When $X_2$ is unbounded, Corollary 2.1 may fail. One possible fix is to replace the strict inequality in (2.1.3) by an inequality. However, this might cause some problems. For example, consider the two line segments \([-1;0),(0,0)\] and \([-1;0),(2,0)\]. The vector $w = (0,1)$ appears to “separate” these two line segments, while apparently they are not separable.

To address this issue, we say that a linear form $w^T x$ properly separates nonempty sets $S$ and $T$ if and only if

$$
\sup_{x \in S} w^T x \leq \inf_{y \in T} w^T y < \sup_{x \in S} w^T x \leq \inf_{y \in T} w^T y.
$$

In this case, the hyperplanes associated with $w$ that separate $S$ and $T$ are exactly the hyperplanes \(\{ x : w^T x = 0 \}\) with $\sup_{x \in S} w^T x \leq b \leq \inf_{y \in T} w^T y$.

The proper separation property holds under quite general assumptions on the intersection $X_1 \cap X_2$. To state this more general result, we need to introduce the notion of relative interior $ri(X)$, defined as the interior of $X$ when we view it as subset of the affine subspace it generates. Without specific mention, we assume that the set $X$ is full dimensional so that $\text{int}(X) = \text{ri}(X)$.

**Theorem 2.2.** If the two nonempty convex sets $X_1$ and $X_2$ satisfy $\text{ri}(X_1) \cap \text{ri}(X_2) = \emptyset$, they can be properly separated.

The above separation theorem can be derived from Theorem 2.1, but requiring us to establish a few technical results. We will first prove the result about the separability of a set in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

**Lemma 2.1.** Every nonempty subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is separable: one can find a sequence $\{x_i\}$ of points from $S$ which is dense in $S$, i.e., is such that every point $x \in S$ is the limit of an appropriate subsequence of the sequence.

**Proof.** Let $r_1, r_2, \ldots$ be the countable set of all rational vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$. For every positive integer $t$, let $X_t \subset S$ be the countable set given by the following construction: we examine, one after another, at the points $r_1, r_2, \ldots$ and for every point $r_i$ check whether there is a point $z \in S$ which is at most at the distance $1/t$ away from $r_i$. If points $z$ with this property exist, we take one of them and add it to $X_t$ and then pass to $r_{s+1}$, otherwise directly pass to $r_{s+1}$. 
2.1 Convex sets

It is clear that every point \( x \in S \) is at the distance at most \( \frac{2}{t} \) from certain point \( x \in X_t \). Indeed, since the rational vectors are dense in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), there exists \( s \) such that \( r_s \) is at the distance \( \leq \frac{1}{t} \) from \( x \). Therefore, when processing \( r_s \), we definitely add to \( X_t \) a point \( z \) which is at the distance \( \leq \frac{1}{t} \) from \( r_s \) and thus is at the distance \( \leq \frac{2}{t} \) from \( x \).

By construction, the countable union \( \bigcup_{t=1}^\infty X_t \) of countable sets \( X_t \subset S \) is a countable set in \( S \), and by the fact that every point \( x \in S \) is at most \( \frac{2}{t} \) from \( X_t \), this set is dense in \( S \).

With the help of Lemma 2.1, we can refine the basic separation result stated in Theorem 2.1 by removing the “closedness” assumption, and using the notion of proper separation.

**Proposition 2.3.** Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a nonempty convex set and \( y \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \notin X \) be given. Then there exists \( w \in \mathbb{R}^n, w \neq 0 \) such that

\[
\sup_{x \in X} w^T x \leq w^T y, \\
\inf_{x \in X} w^T x < w^T y.
\]

**Proof.** First note that we can perform the following simplification.

- Shifting \( X \) and \( \{y\} \) by \( -y \) (which clearly does not affect the possibility of separating the sets), we can assume that \( \{0\} \nsubset X \).
- Replacing, if necessary, \( \mathbb{R}^n \) with \( \text{Lin}(X) \), we may further assume that \( \mathbb{R}^n = \text{Lin}(X) \), i.e., the linear subspace generated by \( X \).

In view of Lemma 2.1, let \( \{x_i \in X\} \) be a sequence which is dense in \( X \). Since \( X \) is convex and does not contain 0, we have

\[
0 \notin \text{Conv}(\{x_1, \ldots, x_i\}) \forall i.
\]

Noting that \( \text{Conv}(\{x_1, \ldots, x_i\}) \) are closed convex sets, we conclude from Theorem 2.1 that

\[
\exists w_i : 0 = w_i^T 0 > \max_{1 \leq j \leq i} w_i^T x_j. \tag{2.1.5}
\]

By scaling, we may assume that \( ||w_i||_2 = 1 \). The sequence \( \{w_i\} \) of unit vectors possesses a converging subsequence \( \{w_{i,s}\}_{s=1}^\infty \) and the limit \( w \) of this subsequence is also a unit vector. By (2.1.5), for every fixed \( j \) and all large enough \( s \) we have \( w_{i,s}^T x_j < 0 \), whence

\[
w^T x_j \leq 0 \forall j. \tag{2.1.6}
\]

Since \( \{x_j\} \) is dense in \( X \), (2.1.6) implies that \( w^T x \leq 0 \) for all \( x \in X \), and hence that

\[
\sup_{x \in X} w^T x \leq 0 = w^T 0. \tag{2.1.7}
\]

Now, it remains to verify that

\[
\inf_{x \in X} w^T x < w^T 0 = 0.
\]
Assuming the opposite, (2.1.7) would imply that $w^T x = 0$ for all $x \in X$, which is impossible, since $\text{Lin}(X) = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $f$ is nonzero.

We can now further show that if two nonempty convex sets (not necessarily bounded or closed) can be properly separated.

**Proposition 2.4.** If the two nonempty convex sets $X_1$ and $X_2$ satisfy $X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$, they can be properly separated.

**Proof.** Let $\tilde{X} = X_1 - X_2$. The set $\tilde{X}$ clearly is convex and does not contain 0 (since $X_1 \cap X_2 = \emptyset$). By Proposition 2.3, $\tilde{X}$ and $\{0\}$ can be separated: there exists $f$ such that

\[
\sup_{x \in X_1} w^T x - \inf_{y \in X_2} w^T y = \sup_{x \in X_1, y \in X_2} [w^T x - w^T y] \leq 0 = \inf_{z \in \{0\}} w^T z,
\]

whence

\[
\sup_{x \in X_1} w^T x \leq \inf_{y \in X_2} w^T y,
\]

\[
\inf_{x \in X_1} w^T x < \sup_{y \in X_2} w^T y.
\]

We are now ready to prove Theorem 2.2, which is even stronger than Proposition 2.4 in the sense that we only need $\text{ri} X_1 \cap \text{ri} X_2 = \emptyset$. In other words, these two sets can possibly intersect on their boundaries.

**Proof of Theorem 2.2.** The sets $X_1' = \text{ri} X_1$ and $X_2' = \text{ri} X_2$ are convex and nonempty, and these sets do not intersect. By Proposition 2.4, $X_1'$ and $X_2'$ can be separated: for properly chosen $w$, one has

\[
\sup_{x \in X_1'} w^T x \leq \inf_{y \in X_2'} w^T y,
\]

\[
\inf_{x \in X_1'} w^T x < \sup_{y \in X_2'} w^T y.
\]

Since $X_1'$ is dense in $X_1$ and $X_2'$ is dense in $X_2$, inf’s and sup’s in the above relations remain the same when replacing $X_1'$ with $X_1$ and $X_2'$ with $X_2$. Thus, $w$ separates $X_1$ and $X_2$.

In fact, we can show the reverse statement of Theorem 2.2 also holds.

**Theorem 2.3.** If the two nonempty convex sets $X_1$ and $X_2$ can be properly separated, then $\text{ri}(X_1) \cap \text{ri}(X_2) = \emptyset$.

**Proof.** We will first need to prove the following claim.

**Claim.** Let $X$ be a convex set, $f(x) = w^T x$ be a linear form and $a \in \text{ri} X$. Then

\[
w^T a = \max_{x \in X} w^T x \iff f(x) = \text{const} \forall x \in X.
\]

Indeed, shifting $X$, we may assume $a = 0$. Let, on the contrary to what should be
proved, \( w^T x \) be non-constant on \( X \), so that there exists \( y \in X \) with \( w^T y \neq w^T a = 0 \). The case of \( w^T y > 0 \) is impossible, since \( w^T a = 0 \) is the maximum of \( w^T x \) on \( X \). Thus, \( w^T y < 0 \). The line \( \{ty : t \in \mathbb{R}\} \) passing through 0 and through \( y \) belongs to \( \text{Aff}(X) \); since \( 0 \in \text{ri}X \), all points \( z = -\varepsilon y \) on this line belong to \( X \), provided that \( \varepsilon > 0 \) is small enough. At every point of this type, \( w^T z > 0 \), which contradicts the fact that \( \max_{x \in X} w^T x = w^T a = 0 \).

Now let us use the above claim to prove our main result. Let \( a \in \text{ri}X_1 \cap \text{ri}X_2 \).

Assume, on contrary to what should be proved, that \( w^T x \) separates \( X_1, X_2 \), so that
\[
\sup_{x \in X_1} w^T x \leq \inf_{y \in X_2} w^T y.
\]
Since \( a \in X_2 \), we get \( w^T a \geq \sup_{x \in X_1} w^T x \), that is, \( w^T a = \max_{x \in X_1} w^T x \). By the above claim, \( w^T x = w^T a \) for all \( x \in X_1 \). Moreover, since \( a \in X_1 \), we get \( w^T a \leq \inf_{y \in X_2} w^T y \), that is, \( w^T a = \min_{y \in X_2} w^T y \). By the above claim, \( w^T y = w^T a \) for all \( y \in X_2 \). Thus,
\[
z \in X_1 \cup X_2 \Rightarrow w^T z \equiv w^T a,
\]
so that \( w \) does not properly separate \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \), which is a contradiction. \( \blacksquare \)

As a consequence of Theorem 2.2, we have the following supporting hyperplane theorem.

**Corollary 2.2.** Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a convex set, and \( y \) be a point from its relative boundary. Then there exists \( w \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( w \neq 0 \) such that
\[
\langle w, y \rangle \geq \sup_{x \in X} \langle w, x \rangle, \text{ and } \langle w, y \rangle > \inf_{x \in X} \langle w, x \rangle.
\]
The hyperplane \( \{x | \langle w, x \rangle = \langle w, y \rangle \} \) is called a supporting hyperplane of \( X \) at \( y \).

**Proof.** Since \( y \) is a point from the relative boundary of \( X \), it is outside the relative interior of \( X \) and therefore \( \{x \} \) and \( \text{ri}X \) can be separated by the Separation Theorem. The separating hyperplane is exactly the desired supporting to \( X \) at \( y \) hyperplane. \( \blacksquare \)

### 2.2 Convex functions

#### 2.2.1 Definition and examples

Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a given convex set. A function \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is said to be convex if it always lies below its chords, that is
\[
f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1-\lambda)f(y), \quad \forall (x,y,\lambda) \in X \times X \times [0,1]. \tag{2.2.8}
\]
We say a function is strictly convex if (2.2.8) holds with strict inequality for any \( x \neq y \) and \( \lambda \in (0, 1) \). We say that \( f \) is concave if \(-f\) is convex, and similarly that \( f \) is strictly concave if \(-f\) is strictly concave.

Some examples of convex functions are given as follows.

a) Exponential, \( f(x) = \exp(ax) \) for any \( a \in \mathbb{R} \).

b) Negative logarithm, \( f(x) = -\log x \) with \( x > 0 \).

c) Affine functions, \( f(x) = w^T x + b \).

d) Quadratic functions, \( f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x + b^T x \) with \( A \succeq 0 \) (positive semidefinite).

e) Norms, \( f(x) = \|x\| \).

f) Nonnegative weighted sums of convex functions. Let \( f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_k \) be convex functions and \( w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_k \) be nonnegative real numbers. Then \( f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i f_i(x) \) is a convex function.

2.2.2 Differentiable convex functions

Suppose that a function \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is differentiable over its domain. Then \( f \) is convex if and only if

\[
f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle
\]

for any \( x, y \in X \), where \( \nabla f \) denotes the gradients of \( f \). The function \( f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle \) is the first-order Taylor approximation of \( f \) at the point \( x \). The above first-order condition for convexity says that \( f \) is convex if and only if the tangent line underestimates \( f \) everywhere in its domain. Similar to the definition of convexity, \( f \) will be strictly convex if this condition holds with strict inequality, concave if the inequality is reversed, and strictly concave if the reverse inequality is strict.

Suppose that a function \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is twice differentiable. Then \( f \) is convex if and only its Hessian is positive semidefinite, i.e.,

\[
\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0.
\]

In one dimension, this is equivalent to the condition that the second-order derivative \( f''(x) \) is non-negative. Again analogous to both the definition and the first-order conditions for convexity, \( f \) is strictly convex if its Hessian is positive definite, concave
if the Hessian is negative semidefinite, and strictly concave if the Hessian is negative
definite. The function \( f \) is said to be strongly convex modulus \( \mu \) with respect to the
norm \( \| \cdot \| \) if
\[
f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle g, y-x \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} \| y-x \|^2
\]
for some \( \mu > 0 \). Clearly, strong convexity implies strict convexity.

### 2.2.3 Non-differentiable convex functions

Note that convex functions are not always differentiable everywhere over its domain.
For example, the absolute value function \( f(x) = |x| \) is not differentiable when \( x = 0 \).
In this subsection, we will introduce an important notion about convex functions, i.e.,
subgradients, to generalize the gradients for differentiable convex functions.

**Definition 2.3.** \( g \in \mathbb{R}^n \) is a subgradient of \( f \) at \( x \in X \) if for any \( y \in X \)
\[
f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle g, y-x \rangle.
\]
The set of subgradients of \( f \) at \( x \) is called the subdifferential, denoted by \( \partial f(x) \).

In order to show the existence of the subgradients for a convex function, we need
to use the epigraph of a function \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) given by
\[
epi(f) = \{(x,t) \in X \times \mathbb{R} : f(x) \leq t \}.
\]
It can be easily shown that \( f \) is convex if and only if \( \text{epi}(f) \) is a convex set.

The next result establishes the existence of subgradients for convex functions.

**Proposition 2.5.** Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be convex and \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \). If \( \forall x \in X, \partial f(x) \neq \emptyset \) then \( f \)
is convex. Moreover, if \( f \) is convex then for any \( x \in \text{ri}(X) \), \( \partial f(x) \neq \emptyset \).

**Proof.** The first claim is obvious. Let \( g \in \partial f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) \). Then by definition
we have
\[
\begin{align*}
f(y) & \geq f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) + \lambda \langle g, y-x \rangle, \\
f(x) & \geq f(\lambda x + (1-\lambda)y) + (1-\lambda) \langle g, x-y \rangle.
\end{align*}
\]

Multiplying the first inequality by \( 1-\lambda \) and the second one by \( \lambda \), and then summing
them up, we show the convexity of \( f \).

We now show that \( f \) has subgradients in the interior of \( X \). We will construct such
a subgradient by using a supporting hyperplane to the epigraph of \( f \). Let \( x \in X \). Then
\( (x, f(x)) \in \text{epi}(f) \). By the convexity of \( \text{epi}(f) \) and the separating hyperplane theorem,
there exists \( (w,v) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \) such that
\[
(w,x) + vf(x) \geq (w,y) + vt, \quad \forall (y,t) \in \text{epi}(f). \tag{2.2.9}
\]
Clearly, by tending \( t \) to infinity, we can see that \( v \leq 0 \). Now let us assume that \( x \) is in the interior of \( X \). Then for \( \varepsilon > 0 \) small enough, \( y = x + \varepsilon w \in X \), which implies that \( v \neq 0 \), since otherwise, we have \( 0 \geq \varepsilon \|w\|_2^2 \) and hence \( w = 0 \), contradicting with the fact that \((w, v) \neq 0\). Letting \( t = f(y) \) in (2.2.9), we obtain 

\[
f(y) \geq f(x) + \frac{1}{v}(w, y - x),
\]

which implies that \( w/v \) is a subgradient of \( f \) at \( x \).

Let \( f \) be a convex and differentiable function. Then by definition,

\[
f(y) \geq \frac{1}{\lambda} [f((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) - (1 - \lambda)f(x)]
= f(x) + \frac{1}{\lambda} [f((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) - f(x)].
\]

Tending \( \lambda \) to 0, we show that \( \nabla f(x) \in \partial f(x) \).

Below we provide some basic subgradient calculus for convex functions. Observe that many of them mimic the calculus for gradient computation.

a) Scaling: \( \partial (af) = a \partial f \) provided \( a > 0 \). The condition \( a > 0 \) makes function \( f \) remain convex.

b) Addition: \( \partial (f_1 + f_2) = \partial (f_1) + \partial (f_2) \).

c) Affine composition: if \( g(x) = f(Ax + b) \), then \( \partial g(x) = A^T \partial f(Ax + b) \).

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

\[
\partial f(x) = \text{conv} \left\{ \bigcup_{i : f_i(x) = f(x)} \partial f_i(x) \right\},
\]

which is the convex hull of union of subdifferentials of all active \( i : f_i(x) = f(x) \) functions at \( x \).

e) General pointwise maximum: if \( f(x) = \max_{s \in S} f_s(x) \), then under some regularity conditions (on \( S \) and \( f_s \)),

\[
\partial f(x) = \text{cl} \left\{ \text{conv} \left\{ \bigcup_{s : f_s(x) = f(x)} \partial f_s(x) \right\} \right\}.
\]

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

\[
\partial f(x) = \{ y : \|y\|_q \leq 1 \text{ and } y^T x = \max \{ z^T x : \|z\|_q \leq 1 \} \}.
\]

Other notions of convex analysis will prove to be useful. In particular the notion of closed convex functions is convenient to exclude pathological cases: these are convex functions with closed epigraphs (see Section 2.4 for more details).

### 2.2.4 Lipschitz continuity of convex functions

Our goal in this section is to show that convex functions are Lipschitz continuous inside the interior of its domain.
We will first show that a convex function is locally bounded.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let \( f \) be convex and \( x_0 \in \text{int dom} f \). Then \( f \) is locally bounded, i.e., \( \exists \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( M(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \) such that

\[
f(x) \leq M(x_0, \varepsilon) \forall x \in B_\varepsilon(x_0) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\|_2 \leq \varepsilon \}.
\]

**Proof.** Since \( x_0 \in \text{int dom} f, \exists \varepsilon > 0 \) such that the vectors \( x_0 + \varepsilon e_i \in \text{int dom} f \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, n \), where \( e_i \) denotes the unit vector along coordinate \( i \). Also let \( H_\varepsilon(x_0) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\|_\infty \leq \varepsilon \} \) denote the hypercube formed by the vectors \( x_0 + \varepsilon e_i \). It can be easily seen that \( B_\varepsilon(x_0) \subseteq H_\varepsilon(x_0) \) and hence that

\[
\max_{x \in B_\varepsilon(x_0)} f(x) \leq \max_{x \in H_\varepsilon(x_0)} f(x) \leq \max_{i=1,\ldots,n} f(x_0 + \varepsilon e_i) =: M(x_0, \varepsilon).
\]

Next we show that \( f \) is locally Lipschitz continuous.

**Lemma 2.3.** Let \( f \) be convex and \( x_0 \in \text{int dom} f \). Then \( f \) is locally Lipschitz, i.e., \( \exists \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( M(x_0, \varepsilon) > 0 \) such that

\[
|f(y) - f(x_0)| \leq M(x_0, \varepsilon)\|x - y\|, \forall y \in B_\varepsilon(x_0) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x - x_0\|_2 \leq \varepsilon \}.
\]

**Proof.** We assume that \( y \neq x_0 \) (otherwise, the result is obvious). Let \( \alpha = \|y - x_0\|_2 / \varepsilon \). We extend the line segment connecting \( x_0 \) and \( y \) so that it intersects the ball \( B_\varepsilon(x_0) \), and then obtain two intersection points \( z \) and \( u \) (see Figure 2.4). It can be easily seen that

\[
y = (1 - \alpha)x_0 + \alpha z,
\]

(2.2.11)

\[
x_0 = [y + \alpha u] / (1 + \alpha).
\]

(2.2.12)

It then follows from the convexity of \( f \) and (2.2.11) that

\[
f(y) - f(x_0) \leq \alpha(f(z) - f(x_0)) = \frac{f(z) - f(x_0)}{\varepsilon} \|y - x_0\|_2 \\
\leq \frac{M(x_0, \varepsilon) - f(x_0)}{\varepsilon} \|y - x_0\|_2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from Lemma 2.2. Similarly, by the convexity \( f \), (2.2.11) and Lemma 2.2, we have

\[
f(x_0) - f(y) \leq \|y - x_0\|_2 \frac{M(x_0, \varepsilon) - f(x_0)}{\varepsilon}.
\]

Combining the previous two inequalities, we show \( (2.2.10) \) holds with \( \bar{M}(x_0, \varepsilon) = [M(x_0, \varepsilon) - f(x_0)] / \varepsilon \).

The following simple result shows the relation between the Lipschitz continuity of \( f \) and the boundedness of subgradients.

**Lemma 2.4.** The following statements hold for a convex function \( f \).
a) If \( x_0 \in \text{int \, dom \, f} \) and \( f \) is locally Lipschitz (i.e., (2.2.10) holds), then \( \|g(x_0)\| \leq \bar{M}_e(x_0) \) for any \( g(x_0) \in \partial f(x_0) \).

b) If \( \exists g(x_0) \in \partial f(x_0) \) and \( \|g(x_0)\|_2 \leq \bar{M}_e(x_0) \), then \( f(x_0) - f(y) \leq \bar{M}_e(x_0)\|x_0 - y\|_2 \).

**Proof.** We first show part a). Let \( y = x_0 + \varepsilon \frac{g(x_0)}{\|g(x_0)\|_2} \). By the convexity of \( f \) and (2.2.10), we have

\[
\varepsilon \|g(x_0)\|_2 = \langle g(x_0), y - x_0 \rangle \leq f(y) - f(x_0) \leq \bar{M}_e(x_0)\|y - x_0\|_2 = \varepsilon \bar{M}_e(x_0),
\]

which implies part a). Part b) simply follows the convexity of \( f \), i.e.,

\[
f(x_0) - f(y) \leq \langle f'(x_0), x_0 - y \rangle \leq \bar{M}_e(x_0)\|x_0 - y\|_2.
\]

Below we state the global Lipschitz continuity of a convex function in its interior of domain.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let \( f \) be a convex function and let \( K \) be a closed and bounded set contained in the relative interior of the domain \( \text{dom} \, f \) of \( f \). Then \( f \) is Lipschitz continuous on \( K \), i.e., there exists constant \( M \) such that

\[
|f(x) - f(y)| \leq M_k \|x - y\|_2 \quad \forall x, y \in K.
\]

**Proof.** The result directly follows from the local Lipschitz continuity of a convex function (see Lemmas 2.3 and 2.4) and the boundedness of \( K \).

**Remark 2.1.** All three assumptions on \( K \), i.e., (a) closedness, (b) boundedness, and (c) \( K \subset \text{ridom} \, f \) – are essential, as it is seen from the following three examples:

- \( f(x) = 1/x, \text{dom} \, f = (0, +\infty), K = (0, 1] \). We have (b), (c) but not (a); \( f \) is neither bounded, nor Lipschitz continuous on \( K \).
- \( f(x) = x^2, \text{dom} \, f = \mathbb{R}, K = \mathbb{R} \). We have (a), (c) and not (b); \( f \) is neither bounded nor Lipschitz continuous on \( K \).
2.2 Convex functions

- \( f(x) = -\sqrt{x}, \text{ dom } f = [0, +\infty), K = [0, 1] \). We have (a), (b) and not (c); \( f \) is not Lipschitz continuous on \( K \) although is bounded. Indeed, we have \( \lim_{t \to +0} \frac{f(0)-f(t)}{t} = \lim_{t \to +0} t^{-1/2} = +\infty \), while for a Lipschitz continuous \( f \) the ratios \( t^{-1}(f(0) - f(t)) \) should be bounded.

2.2.5 Optimality conditions for convex optimization

The following results state the basic optimality conditions for convex optimization.

**Proposition 2.6.** Let \( f \) be convex. If \( x \) is a local minimum of \( f \) then \( x \) is a global minimum of \( f \). Furthermore this happens if and only if \( 0 \in \partial f(x) \).

**Proof.** It can be easily seen that \( 0 \in \partial f(x) \) if and only if \( x \) is a global minimum of \( f \). Now assume that \( x \) is a local minimum of \( f \). Then for \( \lambda > 0 \) small enough one has for any \( y \),

\[
\begin{align*}
    f(x) \leq f(\lambda x) + \lambda y) \leq (1 - \lambda) f(x) + \lambda f(y),
\end{align*}
\]

which implies that \( f(x) \leq f(y) \) and thus that \( x \) is a global minimum of \( f \).

The above result can be easily generalized to the constrained case. Given a convex set \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) and a convex function \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \), we intend to

\[
\min_{x \in X} f(x).
\]

We first define the indicator function of the convex set \( X \), i.e.,

\[
I_X(x) := \begin{cases} 
    0, & x \in X, \\
    \infty, & \text{Otherwise.}
\end{cases}
\]

By definition of subgradients, we can see that the subdifferential of \( I_X \) is given by the normal cone of \( X \), i.e.,

\[
\partial I_X(x) = \{ w \in \mathbb{R}^n | \langle w, y-x \rangle \leq 0, \forall y \in X \}. \tag{2.2.14}
\]

**Proposition 2.7.** Let \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) be a convex function and \( X \) be a convex set. Then \( x^* \) is an optimal solution of \( \min_{x \in X} f(x) \) if and only if there exists \( g^* \in \partial f(x^*) \) such that

\[
\langle g^*, y-x^* \rangle \geq 0, \forall y \in X.
\]

**Proof.** Clearly the problem is equivalent to \( \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) + I_X(x) \), where the \( I_X \) denotes the indicator function of \( X \). The results then immediately follows from (2.2.14) and Proposition 2.6.

In particular, if \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \), then we must have \( 0 \in \partial f(x) \), which reduces to the case in Proposition 2.6.
2.2.6 Representer theorem and Kernel

In this subsection, we introduce a very important application of the optimality condition for convex optimization in machine learning.

Recall that many supervised machine learning models can be written in the following form:

$$f^* := \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} L(x^T u_i, v_i) + \lambda r(x) \right\}, \tag{2.2.15}$$

for some $\lambda \geq 0$. For the sake of simplicity we assume that $r(x) = \|x\|_2^2 / 2$. It turns out that under these assumptions, we can always write the solutions to problem (2.2.15) as a linear combination of the input variables $u_i$’s as shown in the following statement.

**Theorem 2.5.** The optimal solution of (2.2.15) with $r(x) = \|x\|_2^2 / 2$ can be written as

$$x^* = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i u^{(i)}$$

for some real-valued weights $\alpha_i$.

**Proof.** Let $L'(z, v)$ denote a subgradient of $L$ w.r.t. $z$. Then by the chain rule of subgradient computation, the subgradients of $f$ can be written in the form of

$$f'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} L'(x^T u^{(i)}) u^{(i)} + \lambda x.$$

Noting that $0 \in \partial f(x^*)$ and letting $w_i = L'(x^T u^{(i)})$, there must exist $w_i$’s such that

$$x = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i u^{(i)}.$$

The result then follows by setting $\alpha_i = -1/(\lambda w_i)$. \hfill \blacksquare

This result has some important consequence in machine learning. For any inner product of $\theta^T u$ in machine learning models, we can replace it with

$$\theta^T u = u^T \theta = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i (u^{(i)})^T u^{(i)},$$

and then view these $\alpha_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, N$, as unknown variables (or parameters).

More generally, we may consider a nonlinear transformation of our original input variables $u$. Recall in our regression example in Chapter 1, we have an input variable $u$, i.e., the rating of a friend (say Judy), and we can consider regression using the features $u$, $u^2$ and $u^3$ to obtain a cubic function. We can use $\phi(u)$ to define such a nonlinear mapping from the original input to a new feature space.

Rather than learning the parameters associated with the original input variables $u$, we may instead learn using these expanded features $\phi(u)$. To do so, we simply need to go over our previous models, and replace $u$ everywhere in it with $\phi(u)$.

Since the model can be written entirely in terms of the inner products $\langle u, z \rangle$, we can replace all those inner products with $\langle \phi(u), \phi(z) \rangle$. Given a feature mapping $\phi$, let us define the so-called kernel
2.3 Lagrange duality

\[ K(u, z) = \phi(u)^T \phi(z). \]

Then, we replace everywhere we previously had \( (u, z) \) with \( K(u, z) \). In particular, we can write the new objective function as

\[
\Phi(\alpha) = f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} N L(u^T u(i), v(i)) + \frac{1}{2} \|x\|_2^2
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{N} L \left( \phi(u(i))^T \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_j \phi(u(j)), v_i \right) + \frac{1}{2} \left\| \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_j \phi(u(j)) \right\|_2^2
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{N} L \left( \phi(u(i))^T \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_j \phi(u(j)), v_i \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j \phi(u(i))^T \phi(u(j))
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_i \alpha_j K(u(i), u(j)).
\]

In this way, we can write the objective function in terms of the Kernel matrix

\[
K = \{ K(u(i), u(j)) \}_{i,j=1}^{N}.
\]

Even more interestingly, in many cases, we do not need to compute the nonlinear mapping \( \phi(u) \) explicitly for every \( u \), since the Kernel might be easier to compute than \( \phi \). One commonly used Kernel is the Gaussian or Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel given by

\[
K(u, z) = \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2 \tau^2} \| u - z \|_2^2 \right)
\]

applicable to data in any dimension and the other one is the the min-kernel given by \( K(x, z) = \min(x, z) \) applicable to data in \( \mathbb{R} \).

2.3 Lagrange duality

In this section, we consider differentiable convex optimization problems of the form

\[
f^* \equiv \min_{x \in X} f(x)
\]

\[
\text{s.t. } g_i(x) \leq 0, i = 1, \ldots, m,
\]

\[
h_j(x) = 0, j = 1, \ldots, p,
\]

where \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a closed convex set, \( f: X \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( g_i: X \to \mathbb{R} \) are differentiable convex functions, and \( h_j: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \) are affine functions. Our goal is to introduce Lagrange duality and a few optimality conditions for these convex optimization problems with functional constraints.
2.3.1 Lagrange function and duality

We define the Lagrangian function $L$ for (2.3.16) as

$$L(x, \lambda, y) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i g_i(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{p} y_j h_j(x),$$

for some $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, and $y_j \in \mathbb{R}$, $j = 1, \ldots, p$. These $\lambda_i$'s and $y_j$'s are called dual variables or Lagrange multipliers.

Intuitively, the Lagrangian function $L$ can be viewed as a relaxed version of the objective function in the original problem (2.3.16) by allowing violation of the constraints ($h_i(x) \leq 0$ and $g_j(x) = 0$).

Let us consider the minimization of the $L(x, \lambda, y)$ w.r.t. $x$. Suppose that $\lambda \geq 0$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^p$ are given. Let us define

$$\phi(\lambda, y) := \min_{x \in X} L(x, \lambda, y).$$

Clearly, for any feasible point $x$ to (2.3.16) (i.e., $x \in X$, $g_i(x) \leq 0$, and $h_j(x) = 0$), we have

$$L(x, \lambda, y) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i g_i(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{p} y_j h_j(x) = f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i g_i(x) \leq f(x).$$

In particular, letting $x = x^*$ be the optimal solution of (2.3.16), we must have

$$\phi(\lambda, y) \leq f^*.$$

In other words, $\phi(\lambda, y)$ gives us a lower bound on the optimal value $f^*$. In order to obtain the strongest lower bound, we intend to maximize $\phi(\lambda, y)$ w.r.t. $\lambda \geq 0$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^p$, and thus define the Lagrange dual as

$$\phi^* \equiv \max_{\lambda \geq 0, y} \left\{ \phi(\lambda, y) := \min_{x \in X} L(x, \lambda, y) \right\}. \tag{2.3.17}$$

By construction, we must have

$$\phi^* \leq f^*.$$

This relation is the so-called weak duality. What is more interesting is that under certain conditions, we have $\phi^* = f^*$ as stated in Theorem 2.6. The proof of this result, however, is more involved. Hence, we provide this proof separately in Subsection 2.3.2.

**Theorem 2.6.** Suppose that (2.3.16) is below bounded and that there exists $\bar{x} \in \text{int} X$ s.t. $g(\bar{x}) < 0$ and $h(\bar{x}) = 0$. Then the Lagrange dual is solvable and we must have

$$\phi^* = f^*.$$
2.3 Lagrange duality

The above theorem says that as long as the primal problem (2.3.16) has a strictly feasible solution (called Slater condition), the optimal value for the Lagrange dual must be equal to the optimal value of the primal. This result is called strong duality. In practice, nearly all convex problems satisfy this type of constraint qualification, and hence the primal and dual problems have the same optimal value.

2.3.2 Proof of strong duality

In this subsection, we provide a proof for the strong duality for convex optimization. The proof follows from the separation theorem and the consequent convex theorem on alternatives. For the sake of simplicity, we focus on the case when there exist only nonlinear inequality constraints. The readers can easily adapt the proof to the case when affine constraints do exist, or even further refine the results if there only exist affine constraints.

Before proving Theorem 2.6, we will first establish the Convex Theorem on Alternative (CTA). Consider a system of constraints on \( x \)

\[
\begin{align*}
  f(x) &< c, \\
  g_j(x) &\leq 0, ~ j = 1, ..., m, \\
  x &\in X,
\end{align*}
\]

(\text{I})

along with system of constraints on \( \lambda \):

\[
\begin{align*}
  \inf_{x \in X} [f(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_j g_j(x)] &\geq c, \\
  \lambda_j &\geq 0, ~ j = 1, ..., m.
\end{align*}
\]

(\text{II})

We first discuss the trivial part of the CTA.

**Proposition 2.8.** If (II) is solvable, then (I) is insolvable.

What is more interesting is that the reverse statement is also true under the slater condition.

**Proposition 2.9.** If (I) is insolvable and the subsystem

\[
\begin{align*}
  g_j(x) &< 0, ~ j = 1, ..., m, \\
  x &\in X
\end{align*}
\]

is solvable, then (II) is solvable.

**Proof.** Assume that (I) has no solutions. Consider two sets \( S \) and \( T \) in \( \mathbb{R}^{m+1} \):

\[
\begin{align*}
  S := \{ u \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1} : u_0 < c, u_1 \leq 0, ..., u_m \leq 0 \}, \\
  T := \left\{ u \in \mathbb{R}^{m+1} : \exists x \in X : \begin{array}{c}
    f(x) \leq u_0 \\
    g_1(x) \leq u_1 \\
    \ldots \\
    g_m(x) \leq u_m
  \end{array} \right\}.
\end{align*}
\]
First observe that $S$ and $T$ are nonempty convex sets. Moreover, $S$ and $T$ do not intersect (otherwise $(I)$ would have a solution). By Theorem 2.2, $S$ and $T$ can be separated: \( \exists (a_0, \ldots, a_m) \neq 0 \) such that
\[
\inf_{u \in T} a^T u \geq \sup_{u \in S} a^T u
\]
or equivalently,
\[
\inf_{x \in X} \left[ a_0 u_0 + a_1 u_1 + \ldots + a_m u_m \right] \geq \sup_{u_0 < c} \left[ a_0 u_0 + a_1 u_1 + \ldots + a_m u_m \right].
\]

In order to bound the RHS, we must have $a \geq 0$, whence
\[
\inf_{x \in X} \left[ a_0 f(x) + a_1 g_1(x) + \ldots + a_m g_m(x) \right] \geq a_0 c. \quad (2.3.18)
\]

Finally, we observe that $a_0 > 0$. Indeed, otherwise $0 \neq (a_1, \ldots, a_m) \geq 0$ and
\[
\inf_{x \in X} \left[ a_1 g_1(x) + \ldots + a_m g_m(x) \right] \geq 0,
\]
while $\exists \bar{x} \in X : g_j(\bar{x}) < 0$ for all $j$. Now, dividing both sides of (2.3.18) by $a_0$, we have
\[
\inf_{x \in X} \left[ f(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left( \frac{a_j}{a_0} \right) g_j(x) \right] \geq c.
\]

By setting $\lambda_j = a_j / a_0$ we obtain the result. \( \blacksquare \)

We are now ready to prove the strong duality.

**Proof of Theorem 2.6.** The system
\[
f(x) < f^*, \ g_j(x) \leq 0, \ j = 1, \ldots, m, \ x \in X
\]
has no solutions, while the system
\[
g_j(x) < 0, \ j = 1, \ldots, m, \ x \in X
\]
has a solution. By CTA,
\[
\exists \lambda^* \geq 0 : f(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_j^* g_j(x) \geq f^* \ \forall x \in X,
\]
whence
\[
\phi(\lambda^*) \geq f^*.
\]

Combined with Weak Duality, the above inequality says that
\[
f^* = \phi(\lambda^*) = \phi^*.
\]
2.3 Lagrange duality

2.3.3 Saddle points

Now let us examine some interesting consequences of strong duality. In particular, we can derive a few optimality conditions for convex optimization in order to check whether an \( x^* \in X \) is optimal to (2.3.16) or not.

The first one is given in the form of a pair of saddle points.

**Theorem 2.7.** Let \( x^* \in X \) be given.

a) If \( x^* \) can be extended, by a \( \lambda^* \geq 0 \) and \( y^* \in \mathbb{R}^p \), to a saddle point of the Lagrange function on \( X \times \{ \lambda \geq 0 \} \):

\[
L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda, y) \ \forall (x \in X, \lambda \geq 0, y \in \mathbb{R}^p),
\]

then \( x^* \) is optimal for (2.3.16).

b) If \( x^* \) is optimal for (2.3.16) which is convex and satisfies the Slater condition, then \( x^* \) can be extended, by a \( \lambda^* \geq 0 \) and \( y^* \in \mathbb{R}^p \), to a saddle point of the Lagrange function on \( X \times \{ \lambda \geq 0 \} \times \mathbb{R}^p \).

**Proof.** We first prove part a). Clearly,

\[
\sup_{\lambda \geq 0, y} L(x^*, \lambda, y) = \begin{cases} +\infty, & x^* \text{ is infeasible} \\ f(x^*), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
\]

Thus, \( \lambda^* \geq 0, L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda, y) \ \forall \lambda \geq 0 \ \forall y \) is equivalent to

\[
g_j(x^*) \leq 0 \ \forall j, \lambda^*_i g_i(x^*) = 0 \ \forall i, h_j(x^*) = 0 \ \forall j.
\]

Consequently, \( L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) = f(x^*) \), hence

\[
L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \ \forall x \in X
\]

reduces to

\[
L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq f(x^*) \ \forall x.
\]

Since for \( \lambda \geq 0 \) and \( y \), one has \( f(x) \geq L(x, \lambda, y) \) for all feasible \( x \), the above inequality then implies that

\[
x \text{ is feasible } \Rightarrow f(x) \geq f(x^*).
\]

We now show part b). By Lagrange Duality, \( \exists \lambda^* \geq 0, y^* : \)

\[
f(x^*) = \phi(\lambda^*, y^*) \equiv \inf_{x \in X} \left[ f(x) + \sum \lambda^*_i g_i(x) + \sum y^*_j h_j(x) \right]. \quad (2.3.19)
\]

Since \( x^* \) is feasible, we have
We are now ready to derive the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) optimality conditions where the last inequality follows from the definition of \( L \) (2.3.19) reads
\[
L(x^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \forall \lambda \geq 0, \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^p,
\]
where the last inequality follows from the definition of \( L \) (or weak duality). Now (2.3.19) reads \( L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq f(x^*) = L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \).

2.3.4 Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions

We are now ready to derive the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) optimality conditions for convex programming.

Theorem 2.8. Let (2.3.16) be a convex program, let \( x^* \) be its feasible solution, and let the functions \( f, g_1, \ldots, g_m \) be differentiable at \( x^* \). Then

a) Exist Lagrange multipliers \( \lambda^* \geq 0 \) and \( y^* \) such that

\[
\nabla f(x^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* \nabla g_i(x^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p y_j^* \nabla h_j(x^*) \in N_x^*(x^*)
\]

\[
\lambda_i^* g_i(x^*) = 0, \quad i \leq m \quad \text{[complementary slackness]}
\]

\[
h_j(x^*) = 0, \quad j \leq p
\]

is sufficient for \( x^* \) to be optimal.

b) If (2.3.16) satisfies restricted Slater condition: \( \exists \bar{x} \in \text{rint } X : g_i(\bar{x}) \leq 0, h_j(\bar{x}) = 0 \) for all constraints and \( g_j(\bar{x}) < 0 \) for all nonlinear constraints, then the KKT is necessary and sufficient for \( x^* \) to be optimal.

Proof. We first prove part a). Indeed, complementary slackness plus \( \lambda^* \geq 0 \) ensure that

\[
L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda, y) \quad \forall \lambda \geq 0, \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^p.
\]

Further, \( L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \) is convex in \( x \in X \) and differentiable at \( x^* \in X \), so that (a) implies that

\[
L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \geq L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

Thus, \( x^* \) can be extended to a saddle point of the Lagrange function and therefore is optimal for (2.3.16).

We now show that part b) holds. By Saddle Point Optimality condition, from optimality of \( x^* \) it follows that \( \exists \lambda^* \geq 0 \) and \( y^* \in \mathbb{R}^p \) such that \( (x^*, \lambda^*, y^*) \) is a saddle point of \( L(x, \lambda, y) \) on \( X \times \{ \lambda \geq 0 \} \times \mathbb{R}^p \). This is equivalent to \( h_j(x^*) = 0 \),

\[
\lambda_i^* g_i(x^*) = 0 \quad \forall i,
\]

and
2.3 Lagrange duality

\[
\min_{x \in X} L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) = L(x^*, \lambda^*, y^*).
\]

Since the function \( L(x, \lambda^*, y^*) \) is convex in \( x \in X \) and differentiable at \( x^* \in X \), the last identity implies a).

Let us look at one example.

**Example 2.1.** Assuming \( a_i > 0, \ p \geq 1 \), show that the solution of the problem

\[
\min_x \left\{ \sum_i \frac{a_i}{x_i} : x > 0, \sum_i x_i^p \leq 1 \right\}
\]

is given by

\[
x_i^* = \frac{a_i^{1/(p+1)}}{\left( \sum_j a_j^{p/(p+1)} \right)^{1/p}}.
\]

**Proof.** Assuming \( x^* > 0 \) is a solution such that \( \sum_i (x_i^*)^p = 1 \), the KKT conditions read

\[
\nabla_x \left\{ \sum_i \frac{a_i}{x_i} + \lambda \left( \sum_i x_i^p - 1 \right) \right\} = 0 \iff \frac{a_i}{x_i^*} = p\lambda x_i^p - 1 \sum_i x_i^p = 1
\]

whence \( x_i = c(\lambda) a_i^{1/(p+1)} \). Since \( \sum_i x_i^p \) should be 1, we get

\[
x_i^* = \frac{a_i^{1/(p+1)}}{\left( \sum_j a_j^{p/(p+1)} \right)^{1/p}}.
\]

This point is feasible, problem is convex, KKT at the point is satisfied \( \Rightarrow x^* \) is optimal.

By examining the KKT conditions, we can obtain explicit solutions for many simple convex optimization problems, which can be used as subproblems in iterative algorithms for solving more complicated convex or even nonconvex optimization problems.

### 2.3.5 Dual support vector machine

In this subsection, we discuss one interesting application of the optimality conditions for convex programming in support vector machines.

Recall that the support vector machine can be formulated as

\[
\min_{w, b} \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 \\
\text{s.t.} \quad \nu^{(i)} (w^T u^{(i)} + b) \geq 1, i = 1, \ldots, m.
\]

We can write the constraints equivalently as

\[
g_i(w, b) = -\nu^{(i)} (w^T u^{(i)} + b) + 1 \leq 0.
\]
Thus Lagrangian function $L$ for our problem is given by

$$L(w,b,\lambda) = \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i [v^{(i)}(w^Tu^{(i)} + b) - 1].$$

For fixed $\lambda_i$'s, the problem is unconstrained. Let us minimize $L(w,b,\lambda)$ w.r.t. $w$ and $b$. Setting the derivatives of $L$ w.r.t. $w$ and $b$ to zero, i.e.,

$$\nabla_w L(w,b,\lambda) = w - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i v^{(i)}u^{(i)} = 0,$$

we have

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i v^{(i)}u^{(i)}. \tag{2.3.20}$$

Moreover, we have

$$\nabla_b L(w,b,\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i v^{(i)} = 0. \tag{2.3.21}$$

Plugging the above definition of $w$ into $L(w,b,\lambda)$, we obtain

$$L(w,b,\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \lambda_i \lambda_j [v^{(i)}v^{(j)}] u^{(i)}u^{(j)} - b \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i v^{(i)}.$$ 

Since by (2.3.21), the last term must be zero, we have

$$L(w,b,\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \lambda_i \lambda_j [v^{(i)}v^{(j)}] u^{(i)}u^{(j)}.$$

Therefore, we can write the dual SVM problem as

$$\max_{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \lambda_i \lambda_j [v^{(i)}v^{(j)}] u^{(i)}u^{(j)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \lambda_i \geq 0, i = 1, \ldots, m \quad \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i v^{(i)} = 0.$$ 

Once we find the optimal $\lambda^*$, we can use (2.3.20) to compute optimal $w^*$. Moreover, with optimal $w^*$, we can easily solve the primal problem to find the intercept term $b$ as

$$b^* = -\frac{\max_{i=1}^{N} w^* v^{(i)} + \min_{i=1}^{N} w^* v^{(i)}}{2}$$

It is also interesting to observe that the dual problem only depends on the inner product and we can generalize it easily by using the Kernel trick.

### 2.4 Legendre-Fenchel conjugate duality

#### 2.4.1 Closure of convex functions

We can extend the domain of a convex function $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ to the whole space $\mathbb{R}^n$ by setting $f(x) = +\infty$ for any $x \notin X$. In view of the definition of a convex function in (2.2.8), and our discussion about the epigraphs in Section 2.2, a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ is convex if and only if its epigraph
epi\((f) = \{(x, t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : f(x) \leq t\}

is a nonempty convex set.

As we know, closed convex sets possess many nice topological properties. For example, a closed convex set is comprised of the limits of all converging sequences of elements. Moreover, by the Separation Theorem, a closed and nonempty convex set \(X\) is the intersection of all closed half-spaces containing \(X\). Among these half-spaces, the most interesting ones are the supporting hyperplanes touching \(X\) on the relative boundary.

In functional language, the “closedness” of epigraph corresponds to a special type of continuity, i.e., the lower semicontinuity. Let \(f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}\) be a given function (not necessarily convex). We say that \(f\) is lower semicontinuous at a point \(\bar{x}\), if for every sequence of points \(\{x_i\}\) converging to \(\bar{x}\) one has

\[
    f(\bar{x}) \leq \liminf_{i \to \infty} f(x_i).
\]

Of course, \(\liminf\) of a sequence with all terms equal to \(+\infty\) is \(+\infty\). \(f\) is called lower semicontinuous, if it is lower semicontinuous at every point.

A trivial example of a lower semicontinuous function is a continuous one. Note, however, that a semicontinuous function is not necessarily continuous. What it is obliged, is to make only “jumps down”. For example, the function

\[
    f(x) = \begin{cases} 
        0, & x \neq 0 \\
        a, & x = 0
    \end{cases}
\]

is lower semicontinuous if \(a \leq 0\) (“jump down at \(x = 0\) or no jump at all”), and is not lower semicontinuous if \(a > 0\) (“jump up”).

The following statement links lower semicontinuity with the geometry of the epigraph.

**Proposition 2.10.** A function \(f\) defined on \(\mathbb{R}^n\) and taking values from \(\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}\) is lower semicontinuous if and only if its epigraph is closed (e.g., due to its emptiness).

**Proof.** We first prove the “only if” part (from lower semicontinuity to closed epigraph). Let \((x, t)\) be the limit of the sequence \(\{x_i, t_i\} \subset \text{epi}(f)\). Then we have \(f(x_i) \leq t_i\). Thus the following relation holds: \(t = \lim_{i \to \infty} t_i \geq \lim_{i \to \infty} f(x_i) \geq f(x)\).

We now show the “if” part (from closed epigraph to lower semicontinuity). Suppose for contradiction that \(f(x) > \gamma > \lim_{i \to \infty} f(x_i)\) for some constant \(\gamma\), where \(x_i\) converges to \(x\). Then there exists a subsequence \(\{x_{i_k}\}\) such that \(f(x_{i_k}) \leq \gamma\) for all \(i_k\). Since the epigraph is closed then \(x\) must belong to this set, which implies that \(f(x) \leq \gamma\), which is a contradiction.

As an immediate consequence of Proposition 2.10, the upper bound

\[
    f(x) = \sup_{a \in \mathcal{A}} f_a(x)
\]
of arbitrary family of lower semicontinuous functions is lower semicontinuous. Indeed, the epigraph of the upper bound is the intersection of the epigraphs of the functions forming the bound, and the intersection of closed sets always is closed.

Now let us look at convex lower semicontinuous functions. According to our general convention, “convex” means “satisfying the convexity inequality and finite at least at one point”, or, which is the same, “with convex nonempty epigraph”; and as we just have seen, “lower semicontinuous” means “with closed epigraph”. Thus, we are interested in functions with closed convex nonempty epigraphs. For simplicity, we will call these functions proper.

Similar to the fact that a closed convex set is intersection of closed half-spaces, we can provide an outer description of a proper convex function. More specifically, we can show that a proper convex function \( f \) is the upper bound of all its affine minorants given in the form of \( t \geq d^T x - a \). Moreover, at every point \( \bar{x} \in \text{ri} \text{dom} f \) from the relative interior of the domain \( f \), \( f \) is even not the upper bound, but simply the maximum of its minorants: there exists an affine function \( f_{\bar{x}}(x) \) which is \( \leq f(x) \) everywhere in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) and is equal to \( f \) at \( x = \bar{x} \). This is exactly the first-order approximation \( f(\bar{x}) + \langle g(\bar{x}), x - \bar{x} \rangle \) given by the definition of subgradients.

![Diagram](image)

Fig. 2.5: Example for an upper semi-continuous function. The domain of this function is \([0, +\infty)\), and it “jumps up” at 0. However the function is still convex.

Now, what if the convex function is not lower semicontinuous (see Figure 2.5)? A similar question also arises about convex sets – what to do with a convex set which is not closed? To deal with these convex sets, we can pass from the set to its closure and thus get a “normal” object which is very “close” to the original one: the “main part” of the original set – its relative interior – remains unchanged, and the “correction” adds to the set something relatively small – the relative boundary. The same approach
works for convex functions: if a convex function \( f \) is not proper (i.e., its epigraph, being convex and nonempty, is not closed), we can “correct” the function – replace it with a new function with the epigraph being the closure of \( epi(f) \). To justify this approach, we, of course, should be sure that the closure of the epigraph of a convex function is also an epigraph of such a function.

Thus, we conclude that the closure of the epigraph of a convex function \( f \) is the epigraph of certain function, let it be called the closure \( cl_f \) of \( f \). Of course, this latter function is convex (its epigraph is convex – it is the closure of a convex set), and since its epigraph is closed, \( cl_f \) is proper. The following statement gives direct description of \( cl_f \) in terms of \( f \):

(i) For every \( x \) one has 
\[
cl_f(x) = \lim_{r \to +0} \inf_{|x' - x|_2 \leq r} f(x').
\]
In particular,
\[
f(x) \geq cl_f(x)
\]
for all \( x \), and
\[
f(x) = cl_f(x)
\]
whenever \( x \in ridom_{f} \), same as whenever \( x \notin cldom_f \). Thus, the “correction” \( f \mapsto cl_f \) may vary \( f \) only at the points from the relative boundary of \( dom_f \),
\[
dom_f \subset dom_{cl_f} \subset cldom_f,
\]
hence
\[
ridom_f = ridom_{cl_f}.
\]
(ii)The family of affine minorants of \( cl_f \) is exactly the family of affine minorants of \( f \), so that
\[
cl_f(x) = \sup\{\phi(x) : \phi \text{ is an affine minorant of } f\},
\]
due to the fact that \( cl_f \) is proper and is therefore the upper bound of its affine minorants, and the sup in the right hand side can be replaced with max whenever \( x \in ridom_{cl_f} = ridom_f \).

### 2.4.2 Conjugate functions

Let \( f \) be a convex function. We know that \( f \) “basically” is the upper bound of all its affine minorants. This is exactly the case when \( f \) is proper, otherwise the corresponding equality takes place everywhere except, perhaps, some points from the relative boundary of \( dom_f \). Now, when an affine function \( d^T x - a \) is an affine minorant of \( f \)? It is the case if and only if
\[
f(x) \geq d^T x - a
\]
for all \( x \), which is the same, if and only if
\[ a \geq d^T x - f(x) \]

for all \( x \). We see that if the slope \( d \) of an affine function \( d^T x - a \) is fixed, then in order for the function to be a minorant of \( f \) we should have

\[ a \geq \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} [d^T x - f(x)] . \]

The supremum in the right hand side of the latter relation is certain function of \( d \); this function is called the Legendre-Fenchel conjugate of \( f \) and is denoted \( f^* \):

\[ f^*(d) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} [d^T x - f(x)] . \]

Geometrically, the Legendre-Fenchel transformation answers the following question: given a slope \( d \) of an affine function, i.e., given the hyperplane \( t = d^T x \) in \( \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \), what is the minimal “shift down” of the hyperplane which places it below the graph of \( f \)?

From the definition of the conjugate it follows that this is a proper function. Indeed, we lose nothing when replacing \( \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} [d^T x - f(x)] \) by \( \sup_{x \in \text{dom} f} [d^T x - f(x)] \), so that the conjugate function is the upper bound of a family of affine functions. Since this bound is finite at least at one point (namely, at every \( d \) coming form affine minorant of \( f \); we know that such a minorant exists), it is a convex lower semicontinuous function, as claimed.

The most elementary (and the most fundamental) fact about the conjugate function is its symmetry.

**Proposition 2.11.** Let \( f \) be a convex function. Then \( (f^*)^* = \text{cl} f \). In particular, if \( f \) is proper, then \( (f^*)^* = f \).

**Proof.** The conjugate function of \( f^* \) at the point \( x \) is, by definition,

\[ \sup_{d \in \mathbb{R}^n} [x^T d - f^*(d)] = \sup_{d \in \mathbb{R}^n, a \geq f^*(d)} [d^T x - a] ; \]

the second sup here is exactly the supremum of all affine minorants of \( f \) (this is the origin of the Legendre-Fenchel transformation: \( a \geq f^*(d) \) if and only if the affine form \( d^T x - a \) is a minorant of \( f \)). And we already know that the upper bound of all affine minorants of \( f \) is the closure of \( f \). \[ \]
etc. Thus, whenever we can compute explicitly the Legendre-Fenchel transformation of \( f \), we get a lot of “global” information on \( f \).

Unfortunately, the more detailed investigation of the properties of Legendre-Fenchel transformation is beyond our scope. Below we simply list several simple facts and examples:

- From the definition of Legendre transformation,
  \[
  f(x) + f^*(d) \geq x^T d \quad \forall x, d.
  \]
  Specifying here \( f \) and \( f^* \), we get certain inequality, e.g., the following one: \[ \text{[Young’s Inequality]} \text{ if } p \text{ and } q \text{ are positive reals such that } \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1, \text{ then } \]
  \[
  \frac{|x|^p}{p} + \frac{|d|^q}{q} \geq xd \quad \forall x, d \in \mathbb{R}
  \]
- The Legendre-Fenchel transformation of the function
  \[
  f(x) \equiv -a
  \]
  is the function which is equal to \( a \) at the origin and is \( +\infty \) outside the origin; similarly, the Legendre-Fenchel transformation of an affine function \( d^T x - a \) is equal to \( a \) at \( d = \bar{d} \) and is \( +\infty \) when \( d \neq \bar{d} \);
- The Legendre-Fenchel transformation of the strictly convex quadratic form
  \[
  f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A x
  \]
  \((A \text{ is positive definite symmetric matrix})\) is the quadratic form
  \[
  f^*(d) = \frac{1}{2} d^T A^{-1} d
  \]
- The Legendre-Fenchel transformation of the Euclidean norm
  \[
  f(x) = ||x||_2
  \]
  is the function which is equal to 0 in the closed unit ball centered at the origin and is \( +\infty \) outside the ball.

## 2.5 Exercises and notes

### Exercises.

1. **Determine whether the following sets are convex or not.**
   
   a. \( \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 + i^2 x_2 \leq 1, i = 1, \ldots, 10 \} \).
   
   b. \( \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1^2 + 2ix_1 x_2 + i^2 x_2^2 \leq 1, i = 1, \ldots, 10 \} \).
   
   c. \( \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1^2 + i^2 x_2 + i^2 x_2^2 \leq 1, i = 1, \ldots, 10 \} \).
3. Prove that the following functions are convex on the indicated domains:

d. \( x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1^2 + 5x_1x_2 + 4x_2^2 \leq 1 \)

e. \( x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \exp\{x_1\} \leq x_2 \)

f. \( x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \exp\{x_1\} \geq x_2 \)

g. \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 1 \)

2. Assume that \( X = \{x_1, \ldots, x_k\} \) and \( Y = \{y_1, \ldots, y_m\} \) are finite sets in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), with \( k + m \geq n + 2 \), and all the points \( x_1, \ldots, x_k, y_1, \ldots, y_m \) are distinct. Assume that for any subset \( S \subset X \cup Y \) comprised of \( n + 2 \) points the convex hulls of the sets \( X \cap S \) and \( Y \cap S \) do not intersect. Then the convex hulls of \( X \) and \( Y \) also do not intersect. (Hint: Assume on contrary that the convex hulls of \( X \) and \( Y \) intersect, so that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i x_i = \sum_{j=1}^m \mu_j y_j
\]

for certain nonnegative \( \lambda_i, \sum \lambda_i = 1 \), and certain nonnegative \( \mu_j, \sum \mu_j = 1 \), and look at the expression of this type with the minimum possible total number of nonzero coefficients \( \lambda_i, \mu_j \).

3. Prove that the following functions are convex on the indicated domains:

a. \( \frac{x^2}{y} \) on \( \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | y > 0 \} \)

b. \( \ln(\exp\{x\} + \exp\{y\}) \) on the 2D plane.

4. A function \( f \) defined on a convex set \( Q \) is called log-convex on \( Q \), if it takes real positive values on \( Q \) and the function \( \ln f \) is convex on \( Q \). Prove that

a. a log-convex on \( Q \) function is convex on \( Q \).

b. the sum (more generally, linear combination with positive coefficients) of two log-convex functions on \( Q \) also is log-convex on the set.

5. Show the following statements related to the computation of subgradients.

a. The subgradient of \( f(x) = \sqrt{x} \) does not exist at \( x = 0 \).

b. The subdifferential of \( f(x) = |x| \) is given by \([-1, 1] \).

c. Let \( u \) and \( v \) be given. What is the sub-differential of \( f(w, b) = \max\{0, v(w^T u + b)\} + \rho\|w\|_2^2 \) at \( w \) and \( b \).

d. The subdifferential of \( f(x) = \|x\| \) is given by \( \partial f(0) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | \|x\| \leq 1 \} \) and \( \partial f(x) = \{x/\|x\|\} \) for \( x \neq 0 \).

6. Find the minimizer of a linear function

\( f(x) = c^T x \)

on the set

\[ V_p = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p \leq 1 \}, \]

where \( p, 1 < p < \infty \), is a parameter. What happens with the solution when the parameter becomes 0.5?

7. Let \( a_1, \ldots, a_n > 0, \alpha, \beta > 0 \). Solve the optimization problem

\[ \min_x \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{a_i}{x_i^\alpha} : x > 0, \sum x_i^\beta \leq 1 \right\}. \]

8. Consider the optimization problem
2.5 Exercises and notes

\[
\max_{x,y} \{ f(x,y) = ax + by + \ln(y - x) + \ln(y) : (x,y) \in X = \{ y > \exp\{x\} \} \},
\]

where \( a, b \in \mathbb{R} \) are parameters. Is the problem convex? What is the domain in space of parameters where the problem is solvable? What is the optimal value? Is it convex in the parameters?

9. Let \( a_1, \ldots, a_n \) be positive reals, and let \( 0 < s < r \) be two reals. Find maximum and minimum of the function

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i |x_i|^r
\]

on the surface

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^s = 1.
\]

**Notes.** Further readings on convex analysis and convex optimization theory can be found on the monographs [41, 96], classic textbooks [10, 13, 80, 86, 88, 97, 68], and online course materials [75].
Chapter 3
Deterministic Convex Optimization

In this chapter, we study algorithms for solving convex optimization problems. We will focus on algorithms that have been applied or have the potential to be applied for solving machine learning and other data analysis problems. More specifically, we will discuss first-order methods which have been proven effective for large-scale optimization. These methods also form the basis for other computationally efficient methods, e.g., stochastic and randomized methods to be discussed in later chapters.

3.1 Subgradient descent

We start with the simplest gradient descent method to minimize a differentiable convex function $f$. Starting from an initial point $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the gradient descent method updates the search point $x_t$ according to

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \gamma_t \nabla f(x_t), t = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad (3.1.1)$$

where $\gamma_t > 0$ is a certain stepsize at the $t$-th iteration. The rationale behind (3.1.1) is to move a small step along the direction (also known as the steepest descent direction) that minimizes the local first-order Taylor approximation of $f$.

We need to make two essential modifications to the gradient descent method in order to solve a general convex optimization problem given by

$$f^* := \min_{x \in X} f(x). \quad (3.1.2)$$

Here $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a closed convex set and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a proper convex function. Without specific mention, we assume that the set of optimal solutions of (3.1.2) is nonempty and $x^*$ is an arbitrary solution of (3.1.2). Firstly, since the objective function $f$ is not necessarily differentiable, it makes sense to replace $\nabla f(x_t)$ in (3.1.1) with a subgradient $g(x_t) \in \partial f(x_t)$. Secondly, the recursion in (3.1.1) applies only to unconstrained problems. For the constrained case when $X \neq \mathbb{R}^n$, the search point
$x_{t+1}$ defined in (3.1.1) may fall outside the feasible set $X$. Hence, it is necessary to “push” $x_{t+1}$ back to $X$ by using projection. Incorporating these enhancements, we update $x_t$ according to

$$x_{t+1} := \arg\min_{x \in X} \|x - (x_t - \gamma g(x_t))\|_2, t = 1, 2, \ldots,$$

for some $g(x_t) \in \partial f(x_t)$ and $\gamma > 0$.

The projected subgradient iteration in (3.1.3) admits some natural explanation from the proximity control point of view. Indeed, (3.1.3) can be written equivalently as

$$x_{t+1} = \arg\min_{y \in X} \frac{1}{2} \|x - (x_t - \gamma g(x_t))\|_2^2$$

$$= \arg\min_{x \in X} \gamma \langle g(x_t), x - x_t \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2$$

$$= \arg\min_{x \in X} \gamma \left[ f(x_t) + \langle g(x_t), x - x_t \rangle \right] + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2$$

$$= \arg\min_{x \in X} \gamma \langle g(x_t), x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2. \quad (3.1.4)$$

This implies that we would like to minimize the linear approximation $f(x_t) + \langle g(x_t), x - x_t \rangle$ of $f(x)$ over $X$, without moving too far away from $x_t$ so as to have $\|x - x_t\|_2$ small. The parameter $\gamma > 0$ balances these two terms, and its selection will depend on the properties of the objective function $f$, e.g., the differentiability of $f$, the Lipschitz continuity of its gradients and so forth.

### 3.1.1 General nonsmooth convex problems

We will first consider a general convex function $f$ which is Lipschitz continuous over $X$, i.e., $\exists M > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq M \|x - y\|_2 \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (3.1.5)$$

Observe that this assumption is not too restrictive in view of Theorem 2.4.

The following lemma provides an important characterization for $x_{t+1}$ by using the representation in (3.1.4).

**Lemma 3.1.** Let $x_{t+1}$ be defined in (3.1.3). For any $y \in X$, we have

$$\gamma \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|_2^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2.$$

**Proof.** Denote $\phi(x) = \gamma \langle g(x_t), x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2$. By the strong convexity of $\phi$, we have

$$\phi(x) \geq \phi(x_{t+1}) + \langle \phi'(x_{t+1}), x - x_{t+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2.$$
Moreover, by the first-order optimality condition of (3.1.4), we have $\langle \phi'(x_{t+1}), x - x_{t+1} \rangle \geq 0$ for any $x \in X$. The result immediately follows by combining these two inequalities.

The following theorem describes some general convergence properties for the subgradient descent method. Note that in our convergence analysis for first-order methods, we often use the following simple inequality

$$\forall a > 0, b \in \mathbb{R}, t \in \mathbb{R}. \quad bt - \frac{a^2}{2} \leq \frac{b^2}{2a},$$

(3.1.6)

**Theorem 3.1.** Let $x_t, t = 1, \ldots, k$, be generated by (3.1.3). Under Assumption (3.1.5), we have

$$\sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t[f(x_t) - f(x)] \leq \frac{1}{2} \left[ \|x - x_k\|_2^2 + M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t^2 \right], \forall x \in X. \quad (3.1.7)$$

**Proof.** By the convexity of $f$ and Lemma 3.1,

$$y_t[f(x_t) - f(x)] \leq y_t[g(x_t), x_t - x] \leq \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2 + \frac{M^2}{2} \|g(x_t)\|_2^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2 + \frac{M^2}{2},$$

where the third inequality follows from the Cauchy-Swartz inequality and (3.1.6). The result then immediately follows by summing up the above inequality from $t = s$ to $k$. 

We now provide a simple specific choice for the stepsizes $y_t$.

**Corollary 3.1.** Let us denote

$$D_X^2 = D_{X, \|\cdot\|_2^2} := \max_{x_1, x_2 \in X} \frac{\|x_1 - x_2\|_2^2}{2}.$$

(3.1.8)

Suppose that the number of iterations $k$ is fixed and

$$y_t = \sqrt{\frac{2D_X^2}{kM^2}}, t = 1, \ldots, k.$$

Then

$$f(x_k) - f^* \leq \sqrt{\frac{2D_X^2}{kM^2}}, \forall k \geq 1,$$

where

$$x_k = \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t x_t. \quad (3.1.9)$$

**Proof.** By Theorem 3.1 and the fact that $f(x_k) \leq \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t f(x_t)$, we have

$$f(x_k) \leq \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t \right)^{-1} \left[ \|x^* - x_k\|_2^2 + M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t^2 \right]. \quad (3.1.10)$$
If \( \gamma_t = \gamma, t = 1, \ldots, k \), we have
\[
f(\bar{x}_k^1) - f^* \leq \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2}{k^2} D_X^2 + M^2 \gamma \right)
\]
The result follows by minimizing the right-hand side (RHS) of above inequality w.r.t. \( \gamma \).

We can also use variable stepsizes without fixing the number of iterations \( k \) a priori.

**Corollary 3.2.** If
\[
\gamma_t = \sqrt{\frac{2D_X^2}{M^2}}, t = 1, \ldots, k,
\]
then
\[
f(\bar{x}_{\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k) - f^* \leq O\left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \right) \left( MD_X / \sqrt{k} \right)
\]
for any \( k \geq 3 \), where \( O\left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \right) \) denotes an absolute constant and \( \bar{x}_{\lceil k/2 \rceil}^k \) is defined in (3.1.9).

**Proof.** It suffices to bound the RHS of (3.1.10) by using the following bounds:
\[
\sum_{t=\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^k \gamma_t^2 \geq \sum_{t=\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^k \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \int_{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^{k+1} t^{-1/2} dt \geq \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \right) (k + 1) \sqrt{k}, \forall k \geq 1.
\]
\[
\sum_{t=\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^k \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \sum_{t=\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^k \gamma_t^2 \leq \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \int_{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor}^k \frac{1}{t} dt \leq \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \ln \frac{k}{\lfloor k/2 \rfloor} \leq \frac{2D_X^2}{M^2} \ln 3, \forall k \geq 3.
\]

Observe that in (3.1.9), we define the output solution as the weighted average of the iterates \( \{x_k\} \). However, we can define the output solution \( \hat{x}_k \in \{x_1, \ldots, x_k\} \) as the best solution found so far in the trajectory, i.e.,
\[
f(\hat{x}_k) = \min_{i=1, \ldots, k} f(x_i).
\]

We can easily see that all the results stated in Theorem 3.1 and Corollaries 3.1 and 3.2 still hold with this different selection of output solution. Moreover, it is worth noting that the definition of the diameter \( D_X \) in (3.1.8) depends on the norm \( \| \cdot \|_2 \). We will discuss later how to generalize such a characteristic of the feasible set \( X \).

### 3.1.2 Nonsmooth strongly convex problems

In this subsection, we assume that \( f \), in addition to (3.1.5), is strongly convex, i.e.,
\[ \exists \mu > 0 \text{ s.t.} \]
where \( g(x) \in \partial f(x) \).

**Theorem 3.2.** Let \( x_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \), be generated by (3.1.3). Under Assumptions (3.1.5) and (3.1.12), if for some \( w_t \geq 0 \),

\[
\frac{w_t(1-\mu \gamma)}{\gamma} \leq \frac{w_{t-1}}{\gamma-1},
\]

then

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} w_t [f(x_t) - f(x)] \leq \frac{w_1(1-\mu \mu)}{2 \gamma} \|x^* - x_1\|^2 - \frac{w_k}{2 \gamma} \|x - x_{k+1}\|^2 + M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} w_t \gamma.
\]

**Proof.** By the strong convexity of \( f \) and Lemma 3.1,

\[
f(x_t) - f(x) \leq (g(x_t), x_t - x) - \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_t\|^2
\]

\[
\leq -\frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \gamma} \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 + (g(x_t), x_t - x_{t+1}) - \frac{1}{2 \gamma} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2
\]

\[
\leq -\frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \gamma} \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} \|g(x_t)\|^2
\]

\[
\leq -\frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \gamma} \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} M^2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from the Cauchy-Swartz inequality and (3.1.6).

Summing up these inequalities with weight \( w_t \), we obtain (3.1.14).

Below we provide a specific selection of \( \{\gamma_t\} \) and \( \{w_k\} \).

**Corollary 3.3.** If

\[
\gamma_t = \frac{r}{\mu t} \quad \text{and} \quad w_t = t, \forall t \geq 1,
\]

then

\[
f(x^*_k) - f(x) + \frac{\mu k}{2(k+1)} \|x_{k+1} - x\|^2 \leq \frac{4M^2}{\mu(k+1)}, \forall x \in X.
\]

where \( x^*_k \) is defined in (3.1.9).

**Proof.** It can be easily seen that

\[
\frac{w_t(1-\mu \mu)}{\gamma} = \frac{\mu(t-2)}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{w_{t-1}}{\gamma-1} = \frac{\mu(t-1)^2}{2}
\]

and hence that (3.1.13) holds. It then follows from (3.1.14) and (3.1.15) that

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} t[f(x_t) - f(x)] \leq -\frac{\mu}{4} \|x_1 - x\|^2 - \frac{\mu k^2}{4} \|x_{k+1} - x\|^2 + \frac{2M^2}{\mu}.
\]

Using the definition of \( x^*_k \) in (3.1.9) and the convexity of \( f \), we conclude that

\[
f(x^*_k) - f(x) \leq \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \left( -\frac{\mu}{4} \|x_1 - x\|^2 - \frac{\mu k^2}{4} \|x_{k+1} - x\|^2 + \frac{2M^2}{\mu} \right).
\]
In view of Corollary 3.3, we can bound both the functional optimality gap \( f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x^*) \) and the distance to the optimal solution \( \|x_{k+1} - x^*\| \) by \( \mathcal{O}(1/k) \). Similarly to the general convex case, we can use the \( \hat{x}_k \) in (3.1.11) in place of \( \bar{x}_k \) as the output solution.

### 3.1.3 Smooth convex problems

In this subsection, we consider differentiable convex functions \( f \) with Lipschitz continuous gradients, i.e.,

\[
\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_2 \leq L\|x - y\|_2, \quad \forall x, y \in X.
\]  

(3.1.16)

These functions are referred to as smooth convex functions in this text. Since \( f \) is differentiable, we can set the subgradient \( g(x_t) = \nabla f(x_t) \) in (3.1.3), and the resulting algorithm is often called projected gradient method.

We first prove a convenient representation about smoothness. Observe that this result does not depend on the convexity of \( f \).

**Lemma 3.2.** For any \( x, y \in X \), we have

\[
f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle \leq \frac{L}{2}\|y - x\|_2^2.
\]  

(3.1.17)

**Proof.** For all \( x, y \in X \), we have

\[
f(y) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle f'(x + \tau(y - x)), y - x \rangle d\tau
\]

\[
= f(x) + \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle + \int_0^1 \left( f'(x + \tau(y - x)) - f'(x), y - x \right) d\tau.
\]

Therefore,

\[
f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle
\]

\[
= \int_0^1 \langle f'(x + \tau(y - x)) - f'(x), y - x \rangle d\tau
\]

\[
\leq \int_0^1 \|f'(x + \tau(y - x)) - f'(x)\|_2 \|y - x\|_2 d\tau
\]

\[
\leq \int_0^1 \tau L\|y - x\|_2^2 d\tau = \frac{L}{2}\|y - x\|_2^2.
\]

Our next result shows that the function values at the iterates \( x_t, t \geq 1 \), are monotonically non-increasing.

**Lemma 3.3.** Let \( \{x_t\} \) be generated by (3.1.3). If (3.1.16) holds and

\[
\gamma \leq \frac{2}{L},
\]

(3.1.18)
where the last inequality follows from (3.1.20). Summing up the above inequalities

\[ \langle \gamma g(x_t) + x_{t+1} - x_t, x - x_{t+1} \rangle \geq 0, \forall x \in X. \]

Letting \( x = x_t \) in the above relation, we obtain

\[ \gamma \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle \leq -\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2. \]  \hfill (3.1.19)

It then follows from (3.1.17) and the above relation that

\[
\begin{align*}
f(x_{t+1}) & \leq f(x_t) + \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{\gamma}{2}\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \\
& \leq f(x_t) - \left( \frac{1}{\beta} - \frac{\gamma}{2} \right)\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 
\leq f(x_t).
\end{align*}
\]

We are now ready to establish the main convergence properties for the projected gradient method applied to smooth convex optimization problems.

**Theorem 3.3.** Let \( \{x_t\} \) be generated by (3.1.3). If (3.1.16) holds and

\[ \gamma = \gamma \leq \frac{1}{L}, \forall t \geq 1, \]  \hfill (3.1.20)

then

\[
f(x_{k+1}) - f(x) \leq \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|x - x_1\|^2, \forall x \in X.
\]

**Proof.** By (3.1.17), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
f(x_{t+1}) & \leq f(x_t) + \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{\gamma}{2}\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \\
& \leq f(x_t) + \langle g(x_t), x - x_t \rangle + \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x \rangle + \frac{\gamma}{2}\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2. \hfill (3.1.21)
\end{align*}
\]

It then follows from the above inequality, the convexity of \( f \) and Lemma 3.1 that

\[
\begin{align*}
f(x_{t+1}) & \leq f(x) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} (\|x - x_t\|^2 - \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 - \|x_t - x_{t+1}\|^2) + \frac{\gamma}{2}\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \\
& \leq f(x) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} (\|x - x_t\|^2 - \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2),
\end{align*}
\]

where the last inequality follows from (3.1.20). Summing up the above inequalities from \( t = 1 \) to \( k \), and using Lemma 3.3, we have

\[
k[f(x_{k+1}) - f(x)] \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} |f(x_{t+1}) - f(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2\gamma} \|x - x_1\|^2.
\]

In view of Theorem 3.3, one may choose \( \gamma = 1/L \) and then the rate of convergence of the projected gradient method becomes \( f(x_{k+1}) - f^* \leq L/(2k) \).
3.1.4 Smooth and strongly convex problems

In this section, we discuss the convergence properties of the projected gradient method when the objective function \( f \) is smooth and strongly convex.

**Theorem 3.4.** Let \( \{x_t\} \) be generated by (3.1.3). Assume (3.1.12) and (3.1.16) hold, and let \( \gamma = 1/L, t = 1, \ldots, k \). Then,

\[
\|x - x_{k+1}\|_2^2 \leq (1 - \mu L)^k \|x - x_1\|_2^2. \tag{3.1.22}
\]

**Proof.** It follows from (3.1.21), the strong convexity of \( f \) and Lemma 3.1 that

\[
f(x_{t+1}) \leq f(x) - \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_t\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \left( \|x - x_t\|_2^2 - \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2 - \|x_t - x_{t+1}\|_2^2 \right)
+ \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|_2^2 \\
\leq f(x) + \frac{1 - \mu L}{2\gamma} \|x - x_t\|_2^2 - \frac{1 - \mu L}{2\gamma} \|x - x_{t+1}\|_2^2.
\]

Using the above relation, the facts \( \gamma = 1/L \) and \( f(x_t) - f(x^*) \geq 0 \), we have

\[
\|x_{t+1} - x^*\|_2^2 \leq (1 - \frac{\mu}{L}) \|x_t - x^*\|_2^2,
\]

which clearly implies (3.1.22). \( \blacksquare \)

In order to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( \|\bar{x} - x^*\|^2 \leq \varepsilon \), it suffices to have

\[
(1 - \frac{\mu}{L})^k \|x - x_1\|_2^2 \leq \varepsilon \iff k \log \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{L} \right) \leq \log \frac{\varepsilon}{\|x - x_1\|_2^2}
\]

\[
\iff k \geq \frac{\log \frac{\varepsilon}{\|x - x_1\|_2^2}}{-\log (1 - \frac{\mu}{L})}
\]

\[
\iff k \geq \frac{L}{\mu} \log \frac{\|x - x_1\|_2^2}{\varepsilon}, \tag{3.1.23}
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( -\log (1 - \alpha) \geq \alpha \) for any \( \alpha \in [0, 1) \).

3.2 Mirror descent

The subgradient descent method is intrinsically linked to the Euclidean structure of \( \mathbb{R}^n \). More specifically, the construction of the method relies on the Euclidean projection (see (3.1.3)), and the quantities \( D_X \) and \( M \) used in the efficiency estimate (see Corollary 3.1) are defined in terms of the Euclidean norm. In this section we develop a substantial generalization of the subgradient descent method allowing to adjust, to some extent, the method to the possibly non-Euclidean geometry of the problem in question. We shall see in the mean time that we can gain a lot, both theoretically and numerically, from such an adjustment.
Let $\| \cdot \|$ be a (general) norm on $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $\| x \|_* = \sup_{\| y \| \leq 1} \langle x, y \rangle$ be its dual norm. We say that a function $\nu : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a distance generating function modulus $\sigma_\nu > 0$ with respect to $\| \cdot \|$, if $\nu$ is convex and continuous on $X$, the set

$$
X^\nu = \{ x \in X : \text{there exists } p \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ such that } x \in \arg\min_{u \in X} \| p^T u + \nu(u) \| \}
$$

is convex (note that $X^\nu$ always contains the relative interior of $X$), and restricted to $X^\nu$, $\nu$ is continuously differentiable and strongly convex with parameter $\sigma_\nu$ with respect to $\| \cdot \|$, i.e.,

$$
(x' - x)^T(\nabla \nu(x') - \nabla \nu(x)) \geq \sigma_\nu \| x' - x \|^2, \quad \forall x', x \in X^\nu. \quad (3.2.1)
$$

The simplest example of a distance generating function is $\nu(x) = \| x \|_2^2/2$ (modulus 1 with respect to $\| \cdot \|_2$, $X^\nu = X$). Associated with the distance generating function, we define the prox-function (or Bregman’s distance) $V : X^\nu \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$ as follows

$$
V(x, z) = \nu(z) - \nu(x) + \nabla \nu(x)^T(z - x). \quad (3.2.2)
$$

Note that $V(x, \cdot)$ is nonnegative and is strongly convex modulus $\sigma_\nu$ with respect to the norm $\| \cdot \|$. Also by the strong convexity of $\nu$, we have

$$
V(x, z) \geq \frac{\sigma_\nu}{2} \| x - z \|^2. \quad (3.2.3)
$$

In case $\nu(x) = \| x \|_2^2/2$, we have $V(x, z) = \| z - x \|_2^2/2$.

Without loss of generality, we assume that the strong convexity modulus $\sigma_\nu$ of $\nu$ is given by 1. Indeed, if $\sigma_\nu \neq 1$, we can always choose $\nu/\sigma_\nu$ as the distance generating function and define its associated prox-function. The following quantity $D_X > 0$ will be used frequently in the complexity analysis of first-order and stochastic algorithms.

$$
D^2_X \equiv D^2_{X, \nu} := \max_{x_1, x \in X} V(x_1, x). \quad (3.2.4)
$$

Clearly, the definition of $D_{X, \nu}$ generalizes the definition of $D_{X, \| \cdot \|_2^2}$ in (3.1.8) with $\nu(x) = \| x \|_2^2/2$.

With the definition of the prox-function, we modify the subgradient iteration in (3.1.4) to

$$
x_{t+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \gamma \langle g(x_t), x \rangle + V(x_t, x), t = 1, 2, \ldots. \quad (3.2.5)
$$

This implies that we would like to minimize a linear approximation of $f$, but do not move too far away from $x_t$ in terms of $V(x_t, x)$. It can be easily seen that (3.1.4) is a special case of (3.2.5) with $V(x_t, x) = \| x - x_t \|_2^2/2$. The following lemma characterizes the updated solution $x_{t+1}$ in (3.2.5).

**Lemma 3.4.** Let $x_{t+1}$ be defined in (3.2.5). For any $y \in X$, we have

$$
\gamma \langle g(x_t), x_{t+1} - x \rangle + V(x_t, x_{t+1}) \leq V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t+1}, x).
$$

**Proof.** By the optimality condition of (3.2.5),
\[ \langle \gamma g(x_t) + \nabla V(x_t, x_{t+1}), x - x_t \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in X, \]

where \( \nabla V(x_t, x_{t+1}) \) denotes the gradient of \( V(x_t, \cdot) \) at \( x_{t+1} \). Using the definition of the prox-function (3.2.2), it is easy to verify that

\[ V(x_t, x) = V(x_t, x_{t+1}) + \langle \nabla V(x_t, x_{t+1}), x - x_{t+1} \rangle + V(x_{t+1}, x), \quad \forall x \in X. \quad (3.2.6) \]

The result then immediately follows by combining the above two relations. \( \blacksquare \)

With the help of Lemma 3.4, we can easily establish some general convergence properties for the mirror descent method. In order to provide an efficiency estimate that does not rely on the Euclidean structure, we assume that the subgradients of \( f \) satisfy

\[ \|g(x_t)\| \leq M, \quad \forall t \geq 1. \]

**Theorem 3.5.** Let \( x_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \), be generated by (3.2.5) and define \( \tilde{x}_t \) as in (3.1.9). Then

\[ f(\tilde{x}_k) - f^* \leq \left( \sum_{s=1}^k \gamma_s \right)^{-1} \left[ V(x_s, x^*) + \frac{1}{2} M^2 \sum_{s=1}^k \gamma_s^2 \right], \]

where \( x^* \) denotes an arbitrary solution of (3.1.2).

**Proof.** By the convexity of \( f \) and Lemma 3.4,

\[ \gamma \|f(x_t) - f(x)\| \leq \gamma \langle g(x_t), x_t - x \rangle \]

\[ \leq V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t+1}, x) + \gamma \langle g(x_t), x_t - x_{t+1} \rangle - V(x_t, x_{t+1}). \]

Note that by the strong convexity of \( v \), the Cauchy-Swartz inequality and the fact that \( bt - at^2/2 \leq b^2/(2a) \) for any \( a > 0 \), we have

\[ \gamma \langle g(x_t), x_t - x_{t+1} \rangle - V(x_t, x_{t+1}) \leq \gamma \langle g(x_t), x_t - x_{t+1} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \]

\[ \leq \gamma^2 \|g(x_t)\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \gamma^2 M^2. \]

Combining the above two relations, we conclude

\[ \gamma \|f(x_t) - f(x)\| \leq V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t+1}, x) + \frac{1}{2} \gamma^2 M^2. \]

The result then immediately follows by summing up the above inequality from \( t = s \) to \( k \), and using the fact that \( f(\tilde{x}_k) \leq \left( \sum_{s=1}^k \gamma_s \right)^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^k f(x_t). \) \( \blacksquare \)

We now provide a simple specific choice for the stepsizes \( \gamma \).

**Corollary 3.4.** Let the number of iterations \( k \) be fixed and assume that

\[ \gamma_t = \sqrt{\frac{2D^2}{kM^2}}, t = 1, \ldots, k. \]

Then

\[ f(\tilde{x}_k) - f^* \leq \frac{\sqrt{2MD}x}{\sqrt{k}}, \quad \forall k \geq 1. \]
3.2 Mirror descent

Proof. The proof is almost identical to that for Corollary 3.1 and hence the details are skipped.

We can also use variable stepsizes without fixing the number of iterations \( k \) a priori.

**Exercise 1** Show that if

\[
\gamma_t = \frac{D_X}{M \sqrt{t}}, \quad t = 1, 2, \ldots,
\]

then \( f(\bar{x}_{\lceil k/2 \rceil}) - f^* \leq \mathcal{O}(1)(\frac{MD_X}{\sqrt{k}}), \) where \( \mathcal{O}(1) \) denotes an absolute constant.

Comparing the results obtained in Corollaries 3.1 and 3.4, we see that for both the subgradient and mirror descent methods, the inaccuracy in terms of the objective of the approximate solution is bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(k^{-1/2}) \). A benefit of the mirror descent over the subgradient descent algorithm is its potential possibility to reduce the constant factor hidden in \( \mathcal{O}(\cdot) \) by adjusting the norm \( \| \cdot \| \) and the distance generating function \( \nu(\cdot) \) to the geometry of the problem.

**Example 3.1.** Let \( X = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1, x \geq 0 \} \) be a standard simplex. Consider two setups for the mirror descent method:

- **Euclidean setup**, where \( \| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_2 \) and \( \nu(x) = \frac{1}{2}\|x\|_2^2 \)
- **\( \ell_1 \)-setup**, where \( \|x\| = \|x\|_1 := \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \) and \( \nu \) is the entropy \( \nu(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \ln x_i \).

The Euclidean setup leads to the subgradient descent method which is easily implementable (computing the projection subproblem in (3.1.4) requires \( O(n \ln n) \) operations) and guarantees that

\[
f(x_k^\ast) - f(x_\ast) \leq \mathcal{O}(1)Mk^{-1/2},
\]

provided that the constant \( \bar{M} = \max_{x \in X} \|g(x)\| \) is known and the stepsizes in Corollary 3.1 are used (note that the Euclidean diameter of \( X \) is of order of 1). The \( \ell_1 \)-setup corresponds to \( X^\circ = \{ x \in X : x > 0 \} \), \( D_X = \sqrt{\ln n} \), \( x_\ast = \arg \min_{x \in X} \omega = n^{-1}(1, \ldots, 1)^T \), \( \sigma_v = 1 \) and \( \|x\|_\infty \equiv \max_i |x_i| \). The associated mirror descent is easily implementable: the prox-function here is \( V(x, z) = \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \ln \frac{x_i}{z_i} \) and the subproblem \( x^+_i = \arg \min_{x \in X} \left[ y^T (z - x) + V(x, z) \right] \) can be computed in \( O(n) \) operations according to the explicit formula:

\[
x^+_i = \frac{x_i e^{-y_i}}{\sum_{k=1}^n x_k e^{-y_k}}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.
\]

The efficiency estimate guaranteed with the \( \ell_1 \)-setup is

\[
f(x_k^\ast) - f(x_\ast) \leq \mathcal{O}(1)\sqrt{\ln n}Mk^{-1/2},
\]
provided that the constant $\bar{M}_* = \max_{x \in X} \|g(x)\|_*$ is known and the constant stepsizes in Corollary 3.4 are used. To compare (3.2.9) and (3.2.8), observe that $\bar{M}_* \leq \bar{M}$, and the ratio $\bar{M}_*/\bar{M}$ can be as small as $\frac{n-1}{2}$. Thus, the efficiency estimate for the $\ell_1$-setup never is much worse than the estimate for the Euclidean setup, and for large $n$ can be far better than the latter estimate:

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{\ln n}} \leq \frac{\bar{M}}{\sqrt{\ln \bar{M}_*}} \leq \sqrt{\frac{n}{\ln n}}, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots,$$

both the upper and the lower bounds being achievable. Thus, when $X$ is a standard simplex of large dimension, we have strong reasons to prefer the $\ell_1$-setup to the usual Euclidean one.

It should be noted that the mirror descent method will exhibit stronger rate of convergence when applied to strongly convex or smooth problems. We leave the development of these results as an exercise (see Section 3.10).

### 3.3 Accelerated gradient descent

In this subsection, we discuss an important improvement to the gradient descent method, namely the accelerated (or fast) gradient method applied to smooth convex optimization problems. Note that in this discussion, we incorporate the idea of mirror-descent method into the accelerated gradient method by using the prox-function discussed in the previous subsection.

In particular, we assume that given an arbitrary norm $\|\cdot\|$ (and its conjugate),

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_* \leq L\|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (3.3.1)$$

Similar to (3.1.17), we can show that for any $x, y \in X$, we have

$$f(y) - f(x) - (f'(x), y - x) \leq \frac{L}{2}\|y - x\|^2. \quad (3.3.2)$$

Moreover, we assume that for some $\mu \geq 0$,

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + (f'(x), y - x) + \mu V(x, y), \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (3.3.3)$$

If $\mu = 0$, (3.3.3) is implied by the convexity of $f$. If $\mu > 0$, it generalizes the definition of strong convexity in terms of Bregman’s distance.

In fact, there exist many variants of the accelerated gradient method. Below we study one of its simplest variants. Given $(x_{t-1}, \bar{x}_{t-1}) \in X \times X$, we set

$$x_t = (1 - q_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + q_t x_{t-1}, \quad (3.3.4)$$

$$x_t = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \left\{ \gamma[f'(x), x] + \mu V(x, x) + V(x_{t-1}, x) \right\}, \quad (3.3.5)$$

$$\bar{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t, \quad (3.3.6)$$
for some \( q_t \in [0, 1] \), \( \gamma \geq 0 \), and \( \alpha_t \in [0, 1] \). In comparison with the gradient descent method, the accelerated gradient descent method builds up a lower approximation of the objective function, defined by

\[
f(x) + \langle f'(x), x - x_0 \rangle + \mu V(x, x),
\]

at the search point \( x_0 \), which is different from the other search point \( x_t \) used for proximity control (see (3.3.5)). Moreover, we compute the output solution \( \bar{x}_t \) as a convex combination of the sequence \( \{x_t\} \). Note that we have not specified the parameters \( \{q_t\} \), \( \{\gamma\} \) and \( \{\alpha_t\} \) yet. In fact, the selection of these parameters will depend on the problem classes to be solved. We will discuss this issue after establishing some generic convergence properties of this method.

The first technical result below characterizes the solution of the projection (or prox-mapping) step (3.3.5). It is worth noting that the function \( \nu \) is not necessarily strongly convex.

**Lemma 3.5.** Let the convex function \( \nu : X \to \mathbb{R} \), the points \( \bar{x}, \bar{y} \in X \) and the scalars \( \mu_1, \mu_2 \geq 0 \) be given. Let \( v : X \to \mathbb{R} \) be a differentiable convex function and \( V(x, z) \) be defined in (3.2.2). If

\[
\hat{u} \in \text{Argmin}\{p(u) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, u) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, u) : u \in X \},
\]

then for any \( u \in X \), we have

\[
p(\hat{u}) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, \hat{u}) \leq p(u) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, u) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, u) - (\mu_1 + \mu_2) V(\hat{u}, u).
\]

**Proof.** The definition of \( \hat{u} \) and the fact \( V(\bar{x}, \cdot) \) is a differentiable convex function imply that, for some \( p'(\hat{u}) \in \partial p(\hat{u}) \), we have

\[
\langle p'(\hat{u}) + \mu_1 \nabla V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \mu_2 \nabla V(\bar{y}, \hat{u}), u - \hat{u} \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall u \in X,
\]

where \( \nabla V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) \) denotes the gradient of \( V(\bar{x}, \cdot) \) at \( \hat{u} \). Using the definition of \( V(x, z) \) in (3.2.2), it is easy to verify that

\[
V(\bar{x}, u) = V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \langle \nabla V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}), u - \hat{u} \rangle + V(\hat{u}, u), \quad \forall u \in X.
\]

Using the above two relations and the assumption that \( p \) is convex, we then conclude that

\[
p(u) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, u) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, u) = p(u) + \mu_1 [V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \langle \nabla V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}), u - \hat{u} \rangle + V(\hat{u}, u)]
\]

\[
\quad + \mu_2 [V(\bar{y}, \hat{u}) + \langle \nabla V(\bar{y}, \hat{u}), u - \hat{u} \rangle + V(\hat{u}, u)]
\]

\[
\quad \geq p(\hat{u}) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, \hat{u})
\]

\[
\quad + \langle p'(\hat{u}) + \mu_1 \nabla V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \mu_2 \nabla V(\bar{y}, \hat{u}), u - \hat{u} \rangle
\]

\[
\quad + (\mu_1 + \mu_2) V(\hat{u}, u)
\]

\[
\quad \geq [p(\hat{u}) + \mu_1 V(\bar{x}, \hat{u}) + \mu_2 V(\bar{y}, \hat{u})] + (\mu_1 + \mu_2) V(\hat{u}, u).
\]
Proposition 3.1 below describes some important recursion of the accelerated gradient descent method.

**Proposition 3.1.** Let \((x_n, x_{n-1}, \bar{x}_n) \in X \times X \times X\) be generated by the accelerated gradient method in (3.3.4)-(3.3.6). If

\[
\alpha_t \geq q_t, \quad (3.3.7)
\]
\[
\frac{L(\alpha_t - q_t)}{1 - q_t} \leq \mu, \quad (3.3.8)
\]
\[
\frac{Lq_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{1 - q_t} \leq \frac{1}{\bar{r}}, \quad (3.3.9)
\]

then for any \(x \in X\),

\[
f(\bar{x}_n) - f(x) + \alpha_t(\mu + \frac{1}{\bar{r}})V(x_t, x) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)[f(\bar{x}_{n-1}) - f(x)] + \frac{\mu}{\bar{r}}V(x_{n-1}, x). \quad (3.3.10)
\]

**Proof.** Denote \(d_t = \bar{x}_t - x_t\). It follows from (3.3.4) and (3.3.6) that

\[
d_t = (q_t - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{n-1} + \alpha_t x_t - q_t x_{n-1} = \alpha_t \left[ x_t - \frac{\alpha_t - q_t}{\alpha_t(1 - q_t)}x_t - \frac{q_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{\alpha_t(1 - q_t)}x_{n-1} \right], \quad (3.3.11)
\]

which, in view of the convexity of \(\|\cdot\|^2\) and (3.3.7), implies that

\[
\|d_t\|^2 \leq \alpha_t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t - q_t}{1 - q_t} \|x_t - x_{n-1}\|^2 + \frac{q_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{1 - q_t} \|x_t - x_{n-1}\|^2 \right].
\]

Using the above relation and (3.3.2), we have

\[
f(\bar{x}_n) \leq f(x_n) + \langle f'(x_n), \bar{x}_n - x_n \rangle + \frac{\mu}{\bar{r}}\|d_t\|^2
\]
\[
= (1 - \alpha_t)[f(x_n) + \langle f'(x_n), \bar{x}_{n-1} - x_n \rangle] + \alpha_t [f(x_t) + \langle f'(x_t), x_t - x_{n-1} \rangle] + \frac{\mu}{\bar{r}}\|d_t\|^2
\]
\[
\leq (1 - \alpha_t)f(\bar{x}_{n-1})
\]
\[
+ \alpha_t \left[ f(x_n) + \langle f'(x_n), x_t - x_{n-1} \rangle + \frac{L(\alpha_t - q_t)}{2(1 - q_t)}\|x_t - x_{n-1}\|^2 + \frac{Lq_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{2(1 - q_t)}\|x_t - x_{n-1}\|^2 \right]
\]
\[
\leq (1 - \alpha_t)f(\bar{x}_{n-1})
\]
\[
+ \alpha_t \left[ f(x_n) + \langle f'(x_n), x_t - x_{n-1} \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x) + \frac{1}{\bar{r}}V(x_{n-1}, x) \right], \quad (3.3.12)
\]

where the last inequality follows from (3.2.3), (3.3.8) and (3.3.9). Now using the above inequality, the definition of \(x_t\) in (3.3.5), and Lemma 3.5, we conclude

\[
f(\bar{x}_n) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)f(\bar{x}_{n-1}) + \alpha_t [f(x_n) + \langle f'(x_n), x - x_{n-1} \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x)]
\]
\[
+ \frac{\mu}{\bar{r}}V(x_{n-1}, x) - \alpha_t(\mu + \frac{1}{\bar{r}})V(x_t, x)
\]
\[
\leq (1 - \alpha_t)f(\bar{x}_{n-1}) + \alpha_t f(x) + \frac{\alpha_t}{\bar{r}}V(x_{n-1}, x) - \alpha_t(\mu + \frac{1}{\bar{r}})V(x_t, x),
\]


\[
\frac{L(\alpha_t - q_t)}{1 - q_t} \leq \mu, \quad (3.3.8)
\]
\[
\frac{Lq_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{1 - q_t} \leq \frac{1}{\bar{r}}, \quad (3.3.9)
\]
where the last inequality follows from (3.3.3). Subtracting \( f(z) \) from both sides of the above inequality and rearranging the terms, we obtain the result.

Below we discuss the convergence of the accelerated gradient descent method for smooth convex function which are not necessarily strongly convex (i.e., \( \mu = 0 \)).

**Theorem 3.6.** Let \((x_t, x_t, \bar{x}_t) \in X \times X \times X\) be generated by the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.3.4)-(3.3.6). If

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha_t &= q_t, \\
L\alpha_t &\leq \frac{1}{\gamma}, \\
\frac{\gamma(1-\alpha_t)}{\alpha_t} &\leq \frac{\gamma_{t-1}}{\alpha_{t-1}},
\end{align*}
\]

for any \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), then we have

\[
f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x^*) + \frac{\alpha_k}{L} V(x_k, x^*) \leq \frac{\alpha_k \gamma(1-\alpha_t)}{\alpha_t} [f(\bar{x}_0) - f(x^*)] + \frac{\alpha_k}{L} V(x_0, x^*). \tag{3.3.16}
\]

In particular, if \( q_t = \alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+1} \) and \( \gamma_t = \frac{t}{t+1} \), for any \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), then

\[
f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{4L}{k(k+1)} V(x_0, x^*). 
\]

**Proof.** Using the fact that \( \mu = 0 \), (3.3.13) and (3.3.14), we can easily see that (3.3.7)-(3.3.9) hold. It then follows from (3.3.10) that

\[
\frac{\gamma}{\alpha_t} [f(\bar{x}_t) - f(x^*)] + V(x_t, x^*) \leq \frac{\gamma_t(1-\alpha_t)}{\alpha_t} [f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) - f(x^*)] + V(x_{t-1}, x^*)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\gamma_{t-1}}{\alpha_{t-1}} [f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) - f(x^*)] + V(x_{t-1}, x^*),
\]

where the last inequality follows from (3.3.15) and the fact that \( f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) - f(x^*) \geq 0 \). Summing up these inequalities and rearranging the terms, we obtain (3.3.16). 

It follows from the previous result that in order to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( f(\bar{x}) - f(x^*) \leq \varepsilon \), the number of iteration performed by the accelerated gradient method can be bounded by \( O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon}) \). This bound turns out to be optimal for solving a general class of large-scale smooth convex optimization problems. One way to improve this complexity bound is to consider more specialized problems. Below we introduce a substantially improved result for the smooth and strongly convex case, i.e., \( \mu > 0 \).

**Theorem 3.7.** Let \((x_t, x_t, \bar{x}_t) \in X \times X \times X\) be generated by the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.3.4)-(3.3.6). If \( \alpha_t = \alpha, \gamma_t = \gamma \) and \( q_t = q, t = 1, \ldots, k \), satisfy (3.3.7)-(3.3.9) and

\[
\frac{1}{\gamma(1-\alpha)} \leq \mu + \frac{1}{\gamma}, \tag{3.3.17}
\]

then for any \( x \in X \),
\[ f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x) + \alpha(\mu + \frac{1}{\gamma})V(x_{k-1}, x) \leq (1 - \alpha)^k [f(\bar{x}_0) - f(x) + \alpha(\mu + \frac{1}{\gamma})V(x_1, x)]. \] (3.3.18)

In particular, if
\[ \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}, \quad q = \frac{\alpha - \mu}{1 - \mu}, \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma = \frac{\alpha}{\mu(1 - \alpha)}, \] (3.3.19)
then for any \( x \in X, \)
\[ f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x) + \alpha(\mu + \frac{1}{\gamma})V(x_{k-1}, x) \leq (1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}})^k [f(\bar{x}_0) - f(x) + \alpha(\mu + \frac{1}{\gamma})V(x_1, x)]. \] (3.3.20)

**Proof.** The result in (3.3.18) follows directly from (3.3.10) and (3.3.17). Moreover, we can easily check that the parameters in (3.3.19) satisfy (3.3.7)-(3.3.9) and (3.3.17) with equality, which implies (3.3.20).

Using a similar reasoning to (3.1.23), we can see that the total number of iterations performed by the accelerated gradient method to solve strongly convex problems can be bounded by \( \mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right) \) in order to find a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( f(\bar{x}) - f(x^*) \leq \varepsilon. \)

We now turn our attention to a relatively easy extension of the accelerated gradient descent method for solving a certain class of nonsmooth optimization problems given by
\[ \min_{x \in X} \{ f(x) := \hat{f}(x) + F(x) \}. \] (3.3.21)
Here \( \hat{f} \) is a simple (not necessarily smooth) convex function and \( F \) is a smooth convex function with Lipschitz continuous gradients. Moreover, we assume that the Lipschitz constant of \( \nabla F \) is given by \( L \) and that for some \( \mu \geq 0, \)
\[ F(y) \geq F(x) + \langle F'(x), y - x \rangle + \mu V(x,y), \quad \forall x, y \in X. \] (3.3.22)

In order to solve the above composite problem, we only need to slightly modify (3.3.4)-(3.3.6) as follows.

\[ x_t = (1 - q_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + q_t x_{t-1}, \] (3.3.23)
\[ x_t = \argmin_{x \in X} \{ \gamma [ (\hat{f}'(x_t), x) + \mu V(\bar{x}_t, x) + \hat{f}(x)] + V(x_{t-1}, x) \}, \] (3.3.24)
\[ \bar{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t. \] (3.3.25)

Hence, the difference exists in that we keep \( \hat{f} \) inside the subproblem (3.3.24).

**Corollary 3.5.** The performance guarantees stated in Theorems 3.6 and 3.7 still hold for the above variant of accelerated gradient descent method applied to (3.3.21).

**Proof.** It suffices to show that Proposition 3.1 holds. First note that relation (3.3.12) still holds with \( f \) replaced by \( F \), i.e.,
\[ F(\bar{x}_i) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)F(\bar{x}_{i-1}) + \alpha_t \left[ F(x_t) + \langle F'(x_t), x_t - x_i \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x_i) + \frac{1}{\nu} V(x_{t-1}, x_i) \right]. \]

Moreover, by convexity of \( \hat{f} \), we have \( \hat{f}(\bar{x}_i) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)\hat{f}(\bar{x}_{i-1}) + \alpha_t \hat{f}(x_i) \). Adding up the previous two relations, using the definition of \( x_t \) in (3.3.24), and Lemma 3.5, we conclude

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{f}(\bar{x}_i) &\leq (1 - \alpha_t)\hat{f}(\bar{x}_{i-1}) + \alpha_t \left[ F(x_t) + \langle F'(x_t), x_t - x_i \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x_i) + \hat{f}(x_i) \right] \\
&\leq (1 - \alpha_t)\hat{f}(\bar{x}_{i-1}) + \alpha_t \left[ F(x_t) + \langle F'(x_t), x_t - x_i \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x_i) + \hat{f}(x) \right] \\
&\leq (1 - \alpha_t)\hat{f}(\bar{x}_{i-1}) + \alpha_t f(x) + \frac{\mu}{\nu} V(x_{t-1}, x) - \alpha_t (\mu + \frac{1}{\nu}) V(x_t, x),
\end{align*}
\]

where the last inequality follows from (3.3.22). Subtracting \( f(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality and rearranging the terms, we obtain the result.

\[ \]  

### 3.4 Game interpretation for accelerated gradient descent

In this subsection, we intend to provide some intuition that might help us to better understand the accelerated gradient descent method.

First let us consider the smooth case without the strong convexity assumption, i.e., \( \mu = 0 \) in (3.3.3). Let \( J_f \) be the conjugate function of \( f \), i.e., \( J_f(y) = \max_{\langle x, y \rangle} - f(x) \). Since \( f \) is convex and smooth, it is proper and the conjugate of \( J_f \) is given by \( (J_f)^* = f \). We can then rewrite (3.1.2) equivalently as

\[
\min_{x \in X} \max_{y} \left\{ \langle x, y \rangle - J_f(y) \right\}. \quad (3.4.1)
\]

This saddle point reformulation admits some natural buyer-supplier game interpretation. In particular, the dual variables \( y \) can be viewed as the prices for a list of products, and \( x \) are the order quantities for the buyer. The supplier’s goal is to specify the prices to maximize the profit \( \langle x, y \rangle - J_f(y) \) while the buyer intends to minimize the cost given by \( \langle x, y \rangle \) by determining the order quantities \( x \). Given an initial pair of order quantities and product prices \( (x_0, y_0) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^n \), we need to design an iterative algorithm to play this game so that the buyer and supplier can achieve the equilibrium as soon as possible.

Next we describe the supplier and buyer’s strategies to play this game iteratively, and then demonstrate that the accelerated gradient descent method can be viewed as a special case of this procedure. Let \( V \) be the prox-function defined in (3.2.2) and define

\[
W(y_1, y_2) := J_f(y_2) - J_f(y_1) - \langle J_f'(y_1), y_2 - y_1 \rangle. \quad (3.4.2)
\]
The supplier and buyer will iteratively perform the following three steps.

\[ \tilde{x}_t = x_{t-1} + \lambda_t (x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), \quad (3.4.3) \]
\[ y_t = \arg\min_y (-\tilde{x}_t, y) + J_f(y) + \tau W(y_{t-1}, y), \quad (3.4.4) \]
\[ x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} (y_t, x) + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x). \quad (3.4.5) \]

In (3.4.3), the supplier predicts the demand by using historical data \( x_{t-1} \) and \( x_{t-2} \). In (3.4.4), the supplier intends to maximize the profit without moving too far away from \( y_{t-1} \) in terms of \( W(y_{t-1}, y) \). Then in (3.4.5) the buyer determines the order quantity by minimizing the cost without moving too far way from \( x_{t-1} \) in terms of \( V(x_{t-1}, x) \).

It is interesting to notice that problem (3.4.4) is equivalent to the computation of gradients.

**Lemma 3.6.** Let \( \tilde{x} \in X \) and \( y_0 \) be given. Also for any \( \tau > 0 \), let us denote \( z = [\tilde{x} + \tau J_f(y_0)]/(1 + \tau) \). Then we have

\[ \nabla f(z) = \arg\min_y \left\{ (-\tilde{x}, y) + J_f(y) + \tau W(y_0, y) \right\}. \]

**Proof.** In view of the definition of \( W(y_0, y) \), we have

\[ \arg\min_y \left\{ (-\tilde{x}, y) + J_f(y) + \tau W(y_0, y) \right\} \]
\[ = \arg \min_y \left\{ -(\tilde{x} + \tau J_f(y_0), y) + (1 + \tau) J_f(y) \right\} \]
\[ = \arg \max_y \left\{ (z, y) - J_f(y) \right\} = \nabla f(z). \]

In view of the above result, if

\[ J_f(y_{t-1}) = \xi_{t-1}, \quad (3.4.6) \]
\[ \xi_t = \frac{1}{1 + \xi_t} (\tilde{x}_t + \tau \xi_{t-1}), \quad (3.4.7) \]

then

\[ y_t = \arg\min_y \left\{ -(\xi_t, y) + J_f(y) \right\} = \nabla f(\xi_t). \quad (3.4.8) \]

Moreover, by the optimality condition of (3.4.8), we must have \( \xi_t = J_f'(y_t) \) for some \( J_f'(y_t) \in \partial J_f(y_t) \). Therefore, we can show that (3.4.6), (3.4.7) and (3.4.8) hold by induction, under the assumption that \( J_f'(y_0) = \xi_0 \). The latter assumption can be satisfied by setting \( y_0 = \nabla f(\xi_0) \). Using these observations, we can reformulate (3.4.3)-(3.4.5) as

\[ \xi_t = \frac{1}{1 + \xi_t} (\tilde{x}_t + \tau \xi_{t-1}) \]
\[ = \frac{1}{1 + \xi_t} \left[ \tau x_{t-1} + (1 + \lambda_t)x_{t-1} - \lambda_t x_{t-2} \right], \quad (3.4.9) \]
\[ x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ \nabla f(\xi_t), x \} + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x). \quad (3.4.10) \]
Now we will show that the above definition of $\bar{x}_t$ and $x_t$ will be equivalent to those in the accelerated gradient descent method (3.3.4)-(3.3.6). It can be seen from (3.3.4) and (3.3.6) that

$$\bar{x}_t = (1 - q_t) \left[ (1 - \alpha_{t-1}) \bar{x}_{t-1} \right] + q_t x_{t-1}$$

$$= (1 - q_t) \left[ \frac{1 - \alpha_{t-1}}{1 - q_{t-1}} (x_{t-1} - q_t x_{t-1}) + \alpha_{t-1} x_{t-1} \right] + q_t x_{t-1}$$

$$= \frac{1 - q_t}{1 - q_{t-1}} \bar{x}_{t-1} + [(1 - q_t) \alpha_{t-1} + q_t] x_{t-1} - \frac{q_t}{1 - q_{t-1}} (1 - \alpha_{t-1}) x_{t-2}. \quad (3.4.11)$$

In particular, if $q_t = \alpha_t$ as in the smooth case, the above relation can be further simplified to

$$\bar{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t) \bar{x}_{t-1} + [(1 - \alpha_t) \alpha_{t-1} + \alpha_t] x_{t-1} - \alpha_{t-1} (1 - \alpha_t) x_{t-2},$$

which is equivalent to (3.4.9) if

$$\tau_t = \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\alpha_t} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_t = \frac{\alpha_{t-1} (1 - \alpha_t)}{\alpha_t}.$$  

Now let us consider the strongly convex case with $\mu > 0$. In order to provide a game interpretation, we define

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x) - \mu \nu(x).$$

By (3.3.3), the function $\tilde{f}(x)$ must be a convex function. Indeed, for any $x, y \in X$,

$$\tilde{f}(y) - \tilde{f}(x) - \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(x), y-x \rangle = f(y) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x), y-x \rangle - \mu V(x,y) \geq 0.$$

We can then rewrite (3.1.2) as

$$\min_{x \in X} \mu \nu(x) + \tilde{f}(x),$$

or equivalently,

$$\min_{x \in X} \mu \nu(x) + \max_y \left\{ (x,y) - J_f(y) \right\}, \quad (3.4.12)$$

where $J_f$ denotes the conjugate function of $\tilde{f}$. Accordingly, we define the iterative game between the supplier and buyer as follows.

$$\bar{x}_t = x_{t-1} + \lambda_t (x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), \quad (3.4.13)$$

$$y_t = \arg\min_y \langle -\bar{x}_t, y \rangle + J_f(y) + \nu W(y_{t-1}, y), \quad (3.4.14)$$

$$x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle y_t, x \rangle + \mu \nu(x) + \eta V(x_{t-1}, x). \quad (3.4.15)$$

In (3.4.13), the supplier predicts the demand by using historical data $x_{t-1}$ and $x_{t-2}$. In (3.4.14), the supplier still intends to maximize the profit without moving too far away from $y_{t-1}$ in terms of $W(y_{t-1}, y)$, but the local cost function changes to $J_f(y)$. Then in (3.4.15) the buyer determines the order quantity by minimizing the local cost $\langle y_t, x \rangle + \mu \nu(x)$ without moving too far away from $x_{t-1}$ in terms of $V(x_{t-1}, x)$.
Similar to (3.4.9) and (3.4.10), we can show that
\[ x_t = \frac{1}{1+\tau_t} \left[ \tau_t x_{t-1} + (1+\lambda_t) x_{t-2} \right], \]  
(3.4.16)
\[ x_t = \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle \nabla \tilde{f}(x_t), x \rangle + \mu V(x_{t-1}, x) \]
\[ = \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle \nabla f(x_t) - \mu \nabla \nu(x_t), x \rangle + \mu w(x) + \eta V(x_{t-1}, x) \]
\[ = \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle \nabla f(x_t), x \rangle + \mu V(x_t, x) + \eta V(x_{t-1}, x). \]  
(3.4.17)

By properly choosing \( \tau_t, \lambda_t, q_t \) and \( \alpha_t \), we can show these steps are equivalent to (3.3.4) and (3.3.5).

### 3.5 Smoothing scheme for nonsmooth problems

In this section, we consider the convex programming problem of
\[ f^* \equiv \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{ f(x) := \tilde{f}(x) + F(x) \}, \]  
(3.5.1)
where \( \tilde{f} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a simple Lipschitz continuous convex function and
\[ F(x) := \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) \}. \]  
(3.5.2)

Here, \( \mathcal{Y} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \) is a compact convex set, \( \hat{g} : \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a continuous convex function on \( \mathcal{Y} \) and \( A \) denotes a linear operator from \( \mathbb{R}^n \) to \( \mathbb{R}^m \). Observe also that problem (3.5.1)-(3.5.2) can be written in an adjoint form:
\[ \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \{ g(y) := -\hat{g}(y) + G(y) \}, \quad G(y) := \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle + \tilde{f}(x) \}. \]  
(3.5.3)

While the function \( F \) given by (3.5.2) is a nonsmooth convex function in general, it can be closely approximated by a class of smooth convex functions defined as follows. Let \( \omega(y) \) be a distance-generating function of \( \mathcal{Y} \) with modulus 1 and prox-center \( c_\omega = \arg\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \omega(y) \). Also let us denote
\[ W(y) \equiv W(c_\omega, y) := \omega(y) - \omega(c_\omega) - \langle \nabla \omega(c_\omega), y - c_\omega \rangle, \]
and, for some \( \eta > 0 \),
\[ F_\eta(x) := \max_y \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) - \eta W(y) : y \in \mathcal{Y} \}, \]  
(3.5.4)
\[ f_\eta(x) := \tilde{f}(x) + F_\eta(x). \]  
(3.5.5)

Then we have, for every \( x \in \mathcal{X} \),
\[ F_\eta(x) \leq F(x) \leq F_\eta(x) + \eta D_Y^2, \]  
(3.5.6)
and, as a consequence,

\[ f_\eta(x) \leq f(x) \leq f_\eta(x) + \eta D_y^2, \]

where \( D_y \equiv D_{y,\omega} \) is defined in (3.2.4). Moreover, we can show that \( F_\eta \) is a smooth convex function.

**Lemma 3.7.** \( F_\eta(\cdot) \) has Lipschitz-continuous gradient with constant

\[ \mathcal{L}_\eta \equiv \mathcal{L}(F_\eta) := \frac{\|A\|^2}{\eta}, \]

where \( \|A\| \) denote the operator norm of \( A \).

**Proof.** Let \( x_1, x_2 \in Y \) be given, and denote

\[ y_1 = \arg\max_y \{ \langle Ax_1, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) - \eta W(y) : y \in Y \}, \]

\[ y_2 = \arg\max_y \{ \langle Ax_2, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) - \eta W(y) : y \in Y \}. \]

The gradients of \( F_\eta \) at \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \), by implicit function theorem, are given by \( A^T y_1 \) and \( A^T y_2 \), respectively. By the optimality conditions for (3.5.9) and (3.5.10), we have

\[ \langle Ax_1 - \hat{g}'(y_1) - \eta [\nabla \omega(y_1) - \nabla \omega(c_\omega)], y - y_1 \rangle \leq 0, \]

\[ \langle Ax_2 - \hat{g}'(y_2) - \eta [\nabla \omega(y_2) - \nabla \omega(c_\omega)], y - y_2 \rangle \leq 0, \]

for any \( y \in Y \) and some \( \hat{g}'(y_1) \in \partial \hat{g}(y_1) \) and \( \hat{g}'(y_2) \in \partial \hat{g}(y_2) \). Letting \( y = y_2 \) and \( y = y_1 \) in (3.5.11) and (3.5.12) respectively, and summing up the resulting inequalities, we obtain

\[ -\langle A(x_1 - x_2), y_1 - y_2 \rangle + \langle \eta \nabla \omega(y_1) - \nabla \omega(y_2), y_1 - y_2 \rangle \leq 0. \]

Using the above inequality and the strong convexity of \( \omega \), we conclude

\[ \eta \|y_1 - y_2\|^2 \leq \eta \langle \nabla \omega(y_1) - \nabla \omega(y_2), y_1 - y_2 \rangle \leq -\langle A(x_1 - x_2), y_1 - y_2 \rangle \leq \|A\| \|x_1 - x_2\| \|y_1 - y_2\|, \]

which implies that \( \|y_1 - y_2\| \leq \|A\| \|x_1 - x_2\| / \eta \) and hence that

\[ \|\nabla F_\eta(x_1) - \nabla F_\eta(x_2)\| = \|A^T(y_1 - y_2)\| \leq \|A\|^2 \|x_1 - x_2\| / \eta. \]

Since \( F_\eta \) is a smooth convex function and \( \hat{f} \) is a simple convex function, we can apply the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.3.23)-(3.3.25) to solve

\[ f_\eta^* := \min_{x \in X} f_\eta(x). \]

Then, in view of Theorem 3.6 and Corollary 3.5, after performing the algorithm for at most
\[
\left\lceil 2 \sqrt{\frac{2L \eta D_x^2}{\varepsilon}} \right\rceil
\] (3.5.14)

iterations, we will be able to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( f_\eta(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \). Noting that by (3.5.7), \( f(\bar{x}) \leq f_\eta(\bar{x}) + \eta D_x^2 \) and \( f^* \geq f_\eta^* \), we then conclude that

\[
f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \eta D_x^2.
\]

If one choose \( \eta > 0 \) small enough, e.g.,

\[
\eta = \frac{\varepsilon}{2D_x^2},
\]

then we will have

\[
f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \varepsilon
\]

and the total number of iterations in (3.5.14) will reduce to

\[
\left\lceil \frac{4\|A\|D_xD_y}{\varepsilon} \right\rceil.
\]

Observe that in the above discussion, we have assumed \( \hat{f} \) to be relatively simple. Of course this does not have to be true. For example, if \( \hat{f} \) itself is a smooth convex function and its gradients are \( \hat{L} \)-Lipschitz continuous, then we can apply the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.3.23)-(3.3.25) (rather than (3.3.23)-(3.3.25)) to solve (3.5.13). This method will require us to compute the gradient of both \( \hat{f} \) and \( F_\eta \) at each iteration. Then it is not difficult to show that the total number of iterations performed by this method for finding a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( f(\bar{x}) - f^* \) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{LD_x^2}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{\|A\|D_xD_y}{\varepsilon} \right\}.
\]

It is worth noting that this bound can be substantially improved, in terms of the total number of gradient computations of \( \nabla \hat{f} \). We will have some further discussions for this type of improvement in Section 8.2.

### 3.6 Primal-dual method for saddle-point optimization

In this subsection, we continue our discussion about the following more general (than (3.5.1)) bilinear saddle point optimization problem:

\[
\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \hat{f}(x) + \max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) \right\}. \tag{3.6.1}
\]

Here \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \) are closed convex sets, \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \) denotes a linear mapping from \( \mathbb{R}^n \) to \( \mathbb{R}^m \), and \( \hat{f} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) and \( \hat{g} : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) are convex functions satisfying
The primal-dual method for solving the saddle point problem (3.6.1) covers the optimization of a pair of functions $f(x, y)$ and $g(x, y)$ subject to a linear constraint $Ax = b$. The method is based on the following optimality conditions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{f}(y) - \dot{f}(x) - \langle \dot{f}'(x), y - x \rangle & \geq \mu_p V(x, y), \quad \forall x, y \in X, \\
\dot{g}(y) - \dot{g}(x) - \langle \dot{g}'(x), y - x \rangle & \geq \mu_d W(x, y), \quad \forall x, y \in Y,
\end{align*}
\]

for some $\mu_p \geq 0$ and $\mu_d \geq 0$, where $V$ and $W$, respectively, denote the prox-functions associated with distances generating functions $\nu$ and $\omega$ in the primal and dual spaces, i.e.,

\[
\begin{align*}
V(x, y) & := \nu(y) - \nu(x) - \langle \nu'(x, y), y - x \rangle, \\
W(x, y) & := \omega(y) - \omega(x) - \langle \omega'(x, y), y - x \rangle.
\end{align*}
\]

For the sake of simplicity, we assume that both $\nu$ and $\omega$ have modulus 1 w.r.t. the respective norms in the primal and dual spaces. Without specific mention, we assume that the set of optimal primal and dual solutions of (3.6.1) is nonempty, and that $z^* := (x^*, y^*)$ is an optimal pair of primal and dual solutions of (3.6.1).

As discussed in the previous subsection, problem (3.6.1) covers the optimization problem (3.1.2) as a special case. As another example, we can write the Lagrangian dual of

\[
\min_{x \in X} \{ f(x) : Ax = b \}
\]

in the form of (3.6.1) by dualizing the linear constraint $Ax = b$.

Denote $z \equiv (x, y)$ and $\bar{z} \equiv (\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ and define

\[
Q(\bar{z}, z) := \dot{f}(\bar{x}) + \langle Ax, y \rangle - \dot{g}(y) - [\dot{f}(x) + \langle Ax, y \rangle - \dot{g}(y)].
\]

Note that by definition $\bar{z}$ is a saddle point if and only if $\forall z = (x, y) \in Z$,

\[
\dot{f}(\bar{x}) + \langle Ax, y \rangle - \dot{g}(y) \leq \dot{f}(x) + \langle Ax, y \rangle - \dot{g}(y) \leq \dot{f}(\bar{x}) + \langle Ax, \bar{y} \rangle - \dot{g}(\bar{y}).
\]

It then follows that $\bar{z} \in Z \equiv X \times Y$ is a pair of saddle points if and only if $Q(\bar{z}, z) \leq 0$ for any $z \in Z$, or equivalent, $Q(z, \bar{z}) \geq 0$ for any $z \in Z$.

The smoothing scheme described in Section 3.5 can be viewed as an indirect approach for solving bilinear saddle point problems. Below we describe a direct primal-dual method for solving the saddle point problem (3.6.1). This method generalizes the game interpretation of the accelerated gradient descent method discussed in Section 3.4. Given $(x_{t-2}, x_{t-1}, y_{t-1}) \in X \times X \times Y$, this algorithm updates $x_t$ and $y_t$ according to

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}_t &= x_{t-1} + \lambda_t (x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), \\
y_t &= \text{argmin}_{y \in Y} \left[ -Ax_t, y \right] + \dot{g}(y) + \tau W(y_{t-1}, y), \\
x_t &= \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \left[ y_t, Ax_t \right] + \dot{f}(x) + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x).
\end{align*}
\]

Clearly, the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.4.3)-(3.4.5) can be viewed as a special case of the above primal-dual method applied to problem (3.4.12).

We first state a simple relation based on the optimality conditions for (3.6.9) and (3.6.10).
Lemma 3.8. Assume that \( \phi : X \to \mathbb{R} \) satisfies
\[
\phi(y) \geq \phi(x) + \langle \phi'(x), y - x \rangle + \mu V(x,y), \quad \forall x, y \in X
\] (3.6.11)
for some \( \mu \geq 0 \). If \( \bar{x} = \arg\min \{ \phi(x) + V(x,x) \} \),
\[
\phi(x) + V(x,x) = \phi(x) + [V(x,x) + \langle \nabla V(x,x), x - \bar{x} \rangle + V(x,x)]
\] (3.6.12)
then
\[
\phi(x) + V(x,x) + (\mu + 1)V(x,x) \leq \phi(x) + V(x,x), \forall x \in X.
\]

Proof. It follows from the definition of \( V \) that \( V(x,x) = V(x,x) + \langle \nabla V(x,x), x - \bar{x} \rangle + V(x,x) \). Using this relation, (3.6.11) and the optimality condition for problem (3.6.12), we have
\[
\phi(x) + V(x,x) = \phi(x) + [V(x,x) + \langle \nabla V(x,x), x - \bar{x} \rangle + V(x,x)]
\]
\[
\geq \phi(x) + \langle \phi'(x), y - \bar{x} \rangle + \mu V(x,x)
\]
\[
+ [V(x,x) + \langle \nabla V(x,x), x - \bar{x} \rangle + V(x,x)]
\]
\[
\geq \phi(x) + V(x,x) + (\mu + 1)V(x,x), \forall x \in X.
\]

We now prove some general convergence properties of the primal-dual method.

Theorem 3.8. If
\[
\gamma \lambda_t = \gamma_{-1},
\]
\[
\gamma \tau_t \leq \gamma_{-1} (\tau_{-1} + \mu_d),
\]
\[
\gamma \eta_t \leq \gamma_{-1} (\eta_{t-1} + \mu_p),
\]
\[
\tau_t \eta_t \geq \lambda_t ||A||^2,
\]
for any \( t \geq 2 \), then
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma Q(z_i, z) \leq \gamma_1 \eta_1 V(x_0,x) - \gamma_k (\eta_k + \mu_p) V(x_k,x)
\]
\[
+ \gamma_1 \tau_1 W(y_0,y) - \gamma_k \left( \tau_k + \mu_d - \frac{||A||^2}{\tau_k} \right) W(y_k,y).
\] (3.15.17)

Moreover, we have
\[
\gamma \left( \tau_k + \mu_d - \frac{||A||^2}{\tau_k} \right) W(y_k,y) \leq \gamma_1 \eta_1 V(x_0,x^*) + \gamma_1 \tau_1 W(y_0,y^*),
\]
\[
\gamma \left( \eta_k - \frac{||A||^2}{\tau_k + \mu_d} \right) V(x_{k-1},x_k) \leq \gamma_1 \eta_1 V(x_0,x^*) + \gamma_1 \tau_1 W(y_0,y^*).
\] (3.18.19)

Proof. It follows from Lemma 3.8 applied to (3.6.9) and (3.6.10) that
\[
\langle -A\bar{x}_t, y_t - y \rangle + \hat{g}(y_t) - \hat{g}(y) \leq \tau_t [W(y_{t-1},y) - W(x_{t-1},x)] - (\tau_t + \mu_d)W(y_t,y),
\]
\[
\langle A(x_t - x), y_t \rangle + \hat{f}(x_t) - \hat{f}(x) \leq \eta_t [V(x_{t-1},x) - V(x_{t-1},x_t)] - (\eta_t + \mu_p) V(x_t,x).
\]
Summing up these inequalities and using the definition of the gap function $Q$, we have
\[
Q(z_t, z) + \langle A(x_t - x_t), y_t - y \rangle \leq \eta_t [V(x_{t-1}, x) - V(x_{t-1}, x_t)] - (\eta_t + \mu_p) V(x_t, x) + \tau_t [W(y_{t-1}, y) - W(y_{t-1}, y_t)] - (\tau_t + \mu_d) W(y_t, y).
\]

Noting that by (3.4.13), we have
\[
\|A(x_t - x_t)\| \leq \lambda_t \|A(x_{t-1} - x_{t-2})\|.
\]

Combining the above two relations, multiplying both sides by $\gamma \geq 0$ and summing up the resulting inequality, we have
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma Q(z_t, z) + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma [\langle A(x_t - x_{t-1}), y_t - y \rangle - \lambda_t \langle A(x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), y_{t-1} - y_t \rangle]
\]
\[
\leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma [\eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x) - (\eta_t + \mu_p) V(x_t, x) + \tau_t W(y_{t-1}, y) - (\tau_t + \mu_d) W(y_t, y)]
\]
\[
- \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma [\tau_t W(y_{t-1}, y_t) + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x_t) + \lambda_t \langle A(x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), y_{t-1} - y_t \rangle].
\]

The above inequality, in view of (3.6.13)-(3.6.15) and the fact that $x_0 = x_{-1}$, then implies that
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma Q(z_t, z) \leq \gamma [\gamma \eta_t V(x_0, x) - \gamma \eta_k (\eta_k + \mu_p) V(x_k, x) + \gamma \tau_t W(y_0, y) - \gamma (\tau_k + \mu_d) W(y_k, y)
\]
\[
- \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma [\tau_t W(y_{t-1}, y_t) + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x_t) + \lambda_t \langle A(x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), y_{t-1} - y_t \rangle]
\]
\[
- \gamma k \langle A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y_k - y \rangle.
\]

Also note that by (3.6.13) and (3.6.16), we have
\[
- \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma [\tau_t W(y_{t-1}, y_t) + \eta_t V(x_{t-1}, x_t) + \lambda_t \langle A(x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}), y_{t-1} - y_t \rangle]
\]
\[
\leq - \sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma \frac{2 \lambda_t}{\tau_t} \|y_{t-1} - y_t\|^2 + \frac{\sqrt{\eta_{t-1}}}{2} \|x_{t-2} - x_{t-1}\|^2 - \gamma \lambda_t \|A\| \|x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}\| \|y_{t-1} - y_t\|
\]
\[
- \gamma \eta_k V(x_{k-1}, x_k)
\]
\[
\leq - \gamma \eta_k V(x_{k-1}, x_k).
\]

Combining the above two inequalities, we obtain
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma Q(z_t, z) \leq \gamma [\gamma \eta_t V(x_0, x) - \gamma (\eta_k + \mu_p) V(x_k, x) + \gamma \tau_t W(y_0, y)
\]
\[
- \gamma (\tau_k + \mu_d) W(y_k, y) - \gamma \eta_k V(x_{k-1}, x_k)
\]
\[
- \gamma k \langle A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y_k - y \rangle.
\] (3.6.20)

The result in (3.6.17) then follows from the above inequality and the fact that by (3.6.16),
will converge to zero by properly specifying the algorithmic parameters. We use the with unbounded feasible sets can be found later in Subsection 3.6.4 and Section 4.4.

Finally, (3.6.19) follows from similar ideas and a different bound

Fixing \( z = z^* \) in the above inequality and using the fact that \( Q(z, z^*) \geq 0 \), we obtain (3.6.18). Finally, (3.6.19) follows from similar ideas and a different bound

Based on Theorem 3.8, we will provide different ways to specify the algorithmic parameters \{ \( \tau \_i \}, \{ \eta \_i \} \) and \{ \( \gamma \_i \) \} for solving different classes of problems.

### 3.6.1 General bilinear saddle point problems

In this subsection, we assume that the parameters \( \mu_p = \mu_d = 0 \) in (3.6.2). Moreover, for the sake of simplicity, we assume that both the primal and dual feasible sets \( X \) and \( Y \) are bounded. Discussions about primal-dual type method for solving problems with unbounded feasible sets can be found later in Subsection 3.6.4 and Section 4.4.

Given \( z \in Z \), we define the primal-dual gap as

\[
\max_{z \in Z} Q(z, z). \tag{3.6.21}
\]

Our goal is to show that the primal-dual gap evaluated at the output solution

\[
\tilde{z}_k \equiv \frac{\sum_{t=1}^k (t_{z_k})}{\sum_{t=1}^k t} \tag{3.6.22}
\]

will converge to zero by properly specifying the algorithmic parameters. We use the following quantities in the convergence analysis of the primal dual method:

\[
D^2_X := D^2_{X,\cdot} := \max_{x_0 \in X} V(x_0, x) \text{ and } D^2_Y := D^2_{Y,\cdot} := \max_{y_0 \in Y} W(y_0, y). \tag{3.6.23}
\]

**Corollary 3.6.** If \( \gamma = 1, \tau_i = \tau, \eta_i = \eta, \lambda_i = 1 \) and \( \tau \eta \geq \|A\|^2 \) for any \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), then

\[
\max_{z \in Z} Q(z_k, z) \leq \frac{1}{k}(\eta D^2_X + \tau D^2_Y). \]
3.6 Primal-dual method for saddle-point optimization

Proof. We can easily check that all the conditions (3.6.13)-(3.6.16) hold. It then follows from (3.6.17) that
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} Q(z_t, z) \leq \eta V(x_0, x) + \tau W(y_0, y).
\]
(3.6.24)
Dividing both sides by \(k\) and using the convexity of \(Q(\bar{z}_k, z)\) w.r.t. \(\bar{z}_k\), we have
\[
Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{1}{k}[\eta V(x_0, x) + \tau W(y_0, y)].
\]
The result then follows by maximizing both sides of the above inequality w.r.t. \(z \in Z\).

It can be seen from the above result that the best selection of \(\tau\) and \(\eta\) is given by
\[
\eta = \|A\|D_y \quad \text{and} \quad \tau = \|A\|D_x.
\]
With such a selection, the rate of convergence of the primal-dual method reduces to
\[
\max_{z \in Z} Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{\|A\|D_y}{k}.
\]

3.6.2 Smooth bilinear saddle point problems

In this subsection, we first assume that \(\mu_p = 0\) but \(\mu_d > 0\). We call these problems smooth bilinear saddle point problems because the objective function in (3.6.1) is a differentiable convex function with Lipschitz continuous gradient. We will show that by properly specifying algorithmic parameters, the primal-dual method will exhibit an \(O(1/k^2)\) rate of convergence. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that the primal feasible region \(X\) is bounded.

Corollary 3.7. If \(\gamma_t = t, \tau_t = \mu_d (t - 1)/2, \eta_t = 2\|A\|^2/(\mu_d t)\) and \(\lambda_t = (t - 1)/t\), then
\[
\max_{z \in Z} Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{4\|A\|^2D^2}{\mu_d k(k+1)}.
\]
where \(\bar{z}_k\) is defined in (3.6.22)

Proof. Observe that all the conditions (3.6.13)-(3.6.16) hold. It then follows from (3.6.17) that
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \gamma Q(z_t, z) \leq \eta V(x_0, x) = \frac{2\|A\|^2V(x_0, x)}{\mu_d}.
\]
(3.6.25)
Dividing both sides by \(\sum_\gamma\) and using the convexity of \(Q(\bar{z}_k, z)\) w.r.t. \(\bar{z}_k\), we have
\[
Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{4\|A\|^2V(x_0, x)}{\mu_d k(k+1)}.
\]
The result then follows by maximizing both sides of the above inequality w.r.t. $z \in X$.

Next, we assume that $\mu_p > 0$ but $\mu_d = 0$. Moreover, for the sake of simplicity, we assume that the dual feasible set $Y$ is bounded. Similar to the previous corollary, we can show the following result.

**Corollary 3.8.** If $\gamma_t = t+1$, $\tau_t = 4\|A\|^2/([\mu_p(t+1)]$, $\eta_t = \mu_p/2$ and $\lambda_t = t/(t+1)$, then

$$\max_{z \in Z} Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{2}{k(k+3)} \left[ \mu_p D_k^2 + \frac{4\|A\|^2D_k^2}{\mu_p} \right].$$

**Proof.** Observe that all the conditions (3.6.13)-(3.6.16) hold. It then follows from (3.6.17) that

$$\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t Q(z_t, z) \leq \gamma_1 \eta_1 V(x_0, x) + \gamma_1 \tau_1 W(y_0, y)$$

$$\leq \mu_p V(x_0, x) + \frac{4\|A\|^2W(y_0, y)}{\mu_p}. \tag{3.6.26}$$

Dividing both sides by $\sum_t \gamma_t$ and using the convexity of $Q(\bar{z}_k, z)$ w.r.t. $\bar{z}_k$, we have

$$Q(\bar{z}_k, z) \leq \frac{2}{k(k+3)} \left[ \mu_p V(x_0, x) + \frac{4\|A\|^2W(y_0, y)}{\mu_p} \right].$$

The result then follows by maximizing both sides of the above inequality w.r.t. $z \in X$.

\[\] 3.6.3 Smooth and strongly convex bilinear saddle point problems

In this subsection, we assume that $\mu_p > 0$ and $\mu_d > 0$. We call these problems smooth and strongly convex bilinear saddle point problems because the objective function in (3.6.1) is both smooth and strongly convex.

**Corollary 3.9.** Assume that

$$\|A\|^2 \geq \mu_p \mu_d \text{ and } \lambda = 1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu_p \mu_d}{\|A\|^2}}.$$  

If $\gamma_t = \lambda^{-t}$, $\tau_t = \mu_d \lambda/(1 - \lambda)$, $\eta_t = \mu_p \lambda/(1 - \lambda)$ and $\lambda_t = \lambda$, then

$$\frac{\mu_p}{\lambda} V(x_k, x^\ast) + \mu_d W(y_k, y^\ast) \leq \frac{\lambda^k}{1 - \lambda} \left[ \mu_p V(x_0, x^\ast) + \mu_d W(y_0, y^\ast) \right].$$

**Proof.** Observe that all the conditions (3.6.13)-(3.6.16) hold. It then follows from (3.6.17) (with $z = z^\ast$) and $Q(z_t, z^\ast) \geq 0$ that

$$0 \leq \sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t Q(z_t, z^\ast) \leq \gamma_1 \tau_1 W(y_0, y^\ast) - \gamma_k \mu_d W(y_k, y^\ast)$$

$$+ \gamma_1 \eta_1 V(x_0, x^\ast) - \gamma_k (\eta_k + \mu_p) V(x_k, x^\ast),$$
which clearly implies the result.

### 3.6.4 Linearly constrained problems

In this subsection, we analyze the convergence of the primal-dual method applied to the linear constrained problem (3.6.6). For the sake of simplicity, let us assume that $b = 0$. We can then apply this algorithm with $\hat{f}(x) = f(x)$ and $\hat{g}(x) = 0$ to the saddle point reformulation of (3.6.6) given by

$$\min_{x \in X} \max_{y} \{ f(x) + \langle Ax, y \rangle \}.$$  (3.6.27)

Since the dual feasible set is unbounded, we set the dual prox-function to $W(y_{t-1} - 1, y) = \|y - y_{t-1}\|^2/2$ and restate the algorithm as follows.

$$\tilde{x}_t = x_{t-1} + \lambda \tilde{\lambda} (x_{t-1} - x_{t-2}),$$  (3.6.28)

$$y_t = \arg\min_{y} \{ \langle -A\tilde{x}_t, y \rangle + \frac{\tau}{2} \|y - y_{t-1}\|^2 \} = y_{t-1} + \frac{1}{\tau} A\tilde{x}_t,$$  (3.6.29)

$$x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle y_t, Ax \rangle + f(x) + \eta V(x_{t-1}, x).$$  (3.6.30)

Moreover, the dual feasible set of (3.6.27) is unbounded, we have to modify the convergence analysis given in the previous subsections.

We first prove a general convergence result for the above algorithm without specifying any algorithmic parameters.

**Theorem 3.9.** Suppose that the conditions in (3.6.13)-(3.6.16) hold (with $\mu_d = 0$). If, in addition,

$$\gamma_1 \tau_1 = \gamma_k \tau_k,$$  (3.6.31)

$$\tau_k \eta_k \geq \|A\|^2.$$  (3.6.32)

then

$$f(\tilde{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{t=1}^k} \left[ \gamma_1 \eta V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{\eta_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2 \right],$$  (3.6.33)

$$\|A\tilde{x}_k\| \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{t=1}^k} \left\{ \frac{\gamma_1 \tau_1 \sqrt{\eta + \|A\| \sqrt{\eta}}} {\sqrt{\eta + \|A\| \|A\|^2}} \sqrt{2\gamma_1 \eta V(x_0, x^*)} ight. + \left. \frac{\gamma_1 \tau_1 \sqrt{\eta + \|A\| \|A\|^2}} {\sqrt{\eta + \|A\| \|A\|^2}} \sqrt{\frac{\eta_1}{2}} \right\}.$$  (3.6.34)

**Proof.** It follows from (3.6.31) and (3.6.32) that...
Also by (3.6.18) and (3.6.19), we have
\[ \gamma_k \mathbf{t}_k W(y_0, y) - \gamma_k \mathbf{t}_k W(y_k, y) - \gamma_k \eta_k V(x_{k-1}, x_k) - \gamma_k \langle A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y_k - y \rangle \]
\[ \leq \frac{n_1}{2} \|y - y_0\|^2 - \frac{n_1}{2} \|y - y_k\|^2 - \frac{n_1}{2} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 - \gamma_k \langle A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y_k - y \rangle \]
\[ = \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2 - \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_k\|^2 - \frac{n_1}{2} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 - \gamma_k \langle A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y_k \rangle \]
\[ + \langle \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) + \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y \rangle \]
\[ \leq \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2 + \langle \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) + \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y \rangle, \]
which, in view of (3.6.20), then implies that
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \mathcal{O}(z_t, y) \leq \gamma \eta_1 V(x_0, x) - \gamma \eta_k + \mu_P V(x_k, x) \]
\[ + \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2 + \langle \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) + \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}), y \rangle. \]
Fixing \( x = x^* \) and noting that \( Ax^* = 0 \), we have \( \mathcal{O}(z_t, (x^*, y)) = f(x_t) - f(x^*) + \langle Ax_t, y \rangle \). Using the previous two relations, we obtain
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \gamma [f(x_t) - f(x^*)] + (\sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \gamma Ax_t) - \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) - \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}, y) \]
\[ \leq \gamma \eta_1 V(x_0, x^*) - \gamma (\eta_k + \mu_P) V(x_k, x^*) + \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2, \]  
(3.6.35)
for any \( y \), which implies
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{\mathcal{R}} (\gamma Ax_t) - \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) - \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}) = 0, \]
since otherwise the left-hand side of (3.6.35) can be unbounded. Using the above two observations and the convexity of \( f \), we have
\[ f(\bar{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}} \sum_{t=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \gamma_1 [f(x_t) - f(x^*)] \leq \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}} \sum_{t=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \left[ \gamma \eta_1 V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{n_1}{2} \|y_0\|^2 \right] \]
\[ \|Ax_k\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}} \sum_{t=1}^{\mathcal{R}} (\gamma Ax_t) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}} \sum_{t=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \left[ \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) + \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1}) \right] \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{\mathcal{R}} \sum_{t=1}^{\mathcal{R}} \|\gamma \mathbf{t}_1 (y_k - y_0) + \gamma A(x_k - x_{k-1})\|_2. \]  
(3.6.36)
Also by (3.6.18) and (3.6.19), we have
\[ \|y_k - y^*\|^2 \leq \frac{\eta_k}{\gamma \eta_1 V(x_0, x^*) + \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 \|y_0 - y^*\|^2} \]
\[ \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{\eta_k}{\gamma \eta_1 V(x_0, x^*) + \gamma \mathbf{t}_1 \|y_0 - y^*\|^2}, \]
which implies that
3.6 Primal-dual method for saddle-point optimization

\[ \gamma \eta_1 \|y_k - y_0\|_2 + \gamma \|A\| \|x_k - x_{k-1}\| \leq \gamma \tau \left[ \sqrt{2\eta_1 \eta V(x_0, x^*) + \sqrt{\gamma \tau} \|y_0 - y^*\|_2} \right] \]

Using this relation in (3.6.36), we obtain (3.6.34).

Corollary 3.10. If \( \gamma = 1, \ \tau = \tau, \ \eta = \eta, \ \lambda = 1 \) and \( \tau \eta \geq \|A\|^2 \) for any \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), then

\[ f(\tilde{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{1}{k} \left[ \eta V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{\tau}{\eta} \|y_0\|^2 \right], \]

\[ \|A\tilde{x}_k\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{k} \left[ \frac{\tau \eta + \|A\|^2}{\eta \tau + \|A\|^2} \sqrt{2\eta V(x_0, x^*)} \left( \frac{\tau \eta + \|A\|^2}{\eta \tau + \|A\|^2} + \tau \right) \|y_0 - y^*\|_2 \right]. \]

In particular, if \( \eta = 2\|A\| \) and \( \tau = \|A\| \), then

\[ f(\tilde{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{2\|A\|}{k} \left[ 2V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{\tau}{\eta} \|y_0\|^2 \right], \]

\[ \|A\tilde{x}_k\|_2 \leq \frac{2(\sqrt{2} + 1)}{k} \left[ 2(2 + \sqrt{3}) \|A\| \sqrt{2V(x_0, x^*)} + \frac{4(3 + \sqrt{3})\|A\|^2}{\mu_p} \|y_0 - y^*\|_2 \right]. \]

Next we consider the case when \( f \) is strongly convex with modulus \( \mu_p \).

Corollary 3.11. If \( \gamma = k + 1, \ \tau = \frac{4\|A\|^2}{\mu_p(k+1)}, \ \eta = \frac{\mu_p t}{2} \) and \( \lambda = t/(t+1) \), then for any \( k \geq 2 \),

\[ f(\tilde{x}_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{2}{k(k+3)} \left[ \mu_p V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{2\|A\|^2}{\mu_p} \|y_0\|^2 \right], \]

\[ \|A\tilde{x}_k\|_2 \leq \frac{2}{k(k+3)} \left[ 2(2 + \sqrt{3}) \|A\| \sqrt{2V(x_0, x^*)} + \frac{4(3 + \sqrt{3})\|A\|^2}{\mu_p} \|y_0 - y^*\|_2 \right]. \]

Proof. Note that \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i = k(k+3)/2 \). Also observe that

\[ \eta_1 \tau \|x^2 = \frac{2\|A\|^2}{k+1} - \|A\|^2 = \frac{(k-1)\|A\|^2}{k+1} \]

and hence that

\[ \gamma \tau \sqrt{\eta \tau - \|A\|^2} \leq \frac{2\|A\|}{\sqrt{k+1}} \leq 2 + \sqrt{3}, \quad \forall k \geq 2. \]

The results then follows from (3.6.33) and (3.6.34), the selection of \( \gamma, \tau, \) and \( \eta, \) and the previous bounds.
3.7 Alternating direction method of multipliers

In this section, we discuss a popular primal-dual type method called the alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) for solving a special class of linearly constrained convex optimization problems.

Consider the problem of

$$\min_{x \in X, y \in Y} \left\{ f(x) + g(y) : Ax + By = b \right\},$$

where $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^q$ are closed convex sets, the vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times q}$ are given. Moreover, we assume that the optimal solution $(x^*, y^*)$ exist, along with an arbitrary dual multiplier $\lambda^* \in \mathbb{R}^m$ associated with the linear constraint $Ax + By = b$. This problem can be viewed as a special case of problem (3.6.6).

ADMM maintains the updating of both the primal and dual variables $(x_t, y_t, \lambda_t)$. Given $(y_{t-1}, \lambda_{t-1}) \in Y \times \mathbb{R}^m$ and some penalty parameter $\rho > 0$, this algorithm computes $(x_t, y_t, \lambda_t)$ according to

$$x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} f(x) + \langle \lambda_{t-1}, Ax + By_{t-1} - b \rangle + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + By_{t-1} - b\|^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.7.2)

$$y_t = \arg\min_{y \in Y} g(y) + \langle \lambda_{t-1}, Ax_t + By - b \rangle + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax_t + By - b\|^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.7.3)

$$\lambda_t = \lambda_{t-1} + \rho (Ax_t + By_t - b).$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.7.4)

For notational convenience, let us denote $z_t \equiv (x_t, y_t, \lambda_t)$, $z \equiv (x, y, \lambda)$, and let the primal-dual gap function $Q$ be defined in (3.6.7), i.e.,

$$Q(z_t, z) = f(x_t) + g(y_t) + \langle \lambda, Ax_t + By_t - b \rangle - [f(x) + g(y) + \langle \lambda, Ax + By - b \rangle].$$

(3.7.5)

Moreover, we denote an arbitrary pair of primal-dual solution of (3.7.1) by $z^* = (x^*, y^*, \lambda^*)$.

**Theorem 3.10.** Let $z_t$, $t = 1, \ldots, k$, be the sequence generated by ADMM with some $\rho > 0$, and define $\bar{z}_k = \sum_{t=1}^k z_t / k$. Then we have

$$f(\bar{x}_k) + g(\bar{y}_k) - f(x^*) - g(y^*) \leq \frac{1}{2\rho} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( \|\lambda_0\|_2^2 + \rho \|B(y_0 - y^*)\|_2^2 \right) \right],$$

(3.7.6)

$$\|Ax + B\bar{y}_k - b\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{\rho} \left( \frac{1}{2} \|\lambda_0 - \lambda^*\|_2 + \|B(y_0 - y^*)\|_2 \right).$$

(3.7.7)

**Proof.** In view of the optimality conditions of (3.7.2) and (3.7.3), we have

$$f(x_t) - f(x) + \langle \lambda_{t-1} + \rho (Ax_t + By_{t-1} - b), A(x_t - x) \rangle \leq 0,$$

$$g(y_t) - g(y) + \langle \lambda_{t-1} + \rho (Ax_t + By_t - b), B(y_t - y) \rangle \leq 0,$$

which together with (3.7.4) then imply that
\[ f(x_t) - f(x) \leq \langle \lambda_t + \rho B(y_{t-1} - y_t), A(x_t - x) \rangle, \]
\[ g(y_t) - g(y) \leq -\langle \lambda_t, B(y_t - y) \rangle. \]

Using these two relations and (3.7.5), we have
\[
Q(z_t, z) \leq -\langle \lambda_t + \rho B(y_{t-1} - y_t), A(x_t - x) \rangle - \langle \lambda_t, B(y_t - y) \rangle
+ \langle \lambda, Ax_t + By_t - b \rangle - \langle \lambda, Ax + By - b \rangle
= \langle \lambda - \lambda_t, Ax_t + By_t - b \rangle + \rho \langle B(y_{t-1} - A(x_t - x))
= \langle \lambda - \lambda_t, \frac{1}{\rho} (\lambda_t - \lambda) \rangle + \rho \langle B(y_{t-1} - A(x_t - x)) \rangle.
\]

Noting that
\[ 2\langle \lambda - \lambda_t, \lambda_t - \lambda \rangle = \| \lambda - \lambda_t - \lambda \|^2 - \| \lambda - \lambda_t \|^2 - \| \lambda_t - \lambda \|^2, \]
and
\[ 2\langle B(y_{t-1} - A(x_t - x)) \rangle
= \| Ax + By_{t-1} - b \|^2 - \| Ax + By_t - b \|^2 - \| Ax + By_{t-1} - b \|^2 \]
we conclude that
\[
Q(z_t, z) \leq \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \| \lambda - \lambda_t \|^2 - \| \lambda_t - \lambda \|^2 \right) + \frac{\rho}{2} \left( \| B(y_{t-1} - y_t) \|^2 - \| B(y_{t-1} - y) \|^2 \right).
\]

Summing up the above inequality from \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), we obtain
\[
\sum_{t=1}^k Q(z_t, z) \leq \frac{1}{\rho^2} \left( \| \lambda_0 - \lambda_t \|^2 - \| \lambda_t - \lambda \|^2 \right) + \frac{\rho}{2} \left( \| B(y_0 - y_k) \|^2 - \| B(y_0 - y) \|^2 \right). \tag{3.7.8}
\]

Setting \( z = z^* \) in the above inequality and using the fact that \( Q(z_k, z^*) \geq 0 \), we can see that
\[ \| \lambda_k - \lambda^* \|^2 \leq \| \lambda_0 - \lambda^* \|^2 + \rho^2 \| B(y_0 - y^*) \|^2 \]
and hence that
\[ \| \lambda_k - \lambda_0 \|_2 \leq \| \lambda_0 - \lambda^* \|_2 + \| \lambda_k - \lambda^* \|_2 \leq 2\| \lambda_0 - \lambda^* \|_2 + \rho \| B(y_0 - y^*) \|_2. \tag{3.7.9} \]

Moreover, letting \( z = (x, y, \lambda) \) in (3.7.8), and noting that
\[
\frac{1}{k} \sum_{t=1}^k Q(z_t, (x^*, y^*, \lambda)) \geq Q(\bar{z}_k, (x^*, y^*, \lambda))
= f(\bar{x}_k) + g(\bar{y}_k) - f(x^*) - g(y^*) + \langle \lambda, Ax_k + By_k - b \rangle,
\]
and that
\[
\frac{1}{2} (\| \lambda_0 - \lambda \|^2 - \| \lambda_k - \lambda \|^2) = \frac{1}{2} (\| \lambda_0 \|^2 - \| \lambda_k \|^2) - \langle \lambda, \lambda_0 - \lambda_k \rangle,
\]

we have

\[
f(\bar{x}_k) + g(\bar{y}_k) - f(x^*) - g(y^*) + \langle \lambda, A\bar{x}_k + B\bar{y}_k - b + \frac{1}{\rho} (\lambda_0 - \lambda_k) \rangle
\leq \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\rho} (\| \lambda_0 \|^2 - \| \lambda_k \|^2) + \rho \left( \| B(y_0 - y^*) \|^2 - \| B(y_k - y^*) \|^2 \right) \right]
\leq \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{\rho} \| \lambda_0 \|^2 + \rho \| B(y_0 - y^*) \|^2 \right].
\]

for any \( \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m \). This relation implies that \( A\bar{x}_k + B\bar{y}_k - b + \frac{1}{\rho} (\lambda_0 - \lambda_k) = 0 \), and hence that \( (3.7.6) \) holds. \( (3.7.7) \) also directly follows from the previous observation and \( (3.7.9) \).

In comparison with the primal-dual method, the selection of the algorithmic parameter in the ADMM method seems to be simpler. Moreover, the rate of convergence of ADMM depends only on the norm of one part of the constraint matrix, i.e., \( \| B \| \) rather than \( \| [A, B] \| \). However, this method requires the solution of more complicated subproblems and it is not straightforward to generalize this algorithm for solving problems with more than two blocks of variables.

### 3.8 Mirror-prox method for variational inequalities

This section focuses on variational inequality (VI) that can be used to model a wide range of optimization, equilibrium and complementarity problems. Given an nonempty closed convex set \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) and a continuous map \( F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n \), the variational inequality problem, denoted by \( \text{VI}(X, F) \), is to find \( x^* \in X \) satisfying

\[
\langle F(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

(3.8.1)

Such a point \( x^* \) is often called a strong solution of \( \text{VI}(X, F) \). In particular, if \( F \) is given by the gradient of \( f \), then \( (3.8.1) \) is exactly the first-order necessary optimality condition of \( \min_{x \in X} f(x) \).

One important class of VI problems is called monotone VI for which the operator \( F(\cdot) \) is monotone, i.e.,

\[
\langle F(x) - F(y), x - y \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x, y \in X.
\]

(3.8.2)

These monotone VIs cover convex optimization problems as a special case. They also cover the following saddle point problems

\[
\min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} F(x, y)
\]

where \( F \) is convex w.r.t. \( x \) and concave w.r.t. \( y \).

A related notion is a weak solution of \( \text{VI}(X, F) \), i.e., a point \( x^* \in X \) such that
\[ \langle F(x), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in X. \quad (3.8.3) \]

Note that if \( F(\cdot) \) is monotone and continuous, a weak solution of \( \text{VI}(X, F) \) must be a strong solution and vice versa.

In this section, we focus on the mirror-prox method for solving these VI problems. The mirror-prox method evolves from Korpelevich’s extragradient method. We assume that a distance generating function \( \nu \) with modulus 1 and its associated \( \text{prox-function} \) \( V : X^0 \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+ \) are given. The basic scheme of the mirror-prox method can be described as follows.

**Input:** Initial point \( x_1 \in X \) and stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\}_{k \geq 1} \).

0) Set \( k = 1 \).

1) Compute

\[
\begin{align*}
    y_k &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle \gamma_k F(x_k, x) + V(x_k, x) \rangle \right\}, \\
    x_{k+1} &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle \gamma_k F(y_k), x \rangle + V(x_k, x) \right\}. \quad (3.8.4)
\end{align*}
\]

2) Set \( k = k + 1 \) and go to Step 1.

We now add a few remarks about the above mirror-prox method. Firstly, observe that under the Euclidean case when \( \|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_2 \) and \( \nu(x) = \|x\|^2 / 2 \), the computation of \( (y_t, x_t), t \geq 1 \), is the same as Korpelevich’s extragradient or Euclidean extragradient method. Secondly, the above method is slightly different that Nemirovski’s mirror-prox method for solving monotone VI problems which can possibly skip the extragradient step (3.8.5) depending on the progress of the algorithm. We will establish the convergence of the mirror-prox method for solving different types of VIs.

### 3.8.1 Monotone variational inequalities

In this subsection, we present the basic scheme of the mirror-prox method for solving VI, and discuss its convergence properties for solving monotone VIs.

We now show an important recursion of the mirror-prox method for \( \text{VI}(X, F) \), which holds for VI problems which are not necessarily monotone.

**Lemma 3.9.** Let \( x_1 \in X \) be given and the pair \( (y_k, x_{k+1}) \in X \times X \) be computed according to (3.8.4)-(3.8.5). Then for any \( x \in X \), we have

\[
\gamma_k \langle F(y_k), y_k - x \rangle - \frac{\gamma_k^2}{2} \|F(x_k) - F(y_k)\|^2 + V(x_k, y_k) \leq V(x_k, x) - V(x_{k+1}, x). \quad (3.8.6)
\]

**Proof.** By (3.8.4) and Lemma 3.5 (with \( p(\cdot) = \gamma_k \langle F(x_k), \cdot \rangle, \tilde{x} = x_k \) and \( \tilde{u} = y_k \)), we have

\[
\gamma_k \langle F(x_k), y_k - x \rangle + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x) \leq V(x_k, x), \quad \forall x \in X.
\]
Letting \( x = x_{k+1} \) in the above inequality, we obtain
\[
\gamma_k \langle F(x_k), y_k - x_{k+1} \rangle + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x_{k+1}) \leq V(x_k, x_{k+1}). \tag{3.8.7}
\]
Moreover, by \((3.8.5)\) and Lemma 3.5 (with \( p(\cdot) = \gamma_k \langle F(y_k), \cdot \rangle, \bar{x} = x_k \) and \( \bar{u} = x_{k+1} \)), we have
\[
\gamma_k \langle F(y_k), x_{k+1} - x \rangle + V(x_k, x_{k+1}) + V(x_{k+1}, x) \leq V(x_k, x), \quad \forall x \in X.
\]
Replacing \( V(x_k, x_{k+1}) \) in the above inequality with the bound in \((3.8.7)\) and noting that \( \langle F(y_k), x_{k+1} - x \rangle = \langle F(y_k), y_k - x \rangle - \langle F(y_k), y_k - x_{k+1} \rangle \), we have
\[
\gamma_k \langle F(y_k), y_k - x \rangle + \gamma_k \langle F(y_k) - F(y_k), y_k - x_{k+1} \rangle + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x_{k+1}) + V(x_{k+1}, x) \leq V(x_k, x).
\]
Moreover, by using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the strong convexity of \( V \), we have
\[
\gamma_k \langle F(x_k) - F(y_k), y_k - x_{k+1} \rangle + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x_{k+1})
\geq - \gamma_k \| F(x_k) - F(y_k) \|_s \| y_k - x_{k+1} \| + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x_{k+1})
\geq - \gamma_k \| F(x_k) - F(y_k) \|_s \| 2V(y_k, x_{k+1}) \|^{1/2} + V(x_k, y_k) + V(y_k, x_{k+1})
\geq - \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \| F(x_k) - F(y_k) \|_s^2 + V(x_k, y_k),
\]
where the last inequality follows from Young’s inequality. Combining the above two conclusions we arrive at relation \((3.8.20)\).

We define a termination criterion to characterize the weak solutions of VI problems as follows:
\[
g(\bar{x}) := \sup_{x \in X} \langle F(x), \bar{x} - x \rangle. \tag{3.8.8}
\]
Note that we must have \( g(\bar{x}) \geq 0 \) by setting \( x = \bar{x} \) in the right hand side of the above definition. Hence, \( g(\bar{x}) \) measures how much the condition in \((3.8.3)\) is violated. It should be noted that the mirror-prox method can also generate a solution that approximately satisfies the stronger criterion in \((3.8.1)\). We will discuss the computation of strong solutions in next subsection. For the sake of simplicity, we focus on the case when \( F \) is Lipschitz continuous, i.e.,
\[
\| F(x) - F(y) \|_s \leq L \| x - y \|, \quad \forall x, y \in X. \tag{3.8.9}
\]
Note however, this algorithm can also be applied more general problems for which \( F \) is Hölder continuous, locally Lipschitz continuous, continuous or bounded. We leave the extension to these cases as an exercise.

**Theorem 3.11.** Let \( x_1 \in X \) be given and the pair \((y_k, x_{k+1}) \in X \times X\) be computed according to \((3.8.4)-(3.8.5)\). Also let us denote
3.8 Mirror-prox method for variational inequalities

\[ \tilde{y}_k := \sum_{t=1}^{k} (y_t) \sum_{t=1}^{k} y_t. \]  
(3.8.10)

If (3.8.9) holds and
\[ y_k = \frac{1}{k}, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \]  
(3.8.11)
then we have
\[ g(\tilde{y}_k) \leq \frac{LD^2}{k}, \quad k \geq 1, \]  
(3.8.12)
where \( D_X \) and \( g \) are defined in (3.2.4) and (3.8.8), respectively.

**Proof.** Note that by the monotonicity of \( F \), i.e., (3.8.2), we have
\[ \langle F(y_k), y_k - x \rangle \geq \langle F(x), y_k - x \rangle \]  
for any \( x \in X \). Moreover, by the Lipschitz continuity of \( F \), i.e., (3.8.9), and the strong convexity of \( \nu \) we have
\[ -\frac{x^2}{2} \| F(x_k) - F(y_k) \|^2 + V(x_k, y_k) \geq \frac{L^2}{2} \| x_k - y_k \|^2 + \| x_k - y_k \|^2 \geq 0. \]
Using these relations in (3.8.6), we conclude that
\[ y_k \langle F(x), y_k - x \rangle \leq V(x_k, x) - V(x_{k+1}, x), \quad \forall x \in X \text{ and } k \geq 1. \]
Summing up these relations and then maximizing both sides w.r.t. \( x \), we obtain (3.8.12).

Theorem 3.11 establishes the rate of convergence for the mirror-prox method for solving monotone VIs. In next subsection we will discuss its convergence for solving a class of VI problems which are not necessarily monotone.

### 3.8.2 Generalized monotone variational inequalities

We study in this subsection a class of generalized monotone VI (GMVI) problems which satisfy for any \( x^* \in X^* \)
\[ \langle F(x), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in X. \]  
(3.8.13)
Clearly, condition (3.8.13) is satisfied if \( F(\cdot) \) is monotone Moreover, this assumption holds if \( F(\cdot) \) is pseudo-monotone, i.e.,
\[ \langle F(y), x - y \rangle \geq 0 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \langle F(x), x - y \rangle \geq 0. \]  
(3.8.14)
As an example, \( F(\cdot) \) is pseudo-monotone if it is the gradient of a real-valued differentiable pseudo-convex function. It is also not difficult to construct VI problems that satisfy (3.8.13), but their operator \( F(\cdot) \) is neither monotone nor pseudo-monotone anywhere. One set of simple examples are given by all the functions \( F : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) satisfying
\[ F(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x = x_0; \\ \geq 0, & x \geq x_0; \\ \leq 0, & x \leq x_0. \end{cases} \tag{3.8.15} \]

These problems, although satisfying (3.8.13) with \( x^* = x_0 \), can be neither monotone nor pseudo-monotone.

In this subsection, we introduce a termination criterion for solving VI associated with the prox-mapping by first providing a simple characterization of a strong solution to VI\((X,F)\).

**Lemma 3.10.** A point \( x \in X \) is a strong solution of VI\((X,F)\) if and only if
\[ x = \arg\min_{z \in X} \langle \gamma F(x), z \rangle + V(x,z) \tag{3.8.16} \]
for some \( \gamma > 0 \).

**Proof.** (3.8.16) holds if and only if
\[ \langle \gamma F(x) + \nabla v(x) - \nabla v(x), z - x \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall z \in X, \tag{3.8.17} \]
or equivalently, \( \langle \gamma F(x), z - x \rangle \geq 0 \) for any \( z \in X \), which, in view of the fact that \( \gamma > 0 \) and definition (3.8.1), implies that \( x \) is a strong solution of VI\((X,F)\).

Motivated by Lemma 3.10, we can define the residual function for a given \( x \in X \) as follows.

**Definition 3.1.** Let \( \| \cdot \| \) be a given norm in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), \( \nu(\cdot) \) be a distance generating function modulus 1 w.r.t. \( \| \cdot \| \) and
\[ x^+ := \arg\min_{z \in X} \{ \langle \gamma F(x), z \rangle + V(x,z) \} \]
for some positive constant \( \gamma \). Then we define the residual \( R_\gamma(x) \) at the point \( x \in X \) as
\[ R_\gamma(x) \equiv P_X (x,F(x), \gamma) := \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[ x - x^+ \right]. \tag{3.8.18} \]

Observe that in the Euclidean setup where \( \| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_2 \) and \( \nu(x) = \| x \|_2^2 / 2 \), the residual \( R_\gamma(x) \) in (3.8.18) reduces to
\[ R_\gamma(x) = \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[ x - \Pi_X (x - \gamma F(x)) \right], \tag{3.8.19} \]
where \( \Pi_X(\cdot) \) denotes the metric projection over \( X \). In particular, if \( F(\cdot) \) is the gradient of a real-valued differentiable function \( f(\cdot) \), the residual \( R_\gamma(\cdot) \) in (3.8.19) is often called the projected gradient of \( f(\cdot) \) at \( x \).

The following two results are immediate consequences of Lemma 3.10 and Definition 3.1.

**Lemma 3.11.** A point \( x \in X \) is a strong solution of VI\((X,F)\) if and only if \( \| R_\gamma(x) \| = 0 \) for some \( \gamma > 0 \).
Lemma 3.12. Suppose that \( x_k \in X \), \( y_k \in (0, \infty) \), \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \), and
\[
y_k = \arg\min_{z \in X} \{ \langle y_k F(x_k), z \rangle + V(x_k, z) \}
\]
satisfy the following conditions:

i) \( \lim_{k \to \infty} V(x_k, y_k) = 0 \);

ii) There exists \( K \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( \gamma' > 0 \) such that \( y_k \geq \gamma' \) for any \( k \geq K \).

Then we have \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \|R_k(x_k)\| = 0 \). If in addition, the sequence \( \{x_k\} \) is bounded, there exists an accumulation point \( \hat{x} \) of \( \{x_k\} \) such that \( \hat{x} \in X^* \), where \( X^* \) denotes the solution set of \( VI(X, F) \).

Proof. It follows from the strong convexity of \( v \) and condition i) that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \|x_k - y_k\| = 0 \). This observation, in view of Condition ii) and Definition 3.1, then implies that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \|R_k(x_k)\| = 0 \). Moreover, if \( \{x_k\} \) is bounded, there exist a subsequence \( \{\tilde{x}_k\} \) of \( \{x_k\} \) obtained by setting \( \tilde{x}_i = x_{n_i} \) for \( n_1 \leq n_2 \leq \ldots \), such that \( \lim_{i \to \infty} \|\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{x}\| = 0 \). Let \( \{\tilde{y}_i\} \) be the corresponding subsequence in \( \{y_k\} \), i.e., \( y_i = \arg\min_{z \in X} \{ \langle y_k F(x_{n_i}), z \rangle + V(x_{n_i}, z) \} \), and \( \tilde{y}_i = y_{n_i} \). We have \( \lim_{i \to \infty} \|\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{y}_i\| = 0 \). Moreover, by (3.8.17), we have
\[
\langle F(\tilde{x}_i) + \frac{1}{h} \nabla v(\tilde{y}_i) - \nabla v(\tilde{x}_i), z - \tilde{y}_i \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall z \in X, \forall i \geq 1.
\]
Tending \( i \) to \( +\infty \) in the above inequality, and using the continuity of \( F(\cdot) \) and \( \nabla v(\cdot) \), and condition ii), we conclude that \( \langle F(\tilde{x}), z - \tilde{x} \rangle \geq 0 \) for any \( z \in X \).

We now specialize Lemma 3.9 for solving GMVIs.

Lemma 3.13. Let \( x_1 \in X \) be given and the pair \( (y_k, x_{k+1}) \in X \times X \) be computed according to (3.8.4)-(3.8.5). Also let \( X^* \) denote the solution set of \( VI(X, F) \). Then, the following statements hold:

a) There exists \( x^* \in X^* \) such that
\[
-\frac{\gamma^2}{2} \|F(x_k) - F(y_k)\|^2 + V(x_k, y_k) \leq V(x_k, x^*) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*);
\]  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.20)

b) If \( F(\cdot) \) is Lipschitz continuous (i.e., condition (3.8.9) holds), then we have
\[
(1 - L^2 \frac{x_k^2}{\gamma^2}) V(x_k, y_k) \leq V(x_k, x^*) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*). \]  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.21)

Proof. We first show part a). Fixing \( x = x^* \) in (3.8.6) and using the fact that \( \langle F(y_k), y_k - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \) due to (3.13), we obtain the result.

Now, it follows from the assumption (3.8.9) and the strong convexity of \( v \) that
\[
\|F(x_k) - F(y_k)\|^2 \leq L^2 \|x_k - y_k\|^2 \leq 2L^2 V(y_k, x_k).
\]
Combining the previous observation with (3.8.20), we obtain (3.8.21).

We are now ready to establish the complexity of the mirror descent method for solving GMVI problems.
Theorem 3.12. Suppose that $F(\cdot)$ is Lipschitz continuous (i.e., condition (3.8.9) holds) and that the stepsizes $\gamma_k$ are set to

$$\gamma_k = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{2L}}, \quad k \geq 1.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.22)

Also let $R_\gamma$ be defined in (3.8.18). For any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $i \leq k$ such that

$$\|R_\gamma(x_i)\|^2 \leq \frac{8L^2}{\alpha^2} V(x_1,x^*), \quad k \geq 1.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.23)

Proof. Using (3.8.21) and (3.8.22), we have

$$\frac{1}{2} V(x_k,y_k) \leq V(x_k,x^*) - V(x_{k+1},x^*), \quad k \geq 1.$$  

Also it follows from the strong convexity of $\nu$ and definition (3.8.18) that

$$V(x_k,y_k) \geq \frac{\alpha}{2} \|x_k - y_k\|^2 = \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \|R_\gamma(x_k)\|^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.24)

Combining the above two observations, we obtain

$$\frac{\gamma_k^2}{\alpha^2} \|R_\gamma(x_k)\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{\alpha} [V(x_k,x^*) - V(x_{k+1},x^*)], \quad k \geq 1.$$  

By summing up these inequalities we arrive at

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i^2 \min_{i=1,\ldots,k} \|R_\gamma(x_i)\|^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i^2 \|R_\gamma(x_i)\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{\alpha} V(x_1,x^*), \quad k \geq 1,$$

which implies that

$$\min_{i=1,\ldots,k} \|R_\gamma(x_i)\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i} V(x_1,x^*).$$  \hspace{1cm} (3.8.25)

Using the above inequality and (3.8.22), we obtain the bound in (3.8.23).

In view of Theorem 3.12, the mirror-prox method can be applied to solve the GMVI problems which are not necessarily monotone. Moreover, the rate of convergence for computing an approximate strong solution, in terms of $\min_{i=1,\ldots,k} R_\gamma$, can be bounded by $O(1/\sqrt{k})$.

3.9 Accelerated level method

In this section, we discuss an important class of first-order methods, i.e., bundle-level methods for large-scale convex optimization. These methods have been regarded as one of the most efficient first-order optimization methods in practice as they can utilize historical first-order information through the cutting plane model. While other first-order methods discussed in the previous sections usually require us to estimate
3.9 Accelerated level method

quite a few problem parameters (e.g., \(L\) and \(D_x\)), the bundle-level type methods we present in this section do not require much problem information, but can still attain the best performance guarantees for solving a few different classes of convex optimization problems.

### 3.9.1 Nonsmooth, smooth and weakly smooth problems

Consider the convex programming (CP)

\[
f^* := \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x),
\]

where \(\mathcal{X}\) is a convex compact set and \(f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}\) is a closed convex function. In the classic black-box setting, \(f\) is represented by a first-order oracle which, given an input point \(x \in \mathcal{X}\), returns \(f(x)\) and \(f'(x) \in \partial f(x)\), where \(\partial f(x)\) denotes the subdifferential of \(f\) at \(x \in \mathcal{X}\). Moreover, we assume

\[
f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle \leq \frac{M}{1+\rho} \|y - x\|^{1+\rho}, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

(3.9.2)

for some \(M > 0, \rho \in [0, 1]\) and \(f'(x) \in \partial f(x)\). Clearly, this class of problems cover both nonsmooth \((\rho = 0)\), smooth \((\rho = 1)\) problems, as well as weakly smooth CP problems, i.e., problems with Hölder continuous gradient when \(\rho \in (0, 1)\).

Let us first provide a brief introduction to the classical cutting plane method for solving (3.9.1). The basic idea of this type of method is to construct lower and upper bounds on \(f^*\) and to guarantee that the gap between these bounds converges to 0.

While the upper bound of \(f^*\) is given by the objective value of a feasible solution, we need to discuss how to compute lower bounds on \(f^*\). Given a sequence of search points \(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k \in \mathcal{X}\), an important construct, the cutting plane model, of the objective function \(f\) of problem (3.9.1) is given by

\[
m_k(x) := \max \{ h(x_i, x) : 1 \leq i \leq k \},
\]

(3.9.3)

where

\[
h(z, x) := f(z) + \langle f'(z), x - z \rangle.
\]

(3.9.4)

In the cutting plane method, we approximate \(f\) by \(m_k\) and update the search points according to

\[
x_{k+1} \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} m_k(x).
\]

(3.9.5)

Hence, \(x_{k+1}\) defines a new feasible solution in the next iteration, and the updated model \(m_k(x_{k+1})\) provides an improved lower bound on \(f^*\). However, this scheme converges slowly, both theoretically and practically.

To improve the basic scheme of the cutting plane method, we need to introduce a new way to construct the lower bounds of \(f^*\) by utilizing the (approximate) level sets of \(f\). Let \(\mathcal{L}_f(l)\) denote the level set of \(f\) given by
\[ \mathcal{E}_f(l) := \{ x \in X : f(x) \leq l \} \]  

(3.9.6)

Also for some \( z \in X \), let \( h(z, x) \) be the cutting plane defined in (3.9.4) and denote

\[ \tilde{h} := \min \{ h(z, x) : x \in \mathcal{E}_f(l) \} . \]  

(3.9.7)

Then, it is easy to verify that

\[ \min \{ l, \tilde{h} \} \leq f(x), \quad \forall x \in X . \]  

(3.9.8)

Indeed, if \( l \leq f^* \), then \( \mathcal{E}_f(l) = \emptyset \), \( \tilde{h} = +\infty \) and \( \min \{ l, \tilde{h} \} = l \). Hence (3.9.8) is obviously true. Now consider the case \( l > f^* \). Clearly, for an arbitrary optimal solution \( x^* \) of (3.9.1), we have \( x^* \in \mathcal{E}_f(l) \). Moreover, by (3.9.4), (3.9.7) and the convexity of \( f \), we have \( \tilde{h} \leq h(z, x) \leq f(x) \) for any \( x \in \mathcal{E}_f(l) \). Hence, \( \tilde{h} \leq f(x^*) = f^* \) and thus (3.9.8) holds.

Note, however, that to solve problem (3.9.7) is usually as difficult as to solve the original problem (3.9.1). To compute a convenient lower bound of \( f^* \), we replace \( \mathcal{E}_f(l) \) in (3.9.7) with a convex and compact set \( X' \) satisfying

\[ \mathcal{E}_f(l) \subseteq X' \subseteq X . \]  

(3.9.9)

The set \( X' \) will be referred to as a localizer of the level set \( \mathcal{E}_f(l) \). The following result shows the computation of a lower bound on \( f^* \) by solving such a relaxation of (3.9.7).

**Lemma 3.14.** Let \( X' \) be a localizer of the level set \( \mathcal{E}_f(l) \) for some \( l \in \mathbb{R} \) and \( h(z, x) \) be defined in (3.9.4). Denote

\[ \bar{h} := \min \{ h(z, x) : x \in X' \} . \]  

(3.9.10)

We have

\[ \min \{ l, \bar{h} \} \leq f(x), \quad \forall x \in X . \]  

(3.9.11)

**Proof.** Note that if \( X' = \emptyset \) (i.e., (3.9.10) is infeasible), then \( \bar{h} = +\infty \). In this case, we have \( \mathcal{E}_f(l) = \emptyset \) and \( f(x) \geq l \) for any \( x \in X \). Now assume that \( X' \neq \emptyset \). By (3.9.7), (3.9.9) and (3.9.10), we have \( \tilde{h} \leq \bar{h} \), which together with (3.9.8), then clearly imply (3.9.11). 

We will also employ some ideas from the accelerated gradient descent method to guarantee fast convergence of level methods. In particular, we will use three different sequences, i.e., \( \{ x^k \} \), \( \{ t_k \} \) and \( \{ x^u_k \} \) for updating the lower bound, search points, and upper bound respectively. Similar to the mirror descent method, we assume that a distance generating function \( \nu \) with modulus 1 is given.

We are now ready to describe a gap reduction procedure, denoted by \( G_{APL} \), which, for a given search point \( p \) and a lower bound \( lb \) on \( f^* \), computes a new search point \( p^+ \) and a new lower bound \( lb^+ \) satisfying \( f(p^+) - lb^+ \leq q[f(p) - lb] \) for
some $q \in (0, 1)$. Note that the value of $q$ will depend on the two algorithmic input parameters: $\beta, \theta \in (0, 1)$.

**The APL gap reduction procedure:** $(p^+, \text{lb}^+) = \mathcal{G}_{APL}(p, \text{lb}, \beta, \theta)$

0) Set $x_0^n = p$, $\mathcal{T}_0 = f(x_0^n)$. $f_0 = \text{lb}$ and $l = \beta f_0 + (1 - \beta) \mathcal{T}_0$. Also let $x_0 \in X$ and the initial localizer $X_0'$ be arbitrarily chosen, say $x_0 = p$ and $X_0' = X$. Set the prox-function $V(x_0, x) = v(x) - [v(x_0) + \langle v'(x_0), x - x_0 \rangle]$. Also let $k = 1$.

1) **Update lower bound:** set $x_k^n = (1 - \alpha_k)x_{k-1}^n + \alpha_k x_k - 1$, $h(x_k^n, x) = f(x_k^n) + (f'(x_k^n), x - x_k^n)$,

$$h_k := \min_{x \in X_k'}\left\{ h(x_k^n, x) \right\}, \text{ and } f_k := \max\left\{ f_{k-1}, \min\{l, h_k\} \right\}. \quad (3.9.12)$$

If $f_k \geq l - \theta(l - f_k)$, then **terminate** the procedure with $p^+ = x_{k-1}^n$ and $\text{lb}^+ = f_k$.

2) **Update prox-center:** set

$$x_k := \arg\min_{x \in X_k'} \left\{ V(x_0, x) : h(x_k^n, x) \leq l \right\}. \quad (3.9.13)$$

3) **Update upper bound:** set $\tilde{f}_k = \min\{ \tilde{f}_{k-1}, f(\alpha_k x_k + (1 - \alpha_k)x_{k-1}^n) \}$, and choose $x_k^n$ such that $f(x_k^n) = \tilde{f}_k$. If $\tilde{f}_k \leq l + \theta(\mathcal{T}_0 - l)$, then **terminate** the procedure with $p^+ = x_k^n$ and $\text{lb}^+ = f_k$.

4) **Update localizer:** choose an arbitrary $X'_k$ such that $X_k \subseteq X'_k \subseteq X_k$, where

$$X_k := \{ x \in X'_k : h(x_k^n, x) \leq l \},$$

$$X_k := \{ x \in X : \langle v'(x_k^n), x - x_k^n \rangle \geq 0 \}. \quad (3.9.14)$$

6) Set $k = k + 1$ and go to step 1.

We now add a few comments about procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ described above. Firstly, note that the level $l$ used in (3.9.13) is fixed throughout the procedure. Also, the two parameters (i.e., $\beta$ and $\theta$) are fixed a priori, say, $\beta = \theta = 0.5$.

Secondly, procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ can be terminated in either step 1 or 3. If it terminates in step 1, then we say that significant progress has been made on the lower bound $f_k$. Otherwise, if it terminates in step 3, then significant progress has been made on the upper bound $\mathcal{T}_k$.

Thirdly, observe that in step 4 of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$, we can choose any set $X'_k$ satisfying $X_k \subseteq X'_k \subseteq X_k$ (the simplest way is to set $X'_k = X_k$ or $X'_k = X_k$). While the number of constraints in $X_k$ increases with $k$, the set $X_k$ has only one more constraint than $X$. By choosing $X'_k$ between these two extremes, we can control the number of constraints in subproblems (3.9.12) and (3.9.13). Hence, even though the iteration cost of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ can be higher than projected gradient descent type methods, it is still controllable to a certain extent.

We summarize below a few more observations regarding the execution of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$.
Lemma 3.15. The following statements hold for procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$.

a) $\{X_k\}_{k \geq 0}$ is a sequence of localizers of the level set $E_f(l)$.

b) $f_0 \leq f_1 \leq \ldots \leq f_k \leq f^*$ and $T_0 \geq T_1 \geq \ldots \geq T_k \geq f^*$ for any $k \geq 1$.

c) Problem (3.9.13) is always feasible unless the procedure terminates.

d) $\emptyset \neq X_k \subseteq X_k$ for any $k \geq 1$ and hence Step 4 is always feasible unless the procedure terminates.

e) Whenever the procedure terminates, we have $f(p^+) - lb^+ \leq q[f(p) - lb]$, where

$$q \equiv q(\beta, \theta) := 1 - (1 - \theta) \min\{\beta, 1 - \beta\}. \quad (3.9.15)$$

Proof. We first show part a). Firstly, noting that $E_f(l) \subseteq X'_0$, we can show that $E_f(l) \subseteq X'_k$, $k \geq 1$, by using induction. Suppose that $X'_{k-1}$ is a localizer of the level set $E_f(l)$. Then, for any $x \in E_f(l)$, we have $x \in X'_{k-1}$. Moreover, by the definition of $h$, we have $h(x', x) \leq f(x) \leq l$ for any $x \in E_f(l)$. Using these two observations and the definition of $X_k$ in (3.9.14), we have $E_f(l) \subseteq X_k$, which, in view of the fact that $X_k \subseteq X'_k$, implies $E_f(l) \subseteq X'_k$, i.e., $X_k$ is a localizer of $E_f(l)$.

We now show part b). The first relation follows from Lemma 5.7, (3.9.12), and the fact that $X_k$, $k \geq 0$, are localizers of $E_f(l)$ due to part a). The second relation of part b) follows immediately from the definition of $T_k$, $k \geq 0$.

To show part c), suppose that problem (3.9.13) is infeasible. Then, by the definition of $h_0$ in (3.9.12), we have $h_0 > l$, which implies $f_k \geq l$, which in turn implies that the procedure should have terminated in step 1 at iteration $k$.

To show part d), note that by part c), the set $X_k$ is nonempty. Moreover, by the optimality condition of (3.9.13) and the definition of $X_k$ in (3.9.14), we have $\langle \nabla v(x_k), x - x_k \rangle \geq 0$ for any $x \in X_k$, which then implies that $X_k \subseteq X_k$.

We now provide the proof of part e). Suppose first that the procedure terminates in step 1 of the $k$-th iteration. We must have $f_k \geq l - \theta(l - f_0)$. By using this condition, and the facts that $f(p^+) \leq T_0$ (see part b) and $l = \beta f_0 + (1 - \beta)T_0$, we obtain

$$f(p^+) - lb^+ - f_k \leq T_0 - [l - \theta(l - f_0)]$$

$$= [1 - (1 - \beta)(1 - \theta)](T_0 - f_0). \quad (3.9.16)$$

Now suppose that the procedure terminates in step 3 of the $k$-th iteration. We must have $T_k \leq l + \theta(T_0 - l)$. By using this condition, and the facts that $lb^+ \geq f_k$ (see Lemma 3.15.b) and $l = \beta f_0 + (1 - \beta)T_0$, we have

$$f(p^+) - lb^+ = T_k - lb^+ \leq l + \theta(T_0 - l) - f_0 = [1 - (1 - \theta)\beta](T_0 - f_0).$$

Part e) then follows by combining the above two relations.

By showing how the gap between the upper bound (i.e., $f(x^*_k)$) and the level $l$ decreases with respect to $k$, we will establish in Theorem 3.13 some important convergence properties of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$. Before that we first need to show two technical results.
Lemma 3.16. Let \((x_{k-1}, x_{k-1}^n) \in X \times X\) be given at the \(k\)-th iteration, \(k \geq 1\), of an iterative scheme and denote \(x_k^\alpha = \alpha x_{k-1} + (1 - \alpha) x_{k-1}^\alpha\). Also let \(h(z, \cdot)\) be defined in (3.9.4) and suppose that the pair of new search points \((x_k, x_k^n) \in X \times X\) satisfy that, for some \(l \in \mathbb{R}\) and \(\alpha_k \in (0, 1]\

\begin{align}
    h(x_k^\alpha, x_k) &\leq l, \quad (3.9.17) \\
    x_k^n = \alpha x_k + (1 - \alpha) x_{k-1}^\alpha. \quad (3.9.18)
\end{align}

Then,

\[ f(x_k^n) \leq (1 - \alpha_k) f(x_{k-1}^\alpha) + \alpha_k l + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| \alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \|^{1+\rho}. \quad (3.9.19) \]

**Proof.** It can be easily seen from (3.9.18) and the definition of \(x_k^n\) that

\[ x_k^n - x_k^\alpha = \alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1}). \quad (3.9.20) \]

Using this observation, (3.9.2), (3.9.4), (3.9.17), (3.9.18) and the convexity of \(f\), we have

\[ f(x_k^n) \leq h(x_k^\alpha, x_k^n) + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| x_k^n - x_k^\alpha \|^{1+\rho} \]

\[ = (1 - \alpha_k) h(x_k^\alpha, x_{k-1}^\alpha) + \alpha_k h(x_k^\alpha, x_k) + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| x_k^n - x_k^\alpha \|^{1+\rho} \]

\[ = (1 - \alpha_k) h(x_k^\alpha, x_{k-1}^\alpha) + \alpha_k h(x_k^\alpha, x_k) + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| \alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \|^{1+\rho} \]

\[ \leq (1 - \alpha_k) f(x_{k-1}^\alpha) + \alpha_k h(x_k^\alpha, x_k) + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| \alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \|^{1+\rho} \]

\[ \leq (1 - \alpha_k) f(x_{k-1}^\alpha) + \alpha_k l + \frac{M}{1+\rho} \| \alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \|^{1+\rho}, \]

where the three inequalities follow from (3.9.2) and (3.9.4), the convexity, and (3.9.17), respectively, while the three identities follow from (3.9.18) and (3.9.20), respectively.

**Lemma 3.17.** Let \(w_k \in (0, 1]\), \(k = 1, 2, \ldots\), be given. Also let us denote

\[ W_k := \begin{cases} 
1, & k = 1, \\
(1 - w_k) W_{k-1}, & k \geq 2.
\end{cases} \quad (3.9.21) \]

Suppose that \(W_k > 0\) for all \(k \geq 2\) and that the sequence \(\{ \delta_k \}_{k \geq 0}\) satisfies

\[ \delta_k \leq (1 - w_k) \delta_{k-1} + B_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots. \quad (3.9.22) \]

Then, we have \(\delta_k \leq W_k (1 - w_1) \delta_0 + W_k \sum_{i=1}^k (B_i/W_i)\).

**Proof.** Dividing both sides of (3.9.22) by \(W_k\), we obtain

\[ \frac{\delta_k}{W_k} \leq \frac{(1 - w_1) \delta_0}{W_k} + \frac{B_k}{W_k} \]

and
The result then immediately follows by summing up the above inequalities and rearranging the terms.

We are now ready to analyze the convergence behavior of the APL gap reduction procedure. Note that the following quantities will be used in our analysis:

\[
\gamma_k(\lambda) := \begin{cases} 
1 & k = 1, \\
(1 - \lambda \alpha_k) \gamma_{k-1}(\lambda) & k \geq 2,
\end{cases} \quad (3.9.23)
\]

\[
\Gamma_k(\lambda, \rho) := \left\{ \gamma_k(\lambda)^{-1} \alpha_k^{-1+\rho}, \gamma_k(\lambda)^{-1} \alpha_k^{-1+\rho}, \ldots, \gamma_k(\lambda)^{-1} \alpha_k^{-1+\rho} \right\} . \quad (3.9.24)
\]

**Theorem 3.13.** Let \( \alpha_k \in (0,1], k = 1, 2, \ldots, \) be given. Also let \((x_k^l, x_k, x_k^W) \in X \times X \times X, k \geq 1,\) be the search points, \( l \) be the level and \( V \) be the prox-function in procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}}. \) Then, we have

\[
f(x_k^l) - l \leq (1 - \alpha_1) \gamma_1(1) \left[ f(x_0^l) - f \right] + M_0 [2V(x_0, x_1)]^{(1+\rho)/2} \gamma_1(1) \| \Gamma_1(1, \rho) \|_{2/(1-\rho)} \quad (3.9.25)
\]

for any \( k \geq 1, \) where \( \| \cdot \|_p \) denotes the \( l_p \) norm, \( \gamma_k(\cdot) \) and \( \Gamma_k(\cdot, \cdot) \), respectively, are defined in (3.9.23) and (3.9.24). In particular, if \( \alpha_k \in (0,1], k = 1, 2, \ldots, \) are chosen such that for some \( c > 0, \)

\[
\alpha_1 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_1(1) \| \Gamma_1(1, \rho) \|_{2/(1-\rho)} \leq c k^{-(1+3\rho)/2}, \quad (3.9.26)
\]

then the number of iterations performed by procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}} \) can be bounded by

\[
K_{\text{APL}}(\Delta_0) := \left\lceil \left( \frac{2c M_0^D_{1+\rho}}{B^{1+\rho}\Delta_0} \right)^{2/(1+3\rho)} \right\rceil , \quad (3.9.27)
\]

where \( \Delta_0 = r_0 - f_0 \) and \( d_X \) is defined in (3.2.4).

**Proof.** We first show that the prox-centers \( \{x_k\} \) in procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}} \) are “close” to each other in terms of \( \sum_{k=1}^{l} \| x_k - x_{k-1} \|^2. \) Observe that the function \( V(x_0, x) \) is strongly convex with modulus 1, \( x_0 = \arg\min_{x \in X} V(x_0, x) \) and \( V(x_0, x_0) = 0. \) Hence, we have,

\[
\frac{1}{2} \| x_1 - x_0 \|^2 \leq V(x_0, x_1). \quad (3.9.28)
\]

Moreover, by (3.9.14), we have \( \langle \nabla V(x_0, x_k), x - x_k \rangle \geq 0 \) for any \( x \in X_k, \) which together with the fact that \( X_k^l \subseteq X_k \) then imply that \( \langle \nabla V(x_0, x_k), x - x_k \rangle \geq 0 \) for any \( x \in X_k^l. \) Using this observation, the fact that \( x_{k+1} \in X_k^l \) due to (3.9.13), and the strong convexity of \( V(x_0, \cdot), \) we have

\[
\frac{1}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2 \leq V(x_0, x_{k+1}) - V(x_0, x_k) - \langle \nabla V(x_0, x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle \\
\leq V(x_0, x_{k+1}) - V(x_0, x_k)
\]
for any $k \geq 1$. Summing up the above inequalities with (3.9.28), we arrive at

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2 \leq V(x_0, x_k). \quad (3.9.29)$$

Next, we establish a recursion for procedure $\mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}}$. Let us denote $x_k^u \equiv \alpha_k x_k + (1 - \alpha_k) x_{k-1}^u$, $\gamma_k \equiv \gamma_k(1)$ and $\Gamma_k \equiv \Gamma_k(1, \rho)$. By the definitions of $x_k^u$ and $x_k^\gamma$, we have $f(x_k^u) \leq f(x_k^\gamma)$. Also by (3.9.13), we have $h(x_k^u, x) \leq l$. Using these observations and Lemma 3.16, we have

$$f(x_k^u) \leq (1 - \alpha_k) f(x_k^u) + \alpha_k l + \frac{M}{1 + \rho} \|\alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1})\|^{1 + \rho}$$

for any $k \geq 1$. Subtracting $l$ from both sides of the above inequality, we obtain

$$f(x_k^u) - l \leq (1 - \alpha_k) f(x_{k-1}) - l + \frac{M}{1 + \rho} \|\alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1})\|^{1 + \rho}, \quad (3.9.30)$$

for any $k \geq 1$. Using the above inequality and Lemma 3.17 (with $\delta_k = f(x_k^u) - l$, $w_k = 1 - \alpha_k$, $w_k = \gamma_k$ and $B_k = M \|\alpha_k (x_k - x_{k-1})\|^{1 + \rho}/(1 + \rho)$), we obtain

$$f(x_k^u) - l \leq (1 - \alpha_k) \gamma_k[f(x_k^u) - l] + \frac{M}{1 + \rho} \gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i - 1 \|\alpha_k (x_i - x_{i-1})\|^{1 + \rho}$$

$$\leq (1 - \alpha_k) \gamma_k[f(x_k^u) - l] + \frac{M}{1 + \rho} \|\Gamma_k\|_{2/(1 - \rho)} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2\right]^{1/(1 + \rho)/2},$$

for any $k \geq 1$, where the last inequality follows from Hölder’s inequality. The above conclusion together with (3.9.29) then imply that (3.9.25) holds.

Now, denote $K = K_{\text{APL}}(\epsilon)$ and suppose that condition (3.9.26) holds. Then by (3.9.25), (3.9.26), and (3.2.4), we have

$$f(x_K^u) - l \leq \frac{\epsilon M}{1 + \rho} \left[2V(x_0, x_K)\right]^{1/(1 + \rho)/2} K^{-(1 + 3\rho)/2} \leq \frac{\epsilon M}{1 + \rho} D_x^{1 + \rho} K^{-(1 + 3\rho)/2}$$

$$\leq \theta \beta \Delta_0 = \theta (\overline{f}_0 - l),$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that $l = \beta f_0 + (1 - \beta) \overline{f}_0 = \overline{f}_0 - \beta \Delta_0$. Hence, procedure $\mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}}$ must terminate in step 3 of the $K$-th iteration. 

In view of Theorem 3.13, we discuss below a few possible selections of $\{\alpha_k\}$, which satisfy condition (3.9.26) and thus guarantee the termination of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{\text{APL}}$. It is worth noting that these selections of $\{\alpha_k\}$ do not rely on any problem parameters, including $M$, $\rho$ and $D_x$, nor on any other algorithmic parameters, such as $\beta$ and $\theta$.

**Proposition 3.2.** Let $\gamma_k(\cdot)$ and $\Gamma_k(\cdot, \cdot)$, respectively, be defined in (3.9.23) and (3.9.24).

a) If $\alpha_k = 2/(k + 1)$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$, then $\alpha_k \in (0, 1]$ and relation (3.9.26) holds with $c = 2^{1 + \rho} 3^{-(1 - \rho)/2}$.

b) If $\alpha_k$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$, are recursively defined by

$$\alpha_1 = \gamma_1 = 1, \quad \gamma_k = \alpha_k^2 \equiv (1 - \alpha_k) \gamma_{k-1}, \quad \forall k \geq 2, \quad (3.9.31)$$
then we have \( \alpha_k \in (0, 1] \) for any \( k \geq 1 \). Moreover, condition (3.9.26) is satisfied with \( c = \frac{4}{3(1-p)} \).

**Proof.** We first show part a). Denoting \( \gamma_k = \gamma_k(1) \) and \( \Gamma_k = \Gamma_k(1, \rho) \), by (3.9.23) and (3.9.24), we have

\[
\gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_k^{-1} \alpha_k^{1+\rho} = \left( \frac{2}{k+1} \right)^{\rho} k \leq 2^p k^{1-p}. \tag{3.9.32}
\]

Using (3.9.32) and the simple observation that \( \sum_{i=1}^{k} i^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 \leq k(k+1)^2/3 \), we have

\[
\gamma_k \| \Gamma_k \|_{2/(1-p)} \leq \gamma_k \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left( 2^p i^{1-p} \right)^{2/(1-p)} \right]^{(1-p)/2} = 2^p \gamma_k \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} i^2 \right)^{(1-p)/2}
\leq 2^p \gamma_k \left[ \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{3} \right)^{(1-p)/2} \right] = \left( 2^{1+p} \frac{3^{-(1-p)/2}}{(1-p)/2} \right) = \left( \frac{k}{1-3p} \right)^{1-(1-p)/2}.
\]

We now show that part b) holds. Note that by (3.9.31), we have

\[
\alpha_k = \frac{1}{2} \left( -\gamma_{k-1} + \sqrt{\gamma_{k-1}^2 + 4\gamma_{k-1}} \right), \quad k \geq 2, \tag{3.9.33}
\]

which clearly implies that \( \alpha_k > 0, k \geq 2 \). We now show that \( \alpha_k \leq 1 \) and \( \gamma_k \leq 1 \) by induction. Indeed, if \( \gamma_{k-1} \leq 1 \), then by (3.9.33), we have

\[
\alpha_k \leq \frac{1}{2} \left( -\gamma_{k-1} + \sqrt{\gamma_{k-1}^2 + 4\gamma_{k-1}} + 4 \right) = 1.
\]

The previous conclusion, together with the fact that \( \alpha_k^2 = \gamma_k \) due to (3.9.31), also imply that \( \gamma_k \leq 1 \). Now let us bound \( 1/\sqrt{\gamma_k} \) for any \( k \geq 2 \). First observe that by (3.9.31) we have, for any \( k \geq 2 \),

\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_k}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1}}} = \frac{\gamma_{k-1} - \gamma_k}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1} \gamma_k}} = \frac{\gamma_{k-1} - \gamma_k}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1} (\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1} + \sqrt{\gamma_k}})}} = \frac{\alpha_k \gamma_{k-1}}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1} + \sqrt{\gamma_k}}}.
\]

Using the above identity, (3.9.31) and the fact that \( \gamma_k \leq \gamma_{k-1} \) due to (3.9.31), we conclude that

\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_k}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1}}} \geq \frac{\alpha_k}{\sqrt{\gamma_k}} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_k}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\gamma_{k-1}}} \leq \frac{\alpha_k}{\sqrt{\gamma_k}} = 1,
\]

which, in view of the fact that \( \gamma_1 = 1 \), then implies that \( (k+1)/2 \leq 1/\sqrt{\gamma_k} \leq k \). Using the previous inequality and (3.9.31), we conclude that

\[
\gamma_k \leq \frac{4}{(k+1)^2}, \quad \gamma_k^{-1} \alpha_k^{1+\rho} = \left( \sqrt{\gamma_k} \right)^{-(1-p)} \leq k^{1-p},
\]

and
\[
\gamma_k \| \Gamma_k \|_{2/(1-\rho)} \leq \gamma_k \left[ \sum_{i=1}^k \right]^{(1-\rho)/2} \leq \gamma_k \left( \int_0^{k+1} u^2 \, du \right)^{(1-\rho)/2} \\
\leq \frac{4}{3^{1/\rho - 1/2}} (k + 1)^{-(1+3\rho)/2} \leq \frac{4}{3^{1/\rho - 1/2}} k^{-(1+3\rho)/2}.
\]

In view of Lemma 3.15.e) and the termination criterion of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$, each call to this procedure can reduce the gap between a given upper and lower bound on $f^*$ by a constant factor $q$ (see (3.9.15)). In the following APL method, we will iteratively call procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ until a certain accurate solution of problem (3.9.1) is found.

**The APL method:**

**Input:** initial point $p_0 \in X$, tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$ and algorithmic parameters $\beta, \theta \in (0, 1)$.

1. Set $p_1 \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} h(p_0, x)$, $lb_1 = h(p_0, p_1)$ and $ub_1 = f(p_1)$. Let $s = 1$.
2. If $ub_s - lb_s \leq \varepsilon$, terminate;
3. Set $(p_{s+1}, lb_{s+1}) = \mathcal{G}_{APL}(p_s, lb_s, \beta, \theta)$ and $ub_{s+1} = f(p_{s+1})$;
4. Set $s = s + 1$ and go to step 1.

 Whenever $s$ increments by 1, we say that a phase of the APL method occurs. Unless explicitly mentioned otherwise, an iteration of procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ is also referred to as an iteration of the APL method. The main convergence properties of the above APL method are summarized as follows.

**Theorem 3.14.** Let $M, \rho, D_X$ and $q$ be defined in (3.9.2), (3.2.4) and (3.9.15), respectively. Suppose that $\alpha_k \in (0, 1], k = 1, 2, \ldots$, in procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ are chosen such that condition (3.9.26) holds for some $c > 0$.

a) The number of phases performed by the APL method does not exceed

\[
\tilde{S}(\varepsilon) := \max \left\{ 0, \log \frac{2M_{1+\rho}}{q(1+\rho)\varepsilon} \right\}.
\]

b) The total number of iterations performed by the APL method can be bounded by

\[
\tilde{S}(\varepsilon) + \frac{1}{1-q^{2/(1+\rho)}} \left( \frac{2cM_{1+\rho}}{\beta \theta (1+\rho)\varepsilon} \right)^{2/(1+3\rho)}.
\]

**Proof.** Denote $\delta_s \equiv ub_s - lb_s, s \geq 1$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $\delta_1 > \varepsilon$, since otherwise the statements are obviously true. By Lemma 3.15.e) and the origin of $ub_s$ and $lb_s$, we have

\[
\delta_{s+1} \leq q \delta_s, \quad s \geq 1.
\]

Also note that, by (3.9.2), (3.2.4) and the definition of $p_1$ in the APL method, we have
\[ \delta_1 = f(p_1) - h(p_0, p_1) = f(p_1) - \left[ f(p_0) + \langle f'(p_0), p_1 - p_0 \rangle \right] \leq \frac{M\|p_1 - p_0\|^{1+\rho}}{1+\rho} \leq 2MD_1^{1+\rho}. \] (3.9.37)

The previous two observations then clearly imply that the number of phases performed by the APL method is bounded by (3.9.34).

We now bound the total number of iterations performed by the APL method. Suppose that procedure \( G_{\text{APL}} \) has been called \( \bar{s} \) times for some \( 1 \leq \bar{s} \leq \bar{S}(\epsilon) \). It follows from (3.9.36) that \( \delta_s > \epsilon q^{-\bar{s}}, s = 1, \ldots, \bar{s} \), since \( \delta_{\bar{s}} > \epsilon \) due to the origin of \( \bar{s} \).

Using this observation, we obtain
\[
\sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}} \delta_s^{2/(1+3\rho)} < \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}} \frac{2^{(-s)/(1+3\rho)}}{\bar{s}^{2/(1+3\rho)}} = \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}} \frac{2^{(-s)/(1+3\rho)}}{\bar{s}^{1/(1+3\rho)} 2^{s/(1+3\rho)}} \leq \frac{1}{1-q^{-\bar{s}}/(1+3\rho) q^{\bar{s}}/(1+3\rho)}.
\]

Moreover, by Theorem 3.13, the total number of iterations performed by the APL method is bounded by
\[
\sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}} K_{\text{APL}}(\delta_s) \leq \bar{s} + \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}} \left( \frac{cMD_1^{1+\rho}}{b\theta(1+\rho)\delta_s} \right)^{2/(1+3\rho)}
\]

Our result then immediately follows by combining the above two inequalities.

Clearly, in view of Theorem 3.14, the APL method can achieve the \( O(1/\epsilon^2) \) and \( O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon}) \) iteration complexity for nonsmooth and smooth convex optimization, respectively. It also achieve the best possible complexity bounds for weakly smooth problems. What is interesting is that this algorithm does not require the input of any smoothness information, such as, whether the problem is smooth, nonsmooth or weakly smooth, as well as the specific values of Lipschitz constant and smoothness level. In addition, its iteration cost is more or less controllable depending on how much historical first-order information to be used.

### 3.9.2 Saddle point problems

In this subsection, we consider the bilinear saddle point problem (3.5.1) that we have studied in Section 3.5. As shown in Section 3.5, the nonsmooth function \( F \) in (3.5.2) can be approximated by the smooth convex function \( F_\eta \) given by (3.5.4).

Since \( F_\eta \) is a smooth convex function, we can apply an smooth convex optimization method, e.g., the accelerated gradient method to \( \min_{x \in X} f_\eta(x) \), for a properly chosen \( \eta > 0 \). It has been shown that one can obtain an \( \epsilon \)-solution of problem (3.5.1)-(3.5.2) in at most \( O(1/\epsilon) \) iterations. However, this approach would require us to input a number of problem parameters (e.g., \( \|A\| \) and \( D_Y \)) or algorithmic parameters (e.g., the number of iterations or target accuracy).

Our goal in this section is to present a completely problem parameter-free smoothing technique, namely: the uniform smoothing level (USL) method, obtained by properly modifying the APL method in Section 3.9.1. In the USL method, the
smoothing parameter $\eta$ is adjusted dynamically during their execution rather than being fixed in advance. Moreover, an estimate on the value of $D_Y$ can be provided automatically. We start by describing the USL gap reduction procedure, denoted by $\mathcal{G}_{USL}$, which will be iteratively called by the USL method. Specifically, for a given search point $p$, a lower bound $lb$ on $f^*$ and an initial estimate $\hat{D}$ on $D_Y$, procedure $\mathcal{G}_{USL}$ will either compute a new search point $p^+$ and a new lower bound $lb^+$ satisfying $f(p^+) - lb^+ \leq q(f(p) - lb)$ for some $q \in (0, 1)$, or provide an updated estimate $\hat{D}^+$ on $D_Y$ in case the current estimate $\hat{D}$ is not accurate enough.

**The USL gap reduction procedure:** $(p^+, lb^+, \hat{D}^+) = \mathcal{G}_{USL}(p, lb, \hat{D}, \beta, \theta)$

0) Set $x_0^p = p$, $\tilde{f}_0 = f(x_0^p)$, $f_0 = lb$, $l = \beta f_{x_0^p} + (1 - \beta)\tilde{f}_0$, and

\[ \eta := \theta(\tilde{f}_0 - l)/(2\hat{D}). \tag{3.9.38} \]

Also let $x_0 \in X$ and the initial localizer $X_0'$ be arbitrarily chosen, say $x_0 = p$ and $X_0' = X$. Set the prox-function $d(x) = v(x) - [v(x_0) + \langle v'(x_0), x - x_0 \rangle]$. Set $k = 1$.

1) **Update lower bound:** set $x_k^l = (1 - \alpha_k)x_{k-1}^l + \alpha_k x_{k-1}$ and

\[ h(x_k^l, x) = h_\eta(x_k^l, x) := \hat{f}(x) + F_\eta(x_k^l) + \langle \nabla F_\eta(x_k^l), x - x_k^l \rangle. \tag{3.9.39} \]

Compute $f_k$ according to (3.9.12). If $f_k \geq l - \theta(\tilde{f}_0 - l)$, then **terminate** the procedure with $p^+ = x_k^l$, $lb^+ = f_k$, and $\hat{D}^+ = \hat{D}$.

2) **Update prox-center:** set $x_k$ according to (3.9.13);

3) **Update upper bound:** set $\tilde{f}_k = \min\{\tilde{f}_{k-1}, f(\alpha_k x_k + (1 - \alpha_k)x_{k-1}^l)\}$, and choose $x_k^u$ such that $f(x_k^u) = \tilde{f}_k$. Check the following two possible termination criterions:

3a) if $\tilde{f}_k \leq l + \theta(\tilde{f}_0 - l)$, **terminate** the procedure with $p^+ = x_k^u$, $lb^+ = f_k$, and $\hat{D}^+ = \hat{D}$.

3b) Otherwise, if $f_\eta(x_k^u) \leq l + \theta/2(\tilde{f}_0 - l)$, **terminate** the procedure with $p^+ = x_k^u$, $lb^+ = f_k$ and $\hat{D}^+ = 2\hat{D}$;

4) **Update localizer:** choose an arbitrary $X_k'$ such that $X_k' \subseteq X_k^l \subseteq X_k$, where $X_k$ and $X_k'$ are defined in (3.9.14);

5) Set $k = k + 1$ and go to Step 1.

We notice that there are a few essential differences between procedure $\mathcal{G}_{USL}$ described above and procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$ in Section 3.9.1. Firstly, in comparison with procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$, procedure $\mathcal{G}_{USL}$ needs to use one additional input parameter, namely $\hat{D}$, to define $\eta$ (see (3.9.38)) and hence the approximation function $f_\eta$ in (3.5.5).

Secondly, we use the support functions $h_\eta(x_k^l, x)$ of $f_\eta(x)$ defined in (3.9.39) procedure $\mathcal{G}_{USL}$ rather than the cutting planes of $f(x)$ in procedure $\mathcal{G}_{APL}$. Notice that by (3.9.39), the convexity of $F_\eta$ and the first relation in (3.5.6), we have

\[ h_\eta(x_k^l, x) \leq \hat{f}(x) + F_\eta(x) \leq \hat{f}(x) + F(x) = f(x), \tag{3.9.40} \]

which implies that the functions $h_\eta(x_k^l, x)$ underestimate $f$ everywhere on $X$. Hence, $f_k$ computed in step 1 of this procedure are indeed lower bounds of $f^*$. 
Thirdly, there are three possibilities ways to terminate procedure $G_{USL}$. Similarly to procedure $G_{APL}$, if it terminates in step 1 and step 3a, then we say that significant progress has been made on the lower and upper bounds on $f^*$, respectively. The new added termination criterion in step 3b will be used only if the value of $\tilde{D}$ is not properly specified. We formalize these observations in the following simple result.

**Lemma 3.18.** The following statements hold for procedure $G_{USL}$.

a) If the procedure terminates in step 1 or step 3a, we have $f(p^+) - lb^+ \leq q[f(p) - lb]$, where $q$ is defined in (3.9.15);

b) If the procedure terminates in step 3b, then $\tilde{D} < D_Y$.

**Proof.** The proof of part a) is the same as that of Lemma 3.15.e) and we only need to show part b). Observe that whenever step 3b occurs, we have $\tilde{f}_k > l + \theta(\tilde{f}_0 - l)$ and $f_\eta(x_k^\eta) \leq l + \frac{q}{2}(\tilde{f}_0 - l)$. Hence,

$$f(x_k^\eta) - f_\eta(x_k^\eta) = \tilde{f}_k - f_\eta(x_k^\eta) > \frac{q}{2}(\tilde{f}_0 - l),$$

which, in view of the second relation in (3.5.7), then implies that $\eta D_Y > \theta(\tilde{f}_0 - l)/2$. Using this observation and (3.9.38), we conclude that $\tilde{D} < D_Y$. ■

We observe that all the results in Lemma 3.15.a-d) regarding the execution of procedure $G_{APL}$ also hold for procedure $G_{USL}$. In addition, similar to Theorem 3.13, we establish below some important convergence properties of procedure $G_{USL}$ by showing how the gap between $f(x_k^\eta)$ and the level $l$ decreases.

**Theorem 3.15.** Let $\alpha_k \in (0, 1], k = 1, 2, \ldots, \eta_k \in (0, 1], \kappa \in (1, \infty)$ be given. Also let $(x_k^\eta, x_k, x_k^\eta) \in X \times X \times X, k \geq 1$, be the search points, $l$ be the level and $V(x_0, \cdot)$ be the prox-function, $\eta$ be the smoothing parameter (see (3.9.38)) in procedure $G_{USL}$. Then, we have

$$f_\eta(x_k^\eta) - l \leq (1 - \alpha_k)\kappa(1)[f_\eta(x_k^\eta) - l] + \frac{\|A^2V(x_0, x_k^\eta)\|_\infty}{\eta} \kappa(1)\|A^2(1, \rho)\|_\infty, \quad (3.9.41)$$

for any $k \geq 1$, where $\| \cdot \|_\infty$ denotes the $l_\infty$ norm, $\kappa(\cdot)$ and $\Gamma_k(\cdot, \cdot)$, respectively, are defined in (3.9.23) and (3.9.24). In particular, if $\alpha_k \in (0, 1], k = 1, 2, \ldots, \eta_k$ are chosen such that condition (3.9.25) holds with $\rho = 1$ for some $c > 0$, then the number of iterations performed by procedure $G_{APL}$ can be bounded by

$$K_{USL}(\Delta_0, \bar{D}) := \left[ \frac{2\|A^2\|D_X\bar{D}}{\rho\theta_0\Delta_0} \right], \quad (3.9.42)$$

where $D_X$ is defined in (3.2.4).

**Proof.** Note that, by (3.9.40) and (3.8.5), we have $h_\eta(z, x) \leq f_\eta(x)$ for any $z, x \in X$. Moreover, by (3.8.5), (3.9.39) and the fact that $F_\eta$ has Lipschitz continuous gradients with constant $\mathcal{L}_\eta$, we obtain

$$f_\eta(x) - h_\eta(z, x) = F_\eta(x) - [F_\eta(z) + \langle \nabla F_\eta(z), x - z \rangle] \leq \frac{\mathcal{L}_\eta}{2}\|x - z\|^2 = \frac{\|A^2\|}{\eta}\|x - z\|^2$$,
for any \( z, x \in X \), where the last inequality follows from the smoothness of \( F_\eta \). In view of these observations, (3.9.41) follows from an argument similar to the one used in the proof of (3.9.25) with \( f = f_\eta, M = \mathcal{L}_\eta \) and \( \rho = 1 \).

Now using (3.2.4), (3.9.26) (with \( \rho = 1 \)), (3.9.38) and (3.9.41), we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
 f_\eta(x_k^f) - l &\leq \frac{||A||^2\psi_{(x_k^0,x_k)}}{\eta}(1)\|I_1(1,\rho)\|_\infty \leq \frac{c||A||^2\psi_{(x_k^0,x_k)}}{\eta k^2} \\
 &\leq \frac{c||A||^2D_x}{\eta k^2} = \frac{2c||A||^2D_xD}{\theta(\tilde{f}_0-l)k^2}.
\end{align*}
\]

Denoting \( K = K_{USL}(\Delta_0,\bar{D}) \) and noting that \( \Delta_0 = \tilde{T}_0 - f_0 = (\tilde{T}_0 - l)/\beta \), we conclude from the previous inequality that \( f_\eta(x_k^f) - l \leq \theta(\tilde{T}_0-l)/2 \). This result together with (3.5.7) imply that, if \( \bar{D} \geq D_Y \), then \( f(x_k^f) - l \leq f_\eta(x_k^f) - l + \eta D_Y \leq \theta(\tilde{T}_0-l) \).

In view of these two observations and the termination criterions used in step 3, procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{USL} \) must terminate in at most \( K_{APL}(\Delta_0,\bar{D}) \) iterations.

In view of Lemma 3.18, each call to procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{USL} \) can reduce the gap between a given upper and lower bound on \( f^* \) by a constant factor \( q \), or update the estimate on \( D_Y \) by a factor of 2. In the following USL method, we will iteratively call procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{USL} \) until a certain accurate solution is found.

**The USL method:**

**Input:** \( p_0 \in X \), tolerance \( \varepsilon > 0 \), initial estimate \( Q_1 \in [0,D_Y] \) and algorithmic parameters \( \beta, \theta \in (0,1) \).

1) Set \( p_1 = \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \left\{ h_0(p_0,x) := \tilde{f}(x) + F(p_0) + \langle F'(p_0), x - p_0 \rangle \right\} \), (3.9.43)

\[ \text{lb}_1 = h_0(p_0,p_1) \text{ and } \text{ub}_1 := \min\{f(p_1), f(\bar{p}_1)\}. \] Let \( s = 1 \).

2) If \( \text{ub}_s - \text{lb}_s \leq \varepsilon \), terminate;

3) Set \( (p_{s+1},\text{lb}_{s+1},Q_{s+1}) = \mathcal{G}_{USL}(p_s,\text{lb}_s,Q_s,\beta,\theta) \) and \( \text{ub}_{s+1} = f(p_{s+1}) \);

4) Set \( s = s + 1 \) and go to step 1.

We now make a few remarks about the USL method described above. Firstly, each phase \( s, s \geq 1 \), of the USL method is associated with an estimation \( Q_s \) on \( D_Y \), and \( Q_1 \in (0,D_Y) \) is a given input parameter. Note that such a \( Q_1 \) can be easily obtained by the definition of \( D_Y \). Secondly, we differentiate two types of phases: a phase is called *significant* if procedure \( \mathcal{G}_{USL} \) terminates in step 1 or step 3a, otherwise, it is called *non-significant*. Thirdly, in view of Lemma 3.18.b), if phase \( s \) is non-significant, then we must have \( Q_s \leq D_Y \). In addition, using the previous observation, and the facts that \( Q_1 \leq D_Y \) and that \( Q_s \) can be increased by a factor of 2 only in the non-significant phases, we must have \( Q_s \leq 2D_Y \) for all significant phases.

Before establishing the complexity of the above USL method, we first present a technical result which will be used to provide a convenient estimate on the gap between the initial lower and upper bounds on \( f^* \).

**Proposition 3.3.** Let \( F \) be defined in (3.5.2) and \( v \) be a prox-function of \( Y \) with modulus 1. We have
\[ F(x_0) - F(x_1) - \langle F'(x_1), x_0 - x_1 \rangle \leq 2 \left( 2 \| A \|^2 D_Y \right)^{1/2} \| x_0 - x_1 \|, \quad \forall x_0, x_1 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (3.9.44) \]

where \( F'(x_1) \in \partial F(x_1) \) and \( D_Y \) is defined in (3.2.4).

**Proof.** We first need to provide some characterization for the subgradients of \( F \). Let \( F \) and \( F_{\eta} \) be defined in (3.5.2) and (3.5.4), respectively. Also let us denote, for any \( \eta > 0 \) and \( x \in X \),

\[ \psi_{\eta}(z) := F_{\eta}(x) + \langle \nabla F_{\eta}(x), z - x \rangle + \frac{\eta}{2} \| z - x \|^2 + \eta D_Y, \quad (3.9.45) \]

where \( D_Y \) and \( \mathcal{L}_{\eta} \) are defined in (3.2.4) and (3.5.8), respectively. Clearly, in view of (3.9.2) and (3.5.6), \( \psi_{\eta} \) is a majorant of both \( F_{\eta} \) and \( F \). For a given \( x \in X \), let \( Z_x \) be the set

\[ Z_x := \{ z \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \psi_{\eta}(z) + \langle \nabla \psi_{\eta}(z), x - z \rangle = F(x) \}, \quad (3.9.46) \]

where \( \nabla \psi_{\eta}(z) = \nabla F_{\eta}(x) + \mathcal{L}_{\eta}(z - x) \). Equivalently, we have

\[ Z_x := \{ z \in \mathbb{R}^n : \| z - x \|^2 = \frac{2}{\eta} \left[ \eta D_Y + F_{\eta}(x) - F(x) \right] \}. \quad (3.9.47) \]

Clearly, by the first relation in (3.5.6)

\[ \| z - x \|^2 \leq \frac{2\eta D_Y}{\eta}, \quad \forall z \in Z_x. \quad (3.9.48) \]

Moreover, for any given \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( p \in \mathbb{R}^n \), there exists \( z \in Z_x \) such that

\[ \langle F'(x), p \rangle \leq \langle \nabla \psi_{\eta}(z), p \rangle = \langle \nabla F_{\eta}(x) + \mathcal{L}_{\eta}(z - x), p \rangle. \quad (3.9.49) \]

where \( F'(x) \in \partial F(x) \). Indeed, let us denote

\[ t = \frac{1}{\| p \|} \left\{ \frac{2}{\mathcal{L}_{\eta}} \left[ \eta D_Y + F_{\eta}(x) - F(x) \right] \right\}^{1/2} \]

and \( z_0 = x + tp \). Clearly, in view of (3.9.47), we have \( z_0 \in Z_x \). By convexity of \( F \), the fact that \( F(z_0) \leq \psi_{\eta}(z_0) \), and (3.9.46), we have

\[ F(x) + \langle F'(x), t p \rangle \leq F(x + tp) \leq \psi_{\eta}(z_0) = F(x) + \langle \nabla \psi_{\eta}(z_0), z_0 - x \rangle = F(x) + t \langle \nabla \psi_{\eta}(z_0), p \rangle, \]

which clearly implies the result in (3.9.49).

Now we are ready to prove our main conclusion. First note that by the convexity of \( F \), we have

\[ F(x_0) - F(x_1) - \langle F'(x_1), x_0 - x_1 \rangle \leq \langle F'(x_0), x_0 - x_1 \rangle + \langle F'(x_1), x_1 - x_0 \rangle. \]

Moreover, by (3.9.49), \( \exists z_0 \in Z_{x_0} \) and \( z_1 \in Z_{x_1} \) s.t.
where the last inequality and equality follow from (3.9.48) and (3.5.8), respectively. Combining the above two relations, we have

\[
F(x_0) - [F(x_1) + \langle F'(x_1), x_0 - x_1 \rangle] \leq \frac{\|A\|^2}{\eta} \|x_0 - x_1\|^2 + 2 (2\|A\|^2D_f)^{1/2} \|x_0 - x_1\|.
\]

The result now follows by tending \( \eta \) to \(+\infty\) in the above relation.

We are now ready to show the main convergence results for the USL method.

**Theorem 3.16.** Suppose that \( \alpha_k \in (0, 1], k = 1, 2, \ldots \), in procedure \( \mathcal{U}_l \) are chosen such that condition (3.9.26) holds with \( \rho = 1 \) for some \( c > 0 \). The following statements hold for the USL method applied to problem (3.5.1)-(3.5.2).

a) The number of non-significant phases is bounded by \( S_F(Q_1) := \lceil \log D_f/Q_1 \rceil \), and the number of significant phases is bounded by

\[
S_F(\varepsilon) := \max \left\{ 0, \log_{1/q} \left( \frac{4\|A\|\sqrt{D_XD_f}}{\varepsilon} \right) \right\}.
\]

b) The total number of gap reduction iterations performed by the USL method does not exceed

\[
S_F(\varepsilon) + S_F(Q_1) + \frac{\Delta_F}{\bar{\varepsilon}},
\]

where \( \bar{\varepsilon} := 2[\sqrt{2}/(1 - q) + \sqrt{2} + 1]\sqrt{c}/\theta \).

**Proof.** Denote \( \delta_i \equiv u_{bi} - lb_i \), \( s \geq 1 \). Without loss of generality, we assume that \( \delta_i > \varepsilon \), since otherwise the statements are obviously true. The first claim in part a) immediately follows from the facts that a non-significant phase can occur only if \( Q_1 \leq D_f \) due to Lemma 3.18.b) and that \( Q_s, s \geq 1 \), is increased by a factor of 2 in each non-significant phase. In order to show the second claim in part a), we first bound the initial optimality gap \( u_1 - lb_1 \). By the convexity of \( F \), (3.5.5) and (3.9.43), we can easily see that \( lb_1 \leq f^* \). Moreover, we conclude from (3.5.5), (3.9.44) and (3.9.43) that

\[
u b_1 - lb_1 \leq f(p_1) - lb_1 = F(p_1) - F(p_0) - (F'(p_0), p_1 - p_0) \\
\leq 2 (2\|A\|^2D_f)^{1/2} \|p_1 - p_0\| \leq 4\|A\|\sqrt{D_XD_f},
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( \|p_1 - p_0\| \leq \sqrt{2}D_X \). Using this observation and Lemma 3.18.a), we can easily see that the number of significant phases is bounded by \( S_F(\varepsilon) \).
We now show that part b) holds. Let \( B = \{b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_k\} \) and \( N = \{n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_m\} \), respectively. Denote the set of indices of the significant and non-significant phases. Note that \( \delta_{q+1} \leq q \delta_q \), \( t \geq 1 \), and hence that \( \delta_{t\gamma} \geq q^{-k} \delta_{t\gamma} > \varepsilon q^{-k} \), \( 1 \leq t \leq k \). Also observe that \( Q_{\gamma} \leq 2D_J \) (see the remarks right after the statement of the USL method). Using these observations and Theorem 3.15, we conclude that the total number of iterations performed in the significant phases is bounded by

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} K_{USL}(\delta_{t\gamma}, Q_{\gamma}) \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} K_{USL}(\varepsilon q^{-k}, 2D_J) \leq k + \frac{2\|\theta\|}{\beta \varepsilon} \sqrt{C_1 D_J D_J} \sum_{t=1}^{k} q^{-k} t
\]

where the last inequality follows from part a) and the observation that \( \sum_{t=1}^{k} q^{k-t} \leq 1/(1-q) \). Moreover, note that \( \Delta_{n_r} > \varepsilon \) for any \( 1 \leq r \leq m \) and that \( Q_{n_r} = 2Q_{n_r} \) for any \( 1 \leq r \leq m \). Using these observations and Theorem 3.15, we conclude that the total number of iterations performed in the non-significant phases is bounded by

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{m} K_{USL}(\delta_{n_r}, Q_{n_r}) \leq \sum_{t=1}^{m} K_{USL}(\varepsilon, Q_{n_r}) \leq m + \frac{2\|\theta\|}{\beta \varepsilon} \sqrt{C_1 D_J Q_J} \sum_{t=1}^{m} q^{r-1/2}
\]

Combining (3.9.52) and (3.9.53), we obtain (3.9.51).

It is interesting to observe that, if \( Q_1 = D_J \), then there are no non-significant phases and the number of iterations performed by the USL method is simply bounded optimally by (3.9.52). In this case, we do not need to compute the value of \( f_{\gamma}(x^*_t) \) in step 3b. It is interesting to note that, in view of Theorem 3.16, the USL method still achieves the optimal complexity bound in (3.9.51) even without a good initial estimate on \( D_J \).

### 3.10 Exercises and notes

1. Let \( \{x_t\} \) be the sequence generated by the mirror descent method (3.2.5) applied to (3.1.2).
   
   a. Assume the gradient \( \|g(x_t)\|_\ast \leq M \),
      \[
      f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle g(x), y - x \rangle + \mu V(x, y), \forall x, y \in X
      \]
      and \( \gamma = 2/(\mu \mu') \) for some \( \mu > 0 \). Provide a bound on \( \|x_t - x^\ast\|^2 \) and \( f(\bar{x}_t^\ast) - f^\ast \) where \( x^\ast \) is the optimal solution of (3.1.2) and \( \bar{x}_t^\ast \) is defined in (3.1.9).
   
   b. Please derive the selection of stepsizes \( \{\gamma_t\} \) and the rate of convergence for mirror descent method applied to smooth convex optimization problems for
3.10 Exercises and notes

which

\[ \| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y) \| \leq L \| x - y \|, \forall x, y \in X. \]

What if the problem is also strongly convex, i.e., (3.10.1) holds?

2. Show that if we replace step (3.3.6) in the accelerated gradient descent method ((3.3.4)-(3.3.6)) by

\[ \bar{x}_t = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \{ f(x_t) + \langle f(x_t), x - x_t \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| x - x_t \|^2 \}, \]

the algorithm still converges with similar performance guarantees as in Theorems 3.6 and 3.7.

3. In the game interpretation of accelerated gradient descent method, please specify the selection of \( \tau_t, \lambda_t, q_t \) and \( \alpha_t \) so that (3.4.16) and (3.4.17) are equivalent to (3.3.5) and (3.3.6)

4. In the smoothing scheme for solving saddle point problems, let us define

\[ F_\eta(x) := \max_y \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) + \eta (D^2_Y - W(y)) \}. \]

Moreover, let us modify the accelerated gradient descent method in (3.3.23)-(3.3.25) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}_t &= (1 - q_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + q_t x_{t-1}, \\
x_t &= \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \{ \nabla F_\eta(x,\bar{x}_{t-1}) \} + \mu V(x,\bar{x}_{t-1}) + V(x_{t-1},x), \\
\bar{x}_t &= (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t.
\end{align*}
\]

Show that if \( \eta_t \) in (3.10.3) is set to

\[ \eta_t = \frac{\| A \| D_X}{t}, t = 1, 2, \ldots, \]

then by using the above algorithm one can find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (3.5.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \varepsilon \), in at most

\[ O\left( \frac{\| A \| D_X D_Y}{\varepsilon} \right) \]

iterations.

5. Consider the saddle point problem in (3.6.1), i.e., \( f^* = \min_{x \in X} f(x) \) with

\[ f(x) = \hat{f}(x) + \max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y). \]

Als let \( Q(\bar{z}, z) \) be defined in (3.6.7).

a. Show that \( \bar{z} \in Z \) is a saddle point of (3.6.1) if and only if \( Q(\bar{z}, z) \leq 0 \) for any \( z \in Z \).

b. Show that \( f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \max_{z \in Z} Q(\bar{z}, z). \)

c. Show that \( 0 \leq f^* - \min_{x \in X} \{ \hat{f}(x) + \langle Ax, \bar{y} \rangle - \hat{g}(\bar{y}) \} \leq \max_{z \in Z} Q(\bar{z}, z). \)
6. Consider the linear constrained convex optimization problem in (3.7.1). Establish the rate of convergence of the following preconditioned ADMM method obtained by replacing (3.7.2) with

\[
x_t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ f(x) + \langle \lambda_{t-1}, Ax + By_{t-1} - b \rangle + \rho \langle Ax_{t-1} + By_{t-1} - b, Ax \rangle + \eta \frac{\|x - x_{t-1}\|^2}{2} \right\}
\]

for some \( \eta > 0 \).

7. Consider the variational inequality problem in (3.8.1). Establish the rate of convergence of the mirror-prox method in (3.8.4) and (3.8.5) under the following situation.

a. The operator is monotone, i.e., (3.8.2) holds, is Hölder continuous, i.e.,

\[
\|F(x) - F(y)\|_* \leq L \|x - y\|^v, \forall x, y \in X
\]

for some \( v \in [0, 1] \) and \( L \geq 0 \).

b. The operator is not monotone, but satisfies (3.8.3). Moreover, it satisfies (3.10.5) for some \( v \in (0, 1] \) and \( L \geq 0 \).

8. Describe a variant of the APL method discussed in Section 3.9.1 with the parameter \( \alpha_k = 1 \) in the APL gap reduction procedure, and establish its rate of convergence when applied to solve problem 3.9.1.

Notes. The rate of convergence for subgradient descent for solving was first established in [78]. The mirror descent method was first introduced by Nemirovski and Yudin in [78] and later simplified in [4]. Nesterov first introduced the accelerated gradient descent method in [79] and different variants of this method can be found, e.g., in [80, 6, 82, 83, 56]. The game interpretation of the accelerated gradient descent method and the relationship between this method and primal-dual method were introduced in Lan and Zhou [62]. Nesterov [82] first presented the smoothing scheme for solving bilinear saddle point problems and all the primal-dual method for solving these problems was first introduced by Chambolle and Pock in [15]. Chen, Lan and Ouyang [18], and Dang and Lan [21] presented the generalization of the primal-dual method, e.g., to the non-Euclidean setting and smooth and/or strongly convex bilinear saddle point problem. Boyd et. al. provides a comprehensive survey on ADMM in [14]. The rate of convergence analysis of ADMM was first presented by [73, 39], and the rate of convergence for different variants of ADMM, in terms of their primal optimality gap and feasibility violation, was established in [87]. Inspired by the smoothing scheme for solving bilinear saddle point problem, Nemirovski developed the mirror-prox method for solving variation inequalities in [76]. This method evolves from Korpelevich’s extragradient method [49], see also [26] for a comprehensive treatment for variational inequalities and complementarity problems. The complexity of the mirror-prox method for solving the generalized monotone variational inequalities problems was established in [22]. Lan [53] first presented the accelerated prox-level and uniform smoothing level method for solving different
classes of convex optimization problems, see [65, 48, 7, 8] for earlier developments of bundle-level type methods.
In this chapter, we focus on stochastic convex optimization problems which have found wide applications in machine learning. We will first study two classic methods, i.e., stochastic mirror descent and accelerated stochastic gradient descent methods. We will then present stochastic optimization methods for solving general convex concave saddle point, stochastic bilinear saddle point, and stochastic variational inequality problems. Finally, we discuss how to incorporate randomized block decomposition into stochastic optimization methods.

4.1 Stochastic mirror descent

We consider the following optimization problem

$$f^* \equiv \min_{x \in X} \{ f(x) := \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)] \}, \quad (4.1.1)$$

where $X \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is a nonempty bounded closed convex set, $\xi$ is a random vector whose probability distribution $P$ is supported on set $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and $F: X \times \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We assume that for every $\xi \in \mathcal{E}$ the function $F(\cdot, \xi)$ is convex on $X$, and that the expectation

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)] = \int_{\mathcal{E}} F(x, \xi) dP(\xi) \quad (4.1.2)$$

is well defined and finite valued for every $x \in X$. It follows that function $f(\cdot)$ is convex and finite valued on $X$. Moreover, we assume that $f(\cdot)$ is continuous on $X$. Clearly, continuity of $f(\cdot)$ follows from convexity if $f(\cdot)$ is finite valued and convex on a neighborhood of $X$. With these assumptions, (4.1.1) becomes a convex programming problem. A basic difficulty of solving stochastic optimization problem (4.1.1) is that the multidimensional integral (expectation) (4.1.2) cannot be computed with a high accuracy for dimension $d$, say, greater than 5. The aim of this section is
to introduce one computational approach based on Monte Carlo sampling techniques. To this end we make the following assumptions.

**Assumption 1** It is possible to generate an iid sample $\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots$, of realizations of the random vector $\xi$.

**Assumption 2** There is a mechanism, a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO) which for every given $x \in X$ and $\xi \in \Xi$ returns a stochastic subgradient – a vector $G(x, \xi)$ such that $g(x) := \mathbb{E}[G(x, \xi)]$ is well defined.

Throughout this section, we assume that the stochastic subgradient $G$ satisfies the following assumptions.

**Assumption 3** For any $x \in X$, we have

\[ a) \quad \mathbb{E}[G(x, \xi_t)] = f'(x) \in \partial \Psi(x), \quad (4.1.3) \]

\[ b) \quad \mathbb{E} [\|G(x, \xi_t) - f'(x)\|^2] \leq \sigma^2. \quad (4.1.4) \]

Recall that if $F(\cdot, \xi), \xi \in \Xi$, is convex and $f(\cdot)$ is finite valued in a neighborhood of a point $x$, then

\[ \partial f(x) = \mathbb{E}[\partial_x F(x, \xi)]. \quad (4.1.5) \]

In that case we can employ a measurable selection $G(x, \xi) \in \partial_x F(x, \xi)$ as a stochastic subgradient.

The stochastic mirror descent method, also referred to as mirror descent stochastic approximation, is obtained by replacing the exact subgradient $g(x_t)$ in (3.2.5) with a stochastic subgradient $G_t := G(x_t, \xi_t)$ returned by the stochastic oracle. More specifically, it updates $x_t$ according to

\[ x_{t+1} = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \gamma(G_t, x) + V(x_t, x), \quad t = 1, 2, \ldots. \quad (4.1.6) \]

Here $V$ denotes the prox-function associated with the distance generating function $\nu$. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that the modulus $\sigma_\nu$ of $\nu$ is given by 1 (see Section 3.2). We will establish the convergence of this stochastic optimization under different assumptions about the objective function $f$.

### 4.1.1 General nonsmooth convex functions

In this subsection, we assume that the objective function $f$ has bounded subgradients such that

\[ \|g(x)\| \leq M, \quad \forall x \in X. \quad (4.1.7) \]

This assumption implies that $f$ is Lipschitz continuous over $X$ in view of Lemma 2.4.
It can be easily seen that the result in Lemma 3.4 holds with \( g_t \) replaced by \( G_t \). By using this result, we can establish the convergence properties for the above stochastic mirror descent method.

**Theorem 4.1.** Let \( x_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \), be generated by (4.1.6) and define \( \bar{x}_s^k \) as in (3.1.9). Then

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_s^k)] - f^* \leq \left( \sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s \right)^{-1} \left[ \mathbb{E}[V(x_s, x^*)] + (M^2 + \sigma^2) \sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s^2 \right], \tag{4.1.8}
\]

where \( x^* \) denotes an arbitrary solution of (4.1.1) and the expectation is taken w.r.t. \( \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k \).

**Proof.** Let us denote \( \delta_t = G_t - g_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \). By the convexity of \( f \) and Lemma 3.4,

\[
\gamma_s [f(x_s) - f(x)] \leq \gamma_s (G_s, x_s - x) - \gamma_s \langle \delta_s, x_t - x \rangle
\]

\[
\leq V(x_s, x) - V(x_{s+1}, x) + \gamma_s (G_s, x_s - x_{s+1}) - V(x_s, x_{s+1})
\]

\[
- \gamma_s \langle \delta_s, x_t - x \rangle
\]

\[
\leq V(x_s, x) - V(x_{s+1}, x) + \frac{1}{2} \|G_s\|^2 - \gamma_s \langle \delta_s, x_t - x \rangle,
\]

where the last inequality follows from the strong convexity of \( \mathcal{V} \), the Cauchy-Swartz inequality and the fact that \( bt - a t^2 / 2 \leq b^2 / (2a) \) for any \( a > 0 \). The previous conclusion together with the fact that

\[
\|G_t\|^2 \leq 2 (\|g_t\|^2 + \|\delta_t\|^2) \leq 2 (M^2 + \|\delta\|^2)
\]

due to (4.1.7) then imply that

\[
\gamma_s [f(x_s) - f(x)] \leq V(x_s, x) - V(x_{s+1}, x) + 2 \gamma_s^2 (M^2 + \|\delta_s\|^2) - \gamma_s \langle \delta_s, x_t - x \rangle.
\]

Summing up these inequalities and using the fact that \( f(x_s^k) \leq (\sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s) \mathbb{E}[f(x_s)] \), we obtain

\[
f(x_s^k) - f^* \leq \left( \sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s \right)^{-1} \left[ V(x_s, x^*) - V(x_{s+1}, x^*)
\right]

\[
+ 2 \sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s^2 (M^2 + \|\delta_s\|^2) - \sum_{s=t}^{k} \gamma_s \langle \delta_s, x_t - x \rangle \right]. \tag{4.1.10}
\]

The result then follows by taking expectation on both sides of the above inequality. ■

Assuming that the total number of steps \( k \) is given in advance and optimizing the right hand side of (4.1.8), we arrive at the constant stepsize policy

\[
\gamma_t = \frac{D_X}{\sqrt{k(k^2 + 2^2)}}, \ t = 1, \ldots, k, \tag{4.1.11}
\]

where \( D_X \) is defined in (3.2.4), and the associated efficiency estimate
\[
E \left[ f(x_1^t) - f(x) \right] \leq 2D_x \sqrt{\frac{M^2 + \sigma^2}{k}}. \quad (4.1.12)
\]

Certainly we can allow different stepsize strategy similar to the deterministic mirror descent method discussed in the previous chapter.

So far, all our efficiency estimates were upper bounds on the expected non-optimality, in terms of the objective, of approximate solutions generated by the algorithms. Here we complement these results with bounds on probabilities of large deviations. Observe that by Markov inequality, (4.1.12) implies that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ f(x_1^t) - f(x) > \varepsilon \right\} \leq \frac{2D_x \sqrt{M^2 + \sigma^2}}{\varepsilon \sqrt{k}}, \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0. \quad (4.1.13)
\]

This implies that in order to find an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (4.1.1), i.e., a point \(\bar{x} \in X\) s.t. \(\text{Prob} \left\{ f(x_1^t) - f(x_0) > \varepsilon \right\} < \Lambda\) for some \(\Lambda \in (0, 1)\), one needs to run the stochastic mirror descent method for

\[
O \left\{ \frac{D_x^2 (M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\Lambda \varepsilon^2} \right\}
\]

iterations. It is possible, however, to obtain much finer bounds on deviation probabilities when imposing more restrictive assumptions on the distribution of \(G(x, \xi)\). Specifically, assume the following “light-tail” assumption.

**Assumption 4** For any \(x \in X\), we have

\[
E \left[ \exp \left( \|G(x, \xi) - g(x)\|^2 / \sigma^2 \right) \right] \leq \exp \{1\}. \quad (4.1.15)
\]

It can be easily seen that Assumption 4 implies Assumption 3(b). Indeed, if a random variable \(Y\) satisfies \(E[\exp \{Y/a\}] \leq \exp \{1\}\) for some \(a > 0\), then by Jensen’s inequality \(\exp \{E[\exp \{Y/a\}]\} \leq \exp \{E[\exp \{Y\}]\} \leq \exp \{1\}\), and therefore \(E[Y] \leq a\). Of course, condition (4.1.15) holds if \(\|G(x, \xi) - g(x)\|_\sigma \leq \sigma\) for all \((x, \xi) \in X \times \Xi\).

Now let us state the following well-known result for the martingale sequence.

**Lemma 4.1.** Let \(\xi_{[\ell]} = \{\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_\ell\}\) be a sequence of iid random variables, and \(\zeta_\ell = \zeta(\xi_{[\ell]})\) be deterministic Borel functions of \(\xi_{[\ell]}\) such that \(E_{[\xi_{[\ell-1]}]}[\zeta_\ell] = 0\) a.s. and \(E_{[\xi_{[\ell-1]}]}[\exp \{\zeta_\ell^2 / \sigma^2_\ell\}] \leq \exp \{1\}\) a.s., where \(\sigma_\ell > 0\) are deterministic. Then

\[
\forall \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{\ell=1}^{\ell} \zeta_\ell > \lambda \sqrt{\sum_{\ell=1}^{\ell} \sigma^2_\ell} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}.
\]

**Proof.** For simplicity, let us denote the conditional expectation \(E_{[\xi_{[\ell-1]}]}\) by \(E_{\ell-1}\). Let us set \(\bar{z}_\ell = \zeta_\ell / \sigma_\ell\). We have \(\exp \{x\} \leq x + \exp \{9x^2 / 16\}\) for all \(x\), so that \(E_{\ell-1}[\bar{z}_\ell] = 0\) and \(E_{\ell-1}[\exp \{\bar{z}_\ell^2\}] \leq \exp \{1\}\) a.s. In view of these relations and the moment inequality, we have

\[
\forall \lambda \in [0, 4/3] : E_{\ell-1} [\exp \{\lambda \bar{z}_\ell\}] \leq E_{\ell-1} [\exp \{(9\lambda^2 / 16)\bar{z}_\ell^2\}] \leq \exp \{9\lambda^2 / 16\}. \quad (4.1.16)
\]

Besides this, we have \(\lambda x \leq \frac{3}{8} \lambda^2 + \frac{2}{7} x^2\), whence
Applying Chebyshev inequality, we get for a positive

\[ \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \lambda \xi \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( 3 \lambda^2 / 8 \right) \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( 2 \xi^2 / 3 \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( \frac{2}{3} + 3 \lambda^2 / 8 \right). \]

Combining the latter inequality with (4.1.16), we get

\[ \forall \lambda \geq 0 : \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \lambda \xi \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( 3 \lambda^2 / 4 \right), \]

or, which is the same,

\[ \forall \nu \geq 0 : \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \xi \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( 3 \nu^2 \sigma^2 / 4 \right) \]

Now, since \( \xi \) is a deterministic function of \( \xi^T \), we have the recurrence

\[ \forall \nu \geq 0 : \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \xi_t \right) \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \sum_{t=1}^{\tau-1} \xi_t \right) \right] \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \xi_\tau \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( 3 \nu^2 \sigma^2 / 4 \right) \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \sum_{t=1}^{\tau-1} \xi_t \right) \right], \]

whence

\[ \forall \nu \geq 0 : \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left( \nu \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \xi_t \right) \right] \leq \exp \left( 3 \nu^2 \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \sigma_t^2 / 4 \right). \]

Applying Chebyshev inequality, we get for a positive \( \lambda \)

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \xi_t > \lambda \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \sigma_t^2} \right\} \\
\leq \inf_{\nu \geq 0} \exp \left\{ 3 \nu^2 \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \sigma_t^2 / 4 \right\} \exp \left\{ -\lambda \nu \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} \sigma_t^2} \right\} \\
= \exp \left\{ -\lambda^2 / 3 \right\}.
\]

**Proposition 4.1.** In the case of Assumption 4, for the constant stepsizes (4.1.11) one has that for any \( \lambda \geq 0 \) the following holds

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ f(\bar{x}_t) - f(x_*) > \frac{3D_\delta}{\sqrt{\nu}} \left( \sqrt{\nu^2 + \sigma^2} + \lambda \sigma \right) \right\} \leq \exp \{ -\lambda \} + \exp \{ -\lambda^2 / 3 \}. \]

**Proof.** Let \( \xi_t = \gamma (\delta_t, x_t - x_*) \). Clearly, \{ \( \xi_t \) \}_{t \geq 1} is a martingale sequence. Moreover, it follows from the definition of \( D_\delta \) and (4.1.15) that

\[ \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \xi_t^2 / (\gamma D_\delta \sigma^2) \right) \right] \leq \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( (\gamma D_\delta \| \delta \|_\nu^2 / (\gamma D_\delta \sigma^2) \right) \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}. \]

The previous two observations, in view of Lemma 4.1, then imply that

\[ \forall \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{h} \xi_t > \lambda D_\delta \sigma \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^{h} \gamma_t^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{ -\lambda^2 / 3 \}. \]  

(4.1.17)

Now observe that under Assumption 4,

\[ \mathbb{E}_{\delta - 1} \left[ \exp \left( \| \delta \|_\nu^2 / \sigma^2 \right) \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}. \]
Setting $\theta_t = \gamma^2_t / \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma_s^2$, we have

$$\exp \left\{ \sum_{s=1}^{k} \theta_s (\| \delta \|_2^2 / \sigma^2) \right\} \leq \sum_{s=1}^{k} \theta_s \exp \{\| \delta \|_2^2 / \sigma^2 \},$$

whence, taking expectations,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma^2_s || \delta \|_2^2 / \left( \sigma^2 \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma_s^2 \right) \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{1\}.$$

It then follows from Markov’s inequality that

$$\forall \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma^2_s || \delta \|_2^2 > (1 + \lambda) \sigma^2 \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma_s^2 \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\}. \quad (4.1.18)$$

Using (4.1.17) and (4.1.18) in (4.1.10), we conclude that

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ f(\bar{x}_k) - f^* > \left( \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma^2_s \right)^{-1} \left[ D_X^2 + 2 \sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma^2_s \left[ M^2 + (1 + \lambda) \sigma^2 \right] \right] + \lambda D_X \sigma \sqrt{\sum_{s=1}^{k} \gamma_s^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\} + \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}. \quad (4.1.19)$$

The result immediately follows from the above inequality and (4.1.11).

In view of Proposition 4.1, if Assumption 4 holds, then the number of iterations performed by the stochastic mirror descent method to find an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of (4.1.1) can be bounded by

$$O \left\{ \frac{D_X^2 (M^2 + \sigma^2) \log(1/\Lambda)}{\varepsilon^2} \right\}.$$

### 4.1.2 Smooth convex problems

In this section, we still consider problem (4.1.1), but assume that $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a convex function with Lipschitz continuous gradient, that is,

$$\| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x') \|_2 \leq L \| x - x' \|, \quad \forall x, x' \in X. \quad (4.1.20)$$

We first derive the rate of convergence for a direct application of the stochastic mirror descent to smooth stochastic convex optimization problem mentioned above. Note that

$$\| \nabla f(x_t) \|_2^2 \leq \left( \| \nabla f(x_t) + \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x_1) \|_2^2 \right) \leq 2 \| \nabla f(x_t) \|_2^2 + 2 \| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x_1) \|_2^2 \leq 2 \| \nabla f(x_1) \|_2^2 + 2L^2 \| x_t - x_1 \|_2^2 \leq 2 \| \nabla f(x_t) \|_2^2 + 2L^2 D_X^2. \quad (4.1.21)$$
We can easily see from the above inequality and (4.1.12) that the rate of convergence for a direct application of the stochastic mirror descent algorithm is bounded by

\[ O(1) \left[ \frac{D_{\mathcal{X}}(\|f(x_{1})\|_{+}+LD_{\mathcal{X}}+\sigma)}{\sqrt{k}} \right]. \tag{4.1.22} \]

One problem associated with the above method exists in that it does not explore the smoothness properties of \( f \). We will see that a sharper rate of convergence can be obtained by exploiting the smoothness of \( f \), coupled with a different convergence analysis. We will also slightly modify the way to compute the output solution as follows:

\[ x_{t+1}^{\text{av}} = \left( \sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_{t} \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \gamma_{t} x_{t+1}. \tag{4.1.23} \]

More specifically, the sequence \( \{x_{t}^{\text{av}}\}_{t \geq 2} \) is obtained by averaging the iterates \( x_{t}, t \geq 2 \) with their corresponding weights \( \gamma_{t-1} \), while the one in the original stochastic mirror descent is obtained by taking the average of the whole trajectory \( x_{t}, t \geq 1 \) with weights \( \gamma_{t} \). Note however that, if the constant stepsizes are used, i.e., \( \gamma_{t} = \gamma, \forall t \geq 1 \), then the averaging step stated above is exactly the same as the one stated in the original stochastic mirror descent method up to shifting one iterate.

The following lemma establishes an important recursion for the above stochastic mirror descent algorithm for smooth optimization problems.

**Lemma 4.2.** Assume that the stepsizes \( \gamma_{t} \) satisfy \( L_{f} \gamma_{t} < 1, t \geq 1 \). Also let \( \delta_{t} := G(x_{t}, \xi_{t}) - g(x_{t}) \), where \( g(x_{t}) = \mathbb{E}[G(x_{t}, \xi_{t})] = \nabla f(x_{t}) \). Then, we have

\[ \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t+1}) - f(x)] + V(x_{t+1}, x) \leq V(x_{t}, x) + \Delta_{t}(x), \forall x \in X, \tag{4.1.24} \]

where

\[ \Delta_{t}(x) := \gamma_{t} \langle \delta_{t}, x - x_{t} \rangle + \frac{\|\delta_{t}\|^{2} \gamma_{t}^{2}}{2(1-L_{f})}. \tag{4.1.25} \]

**Proof.** Denoting \( d_{t} := x_{t+1} - x_{t} \), due to the strong-convexity of \( v \), we have \( \|d_{t}\|^{2} / 2 \leq V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) \), which together with (3.1.17), then imply that

\[
\begin{align*}
\gamma_{t} f(x_{t+1}) &\leq \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle g(x_{t}), d_{t} \rangle + \frac{\delta_{t}}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2}] \\
&= \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle g(x_{t}), d_{t} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2} - \frac{1-L_{f}}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2}] \\
&\leq \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle g(x_{t}), d_{t} \rangle + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) - \frac{1-L_{f}}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2}] \\
&= \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle G_{t}, d_{t} \rangle - \langle \delta_{t}, d_{t} \rangle + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) - \frac{1-L_{f}}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2}] \\
&\leq \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle G_{t}, d_{t} \rangle + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) - \frac{1-L_{f}}{2} \|d_{t}\|^{2} + \|\delta_{t}\| \|d_{t}\|] \\
&\leq \gamma_{t} [f(x_{t}) + \langle G_{t}, d_{t} \rangle + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) + \frac{\|\delta_{t}\|^{2} \gamma_{t}^{2}}{2(1-L_{f})}] . \tag{4.1.26}
\end{align*}
\]

Moreover, it follows from Lemma 3.4 with \( g_{t} \) replaced by \( G_{t} \) that
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of $f(\cdot)$. Combining the above two conclusions and rearranging the terms, we obtain (4.1.24).

We are now ready to describe the general convergence properties of the above stochastic mirror descent algorithm without specifying the stepsizes $\gamma_t$.

**Theorem 4.2.** Assume that the stepsizes $\gamma_t$ satisfy $0 < \gamma_t \leq 1/(2L)$, $\forall t \geq 1$. Let $\{x^w_t\}_{t \geq 1}$ be the sequence computed according to (4.1.23) by the modified stochastic mirror descent algorithm.

a) Under Assumption 3,

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x^w_t) - f^\ast] \leq K_0(k), \forall k \geq 1,
\]

where

\[
K_0(k) := \left(\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t\right)^{-1} \left[D_X^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t^2\right].
\]

b) Under Assumptions 3 and 4, $\forall \lambda > 0, k \geq 1$,

\[
\text{Prob}\{f(x^w_t) - f^\ast > K_0(k) + \lambda K_1(k)\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\},
\]

where

\[
K_1(k) := \left(\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t\right)^{-1} \left[D_X \sigma \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t^2} + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t^2\right].
\]

**Proof.** Summing up (4.1.24) from $t = 1$ to $k$, we have

\[
\sum_{t=1}^k [\gamma_t (f(x_t) - f^\ast)] \leq V(x_1, x^\ast) - V(x_{t+1}, x^\ast) + \sum_{t=1}^k \Delta_t(x^\ast)
\]

\[
\leq V(x_1, x^\ast) + \sum_{t=1}^k \Delta_t(x^\ast) \leq D_X^2 + \sum_{t=1}^k \Delta_t(x^\ast),
\]

which, in view of the fact that $f(x^w_t) \leq \sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t f(x_t)$, then implies that

\[
\left(\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t\right) [f(x^w_t) - f^\ast] \leq D_X^2 + \sum_{t=1}^k \Delta_t(x^\ast),
\]

Denoting $\zeta_t := \gamma_t \langle \delta_t, x^\ast - x_t\rangle$ and observing that

\[
\Delta_t(x^\ast) = \zeta_t + \frac{\gamma_t \|\delta_t\|^2}{2(1-L_Y)},
\]

we then conclude from (4.1.29) that
4.1 Stochastic mirror descent

\[
\left(\sum_{t=1}^{k} \mathcal{Y}_t\right) \left[f(x_{av}^{t+1}) - f^*\right] \leq D_X^2 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left[\zeta_t + \frac{\gamma^2 \|\delta\|^2}{2(1-L\gamma)}\right] \\
\leq D_X^2 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left(\zeta_t + \gamma^2 \|\delta\|^2\right),
\]

(4.1.30)

where the last inequality follows from the assumption that \(\gamma \leq 1/(2L)\).

Note that the pair \((x_t, x_{av}^t)\) is a function of the history \(\xi_{t-1} := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{t-1})\) of the generated random process and hence is random. Taking expectations of both sides of (4.1.30) and noting that under assumption I, \(\mathbb{E}[\|\delta\|_2^2] \leq \sigma^2\), and

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\xi_{t-1}}[\zeta_t] = 0,
\]

(4.1.31)

we obtain

\[
\left(\sum_{t=1}^{k} \mathcal{Y}_t\right) \mathbb{E} \left[f(x_{av}^{t+1}) - f^*\right] \leq D_X^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \mathcal{Y}_t^2,
\]

which clearly implies part a).

The proof of Part b) is similar to that of Proposition 4.1 and hence the details are skipped.

We now describe the selection of the stepsizes for the modified stochastic mirror descent. For the sake of simplicity, let us suppose that the number of iterations for the above algorithm is fixed in advance, say equal to \(k\), and that the constant stepsizes policy is applied, i.e., \(\gamma_t = \gamma\), \(t = 1, \ldots, k\), for some \(\gamma < 1/(2L)\) (note that the assumption of constant stepsizes does not hurt the efficiency estimate). We then conclude from Theorem 4.2 that the obtained solution \(x_{av}^{k+1} = k^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k+1} x_t\) satisfies

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[f(x_{av}^{k+1}) - f^*\right] \leq \frac{D_X^2}{\gamma^2} + \gamma \sigma^2.
\]

Minimizing the right-hand-side of the above inequality with respect to \(\gamma\) over the interval \((0, 1/(2L)]\), we conclude that

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[f(x_{av}^{k+1}) - f^*\right] \leq K_0(k) := \frac{2LD_X^2}{k^2} + \frac{2D_X \sigma}{\sqrt{k}},
\]

(4.1.32)

by choosing \(\gamma\) as

\[
\gamma = \min \left\{\frac{1}{2L}, \sqrt{\frac{D_X^2}{k\sigma^2}}\right\}.
\]

Moreover, with this choice of \(\gamma\), we have

\[
K_1(k) = \frac{D_X \sigma}{\sqrt{k}} + \gamma \sigma^2 \leq \frac{2D_X \sigma}{\sqrt{k}},
\]

hence, bound (4.1.28) implies that

\[
\text{Prob}\left\{f(x_{av}^{k+1}) - f^* > \frac{2LD_X^2}{k} + \frac{2(1+\lambda)D_X \sigma}{\sqrt{k}}\right\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{\text{−}\lambda\}.
\]
for any $\lambda > 0$.

It is interesting to compare the rate of convergence (4.1.32) obtained for the modified stochastic mirror descent and the one stated in (4.1.22) for a direction application of the original stochastic mirror descent. Clearly, the latter one is always worse than the former one. Moreover, in the range

$$L \leq \frac{\sqrt{k}\sigma^2}{D_X},$$

the first component in (4.1.32) (for abbreviation, the $L$-component) merely does not affect the error estimate (4.1.32). Note that the range stated in (4.1.33) extends as $N$ increases, meaning that, if $k$ is large, the Lipschitz constant of $f$ does not affect the complexity of finding good approximate solutions. In contrast, this phenomenon does not appear in the error estimate (4.1.22) derived for the original stochastic mirror descent algorithm which employs a simple stepsizes strategy without taking into account the structure of the objective function $f$.

It should be noted that the stochastic mirror descent is a direct descendant of the mirror descent algorithm. It is well-known that algorithms of these types are not optimal for smooth convex optimization. We will study a stochastic version of the optimal methods for smooth convex optimization in Section 4.2. In fact, we will show that these methods are also optimal for solving nonsmooth problem by properly specifying stepsizes.

### 4.1.3 Accuracy certificates

In this subsection, we discuss one way to estimate lower and upper bounds for the optimal value of problem (4.1.1) when running the stochastic mirror descent algorithm. For the sake of simplicity, we focus on general nonsmooth convex programming problems with bounded subgradients, i.e., (4.1.7) holds. Discussions about accuracy certificates for smooth problems will be presented in Subsection 4.2.4.

Let $k$ be the total number of steps and denote

$$v_t := \frac{1}{k}, t = 1, \ldots, k, \text{ and } \bar{x}_k := \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t x_t.$$  

Consider the functions

\[
\begin{align*}
    f^k(x) &:= \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t \left[ f(x_t) + g(x_t)^T (x - x_t) \right], \\
    f^k(x) &:= \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t \left[ F(x_t, \xi_t) + G(x_t, \xi_t)^T (x - x_t) \right],
\end{align*}
\]

and define

\[
\begin{align*}
    f^*_k &:= \min_{x \in X} f^k(x) \text{ and } f^{*k} := \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t f(x_t). \tag{4.1.35}
\end{align*}
\]
Since $v_t > 0$ and $\sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t = 1$, it follows by convexity of $f(\cdot)$ that the function $f^k(\cdot)$ underestimates $f(\cdot)$ everywhere on $X$, and hence $f^k \leq f^*$. Since $\tilde{x}_k \in X$ we also have that $f^* \leq f(\tilde{x}_k)$, and by convexity of $f(\cdot)$ that $f(\tilde{x}_k) \leq f^k$. That is, for any realization of the random sample $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k$ we have that

$$f^k \leq f^* \leq f(\tilde{x}_k) \leq f^k. \tag{4.1.36}$$

It follows from (4.1.36) that $\mathbb{E}[f^k] \leq f^* \leq \mathbb{E}[f^k]$ as well.

The bounds $f^k$ and $f^k$ are unobservable since the values $f(x_t)$ are not known exactly. Therefore we consider their computable counterparts

$$\tilde{f}^k = \min_{x \in X} f^k(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}^k = \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t F(x_t, \xi_t). \tag{4.1.37}$$

The bound $\tilde{f}^k$ can be easily calculated while running the stochastic mirror descent procedure. The bound $\tilde{f}^k$ involves solving the optimization problem of minimizing a linear objective function over set $X$.

Since $x_t$ is a function of $\tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]} = (\tilde{\xi}_1, \ldots, \tilde{\xi}_{t-1})$, and $\tilde{x}_t$ is independent of $\tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]}$, we have that

$$\mathbb{E}[\tilde{f}^k] = \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t \mathbb{E} \left[ F(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t) | \tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]} \right] = \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t \mathbb{E} \left[ f(x_t) | \tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]} \right] = \mathbb{E}[f^k]$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}[f^k] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \min_{x \in X} \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t F(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t) + G(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t)^T (x - x_t) \right] | \tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]} \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} v_t F(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t) + G(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t)^T (x - x_t) \right] | \tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]} \right] \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \min_{x \in X} f^k(x) \right] = \mathbb{E}[f^k].$$

It follows that

$$\mathbb{E}[f^k] \leq f^* \leq \mathbb{E}[\tilde{f}^k]. \tag{4.1.38}$$

That is, on average $\tilde{f}^k$ and $\tilde{f}^k$ give, respectively, a lower and an upper bound for the optimal value of problem (4.1.1).

Our goal in the remaining part of this subsection it to understand how good the bounds $f^k$ and $\tilde{f}^k$ are. In the sequel, we denote $\Delta_t := F(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t) - f(x_t)$ and $\delta_t := G(x_t, \tilde{\xi}_t) - g(x_t)$. Since $x_t$ is a function of $\tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]}$ and $\tilde{\xi}_t$ is independent of $\tilde{\xi}_{[t-1]}$, we have that the conditional expectations

$$\mathbb{E}_{[t-1]} [\Delta_t] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}_{[t-1]} [\delta_t] = 0, \tag{4.1.39}$$

and hence the unconditional expectations $\mathbb{E} [\Delta_t] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E} [\delta_t] = 0$ as well.

We make the following assumptions about the $\Delta_t$.

**Assumption 5** There exists a positive constant $Q$ such that for any $t \geq 0$:

$$\mathbb{E} [\Delta_t^2] \leq Q^2. \tag{4.1.40}$$

We first need to show the following simple result.
Lemma 4.3. Let \( \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_j \) be a sequence of elements of \( \mathbb{R}^n \). Define the sequence \( v_t, t = 1, 2, \ldots \) in \( X^o \) as follows: \( v_1 \in X^o \) and

\[
v_{t+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ \langle \xi_t, x \rangle + V(v_t, x) \}.
\]

Then for any \( x \in X \) the following inequalities hold

\[
\langle \xi_t, v_t - x \rangle \leq V(v_t, x) - V(v_{t+1}, x) + \frac{\| \xi_t \|^2}{2},
\]

and

\[
\sum_{t=1}^j \langle \xi_t, v_t - x \rangle \leq V(v_1, x) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^j \| \xi_t \|^2.
\]

**Proof.** By Lemma 3.4, we have

\[
\langle \xi_t, v_{t+1} - x \rangle + V(v_t, v_{t+1}) \leq V(v_t, x) - V(v_{t+1}, x),
\]

which in view of the fact that

\[
\langle \xi_t, v_t - v_{t+1} \rangle - V(v_t, v_{t+1}) \leq \langle \xi_t, v_t - v_{t+1} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \| v_{t+1} - v_t \|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \| \xi_t \|^2,
\]

then implies (4.1.41). Summing up (4.1.41) from \( t = 1 \) to \( j \), we conclude (4.1.42) due to \( V(v_t, x) \geq 0 \) for any \( v \in Z^n, x \in Z \).

We are now ready to bound the expected gap between the aforementioned upper and lower bounds for the optimal value of problem (4.1.1).

**Theorem 4.3.** Suppose that Assumption 1 holds. Then

\[
E[f^k - f^*_x] \leq \frac{4D_X^2 + (2M^2 + 3\sigma)^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2}{2 \sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2},
\]

and

\[
E[\| f^k - f^*_x \|] \leq Q \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2},
\]

and

\[
E[\| f^k - f^*_x \|] \leq \frac{D_X^2 + (M^2 + \sigma)^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2} + (Q + 2\sqrt{\sigma D_X} \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2}).
\]

In particular, in the case of constant stepsize policy (4.1.11) we have

\[
E[f^k - f^*_x] \leq \frac{7D_X \sqrt{M^2 + \sigma^2}}{2 \sqrt{k}},
\]

and

\[
E[\| f^k - f^*_x \|] \leq Qk^{-1/2},
\]

and

\[
E[\| f^k - f^*_x \|] \leq \frac{2D_X \sqrt{M^2 + \sigma^2}}{\sqrt{k}} + (Q + 2\sqrt{\sigma D_X} \sqrt{k})k^{-1/2}.
\]

**Proof.** If in Lemma 4.3 we take \( v_1 := x_1 \) and \( \xi := \gamma \hat{G}(x_t, \hat{\xi}_t) \), then the corresponding iterates \( v_t \) coincide with \( x_t \). Therefore, we have by (4.1.41) and since \( V(x_t, u) \leq D_X^2 \) that

\[
\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t (x_t - u)^T \hat{G}(x_t, \hat{\xi}_t) \leq D_X^2 + 2^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t^2 \| \hat{G}(x_t, \hat{\xi}_t) \|_2^2, \quad \forall u \in X.
\]
It follows that for any \( u \in X \):
\[
\sum_{t=1}^k V_t \left[ -f(x_t) + (x_t - u)^T g(x_t) \right] + \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \Delta T \leq D_X^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| g(x_t, \xi_t)^\top \|^2 + \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \Delta T \leq (x_t - u).
\]

Since
\[
f^* - f^* = \sum_{u \in X} V_u \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \left[ -f(x_t) + (x_t - u)^T g(x_t) \right],
\]
it follows that
\[
f^* - f^* \leq D_X^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| g(x_t, \xi_t)^\top \|^2 + \max_{u \in X} \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \Delta T \leq (x_t - u).
\]

Let us estimate the second term in the right hand side of (4.1.48). Let
\[
u_t = x_t; \quad u_{t+1} = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle -\gamma \delta_t, x \rangle + V(u_t, x) \right\}, t = 1, 2, \ldots, k;
\]
\[v_{t+1} = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle \gamma \delta_t, x \rangle + V(v_t, x) \right\}, t = 1, 2, \ldots, k.
\]

Observe that \( \delta_t \) is a deterministic function of \( \xi_{t-1} \), whence \( u_t \) and \( v_t \) are deterministic functions of \( \xi_{t-1} \). By using Lemma 4.3 we obtain
\[
\sum_{t=1}^k u_t \delta_t^T (v_t - u) \leq D_X^{-1} + 2^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| \delta_t \|^2, \quad \forall u \in X.
\]

Moreover,
\[
\delta_t^T (v_t - u) = \delta_t^T (x_t - u) + \delta_t^T (v_t - x_t),
\]
and hence it follows by (4.1.50) that
\[
\max_{u \in X} \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \delta_t^T (x_t - u) \leq \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \delta_t^T (x_t - v_t) + D_X^{-1} + 2^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| \delta_t \|^2.
\]

Observe that by similar reasoning applied to \( -\delta_t \) in the role of \( \delta_t \) we get
\[
\max_{u \in X} \left[ -\sum_{t=1}^k V_t \delta_t^T (x_t - u) \right] \leq \left[ -\sum_{t=1}^k V_t \delta_t^T (x_t - u) \right] + D_X^{-1} + 2^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| \delta_t \|^2.
\]

Moreover, \( \mathbb{E}_{\gamma} [\delta_t] = 0 \) and \( u_t, v_t \) and \( x_t \) are functions of \( \xi_{t-1} \), while \( \mathbb{E}_{\gamma} [\delta_t] = 0 \) and hence
\[
\mathbb{E}_{\gamma} [\delta_t] = \mathbb{E}_{\gamma} [\delta_t] = 0.
\]

We also have that \( \mathbb{E}_{\gamma} [\| \delta_t \|^2] \leq \sigma_t^2 \) by (4.1.4), it follows from (4.1.51) and (4.1.53) that
\[
\mathbb{E}_{\gamma} \left[ \max_{u \in X} \sum_{t=1}^k V_t \delta_t^T (x_t - u) \right] \leq D_X^{-1} + 2^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^k \| \delta_t \|^2.
\]
Therefore, by taking expectation of both sides of (4.1.48) and using (4.1.4), (4.1.9) together with (4.1.54) we obtain the estimate (4.1.43).

In order to prove (4.1.44) let us observe that $\tilde{f}^k = \nu = \sum_{t=1}^k \Delta_t$, and that for $1 \leq s \leq t \leq k$,

$$E[\Delta_s \Delta_t] = E\{E_{y-t-1}[\Delta_s \Delta_t]\} = E\{E_{\Delta_s \Lambda_{y-t-1}}[\Delta_t]\} = 0.$$ 

Therefore

$$E\left[(\tilde{f}^k - f^s)^2\right] = E\left[(\nu^k - \nu^s)^2\right] = \nu^k E[\nu^2] = \nu^k E\{E_{y-t-1}[\nu^2]\}.$$ 

Moreover, by condition (4.1.40) of assumption (A1) we have that $E_{y-t-1}[\nu^2] \leq Q^2$, and hence

$$E\left[(\tilde{f}^k - f^s)^2\right] \leq Q^2 \nu^k.$$ 

Since $\sqrt{E[Y^2]} \geq E[Y]$ for any random variable $Y$, inequality (4.1.44) follows from (4.1.55).

Let us now look at (4.1.45). We have

$$|f^k - f^s| = \min_{x \in X} |f^k(x) - \min_{x \in X} f^s(x)| \leq \max_{x \in X} |f^k(x) - f^s(x)| \leq \sum_{t=1}^k |\nu_t \delta^T(x_t - x)|.$$ 

We already showed above (see (4.1.55)) that

$$E \left[\sum_{t=1}^k |\nu_t \delta^T(x_t - x)|\right] \leq Q \sqrt{\nu^k}.$$ 

Invoking (4.1.51), (4.1.52), we get

$$\max_{x \in X} |\sum_{t=1}^k |\nu_t \delta^T(x_t - x)| \leq |\nu T_{\sum_{t=1}^k (\delta^T(x_t - x))| + |\nu T_{\sum_{t=1}^k (x_t - u_t)|} + \frac{D^2}{\sum_{t=1}^k \delta^2}.$$ 

Moreover, for $1 \leq s < t \leq k$ we have that $E\left[|\delta^T(x_s - v_t)\right] = 0$, and hence

$$E \left[|\sum_{t=1}^k |\nu_t \delta^T(x_t - x)|^2\right] = \sum_{t=1}^k \nu_t^2 E \left[|\delta^T(x_t - x)|^2\right] \leq \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \nu_t^2 E \left[|\nu_t^2 - v_t|^2\right] \leq 2\sigma^2 D^2 \sum_{t=1}^k \nu_t^2,$$

where the last inequality follows from the strong convex of $\nu$. It follows that

$$E \left[|\nu T_{\sum_{t=1}^k (x_t - x)|\right] \leq \sqrt{2} D^2 \sigma \sqrt{\nu^k}.$$ 

By similar reasons,

$$E \left[|\nu T_{\sum_{t=1}^k (x_t - u_t)|\right] \leq \sqrt{2} D^2 \sigma \sqrt{\nu^k}.$$
4.1 Stochastic mirror descent

These two inequalities combine with (4.1.57), (4.1.58) and (4.1.56) to imply (4.1.45). This completes the proof of part (i) of Theorem 4.3.

Theorem 4.3 shows that for large \( k \) the online observable random quantities \( \tilde{f}^k \) and \( \underline{f}^k \) are close to the upper bound \( f^{*k} \) and lower bound \( f^{*k} \), respectively. Besides this, on average, \( \tilde{f}^k \) indeed overestimates \( f^{*} \), and \( \underline{f}^k \) indeed underestimates \( f^{*} \). More specifically, for the constant stepsize policy (4.1.11), we have that all estimates given in the right hand side of (4.1.46) are of order \( O(k^{-1/2}) \). It follows that for the constant stepsize policy, difference between the upper \( \tilde{f}^k \) and lower \( \underline{f}^k \) bounds converges on average to zero, with increase of the sample size \( k \), at a rate of \( O(k^{-1/2}) \). It is possible to derive and refine the large-deviation properties of the gap between the lower and upper bounds, especially if we augmented (4.1.40) with

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \delta^2 / Q^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{1\}. \tag{4.1.59}
\]

The development will be similar to Theorem 4.2.b) (see Section 4.2.4 for some related discussions).

Recall that the sample average approximation (SAA) approach also provides a lower on average bound – the random quantity \( \hat{f}_{SAA}^k \), which is the optimal value of the sample average problem (see (4.1.60) below). Suppose the same sample \( \xi_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \), is applied for both stochastic mirror descent and SAA methods. Besides this, assume that the constant stepsize policy is used in the stochastic mirror descent method, and hence \( \nu_t = 1/k, t = 1, \ldots, k \). Finally, assume (as it often is the case) that \( G(x, \xi) \) is a subgradient of \( F(x, \xi) \) in \( x \). By convexity of \( F(\cdot, \xi) \) and since \( \underline{f}^k = \min_{x \in X} \tilde{f}^k(x) \), we have

\[
\hat{f}_{SAA}^k := \min_{x \in X} k^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} F(x, \xi_t) \geq \min_{x \in X} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \nu_t \left( F(x_t, \xi_t) + G(x_t, \xi_t)^T (x - x_t) \right) = \underline{f}^k. \tag{4.1.60}
\]

That is, for the same sample the lower bound \( \underline{f}^k \) is smaller than the lower bound obtained by the SAA method. However, it should be noted that the lower bound \( \underline{f}^k \) is computed much faster than \( \hat{f}_{SAA}^k \), since computing the latter one amounts to solving the sample average optimization problem associated with the generated sample. Moreover, we will discuss in the next subsection how to improve the lower bound \( \underline{f}^k \). From the computational results, the improved lower bound is comparable to the one obtained by the SAA method.

Similar to the SAA method, in order to estimate the variability of the lower bound \( \underline{f}^k \), one can run the stochastic mirror descent method \( M \) times, with independent samples, each of size \( k \), and consequently compute the average and sample variance of \( M \) realizations of the random quantity \( \underline{f}^k \). Alternatively, one can run the stochastic mirror descent procedure once but with \( kM \) iterations, then partition the obtained trajectory into \( M \) consecutive parts, each of size \( k \), for each of these parts calculate the corresponding stochastic mirror descent lower bound and consequently compute the average and sample variance of the \( M \) obtained numbers. The latter approach is similar, in spirit, to the batch means method used in simulation output analysis.
One advantage of this approach is that, as more iterations being run, the stochastic mirror-descent method can output a solution \( \tilde{x}_k \) with much better objective value than \( \tilde{x}_k \). However, this method has the same shortcoming as the batch means method, that is, the correlation among consecutive blocks will result in a biased estimation for the sample variance.

### 4.2 Stochastic accelerated gradient descent

In this section, we study a class of stochastic composite optimization problems given by

\[
\Psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x) \},
\]

where \( X \) is a closed convex set in \( \mathbb{R}^m \), \( h(x) \) is a simple convex function with known structure (e.g., \( h(x) = 0 \) or \( h(x) = \|x\|_1 \)), and \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is a general convex function such that for some \( L \geq 0, M \geq 0 \) and \( \mu \geq 0 \),

\[
\mu V(x,y) \leq f(y) - f(x) - (f'(x), y - x) \leq \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2 + M \|y - x\|, \quad \forall x, y \in X,
\]

where \( f'(x) \in \partial f(x) \) and \( \partial f(x) \) denotes the subdifferential of \( f \) at \( x \). Moreover, we only have access to stochastic first-order information about \( f \). More specifically, at the \( t \)-th iteration, for a given \( x_t \in X \), the stochastic first-order oracle (SFO) returns \( F(x_t, \xi_t) \) and \( G(x_t, \xi_t) \) satisfying \( \mathbb{E}[F(x_t, \xi_t)] = f(x_t) \) and \( \mathbb{E}[G(x_t, \xi_t)] \equiv g(x_t) \in \partial f(x_t) \), where \( \{\xi_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) is a sequence of independently and identically distributed random variables.

Since the parameters \( L, M, \mu \) and \( \sigma \) can be zero, problem (4.2.1) described above covers a wide range of convex programming problems. In particular, if \( f \) is a general Lipschitz continuous function with constant \( M \), then relation (4.2.2) holds with \( L = 0 \). If \( f \) is a smooth convex function with \( L \)-Lipschitz continuous gradient, then (4.2.2) holds with \( M = 0 \). Clearly, relation (4.2.2) also holds if \( f \) is given as the summation of smooth and nonsmooth convex functions. Moreover, \( f \) is strongly convex if \( \mu > 0 \) and problem (4.2.1) covers different classes of deterministic convex programming problems if \( \sigma = 0 \).

If \( \mu > 0 \) in (4.2.2), then, by the classic complexity theory for convex programming, to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (4.2.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \varepsilon \), the number of calls (or iterations) to SFO cannot be smaller than

\[
O(1) \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \left( \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|}{\varepsilon} \right) + \frac{(M + \sigma)^2}{\mu \varepsilon} \right\},
\]

where \( x_0 \) denotes an initial point, \( x^* \) is the optimal solution of problem (4.2.1) and \( O(1) \) represents an absolute constant. Moreover, if \( \mu = 0 \) in (4.2.2), then by the complexity theory of convex programming, the number of calls to the SFO cannot be smaller than
4.2 Stochastic accelerated gradient descent

\[ O(1) \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{L\|x_0-x^*\|^2}{\epsilon}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\} \]  \hspace{1cm} (4.2.4)

While the terms without involving \( \sigma \) in (4.2.3) and (4.2.4) come from deterministic convex programming, we briefly discuss how the critical terms involving \( \sigma \) is derived. Let us focus on the term \( \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \) in (4.2.3). Consider the problem of \( \min \{ \Psi(x) = \mu (x - \alpha)^2 \} \) with unknown \( \alpha \). Also suppose that the stochastic gradient is given by \( 2\mu (x - \alpha - \bar{\xi}/\mu) \) with \( \bar{\xi} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2) \). Under this setting, our optimization problem is equivalent to the estimation of the unknown mean \( \alpha \) from the observations of \( \zeta = \alpha + \bar{\xi}/\mu \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha, \sigma^2/\mu^2) \), and the residual is \( \mu \) times the expected squared error of recovery of the mean \( \alpha \). By standard statistical reasons, when the initial range for \( \alpha \) is larger than \( \sigma/\mu \), to make this expected squared error smaller than \( \sigma^2 \equiv \epsilon/\mu \), or equivalently, \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi] \leq \epsilon \), the number of observations we need is at least \( N = O\left(1 \right) \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu^2}/\epsilon^2 \right) = O\left(1 \right) \left( \sigma^2/(\mu \epsilon) \right) \).

Our goal in this section is to present an optimal stochastic gradient descent type algorithm, namely the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, which can achieve the lower complexity bounds stated in (4.2.3) and (4.2.4). The stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, also called stochastic accelerated approximation, is obtained by replacing exact gradients with stochastic gradients in the accelerated gradient descent method. The basic scheme of this algorithm is described as follows.

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}_t &= (1 - q_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + q_t x_{t-1}, \quad (4.2.5) \\
x_t &= \arg \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \Psi \left( G(x_t, \bar{\xi}) \right) + h(x) + \mu V(x_t, x) \right\}, \quad (4.2.6) \\
\tilde{x}_t &= (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t. \quad (4.2.7)
\end{align*}
\]

Observe that while the original accelerated gradient descent method was designed for solving deterministic convex optimization problems only, by using a novel convergence analysis, we will demonstrate that this algorithm is optimal for not only smooth, but also general nonsmooth and stochastic optimization problems.

The following result describes some properties of the composite function \( \Psi \).

Lemma 4.4. Let \( \tilde{x}_t := (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t \) for some \( \alpha_t \in [0, 1] \) and \( (\bar{x}_{t-1}, x_t) \in X \times X \). We have

\[
\Psi(\tilde{x}_t) \leq (1 - \alpha_t) \Psi(\bar{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t \left[ f(z) + \langle f'(z), x_t - z \rangle + h(x_t) \right] + \frac{L}{2} \| \tilde{x}_t - z \|^2 + M \| \tilde{x}_t - z \|,
\]

for any \( z \in X \).

Proof. First observe that by the definition of \( \tilde{x}_t \) and the convexity of \( f \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
f(z) + \langle f'(z), \tilde{x}_t - z \rangle &= f(z) + \langle f'(z), x_t + (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} - z \rangle \\
&= (1 - \alpha_t) \left[ f(z) + \langle f'(z), \bar{x}_{t-1} - z \rangle \right] + \alpha_t [f(z) + \langle f'(z), x_t - z \rangle] \\
&\leq (1 - \alpha_t) f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t [f(z) + \langle f'(z), x_t - z \rangle].
\end{align*}
\]

Using this observation and (4.2.2), we have
where $f(\tilde{x}) \leq f(z) + \langle f'(z), \tilde{x} - z \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} \|\tilde{x} - z\|^2 + M\|\tilde{x} - z\|
\leq (1 - \alpha_t)f(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t[f(z) + \langle f'(z), x_t - z \rangle] + \frac{\mu}{2} \|\tilde{x} - z\|^2 + M\|\tilde{x} - z\|.$

Using the convexity of $h$, we have $h(\tilde{x}) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)h(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t h(x_t)$. Adding up the above two inequalities and using the definition of $\Psi$ in (4.2.1), we obtain the result.

In the sequel, we still use $\delta_t, t \geq 1$, to denote the error for the computation of the subgradient of $f$, i.e.,

$$\delta_t \equiv G(x_t, \tilde{x}_t) - f'(x_t), \quad \forall t \geq 1,$$

(4.2.8)

where $f'(x_t)$ represents an arbitrary element of $\partial f(x_t)$ wherever it appears.

The following proposition establishes a basic recursion for the generic stochastic accelerated gradient descent method.

**Proposition 4.2.** Let $(x_{t-1}, \tilde{x}_{t-1}) \in X \times X$ be given. Also let $(x_t, \tilde{x}_t) \in X \times X \times X$ be computed according to (4.2.5), (4.2.6) and (4.2.7). If

$$\frac{q_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{\alpha_t(1 - q_t)} = \frac{1}{1 + \mu \gamma},$$

(4.2.9)

$$1 + \mu \gamma > L\alpha \gamma,$$

(4.2.10)

then for any $x \in X$, we have

$$\Psi(\tilde{x}) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)\Psi(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t h\Psi(x_t, x) + \frac{\alpha_t}{\mu} \left[ V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma) V(x_t, x) \right] + \Delta_t(x),$$

(4.2.11)

where

$$h\Psi(x_t, x) := f(x_t) + \langle f'(x_t), x - x_t \rangle + h(x) + \mu V(x, x),$$

(4.2.12)

$$\Delta_t(x) := \frac{\alpha_t \gamma (\mu + \|d_t\|^2)}{2(1 + \mu \gamma - L\alpha \gamma)} + \alpha_t \langle \delta_t, x - x_{t-1}^{*} \rangle,$$

(4.2.13)

$$x_{t-1}^{*} := \frac{\mu \gamma}{1 + \mu \gamma} x_t + \frac{1}{1 + \mu \gamma} x_{t-1}.$$

(4.2.14)

**Proof.** Denote $d_t := \tilde{x}_t - x_t$. By Lemma 4.4 (with $z = x_t$), we have

$$\Psi(\tilde{x}) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)\Psi(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t [\Psi(x_t) + \langle f'(x_t), x_t - x_t \rangle + h(x_t)] + \frac{\mu}{2} \|d_t\|^2 + M\|d_t\|.$$

Moreover, by (4.2.6) and Lemma 3.5, we have

$$\gamma \left[ \langle G(x_t, \tilde{x}_t), x_t - x_t \rangle + h(x_t) + \mu V(x_t, x_t) \right] + V(x_{t-1}, x_t)$$

$$\leq \gamma \left[ \langle G(x_t, \tilde{x}_t), x_t - x_t \rangle + h(x) + \mu V(x_t, x_t) \right] + V(x_{t-1}, x_t) - (1 + \mu \gamma) V(x_t, x)$$

for any $x \in X$. Using the fact that $G(x_t, \tilde{x}_t) = f'(x_t) + \delta_t$ and combing the above two inequalities, we obtain
4.2 Stochastic accelerated gradient descent

\[ \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)\Psi(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t [f(\tilde{x}_t) + \langle f'(\tilde{x}_t), x - \tilde{x}_t \rangle + h(x) + \mu V(x_t, x)] + \frac{\alpha_t}{\mu} [V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t-1}, x_t) - \mu \gamma_t V(x_t, x_t)] + \frac{\gamma}{2} \|d_t\|^2 + M\|d_t\| + \alpha_t (\langle \delta_t, x - x_t \rangle). \] (4.2.15)

Observing that by (3.3.11), (4.2.9) and (4.2.14), we have

\[ d_t = \alpha_t [x_t - \frac{\alpha_t - q_t}{\alpha_t(1 - q_t)} x_t - \frac{q_t(1 - \alpha_t)}{\alpha_t(1 - q_t)} x_{t-1}] = \alpha_t [x_t - \frac{\mu \gamma_t}{1 + \mu \gamma_t} x_t - \frac{1}{1 + \mu \gamma_t} x_{t-1}] = \alpha_t [x_t - x_{t-1}^\ast] \] (4.2.16)

It then follows from this observation, the strong convexity of \( V \), the convexity of \( \| \cdot \| \), and (4.2.14) that

\[ V(x_{t-1}, x_t) + \mu \gamma_t V(x_t, x_t) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 + \mu \gamma \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 \]
\[ \geq \frac{1 + \mu \gamma}{2} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 - \frac{\mu \gamma}{1 + \mu \gamma} \|x_{t-1}\|^2 \] (4.2.17)
\[ = \frac{1 + \mu \gamma}{2} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 \]
\[ = \frac{1 + \mu \gamma}{2} \|d_t\|^2. \] (4.2.18)

It also follows from (4.2.16) that

\[ \alpha_t (\langle \delta_t, x - x_t \rangle) = (\langle \delta_t, d_t \rangle) + \alpha_t (\langle \delta_t, x - x_{t-1}^\ast \rangle). \] (4.2.19)

Using the above two relations in (4.2.15), we have

\[ \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) \leq (1 - \alpha_t)\Psi(\tilde{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t [f(\tilde{x}_t) + \langle f'(\tilde{x}_t), x - \tilde{x}_t \rangle + h(x) + \mu V(x_t, x)] + \frac{\alpha_t}{\mu} [V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t-1}, x_t) - \mu \gamma_t V(x_t, x_t)] - \frac{1 + \mu \gamma}{2\alpha_t} \|d_t\|^2 + (M + \|\delta_t\|)\|d_t\| + \alpha_t (\langle \delta_t, x - x_{t-1}^\ast \rangle). \]

The result then immediately follows from the above inequality, the definition of \( l_{\Psi} \) and the simple inequality in (3.1.6).

Proposition 4.3 below follows from Proposition 4.2 by taking summation over the relations in (4.2.11).

**Proposition 4.3.** Let \( \{\tilde{x}_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) be computed by the stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm. Also assume that \( \{\alpha_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) and \( \{\gamma_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) are chosen such that relations (4.2.9) and (4.2.10) hold. We have

\[ \Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{\mu} l_{\Psi}(x_t, x) \leq \Gamma_k (1 - \alpha_t) \Psi(\tilde{x}_1) + \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{\mu} [V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) - V(x_{t-1}, x_t) - \mu \gamma_t V(x_t, x_t)] - \frac{1 + \mu \gamma}{2\alpha_t} \|d_t\|^2 + (M + \|\delta_t\|)\|d_t\| + \Delta_t, \] (4.2.20)

for any \( x \in X \) and any \( t \geq 1 \), where \( l_{\Psi}(z, x) \) and \( \Delta_t(z) \) are defined in (4.2.12) and (4.2.13), respectively.
\[ \Gamma_t := \begin{cases} 1, & t = 1, \\ (1 - \alpha_t)\Gamma_{t-1}, & t \geq 2. \end{cases} \quad (4.2.21) \]

**Proof.** Dividing both sides of relation (4.2.11) by \( \Gamma_t \), and using the definition of \( \Gamma_t \) in (4.2.21), we have

\[ \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \Psi(\bar{x}_t) \leq \frac{1}{\Gamma_{t-1}} \Psi(\bar{x}_{t-1}) + \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \psi(x_t, x) + \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \left[ V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu\gamma)V(x_t, x) \right] + \frac{\Delta_t(x)}{\Gamma_t}. \]

We obtain the result by summing up over the above inequalities.

Theorem 4.4 below summarizes the main convergence properties of the generic stochastic accelerated gradient descent method.

**Theorem 4.4.** Assume that \( \{q_t\}, \{\alpha_t\} \) and \( \{\gamma_t\} \) are chosen such that \( \alpha_t = 1 \) and relations (4.2.9) and (4.2.10) hold. Also assume that \( \{\alpha_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) and \( \{\gamma_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) are chosen such that

\[ \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t} \leq \frac{\alpha_{t-1}(1 + \mu\gamma_{t-1})}{\gamma_t L\alpha_{t-1}}, \quad (4.2.22) \]

where \( \Gamma_t \) is defined in (4.2.21).

a) **Under Assumption 3,** we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \Psi^*] \leq B_e(k) := \frac{\Gamma_t}{\gamma_t} V(x_0, x^*) + \Gamma_1 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \left( \frac{\sigma_t^2}{\Gamma_t^2} \right)^{1/2} + \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \frac{\gamma_t L\alpha_t}{1 + \mu\gamma - L\alpha_t}, \quad (4.2.23) \]

for any \( t \geq 1 \), where \( x^* \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (4.2.1).

b) **Under Assumption 4,** we have

\[ \text{Prob} \{ \Psi(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi^* \geq B_e(k) + \lambda B_p(k) \} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\}, \quad (4.2.24) \]

for any \( \lambda > 0 \) and \( k \geq 1 \), where

\[ B_p(k) := \sigma_1 \Gamma_1 R_X(x^*) \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma_t^2}{\Gamma_t^2} \right)^{1/2} + \Gamma_1 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \frac{\gamma_t L\alpha_t}{1 + \mu\gamma - L\alpha_t}, \quad (4.2.25) \]

\[ R_X(x^*) := \max_{x \in X} \|x - x^*\|. \quad (4.2.26) \]

c) If \( X \) is compact and the condition (4.2.22) is replaced by

\[ \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} \geq \frac{\alpha_{t-1}}{\gamma_t L\alpha_{t-1}}, \quad (4.2.27) \]

then Parts a) and b) still hold by simply replacing the first term in the definition of \( B_e(k) \) with \( \alpha_t D_X / \gamma_t \), where \( D_X \) is defined in (3.2.4).

**Proof.** We first show Part a). Observe that by the definition of \( \Gamma_t \) in (4.2.21) and the fact that \( \alpha_t = 1 \), we have

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} = \frac{\alpha_t}{\Gamma_t} + \sum_{t=2}^{k} \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \left( 1 - \frac{\Gamma_{t-1}}{\Gamma_t} \right) = \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} + \sum_{t=2}^{k} \left( \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} - \frac{1}{\Gamma_{t-1}} \right) = \frac{1}{\Gamma_t}. \quad (4.2.28) \]

Using the previous observation and (4.2.2), we obtain
\[ \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left[ \frac{a_t}{T_t} \psi(X_t, x) \right] \leq \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left[ \frac{a_t}{T_t} \psi(x) \right] = \psi(x), \quad \forall x \in X. \quad (4.2.29) \]

Moreover, it follows from the condition \((4.2.22)\) that
\[ \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{a_t}{T_t} [V(x_{t-1}, x) - V(x_t, x)] \leq \Gamma_k \frac{a_t}{T_t} V(x_0, x) = \frac{\Gamma_k}{T} V(x_0, x), \quad (4.2.30) \]
where the last inequality follows from the facts that \(\Gamma_1 = 1\) and that \(V(x_t, x) \geq 0\).

Using the fact that \(V(x_t, x) \geq 0\) and replacing the above two bounds into \((4.2.20)\), we have
\[ \psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \psi(x) \leq \frac{\Gamma_k}{T} V(x_0, x) - \frac{a_k(1 + \mu \beta)}{\theta} V(x_k, x) + \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\Delta_t}{T_t}, \quad \forall x \in X, \quad (4.2.31) \]
where \(\Delta_t(x)\) is defined in \((4.2.13)\). Observe that the triple \((x_t, x_{t-1}, \tilde{x}_{t-1})\) is a function of the history \(\tilde{x}_{[t-1]} := (\tilde{x}_1, \ldots, \tilde{x}_{t-1})\) of the generated random process and hence is random. Taking expectations on both sides of \((4.2.31)\) and noting that under Assumption 1, \(E[\|\bar{d}_t\|^2] \leq \sigma^2\), and
\[ E[\tilde{x}_{t-1}][\|d_t - x^+ - x_{t-1}^+\|] = 0, \quad (4.2.32) \]
we have
\[ E[\psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \psi(x)] \leq \frac{\Gamma_k}{T} V(x_0, x^*) + \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{a_t}{T_t} \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{1 + \mu \beta - L \alpha_t} \right]. \]

To show part b), let us denote \(\zeta_t := \Gamma_t^{-1} a_t \langle \bar{d}_t, x^+ - x_{t-1}^+ \rangle\). Clearly, from the definition of \(R_x(x^*)\) given by \((4.2.26)\), we have \(\|x^+ - x_{t-1}^+\| \leq R_x(x^*)\), which together with Assumption 2 imply that
\[ E[\tilde{x}_{t-1}][\exp\{\zeta_t / [\Gamma_t^{-1} \alpha_t \sigma R_x(x^*)]^2\}] \leq E[\tilde{x}_{t-1}][\exp\{\|\bar{d}_t\|^2 / (\sigma R_x(x^*))^2\}] \leq \exp(1). \]

Moreover, observe that \(\{\zeta_t\}_{t \geq 1}\) is a martingale-difference. Using the previous two observations and Lemma 4.1, we have
\[ \forall \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob}\left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \zeta_t > \lambda \sigma R_x(x^*) \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} (\Gamma_t^{-1} a_t)^2 \right]^{1/2} \right\} \leq \exp\{ - \lambda^2 / 3 \}. \quad (4.2.33) \]

Also observe that under Assumption 2, \(E[\tilde{x}_{t-1}][\exp[\|\bar{d}_t\|^2 / \sigma^2]] \leq \exp(1)\). Setting
\[ \pi_t^2 = \frac{a_t^2}{\Gamma_t [\mu + \rho - L \alpha_t^2]} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_t = \frac{\pi_t^2}{\sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2}, \]
we have
\[ \exp\left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \|\bar{d}_t\|^2 / \sigma^2 \right\} \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \exp[\|\bar{d}_t\|^2 / \sigma^2], \]
whence, taking expectations,

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2 \| \delta_t \|^2 / (\sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2) \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}.
\]

It then follows from Markov’s inequality that

\[
\forall \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2 \| \delta_t \|^2 / (\sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2) > (1 + \lambda)\sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2 \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\}. \tag{4.2.34}
\]

Combining (4.2.31), (4.2.33), and (4.2.34), and rearranging the terms, we obtain (4.2.24).

Finally, observing that by the condition (4.2.27), the fact that \( V(u, x) \geq 0 \) and the definition of \( D_X \),

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{K} \alpha_k \gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2 \| \delta_t \|^2 / (\sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \pi_t^2) \leq \alpha_k \gamma_k D_X,
\]

we can show part c) similarly to part a) and part b) by replacing the bound in (4.2.30) with the one given above.

\subsection*{4.2.1 Problems without strong convexity}

In this subsection, we consider problem (4.2.1), but now the objective function \( f \) is not necessarily strongly convex. We present the stochastic accelerated gradient descent methods for solving these problems by setting \( \mu = 0 \) and properly choosing the stepsize parameters \( \{ \alpha_t \}_{t \geq 1} \) and \( \{ \gamma_t \}_{t \geq 1} \) in the generic algorithmic framework.

Observe that, if \( \mu \) is set to 0, then by (4.2.9) we have \( q_t = \alpha_t \). Hence the identities (4.2.5) and (4.2.6), respectively, reduce to

\[
\bar{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t)\bar{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_{t-1}, \quad \tag{4.2.36}
\]

\[
x_{t} = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in X} \{ \gamma \left[ \langle G(x, \xi_t), x \rangle + h(x) \right] + V(x_{t-1}, x) \}. \quad \tag{4.2.37}
\]

We will study and compare two stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithms, each of them employed with a different stepsize policy to choose \( \{ \alpha_t \}_{t \geq 1} \) and \( \{ \gamma_t \}_{t \geq 1} \).

The first stepsize policy and its associated convergence results stated below follows as an immediate consequence of Theorem 4.4.

\textbf{Proposition 4.4.} Let

\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma = \gamma_t, \quad \forall t \geq 1, \tag{4.2.38}
\]
for some $\gamma \leq 1/(4L)$. Then, under Assumption 3, we have $E[\Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \Psi^*] \leq C_{e,1}(t)$, $\forall t \geq 1$, where

$$C_{e,1}(k) \equiv C_{e,1}(x_0, \alpha, k) := \frac{2V(x_0, x^*)}{\eta k(k+1)} + \frac{4\gamma(M^2+\alpha^2)(k+1)}{3}. \tag{4.2.39}$$

If in addition, Assumption 4 holds, then, $\forall \lambda > 0, \forall t \geq 1$,

$$\text{Prob} \{ \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \Psi^* > C_{e,1}(k) + \lambda C_{p,1}(k) \} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\}, \tag{4.2.40}$$

where

$$C_{p,1}(k) \equiv C_{p,1}(\gamma, k) := \frac{2\sigma R_{\chi}(x^*)}{\sqrt{M}} + \frac{4\sigma^2\gamma(k+1)}{3}. \tag{4.2.41}$$

Proof. Clearly, by the definition of $\Gamma_t$ in (4.2.21), the stepsize policy (4.2.38), and the facts that $\gamma \leq 1/(4L)$ and $\mu = 0$, we have

$$\Gamma_t = \frac{2}{t(t+1)} \frac{\alpha_t}{\eta_t} = t, \quad 1 + \mu t - L \alpha_t \gamma_t = 1 - \frac{2\mu t}{t+1} \geq \frac{1}{2}, \quad \forall t \geq 1, \tag{4.2.42}$$

and hence the specification of $\alpha_t$ and $\gamma_t$ in (4.2.38) satisfies conditions (4.2.10) and (4.2.22). It can also be easily seen from the previous result and (4.2.38) that

$$\sum_{t=1}^k \frac{\alpha_t \gamma_t}{\eta_t(1-L \alpha_t \gamma_t)} \leq 2\sum_{t=1}^k \gamma_t^2 = \frac{2k(k+1)(2k+1)}{3} \leq \frac{2k(k+1)^2}{3}, \tag{4.2.43}$$

$$\sum_{t=1}^k (\Gamma_t^{-1} \alpha_t)^2 = \sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} \leq \frac{k(k+1)^2}{3}. \tag{4.2.44}$$

Now let $B_e(k)$ and $B_p(k)$ be defined in (4.2.23) and (4.2.25) respectively. By (4.2.42), (4.2.43) and (4.2.44), we have

$$B_e(k) \leq \frac{\Gamma_k}{\eta} V(x_0, x^*) + \frac{2(M^2+\alpha^2)}{3}\frac{k^2}{3} \leq C_{e,1}(k),$$

$$B_p(k) \leq \Gamma_k [\sigma R_{\chi}(x^*) \left( \frac{k(k+1)^2}{3} \right)^{1/2} + \frac{k(k+1)^2}{3}] \leq C_{p,1}(k),$$

which, in view of Theorem 4.4, clearly imply our results.

We now briefly discuss how to derive the optimal rate of convergence. Given a fixed in advance number of iterations $k$, let us suppose that the stepsize parameters $\{\alpha_t\}_{t=1}^k$ and $\{\gamma_t\}_{t=1}^k$ are set to (4.2.38) with

$$\gamma = \gamma^*_k = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{4L}, \left[ \frac{3V(x_0, x^*)}{2(M^2+\alpha^2)(k+1)^2} \right]^{1/2} \right\}. \tag{4.2.45}$$

Note that $\gamma^*_k$ in (4.2.45) is obtained by minimizing $C_{e,1}(N)$ (c.f. (4.2.39)) with respect to $\gamma$ over the interval $[0, 1/(4L)]$. Then, it can be shown from (4.2.39) and (4.2.41) that

$$C_{e,1}(x_0, \gamma_k^*, k) \leq \frac{4V(x_0, x^*)}{k(k+1)} + \frac{4\sqrt{2(M^2+\alpha^2)}V(x_0, x^*)}{\sqrt{3k}} =: C^*_e(N), \tag{4.2.46}$$

$$C_{p,1}(\gamma_k^*, N) \leq \frac{2\sigma R_{\chi}(x^*)}{\sqrt{3k}} + \frac{2\sigma \sqrt{6V(x_0, x^*)}}{3\sqrt{k}} =: C^*_p(k). \tag{4.2.47}$$
Indeed, let
\[
\tilde{\gamma} := \left[ \frac{3V(x_0, x^*)}{2(M^2 + \sigma^2)(k+1)^2} \right]^{1/2}.
\]
According to the relation (4.2.45), we have \( \gamma_k^* \leq \min\{1/(4L), \tilde{\gamma}\} \). Using these facts and (4.2.39) we obtain
\[
C_{e,1}(x_0, \gamma_k^*, k) \leq \frac{SLV(x_0, x^*)}{k(k+1)} + \frac{2V(x_0, x^*) + 4\bar{\gamma}(M^2 + \sigma^2)(k+1)}{3k}.
\]
Also by (4.2.41), we have
\[
C_{p,1}(k) \leq \frac{2\sigma R_k(x^*)}{\sqrt{3k}} + \frac{4\bar{\gamma}^2(k+1)}{3},
\]
which leads to (4.2.47).

Hence, by Proposition 4.4, we have, under Assumption 3, \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Psi^*] \leq C_{e,1}^*(k) \), which gives us an optimal expected rate of convergence for solving problems without strong convexity. Moreover, if Assumption 4 holds, then \( \text{Prob}\{\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Psi^* \geq C_{e,1}^*(k) + \lambda C_{p,1}^*(k)\} \leq \exp(-\lambda^2/3) + \exp(-\lambda) \). It is worth noting that both \( C_{p,1}^* \) and \( C_{e,1}^* \) are in the same order of magnitude, i.e., \( \Theta(1/\sqrt{k}) \). Observe that we need to estimate a bound on \( V(x_0, x^*) \) to implement this stepsize policy since \( V(x_0, x^*) \) is usually unknown.

One possible drawback of the stepsize policy (4.2.38) with \( \gamma = \gamma_k^* \) is the need of fixing \( k \) in advance. In Proposition 4.5, we propose an alternative stepsize policy which does not require to fix the number of iterations \( k \). Note that, to apply this stepsize policy properly, we need to assume that all the iterates \( \{x_k\}_{k \geq 1} \) stay in a bounded set.

**Proposition 4.5.** Assume that \( X \) is compact. Let \( \{\tilde{x}_k\}_{k \geq 1} \) be computed by the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method with
\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{y} = \frac{2}{\gamma} + \gamma \sqrt{t}, \quad \forall t \geq 1,
\]
for some \( \gamma > 0 \). Then, under Assumption 3, we have \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Psi^*] \leq C_{e,2}(k), \forall k \geq 1, \) where
\[
C_{e,2}(k) \equiv C_{e,2}(\gamma, k) := \frac{4LD_k}{\gamma(k+1)} + \frac{2\gamma D_k}{\sqrt{k}} + \frac{4\sqrt{\gamma}}{3\sqrt{3k}}(M^2 + \sigma^2),
\]
and \( D_k \) is defined in (3.2.4). If in addition, Assumption 4 holds, then, \( \forall \lambda > 0, \forall k \geq 1, \)
\[
\text{Prob}\{\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Psi^* > C_{e,2}(k) + \lambda C_{p,2}(k)\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\},
\]
where
\[
C_{p,2}(k) \equiv C_{p,2}(\gamma, k) := \frac{2\sigma D_k}{\sqrt{3k}} + \frac{4\sqrt{\gamma}}{3\sqrt{3k}}\sigma^2.
\]
Proof. Clearly, by the definition of $\Gamma_t$ in (4.2.21), the stepsize policy (4.2.48) and the fact that $\mu = 0$, we have
$$
\Gamma_t = \frac{2}{t(t+1)}, \quad \alpha_t = \frac{2t}{t} + \gamma\sqrt{t}, \quad \frac{1}{\gamma} - L\alpha_t = \frac{2t}{t} + \gamma\sqrt{t} - \frac{2t}{t+1} \geq \gamma\sqrt{t},
$$
and hence the specification of $\alpha_t$ and $\gamma$ in (4.2.48) satisfies conditions (4.2.10) and (4.2.27). It can also be easily seen from the previous observations and (4.2.48) that
$$
\sum_{t=1}^k (\Gamma_t^{-1} \alpha_t)^2 = \sum_{t=1}^k t^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} \leq \frac{k(k+1)^2}{3},
$$
$$
\sum_{t=1}^k \frac{\alpha_t \gamma}{t(t+1)} = \sum_{t=1}^k \frac{t}{t+1} \frac{t}{\gamma} - L\alpha_t \leq \frac{1}{\gamma} \sum_{t=1}^k \sqrt{t} \leq \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_1^{k+1} \sqrt{t} dt = \frac{2}{3\gamma}(k+1)^{3/2}.
$$

Now let $B'_e(k)$ be obtained by replacing the first term in the definition of $B_e(k)$ in (4.2.23) with $\alpha_tD_X/\gamma_k$ and $B_p(k)$ be defined in (4.2.25). By (4.2.48), (4.2.52), (4.2.53) and (4.2.54), we have
$$
B'_e(k) \leq \frac{\alpha_tD_X}{\gamma_k} + \frac{2L_k(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3\gamma}(k+1)^{3/2} \leq C_{e,2}(k),
$$
$$
B_p(k) \leq \Gamma_k \left[ \sigma R_X(x^*) \left( \frac{k(k+1)^2}{3} \right)^{1/2} + \frac{2L_k \sigma^2}{3\gamma}(k+1)^{3/2} \right] \leq C_{p,2}(i),
$$
which, in view of Theorem 4.4.c), then clearly imply our results. \hfill \blacksquare

Clearly, if we set $\gamma$ in the stepsize policy (4.2.48) as
$$
\gamma = \gamma^* := \left[ \frac{2\sqrt{3}M^2+\sigma^2}{3D_X} \right]^{1/2},
$$
then by (4.2.49), we have
$$
\mathbb{E} [\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Psi^*] \leq \frac{4L\Psi(x^*)}{k(k+1)} + \frac{2\sqrt{3}D_X(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3k} \left[ \frac{2\sqrt{3}M^2+\sigma^2}{3D_X} \right]^{1/2} = : C_{e,2}^*,
$$
which also gives an optimal expected rate of convergence for problems without strong convexity. As discussed before, one obvious advantage of the stepsize policy (4.2.48) with $\gamma = \gamma^*$ over the one in (4.2.38) with $\gamma = \gamma_k$ is that the former one does not require the knowledge of $k$. Hence, it allows possibly earlier termination of the algorithm, especially when coupled with the validation procedure. Note however, that the convergence rate $C_{e,1}$ depends on $V(x_0,x^*)$, which can be significantly smaller than $D_X$ in $C_{e,2}$ given a good starting point $x_0 \in X$.

### 4.2.2 Nonsmooth strongly convex problems

The objective of this subsection is to present an stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm for solving strongly convex problems with $\mu > 0$. We start by
Then under Assumption 3, we have
\[
\text{which, in view of Theorem 4.4, clearly imply our results.}
\]

Let \(\{\tilde{x}_t\}_{t \geq 1}\) be computed by the stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm with
\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+5}, \quad \frac{1}{\gamma_t} = \frac{\mu(t-1)}{2} + \frac{2L}{t}, \quad \text{and } q_t = \frac{\alpha_t}{\alpha_t + (1-\alpha_t)(1+\gamma_t)} \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\]

Then under Assumption 3, we have
\[
E[\Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \Psi^*] \leq D_c(k) := \frac{4L}{k(k+1)} + \frac{4(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\mu(k+1)}, \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\]

If in addition, Assumption 4 holds, then, \(\forall \lambda > 0, \forall t \geq 1,
\[
\text{Prob } \{\Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \Psi^* \geq D_c(k) + \lambda D_p(k)\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\},
\]

where
\[
D_p(k) := \frac{2\sigma R_k(x^*)}{\sqrt{3k}} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{\mu(k+1)}.
\]

Proof. Clearly, by the definition of \(I_t\) in (4.2.21) and the stepsize policy (4.2.55), we have
\[
I_t = \frac{2}{t(t+1)}, \quad \frac{\alpha}{\gamma_t} = t,
\]

and hence that the specification of \(q_t, \alpha_t\) and \(\gamma_t\) in (4.2.55) satisfies conditions (4.2.9), (4.2.10) and (4.2.22). It can also be easily seen from the previous results and (4.2.55) that (4.2.44) holds and that
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha_t}{I_t(1+\mu - L\alpha_t)} = \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{t}{t+1} \geq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{2}{\mu} \leq \frac{2k}{\mu}.
\]

Let \(B_c(k)\) and \(B_p(k)\) be defined in (4.2.23) and (4.2.25), respectively. By (4.2.44), (4.2.59) and (4.2.60), we have
\[
B_c(k) \leq I_k \left[\frac{\gamma(x^*)}{\gamma_t} + \frac{2k(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\mu}\right] = D_c(t),
\]
\[
B_p(k) \leq I_k \left[\frac{\sigma R_k(x^*) (k+1)^2}{3} + \frac{2k\sigma^2}{\mu}\right] = D_p(k),
\]
which, in view of Theorem 4.4, clearly imply our results. ■

We now make a few remarks about the results obtained in Proposition 4.6. First, in view of (4.2.3), the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method with the stepsize
policy (4.2.55) achieves the optimal rate of convergence for solving nonsmooth strongly convex problems, i.e., for those problems without a smooth component \((L = 0)\). It is also nearly optimal for solving smooth and strongly convex problems, in the sense that the second term \(4(M^2 + \sigma^2)/[\mu(k + 1)]\) of \(D_e(k)\) in (4.2.56) is unimprovable. The first term of \(D_e(k)\) (for abbreviation, \(L\)-component) depends on the product of \(L\) and \(V(x_0, x^*)\), which can be as big as \(LV(x_0, x^*) \leq 2(k + 1)(M^2 + \sigma^2)/\mu\) without affecting the rate of convergence (up to a constant factor 2). Note that in comparison with (4.2.3), it seems that it is possible to improve the \(L\)-component of \(D_e(k)\). We will show in next subsection an optimal multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm for solving smooth and strongly convex problems which can substantially reduce the \(L\)-component in \(D_e(k)\). Another possible approach is to use a batch of samples of \(\xi\) (with increasing batch size) so that the variance to estimate the gradients will decrease at every iteration. We will discuss this type of approach in Subsection 5.2.3.

Second, observe that the bounds \(D_e(k)\) and \(D_p(k)\), defined in (4.2.56) and (4.2.58) respectively, are not in the same order of magnitude, that is, \(D_e(k) = \mathcal{O}(1/k)\) and \(D_p(k) = \mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{k})\). We now discuss some consequences of this fact. By (4.2.56) and Markov’s inequality, under Assumption 3, we have

\[
\text{Prob}\{\Psi(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi^* \geq \lambda D_e(k)\} \leq 1/\lambda
\]

for any \(\lambda > 0\) and \(k \geq 1\). Hence, for a given confidence level \(\Lambda \in (0, 1)\), one can easily see that the number of iterations for finding an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution \(\bar{x} \in X\) such that \(\text{Prob}\{\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^* < \epsilon\} \geq 1 - \Lambda\) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{\frac{1}{\Lambda}\left(\frac{LV(x_0, x^*)}{\epsilon} + \frac{M^2 + \sigma^2}{\mu \epsilon}\right)\right\}.
\]  

(4.2.61)

Moreover, if Assumption 4 holds, then by setting the value of \(\lambda\) in (4.2.57) such that \(\exp(-\lambda^2/3) + \exp(-\lambda) \leq \Lambda\) and using definitions of \(D_e\) and \(D_p\) in (4.2.56) and (4.2.58), we conclude that the number of iterations for finding an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (4.2.1) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{\sqrt{\frac{LV(x_0, x^*)}{\epsilon}} + \frac{M^2 + \sigma^2}{\mu \epsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu \epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \left(\frac{\sigma R\epsilon(x^*)}{\epsilon} \log \frac{1}{\Lambda}\right)^2\right\}.
\]  

(4.2.62)

Note that the above iteration-complexity bound has a significantly worse dependence on \(\epsilon\) than the one in (4.2.61), although it depends only logarithmically on \(1/\Lambda\).

### 4.2.3 Smooth and strongly convex problems

In this subsection, we show that the generic stochastic accelerated gradient descent method can yield an optimal algorithm for solving strongly convex problems even
if the problems are smooth. More specifically, we present an optimal algorithm obtained by properly restarting the algorithms presented in Subsection 4.2.1 for solving problems without strong convexity. We also discuss how to improve the large-deviation properties associated with the optimal expected rate of convergence for solving these strongly convex problems.

A multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method

0) Let a point \( p_0 \in X \), and a bound \( \Delta_0 \) such that \( \Psi(p_0) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \Delta_0 \) be given.

1) For \( s = 1, 2, \ldots \)

   a) Run \( N_s \) iterations of the stochastic accelerated gradient method with \( x_0 = p_{k-1}, \alpha_t = 2/(t+1), q_t = \alpha_t, \) and \( \gamma_t = \gamma_s t \), where

   \[
   N_s = \left\lceil \max \left\{ 4 \sqrt{\frac{2L}{\mu}}, \frac{64(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3\mu\Delta_0^2} \right\} \right\rceil, \quad (4.2.63)
   \]

   \[
   \gamma_s = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{4L}, \left[ \frac{3\Delta_0^2}{2\mu(M^2+\sigma^2)N_s(N_s+1)^2} \right]^{1/2} \right\}; \quad (4.2.64)
   \]

   b) Set \( p_s = \bar{x}_{N_s} \), where \( \bar{x}_{N_s} \) is the solution obtained in Step 1.a).

We say that an epoch of the algorithm described above, referred to as the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, occurs whenever \( s \) increments by 1. Clearly, the \( s \)th epoch of this algorithm consists of \( N_s \) iterations of the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, which are also called iterations of the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method for the sake of notational convenience. The following proposition summarizes the convergence properties of the multi-epoch algorithm.

Proposition 4.7. Let \( \{p_s\}_{s \geq 1} \) be computed by the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method. Then under Assumption 3,

\[
E[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^*] \leq \Delta_s \equiv \Delta_0 2^{-s}, \quad \forall s \geq 0. \quad (4.2.65)
\]

As a consequence, this multi-epoch algorithm will find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) of (4.2.1) such that \( E[\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \varepsilon \) for any \( \varepsilon \in (0, \Delta_0) \) in at most \( S := \lceil \log \Delta_0/\varepsilon \rceil \) epochs. Moreover, the total number of iterations performed by this algorithm to find such a solution is bounded by \( O(T_1(\varepsilon)) \), where

\[
T_1(\varepsilon) := \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \max \left\{ 1, \log \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right\} + \frac{M^2+\sigma^2}{\mu}\varepsilon. \quad (4.2.66)
\]

Proof. We first show that (4.2.65) holds by using induction. Clearly (4.2.65) holds for \( s = 0 \). Assume that for some \( s \geq 1, E[\Psi(p_{s-1}) - \Psi^*] \leq \Delta_{s-1} = \Delta_0 2^{-s-1} \). This assumption together with (4.2.2) clearly imply that

\[
E[V(p_{s-1}, x^*)] \leq E \left[ \frac{\Psi(p_{s-1}) - \Psi^*}{\mu} \right] \leq \frac{\Delta_{s-1}}{\mu}. \quad (4.2.67)
\]
Also note that by the definitions of $N_t$ and $\Delta_t$, respectively, in (4.2.63) and (4.2.65), we have

$$Q_1(N_t) = \frac{8L\Delta_{t-1}}{\mu N_t(N_t+1)} \leq \frac{8L\Delta_{t-1}}{\mu N_t} = \frac{16L\Delta_t}{\mu N_t} \leq \frac{1}{2} \Lambda_t,$$

$$Q_2(N_t) = \frac{(M^2+\sigma^2)\Delta_{t-1}}{6\mu N_t} \leq \frac{\Delta_t^2}{64}.$$  (4.2.68)

We then conclude from Proposition 4.4, (4.2.64), (4.2.67), (4.2.68) and (4.2.69) that

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi(p_x) - \Psi^*] \leq \frac{2E[V(p_{x,1}^t)]}{\gamma N_t(N_t+1)} + \frac{4\gamma(M^2+\sigma^2)(N_t+1)}{3} \leq \frac{2\Delta_{t-1}}{\mu N_t(N_t+1)} + \frac{4\gamma(M^2+\sigma^2)(N_t+1)}{3} \leq \max\{Q_1(N_t), 4\sqrt{Q_2(N_t)}\} + 4\sqrt{Q_2(N_t)} \leq \Delta_t.$$  (4.2.69)

We have thus shown that (4.2.65) holds. Now suppose that the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm is run for $S$ epochs. By (4.2.65), we have $\mathbb{E}[\Psi(p_x) - \Psi^*] \leq \Delta_0 2^{-S} \leq \Delta_0 2^{\log \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}} = \varepsilon$. Moreover, it follows from (4.2.63) that the total number of iterations can be bounded by

$$\sum_{t=1}^S N_t \leq \sum_{t=1}^S \left[ 4\sqrt{\frac{2M}{\mu}} + \frac{64(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3\mu_0 \lambda_0} \sum_{s=1}^t 2^s \right]$$

$$= K\left( 4\sqrt{\frac{2M}{\mu}} + 1 \right) + \frac{64(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3\mu_0 \lambda_0} \sum_{s=1}^S 2^s$$

$$\leq S\left( 4\sqrt{\frac{2M}{\mu}} + 1 \right) + \frac{64(M^2+\sigma^2)}{3\mu_0 \lambda_0} \sum_{s=1}^{S+1} 2^s$$

$$\leq \left( 4\sqrt{\frac{2M}{\mu}} + 1 \right) \left[ \log \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right] + \frac{86(M^2+\sigma^2)}{\mu_0 \varepsilon},$$

which clearly implies bound (4.2.66).

A few remarks about the results in Proposition 4.7 are in place. First, in view of (4.2.3), the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method achieves the optimal expected rate of convergence for solving strongly convex problems. Note that, since $\Delta_0$ only appears inside the logarithmic term of (4.2.66), the selection of the initial point $p_0$ has little affect on the efficiency of this algorithm. Second, suppose that we run the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method for $K_A := \lceil \log \Delta_0/(\Lambda \varepsilon) \rceil$ epochs for a given confidence level $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$. Then, by (4.2.65) and Markov’s inequality, we have $\text{Prob}[\Psi(p_{K_A}) - \Psi^* > \varepsilon] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(p_{K_A}) - \Psi^*]/\varepsilon \leq \Lambda$, which implies that the total number of iterations performed by the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method for finding an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of (4.2.1) can be bounded by $O(T_1(\Lambda \varepsilon))$. Third, similar to the single-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, under the stronger Assumption 4, we can improve the iteration complexity of the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method for finding an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of (4.2.1), so that it will depend on $\log(1/\Lambda)$ rather than $1/\Lambda$. However, such an iteration complexity will
The shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent:

0) Let a point \( p_0 \in X \), and a bound \( \Delta_0 \) such that \( \Psi(p_0) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \Delta_0 \) be given. Set \( \bar{S} := \lceil \log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon) \rceil \) and \( \lambda := \lambda(\bar{S}) > 0 \) such that \( \exp(-\lambda^2/3) + \exp(-\lambda) \leq \Lambda/\bar{S} \).

1) For \( s = 1, \ldots, \bar{S} \)
   
   a) Run \( \bar{N}_i \) iterations of the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm when applied to \( \min_{x \in \bar{X}_i} \{ \Psi(x) \} \), with input \( x_0 = p_{s-1} \), \( \alpha_t = 2/(t+1) \), \( q_t = \alpha_t \), and \( \gamma = \gamma_t \), where,
   
   \[
   \bar{X}_s := \left\{ x \in X : V(p_{s-1}, x) \leq \Lambda_{s-1} := \frac{\Delta_0}{\mu 2^{s-1}} \right\},
   \]  
   \[
   \bar{N}_s = \left\lceil \max \left\{ 4 \sqrt{\frac{1}{\mu}}, \frac{\max\{256(M^2+\sigma^2), 288\lambda^2\sigma^2\}}{3\mu \Delta_0 2^{-(s+1)}} \right\} \right\rceil,
   \]  
   \[
   \bar{\gamma}_s = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{4L}, \left[ \frac{3\Delta_0 2^{-(s-1)}}{2\mu (M^2+\sigma^2) N_s(N_s+1)\gamma_s^2} \right]^{1/2} \right\}.
   \]

   b) Set \( p_s = \bar{x}_{\bar{N}_s} \), where \( \bar{x}_{\bar{N}_s} \) is the solution obtained in Step 1.a).

Note that in the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm, the epoch limit \( \bar{S} \) is computed for a given accuracy \( \varepsilon \). The value of \( \bar{S} \) is then used in the computation of \( \lambda(\bar{S}) \) and subsequently in \( \bar{N}_s \) and \( \bar{\gamma}_s \) (c.f. (4.2.71) and (4.2.72)). This is in contrast to the multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm without shrinkage, in which the definitions of \( N_s \) and \( \gamma_s \) in (4.2.63) and (4.2.64) do not depend on the target accuracy \( \varepsilon \).

The following result shows some convergence properties of the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm.

**Lemma 4.5.** Let \( \{ p_s \}_{s \geq 1} \) be computed by the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm. Also for any \( s \geq 0 \), let \( \Delta_s := \Delta_0 2^{-s} \) and denote the event \( A_s := \{ \Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_s \} \). Then under Assumption 2,

\[
\text{Prob}[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* \geq \Delta_s | A_{s-1}] \leq \frac{4}{3}, \quad \forall 1 \leq s \leq \bar{S}.
\]  

**Proof.** By the conditional assumption in (4.2.73), we have \( \Psi(p_{s-1}) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_{s-1} \), which together with the strong-convexity of \( f \) and the definition of \( \bar{R}_{s-1} \) in (4.2.70) imply that...
Let \( \Psi(p_{k-1}) = \frac{|\Psi(p_{k-1}) - \Psi^*|}{\mu} \leq \Delta_{k-1} = \tilde{R}_{k-1}^2. \) (4.2.74)

Hence, the restricted problem \( \min_{x \in \tilde{X}_k} \{ \Psi(x) \} \) has the same solution as (4.2.1). We then conclude from Proposition 4.4 applied to the previous restricted problem that

\[
\mathbb{P}[\Psi(p_k) - \Psi^* > \tilde{C}_{e,1}(\tilde{N}_k) + \lambda \tilde{C}_{p,1}(\tilde{N}_k)|A_{s-1}] \\
\leq \exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + \exp\{-\lambda\} \leq \frac{4}{\tilde{S}^3},
\]

where

\[
\tilde{C}_{e,1}(\tilde{N}_k) := \frac{2V(p_{k-1}, \tilde{x})}{3\tilde{N}_k(\tilde{N}_k + 1)} + \frac{4\tilde{g}(M^2 + \sigma^2)(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{C}_{p,1}(\tilde{N}_k) := \frac{2\sigma R_{1/\mu}(\tilde{x})}{\sqrt{3\tilde{N}_k}} + \frac{4\sigma^2 \tilde{R}_{1/\mu}(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}{3}.
\]

Let \( Q_1(\cdot) \) and \( Q_2(\cdot) \) be defined in (4.2.68) and (4.2.69), respectively. Note that by the definition of \( \tilde{N}_k \) in (4.2.71), we have \( Q_1(\tilde{N}_k) \leq \Delta_s/4 \) and \( Q_2(\tilde{N}_k) \leq \Delta_s^2/256 \). Using the previous observations, (4.2.74) and the definition of \( \tilde{g}_s \) in (4.2.72), we obtain

\[
\tilde{C}_{e,1}(\tilde{N}_k) \leq \frac{2\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu \tilde{N}_k(\tilde{N}_k + 1)} + \frac{4\tilde{g}(M^2 + \sigma^2)(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}{3} \leq \max\left\{ Q_1(\tilde{N}_k), 4\sqrt{Q_2(\tilde{N}_k)} \right\} + 4\sqrt{Q_2(\tilde{N}_k)} \leq \frac{4\tilde{S}^3}{\tilde{S}^3}.
\]

Moreover, note that by the strong convexity of \( v \), (4.2.70) and (4.2.74), we have for any \( x \in \tilde{X}_k \),

\[
\|x - p_{k-1}\| \leq \sqrt{2V(p_{k-1}, x)} \leq \frac{2\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu}
\]

and

\[
\|x - x^* - p_{k-1}\| \leq \|x - p_{k-1}\| + \|p_{k-1} - x^*\| \leq 2\sqrt{\frac{2\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu}},
\]

and hence that \( R_{\tilde{X}_k}(x^*) \leq 2\sqrt{\frac{2\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu}} \), which together with (4.2.71) and (4.2.72) then imply that

\[
\tilde{C}_{p,1}(\tilde{N}_k) \leq 4\sigma \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta_{k-1}}{3\mu \tilde{N}_k}} + \frac{4\tilde{g}(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}{3} \left[ \frac{3\Delta_{k-1}^{2/5}(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}{2\mu(M^2 + \sigma^2)\tilde{N}_k(\tilde{N}_k + 1)^2} \right]^{1/2} \leq 4\sigma \sqrt{\frac{6\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu \tilde{N}_k}} + \frac{2\sigma}{3} \left( \frac{6\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu \tilde{N}_k} \right) \leq 2\sigma \sqrt{\frac{6\Delta_{k-1}}{\mu \tilde{N}_k}} \leq \frac{\sqrt{\Delta_{k-1}^{2/5}(\tilde{N}_k + 1)}}{2\lambda} = \frac{\Delta_{k-1}}{2\lambda}.
\]

Combining (4.2.75), (4.2.76) and (4.2.77), we obtain (4.2.73).

The following proposition establishes the iteration complexity of the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm.

**Proposition 4.8.** Let \( \{p_s\}_{s \geq 1} \) be computed by the shrinking multi-epoch accelerated stochastic gradient descent algorithm. Then under Assumption 4, we have

\[
\mathbb{P}[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* > \epsilon] \leq \Lambda.
\] (4.2.78)
Moreover, the total number of iterations performed by the algorithm to find such a solution is bounded by \( O(T_2(\varepsilon, \Lambda)) \), where

\[
T_2(\varepsilon, \Lambda) := \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \max \left( 1, \log \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right) + \frac{L^2+\sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon} + \left[ \ln \frac{\log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon)}{\Lambda} \right]^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon}. \tag{4.2.79}
\]

**Proof.** Denote \( \Delta_s = \Delta_0 2^{-s} \). Let \( S_s \) denote the event of \( \{ \Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_s \} \) and \( \bar{S}_s \) be its complement. Clearly, we have \( \text{Prob}(S_0) = 1 \). It can also be easily seen that

\[
\text{Prob}[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_s] \leq \text{Prob}[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^* > \Delta_s | S_{s-1}] + \text{Prob}[\bar{S}_{s-1}]
\]

\[
\leq S_s + \text{Prob}[\Psi(p_{s-1}) - \Psi^* > \Delta_{s-1}], \quad \forall 1 \leq s \leq \bar{S}
\]

where the last inequality follows from Lemma 4.5 and the definition of \( \bar{S}_{s-1} \). Summing up both sides of the above inequality from \( s = 1 \) to \( \bar{S} \), we obtain (4.2.78). Now, by (4.2.71), the total number of stochastic accelerated gradient descent iterations can be bounded by

\[
\sum_{s=1}^{\bar{S}} \bar{N}_s \leq \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{S}} \left( 8 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} + \frac{256(M^2+\sigma^2)^2 288\lambda^2 \mu^2}{3\mu \Delta_0 2^{-s}} + 1 \right)
\]

\[
= \bar{S} \left( 8 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} + 1 \right) + \frac{256(M^2+\sigma^2)^2 288\lambda^2 \mu^2}{3\mu \Delta_0} \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{S}} 2^{s+1}
\]

\[
\leq \bar{S} \left( 8 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} + 1 \right) + \frac{256(M^2+\sigma^2)^2 288\lambda^2 \mu^2}{3\mu \Delta_0} 2^{\bar{S}+2}.
\]

Using the above conclusion, the fact that \( \bar{S} = \lceil \log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon) \rceil \), the observation that \( \lambda = \mathcal{O}(\ln(\bar{S}/\Lambda)) \) and (4.2.79), we conclude that the total number of stochastic accelerated gradient descent iterations is bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(T_2(\varepsilon, \lambda)) \).

While Proposition 4.8 shows the large-deviation properties of the shrinking multi-epoch stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, we can also derive the expected rate of convergence for this algorithm. For the sake of simplicity, we only consider the case when \( M = 0 \) and \( \varepsilon > 0 \) is small enough such that \( \bar{N}_s \geq \lambda^2 N_s, s = 1, \ldots, \bar{S} \), where \( N_s \) is defined in (4.2.63). Then by using an argument similar to the one used in the proof of Proposition 4.7, we can show that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(p_s) - \Psi^*] = \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{\Delta_0 2^{-s}}{\lambda^2 - \varepsilon} \right), \quad s = 1, \ldots, \bar{S}.
\]

Using this result and the definition of \( \bar{S} \), we conclude that \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(p_{\bar{S}}) - \Psi^*] = \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon/\lambda^2 - \varepsilon/\Delta_0) \).

### 4.2.4 Accuracy certificates

In this subsection, we show that one can compute, with little additional computational effort, certain stochastic lower bounds of the optimal value of (4.2.1) during the
execution of the accelerated stochastic gradient descent algorithms. These stochastic lower bounds, when grouped with certain stochastic upper bounds on the optimal value, can provide online accuracy certificates for the generated solutions.

We start by discussing the accuracy certificates for the generic stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm. Let $l_\psi(z, x)$ be defined in (4.2.12) and denote

$$lb_t := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \Psi_t (x) := \Gamma_t \sum_{\tau = 1}^{t} \left[ \frac{\alpha_{\tau}}{\tau} l_\psi (x_\tau, x) \right] \right\}. \quad (4.2.80)$$

By (4.2.29), the function $\Psi_t (\cdot)$ underestimates $\Psi (\cdot)$ everywhere on $X$. Note however that $lb_t$ is unobservable since $\Psi_t (\cdot)$ is not known exactly. Along with $lb_t$, let us define

$$\tilde{lb}_t = \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \tilde{\Psi}_t (x) := \Gamma_t \sum_{\tau = 1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_{\tau}}{\tau} \tilde{l}_\psi (x_\tau, \xi_\tau, x) \right\}, \quad (4.2.81)$$

where

$$\tilde{l}_\psi (z, \xi, x) := F (z, \xi) + \langle G (z, \xi), x - z \rangle + \mu V (z, x) + h (x).$$

In view of the assumption that problem (4.2.6) is easy to solve, the bound $\tilde{lb}_t$ is easily computable. Moreover, since $x_t$ is a function of $\xi_{[t-1]}$, and $\xi_t$ is independent of $\xi_{[t-1]}$, we have that

$$\mathbb{E} [\tilde{lb}_t] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{\xi_{[t-1]}} \left[ \min_{x \in X} \left( \Gamma_t \sum_{\tau = 1}^{t} \tilde{l}_\psi (x_\tau, \xi_\tau, x) \right) \right] \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \min_{x \in X} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_{[t-1]}} \left( \Gamma_t \sum_{\tau = 1}^{t} \tilde{l}_\psi (x_\tau, \xi_\tau, x) \right) \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \min_{x \in X} \Psi_t (x) \right] = \mathbb{E} [lb_t] \leq \Psi^*.$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.2.82)

That is, on average, $\tilde{lb}_t$ gives a lower bound for the optimal value of (4.2.1). In order to see how good the lower bound $\tilde{lb}_t$ is, we estimate the expectations and probabilities of the corresponding errors in Theorem 4.5. To establish the large-deviation results for $\tilde{lb}_t$, we also need the following assumption for the SFO.

**Assumption 6** For any $x \in X$ and $t \geq 1$, we have $\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \| F (x, \xi_t) - f (x) \|^2 / Q^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \left\{ 1 \right\}$ for some $Q > 0$.

Note that while Assumption 2 describes certain “light-tail” assumption about the stochastic gradients $G (x, \xi)$, Assumption 6 imposes a similar restriction on the function values $F (x, \xi)$. Such an additional assumption is needed to establish the large deviation properties for the derived stochastic online lower and upper bounds on $\Psi^*$, both of which involve the estimation of function values, i.e., $F (x_t, \xi_t)$ in (4.2.81) and $F (\tilde{x}_t, \tilde{\xi}_t)$ in (4.2.91). On the other hand, we do not need to use the estimation of function values in the stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm in (4.2.5)-(4.2.7).
**Theorem 4.5.** Consider the generic stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm applied to problem (4.2.1)-(4.2.2). Also assume that \(\{\alpha_t\}_{t \geq 1}, \{\eta_t\}_{t \geq 1}\) and \(\{\gamma_t\}_{t \geq 1}\) are chosen such that \(\alpha_t = 1\) and relations (4.2.9), (4.2.10) and (4.2.22) hold. Let \(\bar{b}_t\) be defined in (4.2.81). Then,

- **a)** under Assumption 1, we have, for any \(t \geq 2\),
  \[
  \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \bar{b}_t] \leq \tilde{B}_b(t) := \frac{\Gamma}{\tilde{h}} \max_{x \in X} V(x_0, x) + \Gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_t \gamma_t (M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\gamma_t (1 + \mu \gamma_t - L \alpha_t \gamma_t)}, \tag{4.2.83}
  \]

- **b)** if Assumptions 2 and 6 hold, then for any \(t \geq 1\) and \(\lambda > 0\),
  \[
  \text{Prob} \{ \Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \bar{b}_t \geq \tilde{B}_b(t) + \lambda \tilde{B}_p(t) \} \leq 2 \exp(-\lambda^2/3) + \exp(-\lambda), \tag{4.2.84}
  \]
  where
  \[
  \tilde{B}_p(t) := Q \Gamma \left( \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_t^2 \gamma_t^2}{\gamma_t^2} \right)^{1/2} + \sigma \Gamma R_X(x^*) \left( \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_t^2 \gamma_t^2}{\gamma_t^2} \right)^{1/2}, \tag{4.2.85}
  \]
  and \(R_X(x^*)\) is defined in (4.2.26);

- **c)** If \(X\) is compact and the condition (4.2.22) is replaced by (4.2.27), then Parts a) and b) still hold by simply replacing the first term in the definition of \(\tilde{B}_b(t)\) with \(\alpha_t D_X / \gamma_t\), where \(D_X\) is defined in (3.2.4).

**Proof.** Let \(\zeta := F(\bar{x}_t, \bar{x}_t) - f(x_0),\ t \geq 1,\) and \(\delta_t\) be defined in (5.1.101). Noting that by (4.2.20) and (4.2.30), relation (4.2.81), and the fact that \(V(x_t, x) \geq 0\) due to (5.1.15), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \Psi'(x) &= \Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \Gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t^2} \left[ \psi(\bar{x}_t, x) + \zeta_t + \langle \delta_t, x - \bar{x}_t \rangle \right] \\
&\leq \Gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t^2} \left[ V(x_t-1, x) - V(x_t, x) \right] + \Gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_t} \left[ \Delta_t(x) - \alpha_t(\zeta_t + \langle \delta_t, x - \bar{x}_t \rangle) \right] \\
&\leq \frac{\Gamma}{\tilde{h}} V(x_0, x) + \Gamma \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_t} \left[ \alpha_t \langle \delta_t, x - x_t \rangle + \frac{\alpha_t \gamma_t (M + ||\delta_t||)^2}{2(1 + \mu \gamma_t - L \alpha_t \gamma_t)} \right] - \alpha_t \zeta_t, \tag{4.2.86}
\end{align*}
\]

where the last identity follows from (4.2.13). Note that \(\bar{x}_t\) and \(x_{t-1}^*\) are functions of \(\zeta_{[t-1]} = (\zeta_1, ..., \zeta_{t-1})\) and that \(\bar{x}_t\) is independent of \(\zeta_{[t-1]}\). The rest of the proof is similar to the one used in Using arguments similar to the ones in the proof of Theorem 4.4 and hence the details are skipped.

We now add a few comments about the results obtained in Theorem 4.5. First, note that relations (4.2.83) and (4.2.84) tells us how the gap between \(\Psi(\bar{x}_t)\) and \(\bar{b}_t\) converges to zero. By comparing these two relations with (4.2.23) and (4.2.24), we can easily see that both \(\Psi(\bar{x}_t) - \bar{b}_t\) and \(\Psi'(\bar{x}_t) - \Psi'^\star\) converge to zero in the same order of magnitude.

Second, it is possible to specialize the results in Theorem 4.5 for solving different classes of stochastic convex optimization problems. In particular, Proposition 4.9...
below discusses the lower bounds \( \tilde{\text{lb}}^* \) for solving strongly convex problems. The proof of this result is similar to that of Proposition 4.6 and hence the details are skipped.

**Proposition 4.9.** Let \( \tilde{x}_t \) be computed by the accelerated stochastic gradient descent algorithm for solving strongly convex problems with stepsize policy (4.2.55). Also let \( \text{lb}_t \) be defined as in (4.2.81). If \( \mu > 0 \) in condition (4.2.2), then, under Assumption 1, we have, \( \forall t \geq 1 \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \text{lb}_t] \leq \hat{D}_c(t) := \frac{4L_{\max}XV(x_0,x)}{\sqrt{t+1}} + \frac{4(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\sqrt{\mu(t+1)}}.
\]

(4.2.87)

If Assumptions 2 and 6 hold, then, \( \forall \lambda > 0, \forall t \geq 1 \),

\[
\text{Prob}\{ \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \text{lb}_t > \hat{D}_c(t) + \lambda \hat{D}_p(t) \} \leq 2 \exp(-\lambda^2/3) + \exp(-\lambda),
\]

(4.2.88)

where

\[
\hat{D}_p(t) := \frac{Q}{(t+1)^{1/2}} + \frac{2\sigma R(X^*)}{\sqrt{M}} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu(t+1)}},
\]

(4.2.89)

\( R(X^*) \) is defined in (4.2.26), and \( Q \) is from Assumption 6.

Theorem 4.5 presents a way to assess the quality of the solutions \( \tilde{x}_t, t \geq 1 \), by computing the gap between \( \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) \) and \( \text{lb}_t \) (c.f. (4.2.81)). While \( \text{lb}_t \) can be computed easily, the estimation of of \( \Psi(\tilde{x}_t) \) can be time consuming, requiring a large number of samples for \( \tilde{x}_t \). In the remaining part of this section, we will briefly discuss how to enhance these lower bounds with efficiently computable upper bounds on the optimal value \( \Psi^* \) so that one can assess the quality of the generated solutions in an online manner. More specifically, for any \( t \geq 1 \), let us denote

\[
\hat{\beta}_t := \sum_{\tau = [t/2]}^t \tau, \quad \text{ub}_t := \hat{\beta}_t^{-1} \sum_{\tau = [t/2]}^t \tau \Psi(\tilde{x}_\tau), \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\text{ag}} := \hat{\beta}_t^{-1} \sum_{\tau = [t/2]}^t \tau \tilde{x}_\tau.
\]

(4.2.90)

Clearly, we have \( \text{ub}_t \geq \text{lb}_t \geq \Psi^* \) due to the convexity of \( \Psi \). Also let us define

\[
\tilde{\text{ag}} := \beta_t^{-1} \sum_{\tau = [t/2]}^t \tau \{ F(\tilde{x}_\tau, \tilde{x}_\tau) + h(\tilde{x}_\tau) \}, \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\]

(4.2.91)

Since \( \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[F(\tilde{x}_\tau, \tilde{x}_\tau)] = f(\tilde{x}_\tau) \), we have \( \mathbb{E}[\tilde{\text{ag}}] = \text{ub}_t \geq \Psi^* \). That is, \( \text{ub}_t, t \geq 1 \), on average, provide online upper bounds on \( \Psi^* \). Accordingly, we define the new online lower bounds as

\[
\tilde{\text{lb}}_t := \hat{\beta}_t^{-1} \sum_{\tau = [t/2]}^t \tau \tilde{\text{lb}}_\tau, \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\]

(4.2.92)

where \( \tilde{\text{lb}}_t \) is defined in (4.2.81).

To bound the gap between these lower and upper bounds, let \( \tilde{B}_c(\tau) \) be defined in (4.2.83) and suppose that \( B_c(t) = \mathcal{O}(t^{-q}) \) for some \( q \in [1/2, 1] \). In view of Theorem 4.5.a), (4.2.90) and (4.2.92), we have
We show in this section how the stochastic mirror descent algorithm can be modified where the last identity follows from the facts that
\[ \sum_{\tau=t/2}^{\tau=t-1} \tau \Psi(\xi_{\tau}) - \bar{h}_t = O(t^{-q}) = O(t^{-2}) \quad t \geq 3, \]
where the last identity follows from the facts that \[ \sum_{\tau=t/2}^{\tau=t-1} \tau^{1-q} = O(t^{-q}) \] and that
\[ \beta_t \geq \frac{1}{8} \left(t(t+1)-\left(\frac{t}{2}+1\right)\left(\frac{t}{2}+2\right)\right) \geq \frac{1}{8} \left(3t^2-2t-8\right). \]
Therefore, the gap between the online upper bound \( \bar{u}_t \) and lower bound \( \bar{l}_b \) converges to 0 in the same order of magnitude as the one between \( \Psi(\bar{x}_t) \) and \( \bar{l}_b \). It should be mentioned that the stochastic upper bound \( \bar{u}_t \), on average, overestimates the value of \( \Psi(x_t^{ag}) \) (c.f. (4.2.90)), indicating that one can also use \( \bar{u}_t \), \( t \geq 1 \), as the output of the stochastic accelerated gradient descent algorithm.

### 4.3 Stochastic convex-concave saddle point problems

We show in this section how the stochastic mirror descent algorithm can be modified to solve a convex-concave stochastic saddle point problem. Consider the following minimax (saddle point) problem

\[
\min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} \{ \phi(x, y) := E[\Phi(x, y, \xi)] \}. \tag{4.3.1}
\]

Here \( X \subset \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m \) are nonempty bounded closed convex sets, \( \xi \) is a random vector whose probability distribution \( P \) is supported on set \( \Xi \subset \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( \Phi : X \times Y \times \Xi \to \mathbb{R} \). We assume that for every \( \xi \in \Xi \), function \( \Phi(x, y, \xi) \) is convex in \( x \in X \) and concave in \( y \in Y \), and for all \( x \in X \), \( y \in Y \) the expectation

\[
E[\Phi(x, y, \xi)] = \int_{\Xi} \Phi(x, y, \xi) dP(\xi)
\]

is well defined and finite valued. It follows that \( \phi(x, y) \) is convex in \( x \in X \) and concave in \( y \in Y \), finite valued, and hence (4.3.1) is a convex-concave saddle point problem. In addition, we assume that \( \phi(\cdot, \cdot) \) is Lipschitz continuous on \( X \times Y \). It is well known that in the above setting the problem (4.3.1) is solvable, i.e., the corresponding "primal" and "dual" optimization problems \( \min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} \phi(x, y) \) and \( \max_{y \in Y} \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, y) \), respectively, have optimal solutions and equal optimal values, denoted \( \phi^* \), and the pairs \( (x^*, y^*) \) of optimal solutions to the respective problems form the set of saddle points of \( \phi(x, y) \) on \( X \times Y \).

As in the case of the minimization problem (4.1.1) we assume that neither the function \( \phi(x, y) \) nor its sub/supergradients in \( x \) and \( y \) are available explicitly. However, we make the following assumption.

**Assumption 7** There exists a stochastic first-order oracle which for every given \( x \in X \), \( y \in Y \) and \( \xi \in \Xi \) returns value \( \Phi(x, y, \xi) \) and a stochastic subgradient, that is,
We use notation \( \mathbf{G}(x, y, \xi) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_x(x, y, \xi) \\ \mathbf{G}_y(x, y, \xi) \end{bmatrix} \)

such that vector
\[
\mathbf{g}(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{g}_x(x, y) \\ -\mathbf{g}_y(x, y) \end{bmatrix} := \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{G}_x(x, y, \xi)] \\ -\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{G}_y(x, y, \xi)] \end{bmatrix}
\]
is well defined, and \( \mathbf{g}_x(x, y) \in \partial_x \phi(x, y) \) and \(-\mathbf{g}_y(x, y) \in \partial_y(-\phi(x, y)) \).

For example, under mild assumptions we can set
\[
\mathbf{G}(x, y, \xi) = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{G}_x(x, y, \xi) \\ \mathbf{G}_y(x, y, \xi) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial_x \Phi(x, y, \xi) \\ \partial_y(-\Phi(x, y, \xi)) \end{bmatrix}.
\]

Let \( \| \cdot \|_X \) be a norm on \( \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \| \cdot \|_Y \) be a norm on \( \mathbb{R}^m \), and let \( \| \cdot \|_{*,X} \) and \( \| \cdot \|_{*,Y} \) stand for the corresponding dual norms. As in Section 4.1, the basic assumption we make about the stochastic oracle (aside of its unbiasedness which we have already postulated) is that there exist positive constants \( M^2_X \) and \( M^2_Y \) such that
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| \mathbf{G}_x(u, v, \xi) \|^2_{*,X} \right] \leq M^2_X \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \mathbf{G}_y(u, v, \xi) \|^2_{*,Y} \right] \leq M^2_Y, \quad \forall (u, v) \in X \times Y.
\]

### 4.3.1 General algorithmic framework

We equip \( X \) and \( Y \) with distance generating functions \( \nu_X : X \to \mathbb{R} \) modulus 1 with respect to \( \| \cdot \|_X \), and \( \nu_Y : Y \to \mathbb{R} \) modulus 1 with respect to \( \| \cdot \|_Y \). Let \( D_X \equiv D_{X, X} \) and \( D_Y \equiv D_{Y, Y} \) be the respective constants (see Section 3.2). We equip \( \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \) with the norm
\[
\| (x, y) \| := \sqrt{\frac{1}{2D^2_X} \| x \|^2_X + \frac{1}{2D^2_Y} \| y \|^2_Y},
\]
so that the dual norm is
\[
\| (\xi, \eta) \|_* = \sqrt{2D^2_X \| \xi \|^2_{*,X} + 2D^2_Y \| \eta \|^2_{*,Y}}.
\]

It follows by (4.3.2) that
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| \mathbf{G}(x, y, \xi) \|^2 \right] \leq 2D^2_X M^2_X + 2D^2_Y M^2_Y =: M^2.
\]

We use notation \( z = (x, y) \) and equip \( Z := X \times Y \) with the distance generating function as follows:
\[
\nu(z) := \frac{\nu_X(x)}{2D^2_X} + \frac{\nu_Y(y)}{2D^2_Y}.
\]
It is immediately seen that \( v \) indeed is a distance generating function for \( Z \) modulus 1 with respect to the norm \( \| \cdot \| \), and that \( Z^\circ = X^\circ \times Y^\circ \) and \( D_Z = D_{Z^\circ} = 1 \). In what follows, \( V(z,u) : Z^\circ \times Z \to \mathbb{R} \) is the prox-function associated with \( v \) and \( Z \), see (see Section 3.2).

We are ready now to present the stochastic mirror descent algorithm for solving general saddle point problems. This is the iterative procedure

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu_{j+1} := \arg\min_{\nu \in X} \left\{ \gamma \{ (g(z_j, \xi_j), \nu) + V(z_j, \nu) \} \right\}; \tag{4.3.6}
\end{align*}
\]

where the initial point \( \nu_1 \in Z \) is chosen to be the minimizer of \( V(z) \) on \( Z \). Moreover, we define the approximate solution \( \bar{z}_j \) of (4.3.1) after \( j \) iterations as

\[
\bar{z}_j = (\bar{x}_j, \bar{y}_j) := \left( (\sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i \nu_i \right). \tag{4.3.7}
\]

Let us analyze the convergence properties of the algorithm. We measure quality of an approximate solution \( \bar{z} = (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \) by the error

\[
\epsilon_\phi(\bar{z}) := \left[ \max_{y \in Y} \phi(\bar{x}, y) - \phi_* \right] + \left[ \phi_* - \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, \bar{y}) \right] = \max_{y \in Y} \phi(\bar{x}, y) - \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, \bar{y}).
\]

By convexity of \( \phi(\cdot, y) \) we have

\[
\phi(x_i, y_i) - \phi(x, y_i) \leq g_x(x_i, y_i)^T (x_i - x), \quad \forall x \in X,
\]

and by concavity of \( \phi(x, \cdot) \),

\[
\phi(x_i, y_i) - \phi(x_i, y_i) \leq g_y(x_i, y_i)^T (y_i - y), \quad \forall y \in Y,
\]

so that for all \( z = (x, y) \in Z \),

\[
\phi(x_i, y_i) - \phi(x, y_i) \leq g_x(x_i, y_i)^T (x_i - x) + g_y(x_i, y_i)^T (y_i - y_i) = g(z_i)^T (z_i - z).
\]

Using once again the convexity-concavity of \( \phi \) we write

\[
\epsilon_\phi(\bar{z}_j) = \max_{y \in Y} \phi(\bar{x}_j, y) - \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, \bar{y}_j)
\]

\[
\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i \right)^{-1} \left[ \max_{y \in Y} \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i \phi(x_i, y) - \min_{x \in X} \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i \phi(x_i, y) \right]
\]

\[
\leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i \right)^{-1} \max_{z \in Z} \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i g(z_i)^T (z_i - z). \tag{4.3.8}
\]

We now provide a bound on the right-hand side of (4.3.8).

**Lemma 4.6.** For any \( j \geq 1 \) the following inequality holds

\[
E \left[ \max_{z \in Z} \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i g(z_i)^T (z_i - z) \right] \leq 2 + \frac{\delta}{2} M^2 \sum_{i=1}^j \gamma_i^2. \tag{4.3.9}
\]
4.3 Stochastic convex-concave saddle point problems

Proof. Using (4.1.41) with \( \zeta = \gamma G(z_t, \xi_t) \), we have for any \( u \in Z \)

\[
y(z_t - u)^T G(z_t, \xi_t) \leq V(z_t, u) - V(z_{t+1}, u) + \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2
\]

(4.3.10)

This relation implies that for every \( u \in Z \) one has

\[
y(z_t - u)^T g(z_t) \leq V(z_t, u) - V(z_{t+1}, u) + \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2 - y(z_t - u)^T \Delta_t,
\]

(4.3.11)

where \( \Delta_t := G(z_t, \xi_t) - g(z_t) \). Summing up these inequalities over \( t = 1, \ldots, j \), we get

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{j} y(z_t - u)^T g(z_t) \leq V(z_t, u) - V(z_{t+1}, u) + \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{j} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^{j} y(z_t - u)^T \Delta_t.
\]

Let us also apply Lemma 4.3 to an auxiliary sequence with \( v_1 = z_1 \) and \( \zeta_t = -y \Delta_t \):

\[
\forall u \in Z : \sum_{t=1}^{j} y \Delta_t^T (u - v_t) \leq V(z_1, u) + \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{j} \|\Delta_t\|^2.
\]

(4.3.12)

Observe that

\[
\mathbb{E} \|\Delta_t\|^2 \leq 4 \mathbb{E} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2 \leq 4 (2D_X^2M_X^2 + 2D_Y^2M_Y^2) = 4M^2,
\]

so that when taking the expectation of both sides of (4.3.12) we get

\[
\mathbb{E} \sup_{u \in Z} \left( \sum_{t=1}^{j} y \Delta_t^T (u - v_t) \right) \leq 1 + 2M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{j} \|\Delta_t\|^2
\]

(4.3.13)

(recall that \( V(z_1, \cdot) \) is bounded by 1 on \( Z \)). Now we sum up (4.3.11) from \( t = 1 \) to \( j \) to obtain

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{j} y(z_t - u)^T g(z_t) \leq V(z_1, u) + \sum_{t=1}^{j} \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^{j} y(z_t - u)^T \Delta_t
\]

\[
= V(z_1, u) + \sum_{t=1}^{j} \frac{\gamma^2}{2} \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\|^2 - \sum_{t=1}^{j} y(z_t - v_t)^T \Delta_t + \sum_{t=1}^{j} y(u - v_t)^T \Delta_t.
\]

(4.3.14)

When taking into account that \( z_t \) and \( v_t \) are deterministic functions of \( \xi_{j-1} = (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_{j-1}) \) and that the conditional expectation of \( \Delta_t, \xi_{j-1} \) being given, vanishes, we conclude that \( \mathbb{E} [(z_t - v_t)^T \Delta_t] = 0 \). We take now suprema in \( u \in Z \) and then expectations on both sides of (4.3.14):
\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \sup_{u \in \mathcal{Z}} \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t (z_t - u)^T g(z_t) \right] \leq \sup_{u \in \mathcal{Z}} V(z_1, u) + \sum_{t=1}^{j} \frac{\gamma_t}{2} \mathbb{E} \| G(z_t, \xi_t) \|^2_w + \sup_{u \in \mathcal{Z}} \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t (u - v_t)^T \Delta_t \]

[by (4.3.13)]

\[ \leq 1 + \frac{M^2}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t^2 + \left[ 1 + 2M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t^2 \right] = 2 + \frac{5}{2}M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t^2. \]

and we arrive at (4.3.9).

In order to obtain an error bound for the solution \( \tilde{z}_j \) it suffices to substitute inequality (4.3.9) into (4.3.8) to obtain

\[ \mathbb{E} [\varepsilon \phi(\tilde{z}_j)] \leq \left( \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t \right)^{-1} \left[ 2 + \frac{5}{2}M^2 \sum_{t=1}^{j} \gamma_t^2 \right]. \]

Let us use the constant stepsize strategy

\[ \gamma_t = \frac{2}{M \sqrt{N}}, \quad t = 1, \ldots, N. \quad (4.3.15) \]

Then \( \varepsilon \phi(\tilde{z}_N) \leq 2M \sqrt{\frac{5}{N}} \), and hence (see definition (4.3.5) of \( M \)) we obtain

\[ \varepsilon \phi(\tilde{z}_N) \leq 2 \sqrt{\frac{10[\alpha_0 D^2 + \alpha_1 D^2 N]}{\alpha_0 N}}. \quad (4.3.16) \]

Same as in the minimization case discussed in Section 3.2, we can pass from constant stepsizes on a fixed “time horizon” to decreasing stepsize policy

\[ \gamma_t := \frac{1}{(M \sqrt{t})}, \quad t = 1, 2, \ldots, \]

and from the averaging of all iterates to the “sliding averaging”

\[ \tilde{z}_j = \left( \sum_{t=j-\lfloor j/\ell \rfloor}^{j} \gamma_t \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=j-\lfloor j/\ell \rfloor}^{j} \gamma_t z_t, \]

arriving at the efficiency estimate

\[ \varepsilon(\tilde{z}_j) \leq O\left( \frac{M \mathbb{D}_{Z,v}}{\sqrt{\ell}} \right), \quad (4.3.17) \]

where the quantity \( \mathbb{D}_{Z,v} = \left[ 2 \sup_{z \in \mathbb{R}^p, w \in \mathcal{Z}} V(z, w) \right]^{1/2} \) is assumed to be finite.

We give below a bound on the probabilities of large deviations of the error \( \varepsilon \phi(\tilde{z}_N) \).

The proof of this result is similar to that of Proposition 4.10 and hence details are skipped.

**Proposition 4.10.** Suppose that conditions of the bound (4.3.16) are verified and, further, it holds for all \((u, v) \in \mathcal{Z}\) that
Then for the stepsizes \(4.3.15\) one has for any \(\lambda \geq 1\) that
\[
\text{Prob}\left\{ \varepsilon_{\phi}(\xi_N) > \frac{(8 + 2\lambda)(\sqrt{SM})}{\sqrt{N}} \right\} \leq 2\exp\{-\lambda\}. \tag{4.3.19}
\]

### 4.3.2 Minimax stochastic problems

Consider the following minimax stochastic problem
\[
\min_{x \in X} \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \left\{ f_i(x) := E[F_i(x, \xi)] \right\}, \tag{4.3.20}
\]
where \(X \subset \mathbb{R}^n\) is a nonempty bounded closed convex set, \(\xi\) is a random vector whose probability distribution \(F\) is supported on set \(\Xi \subset \mathbb{R}^d\) and \(F_i : X \times \Xi \to \mathbb{R}, i = 1, \ldots, m\).

We assume that for a.e. \(\xi\) the functions \(F_i(\cdot, \xi)\) are convex and for every \(x \in \mathbb{R}^n\), \(F_i(x, \cdot)\) are integrable, i.e., the expectations
\[
E[F_i(x, \xi)] = \int_{\Xi} F_i(x, \xi) dP(\xi), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \tag{4.3.21}
\]
are well defined and finite valued. To find a solution to the minimax problem (4.3.20) is exactly the same as to solve the saddle point problem
\[
\min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in Y} \left\{ \phi(x, y) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i f_i(x) \right\}, \tag{4.3.22}
\]
with \(Y := \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i = 1 \}\).

Similarly to Assumptions 1 and 2, assume that we cannot compute \(f_i(x)\) (and thus \(\phi(x, y)\)) explicitly, but are able to generate independent realizations \(\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots\) distributed according to \(P\), and for given \(x \in X\) and \(\xi \in \Xi\) we can compute \(F_i(x, \xi)\) and its stochastic subgradient \(G_i(x, \xi)\), i.e., such that \(g_i(x) = E[G_i(x, \xi)]\) is well defined and \(g_i(x) \in \partial f_i(x), x \in X, i = 1, \ldots, m\). In other words we have a stochastic oracle for the problem (4.3.22) such that assumption (A2') holds, with
\[
G(x, y, \xi) := \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i G_i(x, \xi) \right], \tag{4.3.23}
\]
and
\[
g(x, y) := E[G(x, y, \xi)] = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i g_i(x) \right] \in \left[ -\partial \phi(x, y) \right]. \tag{4.3.24}
\]

Suppose that the set \(X\) is equipped with norm \(\| \cdot \|_X\), whose dual norm is \(\| \cdot \|_{\ast X}\), and a distance generating function \(v\) modulus 1 with respect to \(\| \cdot \|_X\). We equip the set \(Y\) with norm \(\| \cdot \|_Y := \| \cdot \|_1\), so that \(\| \cdot \|_{\ast Y} = \| \cdot \|_{\infty}\), and with the distance
generating function 

\[ v_{y}(y) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} \ln y_{i}, \]

and hence \( D_{\xi}^{2} = \ln m \). Next, following (4.3.3) we set 

\[ \| (x, y) \| := \sqrt{\frac{\| x \|_{x}^{2} + \| y \|_{y}^{2}}{2D_{\xi}^{2}}}, \]

and hence 

\[ \| (\xi, \eta) \|_{s} = \sqrt{2D_{\xi}^{2} \| \xi \|_{s}^{2} + 2D_{\eta}^{2} \| \eta \|_{s}^{2}}. \]

Let us assume uniform bounds: 

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \| G_{i}(x, \xi) \|_{s, X}^{2} \right] \leq M_{X}^{2}, \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \| F_{i}(x, \xi) \|_{s}^{2} \right] \leq M_{Y}^{2}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m. \]

Note that 

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| G(x, y, \xi) \|_{s}^{2} \right] &= 2D_{\xi}^{2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} G_{i}(x, \xi) \|_{s, X}^{2} \right] + 2D_{\eta}^{2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| F(x, \xi) \|_{s}^{2} \right] \\
&\leq 2D_{\xi}^{2} M_{X}^{2} + 2D_{\eta}^{2} M_{Y}^{2} = 2D_{\xi}^{2} M_{X}^{2} + 2M_{Y}^{2} \ln m =: M^{2}. \tag{4.3.25}
\end{align*}
\]

Let us now use the stochastic mirror descent algorithm (4.3.6) and (4.3.7) with the constant stepsize strategy 

\[ \gamma = \frac{2}{M \sqrt{N}}, \quad t = 1, 2, \ldots, N. \]

When substituting the value of \( M \), we obtain from (4.3.16): 

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} \left[ \epsilon_{\phi}(\tilde{x}_{N}) \right] &= \mathbb{E} \left[ \max_{y \in Y} \phi(\tilde{x}_{N}, y) - \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, \tilde{y}_{N}) \right] \leq 2M \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}} \\
&\leq 2 \sqrt{\frac{10D_{\xi}^{2} M_{X}^{2} + M_{Y}^{2} \ln m}{N}}. \tag{4.3.26}
\end{align*}
\]

Looking at the bound (4.3.26) one can make the following important observation. The error of the stochastic mirror descent algorithm in this case is “almost independent” of the number \( m \) of constraints (it grows as \( O(\sqrt{\ln m}) \) as \( m \) increases). The interested reader can easily verify that if a stochastic gradient descent (with Euclidean distance generating function) were used in the same setting (i.e., the algorithm tuned to the norm \( \| \cdot \|_{y} := \| \cdot \|_{2} \), the corresponding bound would grow with \( m \) much faster (in fact, our error bound would be \( O(\sqrt{m}) \) in that case).

Note that properties of the stochastic mirror descent can be used to reduce significantly the arithmetic cost of the algorithm implementation. To this end let us look at the definition (4.3.23) of the stochastic oracle: in order to obtain a realization \( G(x, y, \xi) \) one has to compute \( m \) random subgradients \( G_{i}(x, \xi), i = 1, \ldots, m \), and then the convex combination \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_{i} G_{i}(x, \xi) \). Now let \( \eta \) be an independent of \( \xi \) and uniformly distributed in \([0, 1]\) random variable, and let \( i(\eta, y) : [0, 1] \times Y \to \{1, \ldots, m\} \) equals to \( i \) when \( \sum_{x=1}^{i-1} y_{x} < \eta \leq \sum_{x=1}^{i} y_{x} \). That is, random variable \( i = i(\eta, y) \) takes
values $1, \ldots, m$ with probabilities $y_1, \ldots, y_m$. Consider random vector

$$G(x, y, (\xi, \eta)) := \begin{bmatrix} G(y, \xi) \\ (-F_1(x, \xi), \ldots, -F_m(x, \xi)) \end{bmatrix}.$$ (4.3.27)

We refer to $G(x, y, (\xi, \eta))$ as a randomized oracle for problem (4.3.22), the corresponding random parameter being $(\xi, \eta)$. By construction we still have $E[G(x, y, (\xi, \eta))] = g(x, y)$, where $g$ is defined in (4.3.24), and, moreover, the same bound (4.3.25) holds for $E[\|G(x, y, (\xi, \eta))\|_2^2]$. We conclude that the accuracy bound (4.3.26) holds for the error of the stochastic mirror descent algorithm with randomized oracle. On the other hand, in the latter procedure only one randomized subgradient $G_\hat{y}(x, \xi)$ per iteration is to be computed. This simple idea is further developed in another interesting application of the stochastic mirror descent algorithm to bilinear matrix games which we discuss next.

### 4.3.3 Bilinear matrix games

Consider the standard matrix game problem, that is, problem (4.3.1) with

$$\phi(x, y) := y^T Ax + b^T x + c^T y,$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, and $X$ and $Y$ are the standard simplices, i.e.,

$$X := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^n x_j = 1\}, \quad Y := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^m y_i = 1\}.$$

In the case in question it is natural to equip $X$ (respectively, $Y$) with the usual $\| \cdot \|_1$-norm on $\mathbb{R}^n$ (respectively, $\mathbb{R}^m$). We choose entropies as the corresponding distance generating functions:

$$\nu_X(x) := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \ln x_i, \quad \nu_Y(y) := \sum_{i=1}^m y_i \ln y_i.$$

As we already have seen, this choice results in $D_X^2 = \ln n$ and $D_Y^2 = \ln m$. According to (4.3.3) we set

$$\|(x, y)\| := \sqrt{\frac{\|x\|_1^2}{2 \ln n} + \frac{\|y\|_1^2}{2 \ln m}},$$

and thus

$$\|(\xi, \eta)\| = \sqrt{2\|\xi\|_\infty^2 \ln n + 2\|\eta\|_\infty^2 \ln m}. \quad (4.3.28)$$

In order to compute the estimates $\Phi(x, y, \xi)$ of $\phi(x, y)$ and $G(x, y, \xi)$ of $g(x, y) = (b + A^T y, -c - A x)$ to be used in the stochastic mirror descent iterations (4.3.6), we use the randomized oracle
We continue with the counterpart of Proposition 4.10 for the Saddle Point Mirror SA we obtain from (4.3.16):

\[ y \text{ with probabilities } \xi \]

where \( \xi_1 \) and \( \xi_2 \) are independent uniformly distributed on \([0, 1]\) random variables, \( \hat{j} = i(\xi_1, y) \) and \( \hat{i} = i(\xi_2, x) \) are defined as in (4.3.27), i.e., \( \hat{j} \) can take values \( 1, \ldots, m \) with probabilities \( y_1, \ldots, y_m \) and \( \hat{i} \) can take values \( 1, \ldots, n \) with probabilities \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \), and \( A_j, [A^T]^T \) are \( j \)-th column and \( i \)-th row in \( A \), respectively.

Therefore, the inputs of the stochastic mirror descent algoirthm satisfy the conditions (4.3.8), (4.3.12), (4.3.14), combined with the fact that \( \| \cdot \| \) are independent uniformly distributed on \([0, 1]\) random variables, \( \hat{j} = i(\xi_1, y) \) and \( \hat{i} = i(\xi_2, x) \) are defined as in (4.3.27), i.e., \( \hat{j} \) can take values \( 1, \ldots, m \) with probabilities \( y_1, \ldots, y_m \) and \( \hat{i} \) can take values \( 1, \ldots, n \) with probabilities \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \), and \( A_j, [A^T]^T \) are \( j \)-th column and \( i \)-th row in \( A \), respectively.

Note that \( g(x, y) = \mathbb{E}[G(x, y, (\hat{j}, \hat{i}))] \in \left[ \frac{\partial \phi(x, y)}{\partial y}, -\frac{\partial \phi(x, y)}{\partial x} \right] \). Besides this,

\[ |G(x, y, \xi)| \leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq m} \| A^j + b \|_{\infty}, \text{ for } i = 1, \ldots, n, \]

and

\[ |G(x, y, \xi)| \leq \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \| A_j + c \|_{\infty}, \text{ for } i = n + 1, \ldots, n + m. \]

Hence, by the definition (4.3.28) of \( \| \|_{\ast} \),

\[ \mathbb{E}\| G(x, y, \xi) \|_{\ast}^2 \leq M^2 := 2 \ln n \max_{1 \leq j \leq m} \| A^j + b \|_{\infty}^2 + 2 \ln m \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \| A_j + c \|_{\infty}^2. \]

Therefore, the inputs of the stochastic mirror descent algoirthm satisfy the conditions of validity of the bound (4.3.16) with \( M \) as above. Using the constant stepsize strategy with

\[ \gamma = \frac{2}{M \sqrt{5N}}, \ t = 1, \ldots, N, \]

we obtain from (4.3.16):

\[ \mathbb{E}[\xi_\phi(\xi_N)] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \max_{y \in X} \phi(\xi_N, y) - \min_{x \in X} \phi(x, \xi_N) \right] \leq 2M \sqrt{\frac{5}{N}}. \quad (4.3.29) \]

We continue with the counterpart of Proposition 4.10 for the Saddle Point Mirror SA in the setting of bilinear matrix games.

**Proposition 4.11.** For any \( \Omega \geq 1 \) it holds that

\[ \operatorname{Prob} \left\{ \xi_\phi(\xi_N) > 2M \sqrt{\frac{5}{N}} + \frac{N M^2}{\sqrt{N}} \Omega \right\} \leq \exp \left\{ -\Omega^2 / 2 \right\}, \quad (4.3.30) \]

where

\[ M := \max_{1 \leq j \leq m} \| A^j + b \|_{\infty} + \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \| A_j + c \|_{\infty}. \quad (4.3.31) \]

**Proof.** As in the proof of Proposition 4.10, when setting \( \Gamma_N = \sum_{t=1}^{N} \gamma_t \) and using the relations (4.3.8), (4.3.12), (4.3.14), combined with the fact that \( \| G(x, y) \|_{\ast} \leq M \), we obtain
where the second inequality follows from the definition of $\Delta_r$ and the fact that 
\[ \|\Delta_r\|_s = \|G(z_t, \xi_t) - g(z_t)\|_s \leq \|G(z_t, \xi_t)\| + \|g(z_t)\|_s \leq 2M. \]

Note that $\xi_t = y((v_t - z_t)^T \Delta_r)$ is a bounded martingale-difference, i.e., $\mathbb{E}(\xi_t|\mathcal{F}_{t-1}) = 0$, and $|\xi_t| \leq 4\gamma_M$ (here $\gamma_M$ is defined in (4.3.31)). Then by Azuma-Hoeffding’s inequality for any $\Omega \geq 0$:

\[ \Pr(\alpha_N > 4\Omega_M \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^N \gamma_t^2}) \leq e^{-\Omega^2/2}. \]

Indeed, let us denote $v_t = (v_t^{(x)}, v_t^{(y)})$ and $\Delta_t = (\Delta_t^{(x)}, \Delta_t^{(y)})$. When taking into account that $\|v_t^{(x)}\|_1 \leq 1$, $\|v_t^{(y)}\|_1 \leq 1$, and $\|x_t\|_1 \leq 1$, $\|y_t\|_1 \leq 1$, we conclude that 
\[
|((v_t - z_t)^T \Delta_r| \leq \|v_t^{(x)} - x_t\|_1 \Delta_t^{(x)} + \|v_t^{(y)} - y_t\|_1 \Delta_t^{(y)} \leq 2\|\Delta_t^{(x)}\|_\infty + 2\|\Delta_t^{(y)}\|_\infty \leq 4 \max_{1 \leq j \leq m} \|A_j^T + b\|_\infty + 4 \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \|A_j + c\|_\infty = 4\gamma_M.
\]

We conclude from (4.3.32) and (4.3.33) that

\[ \Pr\left( \Gamma_N \epsilon_\phi(\tilde{z}_N) > 2 + \frac{5}{2}M^2 \sum_{t=1}^N \gamma_t^2 + 4\Omega_M \sqrt{\sum_{t=1}^N \gamma_t^2} \right) \leq e^{-\Omega^2/2}, \]

and the bound (4.3.30) of the proposition can be easily obtained by substituting the constant stepsizes $\gamma$ as defined in (4.3.15). 

Consider a bilinear matrix game with $m = n$ and $b = c = 0$. Suppose that we are interested to solve it within a fixed relative accuracy $\rho$, that is, to ensure that a (perhaps random) approximate solution $\tilde{z}_N$, we get after $N$ iterations, satisfies the error bound

\[ \epsilon_\phi(\tilde{z}_N) \leq \rho \max_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} |A_{ij}| \]

with probability at least $1 - \delta$. According to (4.3.30), to this end one can use the randomized Saddle Point Mirror SA algorithm (4.3.6), (4.3.7) with

\[ N = O\left(1\frac{\ln m + \ln(\delta^{-1})}{\rho^2}\right). \]

The computational cost of building $\tilde{z}_N$ with this approach is

\[ O\left(1\frac{\ln m + \ln(\delta^{-1})}{\rho^2}\right). \]
arithmetic operations, where $R$ is the arithmetic cost of extracting a column/row from $A$, given the index of this column/row. The total number of rows and columns visited by the algorithm does not exceed the sample size $N$, given in (4.3.34), so that the total number of entries in $A$ used in course of the entire computation does not exceed

$$M = O(1) \frac{n(\ln n + \ln(\delta^{-1}))}{\rho^2}.$$ 

When $\rho$ is fixed and $n$ is large, this is incomparably less than the total number $n^2$ of entries of $A$. Thus, the algorithm in question produces reliable solutions of prescribed quality to large-scale matrix games by inspecting a negligible, as $n \to \infty$, part of randomly selected data. Note that randomization here is critical. It is easily seen that a deterministic algorithm which is capable to find a solution with (deterministic) relative accuracy $\rho \leq 0.1$, has to “see” in the worst case at least $O(1)n$ rows/columns of $A$.

### 4.4 Stochastic accelerated primal-dual method

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be given closed convex sets equipped with their respective inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and norm $\| \cdot \|$. The basic problem of interest in this section is the saddle-point problem (SPP) given in the form of:

$$\min_{x \in X} \left\{ f(x) := \max_{y \in Y} \hat{f}(x) + \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{g}(y) \right\}. \quad (4.4.1)$$

Here, $\hat{f}(x)$ is a general smooth convex function and $A$ is a linear operator such that

$$\hat{f}(u) - \hat{f}(x) - \langle \nabla \hat{f}(x), u - x \rangle \leq \frac{L_{\hat{f}}}{2} \| u - x \|^2, \quad \forall x, u \in X,$$

$$\|Au - Ax\|_* \leq \|A\| \|u - x\|, \quad \forall x, u \in X, \quad (4.4.2)$$

and $\hat{g} : Y \to \mathbb{R}$ is a relatively simple, proper, convex, lower semi-continuous (l.s.c.) function (i.e., problem (4.4.13) is easy to solve). In particular, if $\hat{g}$ is the convex conjugate of some convex function $F$ and $Y \equiv \mathbb{R}^m$, then (4.4.1) is equivalent to the primal problem:

$$\min_{x \in X} \hat{f}(x) + F(Ax). \quad (4.4.3)$$

Problems of these types have recently found many applications in data analysis, especially in imaging processing and machine learning. In many of these applications, $\hat{f}(x)$ is a convex data fidelity term, while $F(Ax)$ is a certain regularization, e.g., total variation, low rank tensor, overlapped group lasso, and graph regularization.

Since the objective function $f$ defined in (4.4.1) is nonsmooth in general, traditional nonsmooth optimization methods, e.g., subgradient or mirror descent methods, would exhibit an $O(1/\sqrt{N})$ rate of convergence when applied to (4.4.1), where $N$ denotes the number of iterations. As discussed in Section 3.5, if $X$ and $Y$ are compact,
then the rate of convergence of this smoothing scheme applied to (4.4.1) can be bounded by:
\[ O\left( \frac{L_f}{N^2} + \frac{\|A\|N}{N} \right), \]  
(4.4.4)
which significantly improves the previous bound \( O(1/\sqrt{N}) \).

While Nesterov’s smoothing scheme or its variants rely on a smooth approximation to the original problem (4.4.1), primal-dual methods discussed in Section 3.6 work directly with the original saddle-point problem. In Section 3.6, we assume \( \hat{f} \) to be relatively simple so that the subproblems can be solved efficiently. With little additional effort, one can show that, by linearizing \( \hat{f} \) at each step, this method can also be applied for a general smooth convex function \( \hat{f} \) and the rate of convergence of this modified algorithm is given by
\[ O\left( \frac{L_f + \|A\|N}{N} \right). \]  
(4.4.5)

The rate of convergence in (4.4.4) has a significantly better dependence on \( L_f \) than that in (4.4.5). Therefore, Nesterov’s smoothing scheme allows a very large Lipschitz constant \( L_f \) (as big as \( O(N) \)) without affecting the rate of convergence (up to a constant factor of 2). This is desirable in many data analysis applications, where \( L_f \) is usually significantly bigger than \( \|A\| \).

Similar to Assumptions 1 and 2 made for minimization problems, in the stochastic setting we assume that there exists a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO) that can provide unbiased estimators to the gradient operators \( \nabla \hat{f}(x) \) and \( (-Ax, A^Ty) \). More specifically, at the \( i \)-th call to SFO, \( (x_i, y_i) \in X \times Y \) being the input, the oracle will output the stochastic gradient \( (\hat{G}(x_i), \hat{A}_x(x_i), \hat{A}_y(y_i)) \equiv (G(x_i, \xi_i), A_x(x_i, \xi_i), A_y(y_i, \xi_i)) \) such that
\[ E[\hat{G}(x_i)] = \nabla \hat{f}(x_i), \quad E\left[ \begin{pmatrix} -\hat{A}_x(x_i) \\ \hat{A}_y(y_i) \end{pmatrix} \right] = \begin{pmatrix} -Ax_i \\ A^Ty_i \end{pmatrix}. \]  
(4.4.6)
Here \( \{\xi_i \in \mathbb{R}^d\}_{i=1}^\infty \) is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables. In addition, we assume that, for some \( \sigma_{x,\hat{f}}, \sigma_y, \sigma_{x,A} \geq 0 \), the following assumption holds for all \( x_i \in X \) and \( y_i \in Y \):

**Assumption 8**

\[ E[\|\hat{G}(x_i) - \nabla \hat{f}(x_i)\|^2] \leq \sigma_{x,\hat{f}}^2, \]
\[ E[\|\hat{A}_x(x_i) - Ax_i\|^2] \leq \sigma_y^2, \]
\[ E[\|\hat{A}_y(y_i) - A^Ty_i\|^2] \leq \sigma_A^2. \]

Sometimes we simply denote \( \sigma_* := \sqrt{\sigma_{x,\hat{f}}^2 + \sigma_A^2} \) for the sake of notational convenience. It should also be noted that deterministic SPP is a special case of the above setting with \( \sigma_* = \sigma_y = 0 \).

We can apply a few stochastic optimization algorithms discussed earlier to solve the above stochastic SPP. More specifically, the stochastic mirror descent method,
when applied to the stochastic SPP, will achieve an rate of convergence given by
\[
\mathcal{O}\left( (L_{\hat{f}} + \|A\| + \sigma_x + \sigma_y) \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \right).
\]
Moreover, the accelerated stochastic gradient descent method, when applied to the aforementioned stochastic SPP, possesses a rate of convergence given by
\[
\mathcal{O}\left( \frac{L_{\hat{f}}}{N^2} + (\|A\| + \sigma_x + \sigma_y) \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \right),
\]
which improves the bound in (4.4.55) in terms of its dependence on the Lipschitz constant \(L_{\hat{f}}\).

Our goal in this section to further accelerate the primal-dual method discussed in Section 3.6 to achieve the rate of convergence in (4.4.4) for deterministic SPP and to deal with unbounded feasible sets \(X\) and \(Y\). Moreover, we intend to develop a stochastic accelerated primal-dual method that can further improve the rate of convergence stated in (4.4.8). It is worth noting that further improvement of the complexity bound for SPP, in terms of the number of gradient computations of \(\hat{f}\), will be discussed in Section 8.2.

### 4.4.1 Accelerated primal-dual method

One possible limitation of primal-dual method in Section 3.6, when applied to problem (4.4.1) is that both \(\hat{f}\) and \(\hat{g}\) need to be simple enough. To make this algorithm applicable to more practical problems we consider more general cases, where \(\hat{g}\) is simple, but \(\hat{f}\) may not be so. In particular, we assume that \(\hat{f}\) is a general smooth convex function satisfying (4.4.2). In this case, we can replace \(\hat{f}\) by its linear approximation \(\hat{f}(x_t) + \langle \nabla \hat{f}(x_t), x - x_t \rangle\) and obtain the so-called “linearized primal-dual method” in Algorithm 4.1. By some extra effort we can show that, if for \(t = 1, \ldots, N\), \(0 < \theta_t = \tau_{t-1}/\tau_t = \eta_{t-1}/\eta_t \leq 1\), and \(L_{\hat{f}} \eta_t + \|A\| \eta_t \tau_t \leq 1\), then \((x^N, y^N)\) has an \(\mathcal{O}\left( (L_{\hat{f}} + \|A\|)/N \right)\) rate of convergence in the sense of the partial duality gap.

#### Algorithm 4.1 Linearized primal-dual method for solving deterministic SPP

1: Choose \(x_1 \in X, y_1 \in Y\). Set \(\bar{x}_1 = x_1\).
2: For \(t = 1, \ldots, N\), calculate
\[
\begin{align*}
y_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{y \in Y} (-A\bar{x}_t, y) + \hat{g}(y) + \frac{1}{2\tau_t} \|y - y_t\|^2, \quad (4.4.9)
x_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle \nabla \hat{f}(x_t), x \rangle + \langle Ax, y_{t+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2\eta_t} \|x - x_t\|^2, \quad (4.4.10)
\bar{x}_{t+1} &= \theta_t (x_{t+1} - x_t) + x_{t+1}.
\end{align*}
\]
3: Output \(x^N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} x_t, y^N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} y_t\).
Algorithm 4.2 Accelerated primal-dual method for deterministic SPP

1: Choose $x_1 \in X, y_1 \in Y$. Set $\tilde{x}_1 = x_1, \tilde{y}_1 = y_1, \tilde{t}_1 = x_1$.
2: For $t = 1, 2, \ldots, N - 1$, calculate

\[ \tilde{y}_t = (1 - \beta_t^{-1})\tilde{y}_{t-1} + \beta_t^{-1}x_t, \]
\[ y_{t+1} = \arg\min_{y \in Y} \langle -A\tilde{x}_t, y \rangle + \bar{g}(y) + \frac{1}{2\beta_t}Y_t(y, y), \]
\[ x_{t+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle \nabla f(x), x \rangle + \langle x, A^T\tilde{y}_{t+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2\beta_t}V_t(x, x), \]
\[ \tilde{x}_t = \theta_{t+1}(x_{t+1} - x_t) + x_{t+1}, \]
\[ x_{t+1} = (1 - \beta_t^{-1})\tilde{x}_t + \beta_t^{-1}x_{t+1}, \]
\[ \tilde{y}_{t+1} = (1 - \beta_t^{-1})\tilde{y}_t + \beta_t^{-1}y_{t+1}. \]

3: Output $x_N^{ag}, y_N^{ag}$.

In order to further improve the above rate of convergence of Algorithm 4.1, we propose an accelerated primal-dual (APD) method in Algorithm 4.2 which integrates the accelerated gradient descent algorithm into the linearized version of the primal dual method. For any $x, u \in X$ and $y, v \in Y$, the functions $V_X(\cdot, \cdot)$ and $V_Y(\cdot, \cdot)$ are Bregman divergences defined as

\[ V_X(x, u) := V_X(x) - V_X(u) - \langle \nabla V_X(u), x - u \rangle, \]
\[ V_Y(y, v) := V_Y(y) - V_Y(v) - \langle \nabla V_Y(v), y - v \rangle, \]

where $V_X(\cdot)$ and $V_Y(\cdot)$ are strongly convex functions with strong convexity parameters (modulus) 1. We assume that $\bar{g}(\cdot)$ is a simple convex function, so that the optimization problem in (4.4.13) can be solved efficiently.

Note that if $\beta_k = 1$ for all $t \geq 1$, then $\tilde{x}_t = x_t, \tilde{y}_t = y_t, \tilde{t}_t = x_t$, and Algorithm 4.2 is the same as the linearized version of Algorithm 4.1. However, by specifying a different selection of $\beta_t$ (e.g., $\beta_t = O(t)$), we can significantly improve the rate of convergence of Algorithm 4.2 in terms of its dependence on $L_f$. It should be noted that the iteration cost for the APD algorithm is about the same as that for Algorithm 4.1.

In order to analyze the convergence of Algorithm 4.2, we use the same notion as the one we used in the analysis of the primal-dual method in Section 3.6 to characterize the solutions of (4.4.1). Specifically, denoting $Z = X \times Y$, for any $\tilde{z} = (\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \in Z$ and $z = (x, y) \in Z$, we define

\[ Q(\tilde{z}, z) := [\tilde{f}(\tilde{x}) + \langle A\tilde{x}, y \rangle - \bar{g}(y)] - [\tilde{f}(x) + \langle Ax, \tilde{y} \rangle - \bar{g}(\tilde{y})]. \]

It can be easily seen that $\tilde{z}$ is a solution of problem (4.4.1), if and only if $Q(\tilde{z}, z) \leq 0$ for all $z \in Z$. Therefore, if $Z$ is bounded, it is suggestive to use the gap function

\[ g(\tilde{z}) := \max_{z \in Z} Q(\tilde{z}, z) \]
Algorithm 4.2, then for all \( z = (\tilde{z}, \tilde{y}) \in Z \), we establish the convergence of Algorithm 4.2 in Theorems 4.6 and 4.7 for the observation and the convexity of \( \hat{Q} \) properties for the function \( H \). Hence, in the sequel, we will consider the bounded and unbounded case separately, by employing a slightly different error measure for the latter situation. In particular, we establish the convergence of Algorithm 4.2 in Theorems 4.6 and 4.7 for the bounded and unbounded case, respectively.

We need to prove two technical results: Proposition 4.12 shows some important properties for the function \( Q(\cdot, \cdot) \) in (4.4.20) and Lemma 4.7 establishes a bound on \( Q(\tilde{x}, z) \). Note that the following quantity will be used in the convergence analysis of the APD algorithm.

\[
\mathcal{H} = \begin{cases} 
1, & t = 1, \\
\theta_{t-1}^{-1}, & t \geq 2. 
\end{cases} 
\quad (4.4.22)
\]

**Proposition 4.12.** Assume that \( \beta_t \geq 1 \) for all \( t \). If \( \tilde{x}_{t+1} = (\tilde{x}_{t+1}, \tilde{y}_{t+1}) \) is generated by Algorithm 4.2, then for all \( z = (x, y) \in Z \),

\[
\beta_t Q(\tilde{x}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_t - 1) Q(\tilde{x}_t, z) \leq \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2\theta_t} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 + [\hat{g}(y_{t+1}) - \hat{g}(y)] \leq \langle A x_{t+1}, y \rangle - \langle A x, y_{t+1} \rangle. 
\quad (4.4.23)
\]

**Proof.** By equations (4.4.12) and (4.4.16), \( \tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t = \beta_t^{-1} (x_{t+1} - x_t) \). Using this observation and the convexity of \( \hat{f}(\cdot) \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_t \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_{t+1}) & \leq \beta_t \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + \beta_t \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{\beta_t L_f}{2} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 \\
& = \beta_t \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + \beta_t \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), \tilde{x}_{t+1} - \tilde{x}_t \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2\theta_t} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 \\
& = \beta_t \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + (\beta_t - 1) \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), \tilde{x}_{t+1} - \tilde{x}_t \rangle + \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2\theta_t} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 \\
& = (\beta_t - 1) \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + (\希腊 {\sqrt{\frac{\theta_t}{\theta_t}}}) \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + (\nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t) + \frac{L_f}{2\theta_t} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 \\
& \leq (\beta_t - 1) \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t) + \langle \nabla \hat{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2\theta_t} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

Moreover, by (4.4.17) and the convexity of \( \hat{g}(\cdot) \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_t \hat{g}(\tilde{y}_{t+1}) - \hat{g}(y) & \leq (\beta_t - 1) \hat{g}(\tilde{y}_t) + \hat{g}(y_{t+1}) - \hat{g}(y) \\
& = (\beta_t - 1) [\hat{g}(\tilde{y}_t) - \hat{g}(y)] + \hat{g}(y_{t+1}) - \hat{g}(y).
\end{align*}
\]

By (4.4.20), (4.4.16), (4.4.17) and the above two inequalities, we obtain
Then, for any $z \in \nu$ where the last inequality follows from the fact that, by the strong convexity of $f$
Similarly, from (4.4.14) we can derive that
\[
\beta \bar{f}(\tilde{x}_{t+1}) - (\beta - 1)\bar{f}(\tilde{x}_t) \leq (4.4.19),
\]
\[
\beta \bar{f}(\tilde{x}_{t+1}) - (\beta - 1)\bar{f}(\tilde{x}_t) - \beta \bar{g}(\tilde{y}_{t+1}) - \tilde{g}(y) + \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), x \rangle - \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y \rangle \leq \langle \nabla \bar{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2\gamma} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \tilde{g}(y) - \tilde{g}(\tilde{y}_{t+1}) + \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y \rangle - \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y \rangle.
\]

Lemma 4.7 establishes a bound for $Q(\tilde{z}_{t+1}, z)$ for all $z \in Z$, which will be used in the proof of both Theorems 4.6 and 4.7.

**Lemma 4.7.** Let $\tilde{z}_{t+1} = (\tilde{x}_{t+1}, \tilde{y}_{t+1})$ be the iterates generated by Algorithm 4.2. Assume that the parameters $\beta_t, \theta_t, \eta_t$, and $\gamma_t$ satisfy
\[
\beta_1 = 1, \quad \beta_{t+1} = \beta_{t+1} - 1 = \beta_{t+1},
\]
\[
0 < \theta_t \leq \min\{\frac{\eta_t}{\gamma_t}, \frac{\bar{f}_t}{\gamma_t}\},
\]
\[
\frac{1}{\theta_t} - \frac{L_t}{\theta_t} = \|A\|^2 \gamma_t \geq 0.
\]

Then, for any $z \in Z$, we have
\[
\beta \gamma Q(\tilde{z}_{t+1}, z) \leq B_t(z, \tilde{z}_t) + \gamma \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle + \gamma \left(\frac{1}{2\gamma_t} - \frac{L_t}{\gamma_t}\right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2,
\]
where $\gamma$ is defined in (4.4.22), $\tilde{z}_t := \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{t+1}$ and
\[
B_t(z, \tilde{z}_t) := \sum_{i=1}^t \left\{ \frac{\gamma_t}{\theta_t} [V(x_i - x_i) - V(x, y_{t+1})] + \frac{\gamma_t}{\theta_t} [V(y_i, y_i) - V(y, y_{t+1})]\right\}.
\]

**Proof.** First of all, we explore the optimality conditions of (4.4.13) and (4.4.14). Applying Lemma 3.5 to (4.4.13), we have
\[
\langle -A\tilde{x}_t, y_{t+1} - y \rangle + \tilde{g}(y_{t+1}) - \tilde{g}(y) \leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} V_t(y, y_t) - \frac{1}{\theta_t} V_t(y_{t+1}, y_t) - \frac{1}{\theta_t} V_t(y, y_{t+1}) \leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} V_t(y, y_t) - \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\theta_t} V_t(y, y_{t+1}),
\]
where the last inequality follows from the fact that, by the strong convexity of $V_t(\cdot, \cdot)$ and (4.4.19),
\[
V_t(y_1, y_2) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|y_1 - y_2\|^2, \text{ for all } y_1, y_2 \in Y.
\]

Similarly, from (4.4.14) we can derive that
\[
\langle \nabla \bar{f}(\tilde{x}_t), x_{t+1} - x \rangle + \langle x_{t+1} - x, A^T \tilde{y}_{t+1} \rangle \leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} V(x, x_t) - \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\theta_t} V(x, x_{t+1}).
\]
Our next step is to establish a crucial recursion of Algorithm 4.2. It follows from (4.4.23), (4.4.29) and (4.4.31) that

\[ \beta_t Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_t - 1) Q(\tilde{z}_t, z) \]

\[ \leq \langle \nabla f(x_t), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2} \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 + [\tilde{g}(y_{t+1}) - \tilde{g}(y)] + \langle A x_{t+1}, y \rangle - \langle A x, y_{t+1} \rangle \]

\[ \leq \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (x, x_t) - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (x, x_{t+1}) - \left( \frac{1}{\bar{n}} \right) \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 \]

\[ + \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (y, y_t) - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (y, y_{t+1}) - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} \| y_{t+1} - y_t \|^2 \]

\[ - \langle x_{t+1} - x_t, A^T y_{t+1} \rangle + \langle A \tilde{x}_t, y_{t+1} - y \rangle + \langle A x, y_{t+1} \rangle. \]

(4.4.32)

Also observe that by (4.4.15), we have

\[ - \langle x_{t+1} - x_t, A^T y_{t+1} \rangle + \langle A \tilde{x}_t, y_{t+1} - y \rangle + \langle A x, y_{t+1} \rangle \]

\[ = \langle A (x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle - \theta_t \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y - y_{t+1} \rangle \]

\[ = \langle A (x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle - \theta_t \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y - y_t \rangle - \theta_t \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle. \]

Multiplying both sides of (4.4.32) by \( \gamma_t \), using the above identity and the fact that \( \gamma \theta_t = \gamma_{t-1} \) due to (4.4.22), we obtain

\[ \beta_t \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_t - 1) \gamma Q(\tilde{z}_t, z) \]

\[ \leq \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (x, x_t) - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (y, y_t) - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} V_k (y, y_{t+1}) \]

\[ + \gamma \langle A (x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle - \gamma_{t-1} \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y - y_t \rangle \]

\[ - \gamma \left( \frac{1}{\bar{n}} \right) \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 - \frac{1}{\bar{n}} \| y_{t+1} - y_t \|^2 \]

\[ - \gamma_{t-1} \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle. \]

Now, applying Cauchy-Schwartz inequality to the last term in (4.4.33), using the notation \( \| A \| \) in (4.4.2) and noticing that \( \gamma_{t-1} / \gamma = \theta_t \leq \min \{ \eta_t / \eta_t, \bar{\eta}_t / \bar{\eta}_t \} \) from (4.4.25), we have

\[ - \gamma_{t-1} \langle A (x_t - x_{t-1}), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle \leq \gamma_{t-1} \| A (x_t - x_{t-1}) \| \| y_t - y_{t+1} \| \]

\[ \leq \| A \| \gamma_{t-1} \| x_t - x_{t-1} \| \| y_t - y_{t+1} \| \leq \| A \|^2 \gamma_{t-1} \| x_t - x_{t-1} \|^2 + \frac{\bar{n}}{2} \| y_t - y_{t+1} \|^2 \]

\[ \leq \frac{\| A \|^2 \gamma_{t-1} \bar{n}}{2} \| x_t - x_{t-1} \|^2 + \frac{\bar{n}}{2} \| y_t - y_{t+1} \|^2. \]

Noting that \( \theta_{t+1} = \gamma / \gamma_{t+1} \), so by (4.4.24) we have \( (\beta_{t+1} - 1) \gamma_{t+1} = \beta_t \gamma_t \). Combining the above two relations with inequality (4.4.33), we get the following recursion for Algorithm 4.2.
\((b_{t+1} - 1)\gamma + Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (b_t - 1)\gamma Q(\bar{z}_t, z) = \beta_t \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (b_t - 1)\gamma Q(\bar{z}_t, z)\)

\[\leq \frac{b_t}{\hat{b}_t} V(x, x_t) - \frac{b_t}{\hat{b}_t} V(x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{b_t}{\beta_t} V(y, y_t) - \frac{b_t}{\beta_t} V(y, y_{t+1})\]

\[+ \gamma (A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} - \gamma^{-1} A(x_t - x_{t-1}), y - y_{t-1})\]

\[-\gamma \left( \frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\hat{L}_t}{\gamma} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{\|A\|^2 \gamma \gamma^{-1}}{2} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2, \forall t \geq 1.\]

Applying the above inequality inductively and assuming that \(x_0 = x_1\), we conclude that

\[(b_{t+1} - 1)\gamma + Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (b_t - 1)\gamma Q(\bar{z}_t, z)\]

\[\leq B_t(z, \bar{z}_t) + \gamma (A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1})\]

\[-\gamma \left( \frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\hat{L}_t}{\gamma} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \|x_t\|^2, \forall t \geq 1.\]

which, in view of (4.4.26) and the facts that \(b_1 = 1\) and \((b_{t+1} - 1)\gamma_t = \beta_t \gamma_t\) by (4.4.24), implies (4.4.27).

Theorem 4.6 below describes the convergence properties of Algorithm 4.2 when \(Z\) is bounded. This result follows as an immediate consequence of Lemma 4.7.

**Theorem 4.6.** Assume that for some \(D_X, D_Y > 0:\)

\[\sup_{x_1, x_2 \in X} V_X(x_1, x_2) \leq D_X^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \sup_{y_1, y_2 \in Y} V_Y(y_1, y_2) \leq D_Y^2.\]  

(4.4.34)

Also assume that the parameters \(\beta, \theta, \eta, \tau\) in Algorithm 4.2 are chosen such that (4.4.24), (4.4.25) and (4.4.26) hold. Then for all \(t \geq 1,\)

\[g_t^{\text{ag}}(\bar{z}_{t+1}) = \frac{1}{\beta^2} D_X^2 + \frac{1}{\beta^3} D_Y^2.\]  

(4.4.35)

**Proof.** Let \(B_t(z, z_t)\) be defined in (4.4.28). First note that by the definition of \(\gamma_t\) in (4.4.22) and relation (4.4.25), we have \(\theta_t = \gamma_t / \eta_t \leq \eta_t / \gamma_t\) and hence \(\gamma_{t-1} / \eta_{t-1} \leq \gamma_t / \eta_t\). Using this observation and (4.4.34), we conclude that

\[B_t(z, z_t) = \frac{b_t}{\hat{b}_t} V_X(x, x_t) - \frac{b_t}{\hat{b}_t} V_X(x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{b_t}{\beta_t} V_Y(y, y_t) - \frac{b_t}{\beta_t} V_Y(y, y_{t+1})\]

\[+ \gamma (A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1})\]

\[-\gamma \left( \frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\hat{L}_t}{\gamma} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \|x_t\|^2, \forall t \geq 1.\]  

(4.4.36)

Now applying Cauchy-Schwartz inequality to the inner product term in (4.4.27), we get

\[\gamma (A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1}) \leq ||A|| \gamma \|x_{t+1} - x_t\| ||y - y_{t+1}||\]

\[\leq \frac{||A||^2 \gamma \gamma^{-1}}{2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{\gamma}{\gamma^2} ||y - y_{t+1}||^2.\]  

(4.4.37)

Using the above two relations, (4.4.26), (4.4.27) and (4.4.30), we have
which together with (4.4.21), then clearly imply (4.4.35).

Also observe that we need to estimate (4.4.24)–(4.4.26) hold. Below we provide such an example.

Corollary 4.1. Suppose that (4.4.34) holds. In Algorithm 4.2, if the parameters are set to

\[ \beta_t = \frac{t+1}{2}, \quad \theta_t = \frac{t-1}{t}, \quad \eta_t = \frac{t}{2L_j + t\|A\|D_Y/D_X}, \quad \tau_t = \frac{D_Y}{\|A\|D_X}, \quad (4.4.38) \]

then for all \( t \geq 2 \),

\[ g(\zeta_t) \leq \frac{4L_j D_X^2}{t(t-1)} + \frac{4\|A\|D_Y D_X}{t}. \quad (4.4.39) \]

Proof. It suffices to verify that the parameters in (4.4.38) satisfies (4.4.24)–(4.4.26) in Theorem 4.6. It is easy to check that (4.4.24) and (4.4.25) hold. Furthermore,

\[ \frac{1}{\beta_t} - \frac{L_j}{\beta_t} - \|A\|^2 \tau_t = \frac{2L_j + t\|A\|D_Y/D_X}{t} - \frac{2L_j}{t+1} - \frac{\|A\|D_Y}{D_X} \geq 0, \]

so (4.4.26) holds. Therefore, by (4.4.35), for all \( t \geq 1 \) we have

\[
\begin{align*}
g(\zeta_t) & \leq \frac{1}{\beta_t - \|A\|^2 \tau_t} - \frac{1}{\beta_t - \|A\|^2 \tau_t} - \frac{1}{\|A\|D_X} \cdot D_X^2 \\
& = \frac{1}{\beta_t - \|A\|^2 \tau_t} - \frac{1}{\beta_t - \|A\|^2 \tau_t} - \frac{1}{\|A\|D_X} \cdot D_X^2 \\
& = \frac{4L_j D_X^2}{t(t-1)} + \frac{4\|A\|D_Y D_X}{t}.
\end{align*}
\]

Clearly, in view of (4.4.4), the rate of convergence of Algorithm 4.2 applied to problem (4.4.1) is optimal when the parameters are chosen according to (4.4.38). Also observe that we need to estimate \( D_Y/D_X \) to use these parameters. However, it should be pointed out that replacing the ratio \( D_Y/D_X \) in (4.4.38) by any positive constant only results in an increase in the RHS of (4.4.39) by a constant factor.

Now, we study the convergence properties of the APD algorithm for the case when \( Z = X \times Y \) is unbounded, by using a perturbation-based termination criterion based on the enlargement of a maximal monotone operator. More specifically, it can be seen that there always exists a perturbation vector \( v \) such that

\[ g(\tilde{z}, v) := \max_{z \in Z} Q(\tilde{z}, z) - \langle v, \tilde{z} - z \rangle \quad (4.4.40) \]

is well-defined, although the value of \( g(\tilde{z}) \) in (4.4.21) may be unbounded if \( Z \) is unbounded. In the following result, we show that the APD algorithm can compute a nearly optimal solution \( \tilde{z} \) with a small residue \( g(\tilde{z}, v) \), for a small perturbation vector \( v \) (i.e., \( \|v\| \) is small). In addition, our derived iteration complexity bounds are
proportional to the distance from the initial point to the solution set. For the case when $Z$ is unbounded, we assume that $V_X(x, x_t) = \|x - x_t\|^2 / 2$ and $V_Y(y, y_t) = \|y - y_t\|^2 / 2$ in Algorithm 4.2, where the norms are induced by the inner products.

We will first prove a technical result which specializes the results in Lemma 4.7 for the case when (4.4.44), (4.4.41) and (4.4.42) hold.

**Lemma 4.8.** Let $\hat{z} = (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \in Z$ be a saddle point of (4.4.1). If the parameters $\beta_t, \theta_t, \eta_t$ and $\tau_t$ satisfy (4.4.24),

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_t &= \frac{\eta_t - 1}{\eta_t} = \frac{\tilde{\tau}_t - 1}{\tilde{\tau}_t}, \quad (4.4.41) \\
\frac{1}{\eta_t} - \frac{L_f}{\beta_t} - \frac{\|A\|^2 \tilde{\tau}_t}{L_m} &\geq 0, \quad (4.4.42)
\end{align*}
\]

then for all $t \geq 1$,

\[
\begin{align*}
\|\hat{x} - x_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{\eta_t (1 - \theta_t)}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|\hat{y} - y_{t+1}\|^2 &\leq \|\hat{x} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{\eta_t \beta_t}{\tilde{\tau}_t} \|\hat{y} - y_t\|^2, \\
\tilde{g}(z_{t+1}, v_{t+1}) &\leq \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 =: \tilde{\delta}_{t+1},
\end{align*}
\]

where $\tilde{g}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is defined in (4.4.40) and

\[
\begin{align*}
v_{t+1} &= \left(\frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t}(x_t - x_{t+1}), \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t}(y_t - y_{t+1}) - \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} A(x_{t+1} - x_t)\right).
\end{align*}
\]

**Proof.** It is easy to check that the conditions in Lemma 4.7 are satisfied. By (4.4.41), (4.4.27) in Lemma 4.7 becomes

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_t Q(z_{t+1}, z) &\leq \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|x - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|y - y_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|y - y_{t+1}\|^2 \\
&\quad + \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle - \left(\frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} - \frac{L_f}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

To prove (4.4.43), observe that

\[
\begin{align*}
\langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle &\leq \frac{\|A\|^2 \tilde{\tau}_t}{2 \tilde{\tau}_t} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{\tilde{\tau}_t}{L_m} \|y - y_{t+1}\|^2
\end{align*}
\]

where $p$ is the constant in (4.4.42). By (4.4.42) and the above two inequalities, we get

\[
\begin{align*}
\beta_t Q(z_{t+1}, z) &\leq \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|x - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|y - y_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\tau}_t \eta_t} \|y - y_{t+1}\|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

Letting $z = \hat{z}$ in the above, and using the fact that $Q(\hat{z}_{t+1}, \hat{z}) \geq 0$, we obtain (4.4.43). Now we prove (4.4.44). Noting that

\[
\begin{align*}
\|x - x_{t+1}\|^2 - \|x - x_t\|^2 &= 2\langle x_{t+1} - x_t, x \rangle + \|x_t\|^2 - \|x_{t+1}\|^2 \\
= 2\langle x_{t+1} - x_t, x - \tilde{x}_{t+1} \rangle + 2\langle x_{t+1} - x_t, \tilde{x}_{t+1} \rangle + \|x_{t+1}\|^2 - \|x_{t+1}\|^2 \\
= 2\langle x_{t+1} - x_t, x - \tilde{x}_{t+1} \rangle + \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_{t+1}\|^2,
\end{align*}
\]
we conclude from (4.4.42) and (4.4.46) that for any \( z \in Z \),

\[
\begin{align*}
&\frac{1}{\theta_t} \langle \beta_t, Q(\tilde{x}_{t+1}, z) \rangle + \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), \tilde{y}_{t+1} - y \rangle \\
&\quad - \frac{1}{\theta_t} \langle x_t - x_{t+1}, \tilde{x}_{t+1} - x \rangle - \frac{1}{\tau_t} \langle y_t - y_{t+1}, \tilde{y}_{t+1} - y \rangle \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} \left( \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_{t+1}\|^2 \right) + \frac{1}{\tau_t} \left( \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}\|^2 \right) \\
&\quad + \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), \tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1} \rangle - \left( \frac{L_f}{\theta_t} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} \left( \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_{t+1}\|^2 \right) + \frac{1}{\tau_t} \left( \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}\|^2 \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{\theta_t}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}\|^2 - \left( \frac{1}{\theta_t} - \frac{L_f}{\tau_t} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}\|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

The result in (4.4.44) and (4.4.45) immediately follows from the above inequality and (4.4.40).

We are now ready to establish the convergence of Algorithm 4.2 when \( X \) or \( Y \) is unbounded.

**Theorem 4.7.** Let \( \{\tilde{x}_t\} = \{(\tilde{x}_t, \tilde{y}_t)\} \) be the iterates generated by Algorithm 4.2 with \( V_X(x, x_t) = \|x - x_t\|^2 / 2 \) and \( V_Y(y, y_t) = \|y - y_t\|^2 / 2 \). Assume that the parameters \( \beta_t, \theta_t, \eta_t \) and \( \tau_t \) satisfy (4.4.24), (4.4.41) and (4.4.42) for all \( t \geq 1 \) and for some \( 0 < p < 1 \), then there exists a perturbation vector \( v_{t+1} \) such that

\[
\tilde{g}(\tilde{x}_{t+1}^g, v_{t+1}) \leq \frac{(2-p)\alpha^2}{4 \eta_t (1-p)} = \varepsilon_{t+1}
\]

for any \( t \geq 1 \). Moreover, we have

\[
\|v_{t+1}\| \leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \|\tilde{x} - x_t\| + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{y} - y_t\| + \left[ \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\eta_t}{\tau_t}} \right) + \frac{2|A|}{\beta_t} \right] D,
\]

(4.4.50)

where \((\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})\) is a pair of solutions for problem (4.4.1) and

\[
D := \sqrt{\|\tilde{x} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{\eta_t}{\tau_t} \|\tilde{y} - y_t\|^2}.
\]

(4.4.51)

**Proof.** We have established the expressions of \( v_{t+1} \) and \( \delta_{t+1} \) in Lemma 4.8. It suffices to estimate the bound on \( \|v_{t+1}\| \) and \( \delta_{t+1} \). It follows from the definition of \( D \), (4.4.41) and (4.4.43) that for all \( t \geq 1 \), \( \|\tilde{x} - x_{t+1}\| \leq D \) and \( \|\tilde{y} - y_{t+1}\| \leq D \sqrt{\frac{\eta_t}{\tau_t (1-p)}} \). Now by (4.4.45), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\|v_{t+1}\| &\leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \|\tilde{x} - x_{t+1}\| + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{y} - y_{t+1}\| + \frac{|A|}{\beta_t} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\| \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( \|\tilde{x} - x_t\| + \|\tilde{x} - x_{t+1}\| \right) + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \left( \|\tilde{y} - y_t\| + \|\tilde{y} - y_{t+1}\| \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{|A|}{\beta_t} \left( \|\tilde{x} - x_{t+1}\| + \|\tilde{x} - x_t\| \right) \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( \|\tilde{x} - x_t\| \right) + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \left( \|\tilde{y} - y_t\| \right) + \left[ \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\eta_t}{\tau_t}} \right) + \frac{2|A|}{\beta_t} \right] D \\
&= \frac{1}{\beta_t} \|\tilde{x} - x_t\| + \frac{1}{\theta_t} \|\tilde{y} - y_t\| + D \left[ \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( 1 + \sqrt{\frac{\eta_t}{\tau_t}} \right) + \frac{2|A|}{\beta_t} \right].
\end{align*}
\]
To estimate the bound of $\delta_{t+1}$, consider the sequence $\{y_t\}$ defined in (4.4.22). Using the fact that $(\beta_{t+1} - 1)y_{t+1} = \beta_t y_t$ due to (4.4.24) and (4.4.22), and applying (4.4.16) and (4.4.17) inductively, we have

$$\tilde{x}_{t+1} = \frac{1}{\beta_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} y_{i+1}, \quad \tilde{y}_{t+1} = \frac{1}{\beta_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} y_{i+1} \text{ and } \frac{1}{\beta_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} y_i = 1.$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.4.52)

Thus $\tilde{x}_{t+1}$ and $\tilde{y}_{t+1}$ are convex combinations of sequences $\{x_{i+1}\}_{i=1}^{t}$ and $\{y_{i+1}\}_{i=1}^{t}$. Using these relations and (4.4.43), we have

$$\delta_{t+1} = \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( \left\| \tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_1 \right\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\beta_t}{\beta_t} \left\| \tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_1 \right\|^2 \right) \leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \left( \left\| \tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_1 \right\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\beta_t}{\beta_t} \left\| \tilde{y}_{t+1} - y_1 \right\|^2 \right) = \frac{1}{\beta_t} \frac{D^2}{\beta_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left( \right) \leq \frac{1}{\beta_t} \frac{D^2}{\beta_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left( \right) = \left( \right).$$

Below we suggest a specific parameter setting which satisfies (4.4.24), (4.4.41) and (4.4.42).

**Corollary 4.2.** In Algorithm 4.2, if $N$ is given and the parameters are set to

$$\beta_t = \frac{a-1}{2}, \quad \theta_t = \frac{a-1}{2}, \quad \eta_t = \frac{a+1}{2L(t+N)}, \text{ and } \tau_t = \frac{a+1}{2N}$$

then there exists $\nu_t$ that satisfies (4.4.49) with

$$\nu_t \leq \frac{10L \beta_t^2}{N^2} + \frac{10|A| \beta_t^2}{N^2} \text{ and } \left\| \nu_t \right\| \leq \frac{15L \beta_t^2}{N^2} + \frac{19|A| \beta_t^2}{N^2},$$

where $\beta_t$ is defined in (4.4.22).

**Proof.** For the parameters $\beta_t, \gamma_t, \eta_t$, and $\tau_t$ in (4.4.53), it is clear that (4.4.24), (4.4.41) holds. Furthermore, let $p = 1/4$, for any $t = 1, \ldots, N - 1$, we have

$$\frac{1}{\beta_t} - \frac{10L \beta_t^2}{N^2} - \frac{10|A| \beta_t^2}{N^2} = \frac{2L \beta_t^2 + 2|A| |N| \beta_t^2}{N^2} - \frac{2L \beta_t^2 + 2|A| |N| \beta_t^2}{N^2} = \frac{2L \beta_t^2 + 2|A| |N| \beta_t^2}{N^2} - \frac{2L \beta_t^2 + 2|A| |N| \beta_t^2}{N^2} \geq 0,$$

thus (4.4.42) holds. By Theorem 4.7, inequalities (4.4.49) and (4.4.50) hold. Noting that $\eta_t \leq \tau_t$, in (4.4.49) and (4.4.50) we have $D \leq \beta_t \left\| \tilde{x}_t \right\| + \left\| \tilde{y}_t \right\| \leq \sqrt{2D}$, hence

$$\left\| \nu_{t+1} \right\| \leq \frac{\sqrt{D}}{\beta_t} + \frac{1 + \sqrt{D}}{\beta_t} + \frac{2|A| \beta_t}{\beta_t}$$

and

$$\nu_{t+1} \leq \frac{\beta_t^2}{\beta_t^2 (1 - p)} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{D}}{2 \beta_t^2}.$$
Also note that by (4.4.53), \( \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1} \eta_{N-1}} = \frac{4L_f + \|A\|N}{N^2} = \frac{4L_f}{N^2} + \frac{4\|A\|}{N} \). Using these three relations and the definition of \( \tilde{\beta}_t \) in (4.4.53), we obtain (4.4.54) after simplifying the constants.

It is interesting to notice that, if the parameters in Algorithm 4.2 are set to (4.4.53), then both residues \( \epsilon_N \) and \( \|v_N\| \) in (4.4.54) reduce to zero with approximately the same rate of convergence (up to a factor of \( \tilde{D} \)).

### 4.4.2 Stochastic bilinear saddle point problems

In order to solve stochastic SPP, i.e., problem (4.4.1) with a stochastic first-order oracle, we develop a stochastic counterpart of the APD method, namely stochastic APD and demonstrate that it can actually achieve the rate of convergence given by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left\{ (L_f + \|A\| + \sigma_x + \sigma_y) \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \right\}. \tag{4.4.55}
\]

Therefore, this algorithm further improves the error bound in (4.4.8) in terms of its dependence on \( \|A\| \). In fact it can be shown that such a rate of convergence is theoretically not improvable for the stochastic SPP described above unless certain special properties are assumed.

The stochastic APD method is obtained by replacing the gradient operators \( -A\tilde{x}_t, \nabla \tilde{f}(x_{md}^t) \) and \( A^T y_{t+1} \), used in (4.4.13) and (4.4.14), with the stochastic gradient operators computed by the SFO, i.e., \( -\tilde{A}_t(x_t), \tilde{G}(x_t) \) and \( \tilde{A}_t(y_{t+1}) \), respectively. This algorithm is formally described as in Algorithm 4.3.

**Algorithm 4.3 Stochastic APD method for stochastic SPP**

Modify (4.4.13) and (4.4.14) in Algorithm 4.2 to

\[
y_{t+1} = \arg\min_{y} \{ -\tilde{A}_t(x_t), y \} + \tilde{g}(y) + \frac{1}{2} V_{\tilde{F}}(y, y_t), \tag{4.4.56}
\]

\[
x_{t+1} = \arg\min_{x} \{ \tilde{G}(x_t), x \} + \langle x, \tilde{A}_t(y_{t+1}) \rangle + \frac{1}{2\eta} V_X(x, x_t). \tag{4.4.57}
\]

As noted earlier, one possible way to solve stochastic SPP is to apply the accelerated stochastic gradient descent method to a certain smooth approximation of (4.4.1). However, the rate of convergence of this approach will depend on the variance of the stochastic gradients computed for the smooth approximation problem, which is usually unknown and difficult to characterize. On the other hand, the stochastic APD method described above works directly with the original problem without requiring the application of the smoothing technique, and its rate of convergence will depend on the variance of the stochastic gradient operators computed for the original problem, i.e., \( \sigma_{x,f}^2, \sigma_{y}^2 \) and \( \sigma_{x,A}^2 \).
Similarly to Section 4.4.1, we use the two gap functions \( g(\cdot) \) and \( \tilde{g}(\cdot, \cdot) \), respectively, defined in (4.4.21) and (4.4.40) as the termination criteria for the stochastic APD algorithm, depending on whether the feasible set \( Z = X \times Y \) is bounded or not. More specifically, we establish the convergence of the stochastic APD method for case when \( Z \) is bounded or unbounded in Theorems 4.8 and 4.9, respectively. Since the algorithm is stochastic in nature, for both cases we establish its expected rate of convergence in terms of \( g(\cdot) \) or \( \tilde{g}(\cdot, \cdot) \), i.e., the “average” rate of convergence over many runs of the algorithm. In addition, we show that if \( Z \) is bounded, then the convergence of the APD algorithm can be strengthened under the following “light-tail” assumption on the stochastic first-order oracle.

**Assumption 9**

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \| \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \tilde{G}(x) \|^2 / \sigma^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \},
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \| Ax - \tilde{A}_x(x) \|^2 / \sigma^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \| A^T y - \tilde{A}_y(y) \|^2 / \sigma^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}.
\]

Let \( \tilde{G}(x), \tilde{A}_x(x) \) and \( \tilde{A}_y(y) \) be the output from the SFO at the \( t \)-th iteration of Algorithm 4.3. We denote

\[
\Delta'_{x,j} := \tilde{G}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(x^{\text{mid}}), \quad \Delta'_{x,A} := \tilde{A}_x(y_{t+1}) - A^T y_{t+1}, \quad \Delta'_{y} := -\tilde{A}_y(x_t) + A \bar{x}.
\]

\[
\Delta_i' := \Delta'_{x,j} + \Delta'_{x,A} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta' := (\Delta'_i, \Delta'_{y}).
\]

Moreover, for a given \( z = (x, y) \in Z \), let us denote \( \| z \|^2 = \| x \|^2 + \| y \|^2 \) and its associate dual norm for \( \Delta = (\Delta_x, \Delta_y) \) by \( \| \Delta \|^2 = \| \Delta_x \|^2 + \| \Delta_y \|^2 \). We also define the Bregman divergence \( V(z, \bar{z}) := V_X(x, \bar{x}) + V_Y(y, \bar{y}) \) for \( z = (x, y) \) and \( \bar{z} = (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \).

We first need to estimate a bound on \( Q(z_{t+1}, z) \) for all \( z \in Z \). This result is analogous to Lemma 4.7 for the deterministic APD method.

**Lemma 4.9.** Let \( \bar{z}_t = (\bar{x}_t, \bar{y}_t) \) be the iterates generated by Algorithm 4.3. Assume that the parameters \( \beta_t, \theta_t, \eta_t, \tau_t \) satisfy (4.4.24), (4.4.25) and

\[
\frac{q}{p} - \frac{L_j}{\eta_t} - \frac{\| A \|^2 \tau_t}{p} \geq 0 \tag{4.4.58}
\]

for some \( p, q \in (0, 1) \). Then, for any \( z \in Z \), we have

\[
\beta_t Q(z_{t+1}, z) \leq B_t(z, z_{q[t]}) + \gamma \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y - y_{t+1} \rangle
\]

\[
- \gamma \left( \frac{q}{p} - \frac{L_j}{\eta_t} \right) \| x_{t+1} - x_t \|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \Sigma'_i(z), \tag{4.4.59}
\]

where \( \gamma \) and \( B_t(z, z_{q[t]}), \) respectively, are defined in (4.4.22) and (4.4.28), \( z_{[t]} = \{ (x_i, y_i) \}_{i=1}^{t+1} \) and
\[ \mathcal{A}(z) := -\frac{(1 - p)\eta}{\sqrt{p}} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{(1 - p)\eta}{\sqrt{p}} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \gamma \langle \Delta'_t, z_{t+1} - z \rangle. \] (4.4.60)

**Proof.** Similar to (4.4.29) and (4.4.31), we conclude from the optimality conditions of (4.4.56) and (4.4.57) that

\[ (-\hat{A}_t(x_t), y_{t+1} - y) + \hat{g}(y_{t+1}) - \hat{g}(y) \leq \frac{1}{\eta} V_F(y, y_t) - \frac{1}{2\eta^2} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\eta} V_F(y, y_{t+1}), \]
\[ \langle \hat{g}(y), x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle + \langle x_t + x_t - x, \hat{A}_t(y_{t+1}) \rangle \leq \frac{1}{\eta} V_X(x, x_t) - \frac{1}{2\eta^2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{1}{\eta} V_X(x, x_{t+1}). \]

Now we establish an important recursion for Algorithm 4.3. Observing that Proposition 4.12 also holds for Algorithm 4.3, and applying the above two inequalities to (4.4.23) in Proposition 4.12, similar to (4.4.33), we have

\[ \beta \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_t - 1) \gamma Q(\bar{z}_t, z) \leq \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_X(x, x_t) - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_X(x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_Y(y, y_t) - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_Y(y, y_{t+1}) \]
\[ + \gamma \left( \langle A(x_t - x_t), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle - \gamma(y_t - y_{t+1}) \right) \]
\[ - \gamma \left( \frac{L}{2\eta^2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{L}{2\eta^2} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \gamma(y_t - y_{t+1}) \right) \]
\[ - \gamma \langle \Delta'_{t+1}, x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle - \gamma \langle \Delta'_t, y_{t+1} - y_t \rangle, \quad \forall z \in Z. \] (4.4.61)

By Cauchy-Schwartz inequality and (4.4.25), for all \( p \in (0, 1), \)

\[ - \gamma \langle A(x_t - x_{t-1}), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle \leq \gamma \|A(x_t - x_{t-1})\| \|y_t - y_{t+1}\| \]
\[ \leq \|A\| \|y_{t-1}\| \|x_t - x_{t-1}\| \|y_t - y_{t+1}\| \leq \frac{\|A\|^2 \eta^2 \gamma}{2\eta^2} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 + \frac{p\eta}{2\eta^2} \|y_t - y_{t+1}\|^2 \]
\[ \leq \frac{\|A\|^2 \eta \gamma + \bar{F}_{t+1}}{2p} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 + \frac{p\eta}{2\eta^2} \|y_t - y_{t+1}\|^2. \] (4.4.62)

By (4.4.24), (4.4.60), (4.4.61) and (4.4.62), we can develop the following recursion for Algorithm 4.3:

\[ (\beta_t + 1) \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_t - 1) \gamma Q(\bar{z}_t, z) \leq \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_X(x, x_t) - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_X(x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_Y(y, y_t) - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{p}} V_Y(y, y_{t+1}) \]
\[ + \gamma \left( \langle A(x_t - x_t), y_t - y_{t+1} \rangle - \gamma(y_t - y_{t+1}) \right) \]
\[ - \gamma \left( \frac{L}{2\eta^2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 - \frac{L}{2\eta^2} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2 - \gamma(y_t - y_{t+1}) \right) \]
\[ - \gamma \langle \Delta'_{t+1}, x_{t+1} - x_t \rangle - \gamma \langle \Delta'_t, y_{t+1} - y_t \rangle, \quad \forall z \in Z. \]

Applying the above inequality inductively and assuming that \( x_0 = x_1, \) we obtain

\[ (\beta_1 + 1) \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) - (\beta_1 - 1) \gamma Q(\bar{z}_1, z) \leq B_t(z, z_{t+1}) + \gamma \langle A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y_{t+1} - y_{t+1} \rangle - \gamma \left( \frac{L}{2\eta^2} \|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 \right) \]
\[ - \sum_{i=1}^{t+1} \gamma \left( \frac{L}{2\eta^2} - \frac{\|A\|^2 \gamma}{2p} \right) \|x_{i+1} - x_i\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t+1} \mathcal{A}(x_i), \quad \forall z \in Z. \]
Relation (4.4.59) then follows immediately from the above inequality, (4.4.24) and (4.4.58).

We also need the following technical result whose proof is based on Lemma 4.3.

**Lemma 4.10.** Let \( \eta_i, \tau_i \) and \( \gamma_i \), \( i = 1, 2, \ldots \), be given positive constants. For any \( z_1 \in \mathbb{Z} \), if we define \( z_i^* = z_1 \) and

\[
z_i^* = \arg\min_{z \in (x,y) \in \mathbb{Z}} \left\{ -\eta_i \langle \Delta_i^t, x \rangle - \tau_i \langle \Delta_i^t, y \rangle + V(x, z_i^*) \right\},
\]

then

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i \langle -\Delta_i^t, z_i^* - z \rangle \leq B_i(z, z_i^*) + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\eta_i}{2} \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\tau_i}{2} \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2,
\]

where \( z_i^* := \{ z_i^* \}_{i=1}^t \) and \( B_i(z, z_i^*) \) is defined in (4.4.28).

**Proof.** Noting that (4.4.63) implies \( z_i^* = (x_i^*, y_i^*) \) where

\[
x_i^{t+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ -\eta_1 \langle \Delta_1^t, x \rangle + V(x, x_i^t) \right\}
\]

\[
y_i^{t+1} = \arg\min_{y \in Y} \left\{ -\tau_1 \langle \Delta_1^t, y \rangle + V(y, y_i^t) \right\},
\]

from Lemma 4.3 we have

\[
V(x, x_i^{t+1}) \leq V(x, x_i^t) - \eta_1 \langle \Delta_i^t, x - x_i^t \rangle + \frac{\eta_i^2 \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2},
\]

\[
V(y, y_i^{t+1}) \leq V(y, y_i^t) - \tau_1 \langle \Delta_i^t, y - y_i^t \rangle + \frac{\tau_i^2 \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2},
\]

for all \( i \geq 1 \). Thus

\[
\frac{\eta_1}{\eta_1} V(x, x_i^{t+1}) \leq \frac{\eta_1}{\eta_1} V(x, x_i^t) - \gamma_1 \langle \Delta_i^t, x - x_i^t \rangle + \frac{\gamma_i \eta_i \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2},
\]

\[
\frac{\eta_1}{\eta_1} V(y, y_i^{t+1}) \leq \frac{\eta_1}{\eta_1} V(y, y_i^t) - \gamma_1 \langle \Delta_i^t, y - y_i^t \rangle + \frac{\gamma_i \tau_i \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2}.
\]

Adding the above two inequalities together, and summing up them from \( i = 1 \) to \( t \) we get

\[
0 \leq B_i(z, z_i^*) - \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i \langle \Delta_i^t, z - z_i^* \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\eta_i \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\tau_i \| \Delta_i^t \|_2^2}{2},
\]

so (4.5.35) holds.

We are now ready to establish the convergence of stochastic APD for the case when \( Z \) is bounded.

**Theorem 4.8.** Suppose that (4.4.34) holds for some \( D_X, D_Y > 0 \). Also assume that for all \( t \geq 1 \), the parameters \( \beta_i, \theta_i, \eta_i \) and \( \tau_i \) in Algorithm 4.3 satisfy (4.4.24), (4.4.25), and (4.4.58) for some \( p, q \in (0, 1) \). Then,

a) Under assumption 8, for all \( t \geq 1 \),
where similar to (4.4.36) we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[g(\bar{z}_{t+1})] \leq Q_0(t),
\] (4.4.65)
where
\[
Q_0(t) := \frac{1}{\beta \eta^t} \left\{ \frac{4\eta}{\eta} D_X^2 + \frac{4\eta}{\eta} D_Y^2 \right\} + \frac{1}{2\beta \eta^t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left\{ \frac{(2-q)\eta}{1-q} \sigma_i^2 + \frac{(2-p)\eta}{1-p} \sigma_j^2 \right\}.
\] (4.4.66)

b) Under assumption 11, for all \( \lambda > 0 \) and \( t \geq 1 \),
\[
\text{Prob}\{g(\bar{z}_{t+1}) > Q_0(t) + \lambda Q_1(t)\} \leq 3\exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + 3\exp\{-\lambda\},
\] (4.4.67)
where
\[
Q_1(t) := \frac{1}{\beta \eta^t} \left( 2\sigma^2 D_X + \sqrt{2}\sigma D_Y \right) \sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i^2} + \frac{1}{2\beta \eta^t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left\{ \frac{(2-q)\eta}{1-q} \sigma_i^2 + \frac{(2-p)\eta}{1-p} \sigma_j^2 \right\}.
\] (4.4.68)

Proof. Firstly, applying the bounds in (4.4.36) and (4.4.37) to (4.4.59), we get
\[
\beta_i \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) \leq \frac{\eta}{\eta} D_X^2 \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} V_X(x, x_{t+1}) + \frac{\eta}{\eta} D_Y^2 \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} V_Y(y, y_{t+1}) + \frac{\eta}{\eta} \|y - y_{t+1}\|^2
\]
\[
- \gamma \left( \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} - \frac{L^p}{\eta^2} \right) \|x_{t+1} - x_i\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} A_i(z)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{\eta}{\eta} D_X^2 + \frac{\eta}{\eta} D_Y^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} A_i(z), \quad \forall z \in Z.
\] (4.4.69)

By (4.4.60), we have
\[
A_i(z) = - \frac{(1-q)C}{2\eta} \|x_{t+1} - x_i\|^2 - \frac{(1-p)\gamma}{2\eta} \|y_{t+1} - y_i\|^2 + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z - z_{t+1} \rangle
\]
\[
= - \frac{(1-q)C}{2\eta} \|x_{t+1} - x_i\|^2 - \frac{(1-p)\gamma}{2\eta} \|y_{t+1} - y_i\|^2 + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z_i - z_{t+1} \rangle + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z_i - z_{t+1} \rangle
\]
\[
\leq \frac{\eta}{2(1-q)} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \frac{\gamma}{2(1-p)} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z_i - z_i \rangle,
\] (4.4.70)
where the last relation follows from Young’s inequality. For all \( i \geq 1 \), letting \( \bar{z}_i^* = z_1 \), and \( z_{t+1} \), as in (4.4.63), we conclude from (4.4.70) and Lemma 4.10 that, \( \forall z \in Z \),
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{t} A_i(z) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left\{ \frac{\eta}{2(1-q)} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \frac{\gamma}{2(1-p)} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z_i - z_i \rangle \right\}
\]
\[
\leq \mathcal{B}_i(z, z_i^*) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left\{ \frac{(2-q)\eta}{1-q} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \frac{(2-p)\eta}{1-p} \|\Delta^i\|^2 + \gamma \langle \Delta^i, z_i^* - z_i \rangle \right\} + \mathcal{U}_i
\] (4.4.71)
where similar to (4.4.36) we have \( \mathcal{B}_i(z, z_i^*) \leq D_X^2 \gamma / \eta^t + D_Y^2 \gamma / \eta^t \). Using the above inequality, (4.4.21), (4.4.34) and (4.4.69), we obtain
\[
\beta_i \gamma g(\bar{z}_{t+1}) \leq \frac{2\eta}{\eta^t} D_X^2 + \frac{2\gamma}{\eta^t} D_Y^2 + U_i.
\] (4.4.72)
Now it suffices to bound the above quantity \( U_i \), both in expectation (part a)) and in probability (part b)).

We first show part a). Note that by our assumptions on SFO, at iteration \( i \) of Algorithm 4.3, the random noises \( \Delta^i \) are independent of \( z_i \) and hence \( \mathbb{E}[(\Delta^i, z - z_i)] = 0 \). In addition, Assumption 8 implies that \( \mathbb{E}[\|\Delta_i\|^2] \leq \sigma_{x,i}^2 + \sigma_{x,A}^2 = \sigma_x^2 \) (noting that \( \Delta_{x,i}^i \) and \( \Delta_{x,A}^i \) are independent at iteration \( i \)), and \( \mathbb{E}[\|\Delta_i\|^2] \leq \sigma_y^2 \). Therefore,

\[
\mathbb{E}[U_i] \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^t \left\{ \frac{(2-q)\eta y \sigma_x^2}{1-q} + \frac{(2-p)\zeta y \sigma_y^2}{1-p} \right\}. \tag{4.4.73}
\]

Taking expectation on both sides of (4.4.72) and using the above inequality, we obtain (4.4.65).

We now show that part b) holds. Note that by our assumptions on SFO and the definition of \( z_i^* \), the sequences \( \{\langle \Delta_{x,i}^i, x_i^* - x_i \rangle\}_{i \geq 1} \) is a martingale-difference sequence. By the large-deviation theorem for martingale-difference sequence (see Lemma 4.1), and the fact that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \gamma^2 (\Delta_{x,i}^i, x_i^* - x_i)^2 / \left( 2 \gamma^2 D_X^2 \sigma_{x,i}^2 \right) \right\}] 
\leq \mathbb{E}[\exp \left\{ \|\Delta_{x,i}^i\|^2 \|x_i^* - x_i\|^2 / \left( 2D_X^2 \sigma_{x,i}^2 \right) \right\}] 
\leq \mathbb{E}[\exp \left\{ \|\Delta_{x,i}^i\|^2 V_X(x_i^*, x_i) / \left( D_X^2 \sigma_{x,i}^2 \right) \right\}] 
\leq \mathbb{E}[\exp \left\{ \|\Delta_{x,i}^i\|^2 / \sigma_{x,i}^2 \right\}] \leq \exp \{1\},
\]

we conclude that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta_{x,i}^i, x_i^* - x_i) > \lambda \cdot \sigma_{x,i} D_X \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda} \lambda^2 / \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}, \forall \lambda > 0.
\]

By using a similar argument, we can show that, \( \forall \lambda > 0, \)

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta_{x,i}^i, y_i - y_i) > \lambda \cdot \sigma_{x,i} D_Y \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda} \lambda^2 / \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}, \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta_{x,i}^i, x - x_i) > \lambda \cdot \sigma_{x,A} D_X \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda} \lambda^2 / \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}. \]

Using the previous three inequalities and the fact that \( \sigma_{x,i} + \sigma_{x,A} \leq \sqrt{2} \sigma_x \), we have, \( \forall \lambda > 0, \)

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta_{x,i}^i, z_i^* - z_i) > \lambda \left[ \sqrt{2} \sigma_x D_X + \sigma_{x,A} D_Y \right] \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda} \lambda^2 / \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2} \right\} \leq \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta_{x,i}^i, z_i^* - z_i) > \lambda \left[ (\sigma_{x,i} + \sigma_{x,A}) D_X + \sigma_{x,A} D_Y \right] \sqrt{\frac{2}{\lambda} \lambda^2 / \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2} \right\} \leq 3 \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}. \tag{4.4.74}
\]
Now let $S_t := (2 - q) \eta_t \gamma_t / (1 - q)$ and $S := \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i$. By the convexity of exponential function, we have

$$
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i \| A_{x,j}^i \|^2 / \sigma_{x,j}^2 \right\} \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{\lambda} S_i \| A_{x,j}^i \|^2 / \sigma_{x,j}^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{1\},
$$

where the last inequality follows from Assumption 11. Therefore, by Markov’s inequality, for all $\lambda > 0$,

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} \| A_{x,j}^i \|^2 > (1+\lambda) \sigma_{x,j}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} \right\} = \text{Prob} \left\{ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^{t} S_i \| A_{x,j}^i \|^2 / \sigma_{x,j}^2 \right\} \geq \exp \{1+\lambda\} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\}.
$$

Using an similar argument, we can show that

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} \| A_{x,A}^i \|^2 > (1+\lambda) \sigma_{x,A}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\},
$$

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-p)\tau_t \zeta_t}{1-p} \| A_{y,j}^i \|^2 > (1+\lambda) \sigma_{y,j}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-p)\tau_t \zeta_t}{1-p} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\}.
$$

Combining the previous three inequalities, we obtain

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} \| A_{x,j}^i \|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-p)\tau_t \zeta_t}{1-p} \| A_{y,j}^i \|^2 > (1+\lambda) \left[ \sigma_{x,j}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-q)\eta_t \gamma_t}{1-q} + \sigma_{y,j}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(2-p)\tau_t \zeta_t}{1-p} \right] \right\} \leq 3 \exp \{-\lambda\},
$$

(4.4.75)

Our result now follows directly from (4.4.71), (4.4.72), (4.4.74) and (4.4.75).

We provide below a specific choice of the parameters $\beta_t$, $\theta_t$, $\eta_t$ and $\tau_t$ for the stochastic APD method for the case when $Z$ is bounded.

**Corollary 4.3.** Suppose that (4.4.34) holds. In Algorithm 4.3, if the parameters are set to

$$
\beta_t = \frac{t+1}{\tau}, \quad \theta_t = \frac{t-1}{\tau}, \quad \eta_t = \frac{2\sqrt{D_x}}{6\sqrt{D_y} + 3\sqrt{2} \| A \| D_y + 3\sigma_x^2 \sqrt{t}} \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_t = \frac{2\sqrt{D_y}}{3\sqrt{2} \| A \| D_x + 3\sigma_x^2 \sqrt{t}}.
$$

(4.4.76)

Then under Assumption 8, (4.4.65) holds, and

$$
Q_0(t) \leq \frac{12L_t^2D_y^2}{t(t+1)} + \frac{6\sqrt{2\| A \| D_x D_y}}{t} + \frac{6\sqrt{2\| A \| D_x + \sigma_x^2 D_y}}{\sqrt{t}}.
$$

(4.4.77)

If in addition, Assumption 11 holds, then for all $\lambda > 0$, (4.4.67) holds, and

$$
Q_1(t) \leq \frac{5\sqrt{2\sigma_x D_x + 4\sqrt{2}\sigma_x D_y}}{\sqrt{t}}.
$$

(4.4.78)

**Proof.** First we check that the parameters in (4.4.76) satisfy the conditions in Theorem 4.8. The inequalities (4.4.24) and (4.4.25) can be checked easily. Furthermore, setting $p = q = 2/3$ we have for all $t \geq 1$,
Apply the above bounds to (4.4.66) and (4.5.40), we get
\[ \frac{d}{dt} \frac{L_f}{||x||^2 p} \leq \frac{2L_f D_x + ||A|| D_{yt}}{D_x} - \frac{2L_f}{r+1} \leq \frac{||A||^2 D_{yt}}{||A|| D_x} \geq 0, \]
thus (4.4.58) hold, and hence Theorem 4.8 holds. Now it suffice to show that (4.4.77) and (4.4.78) hold.

Observe that by (4.4.22) and (4.4.76), we have \( \gamma_t = t \). Also, observe that \( \sum_{i=1}^t \sqrt{i} \leq \frac{2}{3} (t+1)^{3/2} \leq \frac{2V^2}{2} (t+1) \sqrt{i} \), thus
\[ \frac{1}{\eta} \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_t \gamma_t \leq \frac{2V^2 D_D}{3 \sigma_i, t} \sum_{i=1}^t \sqrt{i} \leq \frac{8D_D (t+1) \sqrt{i}}{9 \sigma_i, t}, \]
\[ \frac{1}{\eta} \sum_{i=1}^t \tau_i \gamma_t \leq \frac{2V^2 D_D}{3 \sigma_i, t} \sum_{i=1}^t \sqrt{i} \leq \frac{8D_D (t+1) \sqrt{i}}{9 \sigma_i, t}. \]

Apply the above bounds to (4.4.66) and (4.5.40), we get
\[ Q_0(t) \leq \frac{2}{t+1} \left( \frac{6 \sqrt{2} L_f D_x + 3 \sqrt{2} ||A|| D_{yt} + 3 \sigma_i t \sqrt{3/2}}{\sqrt{2} D_x} \cdot D_X^2 + \frac{3 \sqrt{2} ||A|| D_x + 3 \sigma_i \sqrt{7}}{\sqrt{2} D_y} \cdot D_Y^2 \right) \]
\[ + 2 \sigma_i \frac{8D_D (t+1) \sqrt{i}}{9 \sigma_i, t}, \]
\[ Q_1(t) \leq \frac{2}{t+1} \left( \frac{2 \sigma_i D_D + 3 \sigma_i D_Y} \sqrt{2} t+1 \right) + 4 \sigma_i \frac{8D_D (t+1) \sqrt{i}}{9 \sigma_i, t}, \]
\[ + 4 \sigma_i \frac{8D_D (t+1) \sqrt{i}}{9 \sigma_i, t}. \]

Simplifying the above inequalities, we see that (4.4.77) and (4.4.78) hold.

In view of (4.4.77), the stochastic APD method allows us to have very large Lipschitz constants \( L_f \) (as big as \( O(N^{3/2}) \)) and \( ||A|| \) (as big as \( O(\sqrt{N}) \)) without significantly affecting its rate of convergence.

We now present the convergence results for the stochastic APD method applied to stochastic saddle-point problems with possibly unbounded feasible set \( Z \). Similar as proving Theorem 4.7, first we specialize the result of Lemma 3 under (4.4.24), (4.4.41) and (4.4.58). The following lemma is analogous to Lemma 4.8.

**Lemma 4.11.** Let \( \hat{\xi} = (\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \in Z \) be a saddle point of (4.4.1). If \( V_X(x, x_t) = ||x - x_t||^2/2 \) and \( V_Y(y, y_t) = ||y - y_t||^2/2 \) in Algorithm 4.3, and the parameters \( \beta, \theta, \eta \) and \( \tau \) satisfy (4.4.24), (4.4.41) and (4.4.58), then
\[ ||\hat{x} - x_{t+1}||^2 + ||\hat{x} - x_{t+1}||^2 + \frac{\eta (1-p)}{2} ||\hat{y} - y_{t+1}||^2 + \frac{\beta}{2} ||\hat{y} - y_{t+1}||^2 \]
\[ \leq 2 ||\hat{x} - x_t||^2 + \frac{2 \eta}{\beta} ||\hat{y} - y_t||^2 + \frac{2 \eta}{\beta} U, \]
(4.4.79)
\[ \hat{g}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1}) \leq \frac{1}{\beta} ||\hat{y}_{t+1} - x_{t+1}||^2 + \frac{1}{\beta} ||\hat{y}_{t+1} - y_{t+1}||^2 + \frac{1}{\beta} U =: \delta_{t+1}, \]
(4.4.80)
for all \( t \geq 1 \), where \( (x_{t+1}, y_{t+1}), U_t, \) and \( \hat{g}(\cdot, \cdot) \) are defined in (4.4.63), (4.4.71) and (4.4.40), respectively, and
\[ y_{t+1} = \left( \frac{1}{\beta} (2x_t - x_{t+1} - x_t), \frac{1}{\beta} (2y_t - y_{t+1} - y_t) + \frac{1}{\beta} A(x_{t+1} - x_t) \right). \]
(4.4.81)
Proof. Apply \((4.4.58)\), \((4.4.47)\) and \((4.4.71)\) to \((4.4.59)\) in Lemma 3, we get
\[
\beta \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) \leq \bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t) + \frac{P^2}{2\kappa^2} \|y - y_{t+1}\|^2 + \bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t) + U_t,
\]
where \(\bar{B}(\cdot, \cdot)\) is defined as
\[
\bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t) := \frac{\eta^2}{2\kappa^2} \|x - \bar{x}_1\|^2 - \frac{p^2}{2\kappa^2} \|x - \bar{x}_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{y^2}{2\kappa^2} \|y - \bar{y}_1\|^2 - \frac{y^2}{2\kappa^2} \|y - \bar{y}_{t+1}\|^2,
\]
for all \(z \in Z\) and \(\bar{z}_t \in Z\) thanks to \((4.4.41)\). Now letting \(z = \hat{z}\), and noting that \(Q(\hat{z}_{t+1}, \hat{z}) \geq 0\), we get \((4.4.79)\). On the other hand, if we only apply \((4.4.58)\) and \((4.4.71)\) to \((4.4.59)\) in Lemma 3, then we get
\[
\beta \gamma Q(\bar{z}_{t+1}, z) \leq \bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t) + \gamma (A(x_{t+1} - x_t), y_{t+1}) + \bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t) + U_t.
\]
Apply \((4.4.41)\) and \((4.4.48)\) to \(\bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t)\) and \(\bar{B}(z, \bar{z}_t')\) in the above inequality, we get \((4.4.80)\).

With the help of Lemma 4.11, we are ready to prove Theorem 4.9, which summarizes the convergence properties of Algorithm 4.2 when \(X\) or \(Y\) is unbounded.

Theorem 4.9. Let \(\{\hat{z}_t\} = \{(\hat{x}_t, \hat{y}_t)\}\) be the iterates generated by Algorithm 4.2 with \(V_X(x, x) = \|x - x\|^2/2\) and \(V_Y(y, y) = \|y - y\|^2/2\). Assume that the parameters \(\beta, \theta, \eta, \tau, \alpha\) in Algorithm 4.3 satisfy \((4.4.24)\), \((4.4.41)\) and \((4.4.58)\) for all \(t \geq 1\) and some \(p, q \in (0, 1)\), then there exists a perturbation vector \(v_{t+1}\) such that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\hat{g}(\hat{z}_{t+1}, v_{t+1})] \leq \frac{1}{\beta \eta} \left(\frac{6 - 4\theta}{1 - p} \eta^2 \sigma^2_0 + \frac{5 - 3\theta}{1 - p} C^2\right) =: \eta_{t+1}
\]
for any \(t \geq 1\). Moreover, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|v_{t+1}\|] \leq \frac{2\|x - x_1\|}{\beta \eta} + \frac{2\|\hat{x} - x_1\|}{\beta \eta},
\]
\[
+ \sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2} \left[\frac{2}{\beta \eta \kappa} + \frac{1}{\kappa \eta} \sqrt{\eta_{t+1}} \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{1 - p}} + 1\right) + \frac{2\|A\|}{\beta \eta}\right],
\]
where \((\hat{x}, \hat{y})\) is a pair of solutions for problem \((4.4.1)\), \(D\) is defined in \((4.4.51)\) and
\[
C := \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{t} \eta_i^2 \sigma_i^2}{1 - q} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{t} \eta_i \tau_i \sigma_i^2}{1 - p}.
\]

Proof. Let \(\delta_{t+1}\) and \(v_{t+1}\) be defined in \((4.4.80)\) and \((4.4.81)\), respectively. Also let \(C\) and \(D\), respectively, be defined in \((4.4.84)\) and \((4.4.51)\). It suffices to estimate \(\mathbb{E}[\|v_{t+1}\|]\) and \(\mathbb{E}[\delta_{t+1}]\). First it follows from \((4.4.41)\), \((4.4.84)\) and \((4.4.73)\) that
\[
\mathbb{E}[U_t] \leq \frac{\eta_{t+1}}{\beta \eta^2} C^2.
\]

Using the above inequality, \((4.4.41)\), \((4.4.51)\) and \((4.4.79)\), we have \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{x} - x_{t+1}\|^2] \leq 2D^2 + 2C^2\) and \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{y} - y_{t+1}\|^2] \leq (2D^2 + 2C^2) \tau / \eta (1 - p)\), which, by Jensen’s inequality, then imply that \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{x} - x_{t+1}\|] \leq \sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2}\) and \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{y} - y_{t+1}\|] \leq \sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2}\).
\[\sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2} \sqrt{\tau_1/\eta_1 (1 - p)}\]. Similarly, we can show that \[\mathbb{E}[\|x_{t+1} - x_t\|^2] \leq \sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2}\]
and \[\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{x}_t - x_t\|^2] \leq \sqrt{2D^2 + 2C^2} \sqrt{\tau_1/\eta_1}\].
Therefore, by (4.4.81) and the above four inequalities, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|v_{t+1}\|] \\
\leq \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\mu T} \|\tilde{x}_{t+1} - x_t\|^2 + \frac{1}{\mu T} \|y_{t+1} - y_t\|^2\right] + \frac{1}{\mu T} \mathbb{E}[U_t] \\
\leq \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\mu T} \left(\|\tilde{x}_t - x_t\|^2 + \|\tilde{x}_t - x_{t+1}\|^2\right) + \frac{2}{\mu T} \left(\|\tilde{y}_t - y_t\|^2 + \|\tilde{y}_t - y_{t+1}\|^2\right)\right] + \frac{1}{\mu T} C^2 \\
= \frac{1}{\mu T} \left(2D^2 + 2\|\tilde{x}_t - x_t\|^2 + \frac{2\eta(1 - p)}{\bar{p}} \|\tilde{y}_t - y_t\|^2 + \frac{2\eta(1 - p)}{\bar{p}} \|\tilde{y}_t - y_{t+1}\|^2\right) + \frac{1}{\mu T} C^2 \\
\leq \frac{1}{\mu T} \left(2D^2 + C^2 + \frac{2}{\mu T} \sum_{t=1}^{t-1} y_t \left(\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{x}_t - x_{t+1}\|^2] + \frac{\eta(1 - p)}{\bar{p}} \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{y}_t - y_{t+1}\|^2]\right)\right) \\
\leq \frac{1}{\mu T} \left(2D^2 + C^2 + \frac{2}{\mu T} \sum_{t=1}^{t-1} y_t \left(2D^2 + C^2 + \frac{\eta(1 - p)}{\bar{p}} \left(2D^2 + C^2\right)\right)\right) \\
= \frac{1}{\mu T} \left(6D^2 + \frac{5}{1 - p} D^2 + \frac{4}{1 - p} C^2\right).
\]
Therefore (4.4.82) holds.

Below we specialize the results in Theorem 4.9 by choosing a set of parameters satisfying (4.4.24), (4.4.41) and (4.4.58).

**Corollary 4.4.** In Algorithm 4.3, if \(N\) is given and the parameters are set to
\[
\beta_t = \frac{t + 1}{\bar{p}}, \quad \theta_t = \frac{t - 1}{\bar{p}}, \quad \eta_t = \frac{3}{4T}, \quad \text{and} \quad \tau_t = \frac{t}{\bar{p}},
\]
where
\[
\eta = \frac{2L + 2}{A((N - 1)} + \frac{N - 1}{\bar{p}} \sigma, \quad \text{for some} \ \bar{D} > 0, \quad \sigma = \sqrt{\frac{6}{4} \sigma_x^2 + \sigma_y^2},
\]
then there exists \(v_N\) that satisfies (4.4.82) with
Applying the above bound to (4.4.90) and (4.4.91), and using (4.4.87) and the fact that $3p$, we have
\[ \varepsilon_N \leq \frac{36L_iD_i^2}{N(N-1)} + \frac{36\|A\|D^2}{N} + \frac{\sigma D(18D/D+6D/D)}{\sqrt{N-1}}, \]
where $D$ is defined in (4.4.51).

**Proof.** For the parameters in (4.4.86), it is clear that (4.4.24) and (4.4.41) hold. Furthermore, let $p = 1/4$, $q = 3/4$, then for all $t = 1, \ldots, N-1$, we have
\[ \frac{q}{\eta} - \frac{L_i}{P_i} \frac{\|A\|^2 \eta}{p} = \frac{q}{4} - \frac{2L_i}{t+4} - \frac{4\|A\|^2 \eta}{\eta} \geq \frac{2L_i-2\|A\|(N-1)}{t} - \frac{2L_i-2\|A\|^2 \eta}{\|A\|(N-1)} \geq 0, \]
thus (4.4.58) holds. By Theorem 4.9, we get (4.4.82) and (4.4.83). Note that $\eta_t/\tau_t = 3/4$, and
\[ \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \|\hat{e} \| \leq \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \|\hat{e} \| \leq \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \|\hat{e} \| \leq \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}D} = \frac{\sqrt{3/4}D}{\beta_{N-1}N-1}, \]
so in (4.4.82) and (4.4.83) we have
\[ \varepsilon_N \leq \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \left( \frac{20}{3}D^2 + \frac{17}{3}C^2 \right), \]
\[ \mathbb{E}(\|\nu_N\|) \leq \frac{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{2} \left( \frac{2}{3}D + \frac{17\eta^2N^2(N-1)}{9\eta^2} \right)}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \left( 1 + \sqrt{\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3}D} + \frac{17\sqrt{2}}{3\eta^2} \right). \]
By (4.4.84) and the fact that $\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \|A\|^2 \leq N^2(N-1)/3$, we have
\[ C = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{9\sigma_i^2}{4\eta^2} + \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\eta^2} \right) \leq \sqrt{\frac{1}{3\eta^2} \left( \begin{array}{c} N^2(N-1) \\ 3 \end{array} \right) \left( \frac{9\sigma_i^2}{4\eta^2} + \frac{\sigma_i^2}{\eta^2} \right) = \frac{\sigma \sqrt{N-1}}{\sqrt{3\eta}}. \]
Applying the above bound to (4.4.90) and (4.4.91), and using (4.4.87) and the fact that $\sqrt{2D^2+C^2} \leq \sqrt{2D+C}$, we obtain
\[ \varepsilon_N \leq \frac{8\eta}{3N(N-1)} \left( \frac{20}{3}D^2 + \frac{17\sigma^2N^2(N-1)}{9\eta^2} \right) \leq \frac{32L_iD_i^2}{9N(N-1)} + \frac{32\|A\|^2D^2}{9N(N-1)} + \frac{16N\sqrt{18\left(\frac{2\sqrt{2}}{3}D + \frac{17\sigma^2N^2(N-1)}{9\eta^2} \right)}}{9N(N-1)} + \frac{16\sigma D(18D/D+6D/D)}{\sqrt{N-1}}, \]
\[ \mathbb{E}(\|\nu_N\|) \leq \frac{1}{\beta_{N-1}N-1} \left( \frac{2D + \sqrt{3}D + 3\sqrt{2}D + \sqrt{6}D/2 + 3\sqrt{2}C + \sqrt{6}C/2}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \right) \]
\[ + \frac{\sqrt{16\|A\|^2D^2}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} + \frac{\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \]
\[ \leq \frac{8\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{3N(N-1)} + \frac{4\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{3\eta^2} \left( \frac{2 + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{6}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \right) \]
\[ + \frac{8\|A\|^2D}{3N(N-1)} + \frac{4\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{3\eta^2} \left( \frac{2 + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{6}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \right) \]
\[ \leq \frac{8\|A\|^2D}{3N(N-1)} + \frac{4\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{3\eta^2} \left( \frac{2 + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{6}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \right) \]
\[ + \frac{8\|A\|^2D}{3N(N-1)} + \frac{4\sqrt{16\|A\|^2\sigma D}}{3\eta^2} \left( \frac{2 + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{6}}{2\sqrt{2}D + 2\sqrt{3}C} \right) \]
4.5 Stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method

Observe that the parameter settings in (4.4.86)-(4.4.87) are more complicated than the ones in (4.4.53) for the deterministic unbounded case. In particular, for the stochastic unbounded case, we need to choose a parameter \( \tilde{D} \) which is not required for the deterministic case. Clearly, the optimal selection for \( \tilde{D} \) minimizing the RHS of (4.4.88) is given by \( \sqrt{6D} \). Note however, that the value of \( D \) will be very difficult to estimate for the unbounded case and hence one often has to resort to a suboptimal selection for \( \tilde{D} \). For example, if \( \tilde{D} = 1 \), then the RHS of (4.4.88) and (4.4.89) will become \( O\left(\frac{L\delta f D^2}{N^2} + \|A\|D^2/N + \sigma D^2/\sqrt{N}\right) \) and \( O\left(\frac{L\delta f D}{N^2} + \|A\|D/\sqrt{N} + \sigma D/\sqrt{N}\right) \), respectively.

4.5 Stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method

Let \( \mathbb{R}^n \) denote a finite dimensional vector space with inner product \( \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \) and norm \( \| \cdot \| \) (not necessarily induced by \( \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle \)), and \( Z \) be a non-empty closed convex set in \( \mathbb{R}^n \). Our problem of interest is to find an \( u^* \in Z \) that solves the following monotone stochastic variational inequality (SVI) problem:

\[
\langle E_{\xi, \zeta} [F(u; \xi, \zeta)], u^* - u \rangle \leq 0, \forall u \in Z. \tag{4.5.1}
\]

Here, the expectation is taken with respect to the random vectors \( \xi \) and \( \zeta \) whose distributions are supported on \( \Xi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( \Xi' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d'} \), respectively, and \( F \) is given by the summation of three components with different structural properties, i.e.,

\[
F(u; \xi, \zeta) = G(u; \xi) + H(u; \zeta) + J'(u), \quad \forall u \in Z. \tag{4.5.2}
\]

In particular, we assume that \( J'(u) \in \partial J(u) \) is a subgradient of a relatively simple and convex function \( J \) (see (4.5.9) below), \( H(u; \zeta) \) is an unbiased estimator of a monotone and Lipschitz continuous operator \( H \) such that \( E_\zeta [H(u; \zeta)] = H(u) \),

\[
\langle H(w) - H(v), w - v \rangle \geq 0, \quad \|H(w) - H(v)\|_* \leq M\|w - v\|, \quad \forall w, v \in Z, \tag{4.5.3}
\]

where \( \| \cdot \|_* \) denotes the conjugate norm of \( \| \cdot \| \). Moreover, we assume that \( G(u; \xi) \) is an unbiased estimator of the gradient for a convex and continuously differentiable function \( G \) such that \( E_\xi [G(u; \xi)] = \nabla G(u) \) and

\[
0 \leq G(w) - G(v) - \langle \nabla G(v), w - v \rangle \leq \frac{L}{2}\|w - v\|^2, \quad \forall w, v \in Z. \tag{4.5.4}
\]

Observe that \( u^* \) given by (4.5.1) is often called a weak solution for SVI. Recall that a related notion is a strong SVI solution (see Section 3.8). More specifically, letting

\[
F(u) := E_{\xi, \zeta} [F(u; \xi, \zeta)] = \nabla G(u) + H(u) + J'(u), \tag{4.5.5}
\]

we say that \( u^* \) is a strong SVI solution if it satisfies...
\[ \langle F(u^*), u^* - u \rangle \leq 0, \forall u \in Z. \quad (4.5.6) \]

It should be noted that the operator $F$ above might not be continuous. Problems (4.5.1) and (4.5.6) are also known as the Minty variational inequality and the Stampacchia variational inequality respectively. For any monotone operator $F$, it is well-known that strong solutions defined in (4.5.6) are also weak solutions in (4.5.1), and the reverse is also true under mild assumptions (e.g., when $F$ is continuous). For example, for $F$ in (4.5.5), if $J = 0$, then the weak and strong solutions in (4.5.1) and (4.5.6) are equivalent. For the sake of notational convenience, we use $SVI(Z; G, H, J)$ or simply $SVI(Z; F)$ to denote problem (4.5.1).

In this section, we assume that there exist stochastic first-order oracles $SFO_G$ and $SFO_H$ that provide random samples of $G(u; \xi)$ and $H(u; \zeta)$ for any test point $u \in Z$.

**Assumption 10** At the $i$-th call of $SFO_G$ and $SFO_H$ with input $z \in Z$, the oracles $SFO_G$ and $SFO_H$ output stochastic information $G(z; \xi_i)$ and $H(z; \zeta_i)$ respectively, such that
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| G(u; \xi_i) - \nabla G(u) \|_2^2 \right] \leq \sigma_G^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \| H(u; \zeta_i) - H(u) \|_2^2 \right] \leq \sigma_H^2,
\]
for some $\sigma_G, \sigma_H \geq 0$, where $\xi_i$ and $\zeta_i$ are independently distributed random samples.

For the sake of notational convenience, throughout this section we also denote
\[
\sigma := \sqrt{\sigma_G^2 + \sigma_H^2}. \quad (4.5.7)
\]

Assumption 10 basically implies that the variance associated with $G(u; \xi)$ and $H(u; \zeta)$ is bounded. It should be noted that deterministic VIs, denoted by $VI(Z; G, H, J)$, are special cases of SVIs with $\sigma_G = \sigma_H = 0$. The above setting covers as a special case of the regular SVIs whose operators $G(u)$ or $H(u)$ are given in the form of expectation as shown in (4.5.1). Moreover, it provides a framework to study randomized algorithms for solving deterministic VI or saddle point problems.

### 4.5.1 Algorithmic framework

By examining the structural properties (e.g., gradient field $G$ and Lipschitz continuity of $H$) of the SVI problems in (4.5.1), we can see that the total number of gradient and operator evaluations for solving SVI cannot be smaller than
\[
\mathcal{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \frac{M}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2}} \right). \quad (4.5.8)
\]

This is a lower complexity bound derived based on the following three observations:
4.5 Stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method

a) If \( H = 0 \) and \( \sigma = 0 \), \( \text{SVI}(Z; G, 0, 0) \) is equivalent to a smooth optimization problem \( \min_{u \in Z} G(u) \), and the complexity for minimizing \( G(u) \) cannot be better than \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{L/\epsilon}) \).

b) If \( G = 0 \) and \( \sigma = 0 \), the complexity for solving \( \text{SVI}(Z; 0, H, 0) \) cannot be better than \( \mathcal{O}(M/\epsilon) \).

c) If \( H = 0 \), \( \text{SVI}(Z; G, 0, 0) \) is equivalent to a stochastic smooth optimization problem, and the complexity cannot be better than \( \mathcal{O}(\sigma^2/\epsilon^2) \).

The lower complexity bound in (4.5.8) and the three observations stated above provide some important guidelines to the design of efficient algorithms to solve the SVI problem with the operator given in (4.5.5). It might seem natural to consider the more general problem (4.5.6) by combining \( \nabla G(u) \) and \( H(u) \) in (4.5.5) together as a single monotone operator, instead of separating them apart. Such consideration is reasonable from a generalization point of view, by noting that the convexity of function \( G(u) \) is equivalent to the monotonicity of \( \nabla G(u) \), and the Lipschitz conditions (4.5.3) and (4.5.4) are equivalent to a Lipschitz condition of \( F(u) \) in (4.5.6) with \( \|F(w) - F(v)\|_* \leq (L + M)\|w - v\| \). However, from the algorithmic point of view, a special treatment of \( \nabla G \) separately from \( H \) is crucial for the design of accelerated algorithms. By observations b) and c) above, if we consider \( F := \nabla G + H \) as a single monotone operator, the complexity for solving \( \text{SVI}(Z; 0; F; 0) \) can not be smaller than

\[
\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{L+M}{\epsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2}\right),
\]

which is worse than (4.5.8) in terms of the dependence on \( L \).

In order to achieve the complexity bound in (4.5.8) for SVIs, we incorporate a multi-step acceleration scheme into the mirror-prox method in Section 3.8, and introduce a stochastic accelerated mirror-prox (SAMP) method that can exploit the structural properties of (4.5.1). Specifically, we assume that the following subproblem can be solved efficiently:

\[
\arg\min_{u \in Z} \langle \eta, u - z \rangle + V(z, u) + J(u). \tag{4.5.9}
\]

Here \( V(\cdot, \cdot) \) is prox-function given by

\[
V(z, u) := \omega(u) - \omega(z) - \langle \nabla \omega(z), u - z \rangle, \quad \forall u, z \in Z. \tag{4.5.10}
\]

Using the aforementioned definition of the prox-mapping, we describe the SAMP method in Algorithm 4.4.

Observe that in the SAMP algorithm we introduced two sequences, i.e., \( \{w_t\} \) and \( \{\bar{w}_t\} \), that are convex combinations of iterations \( \{w_t\} \) and \( \{r_t\} \) as long as \( \alpha_t \in [0, 1]. \) If \( \alpha_t \equiv 1, G = 0 \) and \( J = 0 \), then Algorithm 4.4 for solving \( \text{SVI}(Z; 0, H, 0) \) is equivalent to the stochastic version of the mirror-prox method in Section 3.8. Moreover, if the distance generating function \( \omega(\cdot) = \|\cdot\|_2^2/2 \), then iterations (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) become
### Algorithm 4.4 The stochastic accelerated mirror-prox (SAMP) method

Choose \( r_1 \in Z \). Set \( w_1 = r_1, \tilde{w}_1 = r_1 \).

For \( t = 1, 2, \ldots, N - 1 \), calculate

\[
\begin{align*}
    w_t &= (1 - \alpha_t) \tilde{w}_t + \alpha_t r_t, \\
    w_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{u \in Z} [\|H(r_t; \tilde{z}_{t-1}) + G(w_t; \tilde{z}_t), u - r_t\| + J(u)] + V(r_t, u), \\
    r_{t+1} &= \arg\min_{u \in Z} [\|H(w_{t+1}; \tilde{z}_t), u - r_t\| + J(u)] + V(r_t, u), \\
    \tilde{w}_{t+1} &= (1 - \alpha_t) \tilde{w}_t + \alpha_t w_{t+1}.
\end{align*}
\]  

Output \( w_{N-1}^w \).

which are exactly the iterates of the extragradient method. On the other hand, if \( H = 0 \), then (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) produce the same optimizer \( w_{t+1} = r_{t+1} \), and Algorithm 4.4 is equivalent to the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method in Section 4.2. Therefore, Algorithm 4.4 can be viewed as a hybrid algorithm of the stochastic mirror-prox method and the stochastic accelerated gradient descent method, which gives its name stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method. It is interesting to note that for any \( t \), there are two calls of SFO\(_H\) but just one call of SFO\(_G\).

### 4.5.2 Convergence analysis

In order to analyze the convergence of Algorithm 4.4, we introduce a notion to characterize the weak solutions of \( SVI(Z; G, H, J) \). For all \( \tilde{u}, u \in Z \), we define

\[
Q(\tilde{u}, u) := G(\tilde{u}) - G(u) + \langle H(u), \tilde{u} - u \rangle + J(\tilde{u}) - J(u). \tag{4.5.15}
\]

Clearly, for \( F \) defined in (4.5.5), we have \( \langle F(u), \tilde{u} - u \rangle \leq Q(\tilde{u}, u) \). Therefore, if \( Q(\tilde{u}, u) \leq 0 \) for all \( u \in Z \), then \( \tilde{u} \) is a weak solution of \( SVI(Z; G, H, J) \). Hence when \( Z \) is bounded, it is natural to use the gap function

\[
g(\tilde{u}) := \sup_{u \in Z} Q(\tilde{u}, u) \tag{4.5.16}
\]

to evaluate the accuracy of a feasible solution \( \tilde{u} \in Z \). However, if \( Z \) is unbounded, then \( g(\tilde{z}) \) may not be well-defined, even when \( \tilde{z} \in Z \) is a nearly optimal solution. Therefore, we need to employ a slightly modified gap function in order to measure the accuracy of candidate solutions when \( Z \) is unbounded. In the sequel, we will consider the cases of bounded and unbounded \( Z \) separately. For both cases we establish the rate of convergence of the gap functions in terms of their expectation, i.e., the “average” rate of convergence over many runs of the algorithm. Furthermore, we demonstrate
that if $Z$ is bounded, then we can also refine the rate of convergence of $g(\cdot)$ in the probability sense, under the following “light-tail” assumption:

**Assumption 11** For any i-th call on oracles $SFO_H$ and $SFO_H$ with any input $u \in Z,$

$$E[\exp\{\|\nabla G(u) - G(u; \xi_i)\|^2/\sigma_G^2\}] \leq \exp\{1\},$$

and

$$E[\exp\{\|H(u) - H(u; \zeta_i)\|^2/\sigma_H^2\}] \leq \exp\{1\}.$$  

Assumption 11 is sometimes called the sub-Gaussian assumption. Many different random variables, such as Gaussian, uniform, and any random variables with a bounded support, will satisfy this assumption. It should be noted that Assumption 11 implies Assumption 10 by Jensen’s inequality.

We start with establishing some convergence properties of Algorithm 4.4 when $Z$ is bounded. It should be noted that the following quantity will be used throughout the convergence analysis of this paper:

$$\Gamma_t = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{when } t = 1 \\ (1 - \alpha_t)\Gamma_{t-1}, & \text{when } t > 1. \end{cases} \quad (4.5.17)$$

To prove the convergence of the stochastic AMP algorithm, we first present some technical results. Lemma 1 describes some important properties of the projection (or prox-mapping) used in (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) of Algorithm 4.4. Lemma 2 provides a recursion related to the function $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined in (4.5.15). With the help of Lemmas 1 and 2, we estimate a bound on $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ in Lemma 3.

**Lemma 1** Given $r, w, y \in Z$ and $\eta, \vartheta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfy

$$w = \arg\min_{u \in Z} \langle \eta, u - r \rangle + V(r, u) + J(u), \quad (4.5.18)$$

$$y = \arg\min_{u \in Z} \langle \vartheta, u - r \rangle + V(r, u) + J(u), \quad (4.5.19)$$

and

$$\|\vartheta - \eta\|^2 \leq L^2\|w - r\|^2 + M^2. \quad (4.5.20)$$

Then, for all $u \in Z,$

$$\langle \vartheta, w - u \rangle + J(w) - J(u) \leq V(r, u) - V(y, u) - \left(1 - \frac{L^2}{2}\right)\|w - r\|^2 + \frac{M^2}{2}, \quad (4.5.21)$$

and

$$V(y, w) \leq L^2V(r, w) + \frac{M^2}{2}. \quad (4.5.22)$$

**Proof.** Applying Lemma 3.5 to (4.5.18) and (4.5.19), for all $u \in Z$ we have
Adding the above two inequalities, and using (4.5.20) and (4.5.26), we have
\[\langle \eta, w-u \rangle + J(w) - J(u) \leq V(r,u) - V(r,w) - V(w,u), \quad (4.5.23)\]
\[\langle \vartheta, y-u \rangle + J(y) - J(u) \leq V(r,u) - V(r,y) - V(y,u), \quad (4.5.24)\]

In particular, letting \( u = y \) in (4.5.23) we have
\[\langle \eta, w-y \rangle + J(w) - J(y) \leq V(r,y) - V(r,w) - V(w,y). \quad (4.5.25)\]

Adding inequalities (4.5.24) and (4.5.25), then
\[\langle \vartheta, y-u \rangle + \langle \eta, w-y \rangle + J(w) - J(u) \leq V(r,u) - V(y,u) - V(r,w) - V(w,y), \]
which is equivalent to
\[\langle \vartheta, w-u \rangle + J(w) - J(u) \leq \langle \vartheta - \eta, w-y \rangle + V(r,u) - V(y,u) - V(r,w) - V(w,y). \]

Applying Schwartz inequality and Young’s inequality to the above inequality, and using the fact that
\[\frac{1}{2} \| z - u \|^2 \leq V(u,z), \forall u, z \in Z, \quad (4.5.26)\]
due to the strong convexity of \( \omega(\cdot) \) in (4.5.10), we obtain
\[
\langle \vartheta, w-u \rangle + J(w) - J(u) \\
\leq \| \vartheta - \eta \| \| w-y \| + V(r,u) - V(y,u) - V(r,w) - \frac{1}{2} \| w-y \|^2 \\
\leq \frac{1}{2} \| \vartheta - \eta \|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \| w-y \|^2 + V(r,u) - V(y,u) - V(r,w) - \frac{1}{2} \| w-y \|^2 \\
= \frac{1}{2} \| \vartheta - \eta \|^2 + V(r,u) - V(y,u) - V(r,w). \quad (4.5.27)
\]

The result in (4.5.21) then follows immediately from above relation, (4.5.20) and (4.5.26).

Moreover, observe that by setting \( u = w \) and \( u = y \) in (4.5.24) and (4.5.27), respectively, we have
\[
\langle \vartheta, y-w \rangle + J(y) - J(w) \leq V(r,w) - V(r,y) - V(y,w), \\
\langle \vartheta, w-y \rangle + J(w) - J(y) \leq \frac{1}{2} \| \vartheta - \eta \|^2 + V(r,y) - V(r,w). 
\]

Adding the above two inequalities, and using (4.5.20) and (4.5.26), we have
\[0 \leq \frac{1}{2} \| \vartheta - \eta \|^2 - V(y,w) \leq \frac{L_2^2}{2} \| r-w \|^2 + \frac{M^2}{2} - V(y,w) \leq L_2^2 V(r,w) + \frac{M^2}{2} - V(y,w), \]
and thus (4.5.22) holds.

**Lemma 2** For any sequences \( \{ r_t \}_{t \geq 1} \) and \( \{ w_t \}_{t \geq 1} \subset Z \), if the sequences \( \{ \hat{w}_t \} \) and \( \{ w_t \} \) are generated by (4.5.11) and (4.5.14), then for all \( u \in Z \),
Lemma 3 below provides a bound on $Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u)$ for all $u \in Z$.

**Lemma 3** Suppose that the parameters $\{\alpha_t\}$ in Algorithm 4.4 satisfies $\alpha_t = 1$ and $0 \leq \alpha_t < 1$ for all $t > 1$. Then the iterates $\{r_t\}, \{w_t\}$ and $\{\bar{w}_t\}$ satisfy

$$Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) - (1 - \alpha_t)Q(\bar{w}_t, u) \leq \alpha_t \langle \nabla G(\bar{w}_t), H(w_{t+1}, w_{t+1} - u) + \frac{La^2}{2} \|w_{t+1} - r_t\|^2 + \alpha_t J(w_{t+1}) - \alpha_t J(u).$$

(4.5.28)

**Proof.** Observe from (4.5.11) and (4.5.14) that $\bar{w}_{t+1} - w_j = \alpha_t (w_{t+1} - r_t)$. This observation together with the convexity of $G(\cdot)$ imply that for all $u \in Z$,

$$G(\bar{w}_{t+1}) \leq G(w_j) + \langle \nabla G(w_j), \bar{w}_{t+1} - w_j \rangle + \frac{La^2}{2} \|\bar{w}_{t+1} - w_j\|^2$$

$$= (1 - \alpha_t) [G(w_j) + \langle \nabla G(w_j), \bar{w}_t - w_j \rangle]$$

$$+ \alpha_t \langle G(w_j) + \langle \nabla G(w_j), u - w_j \rangle \rangle$$

$$+ \alpha_t \langle \nabla G(w_j), w_{t+1} - u \rangle + \frac{La^2}{2} \|w_{t+1} - u\|^2$$

$$\leq (1 - \alpha_t) G(\bar{w}_t) + \alpha_t G(u) + \alpha_t \langle \nabla G(w_j), w_{t+1} - u \rangle + \frac{La^2}{2} \|w_{t+1} - u\|^2.$$  

Using the above inequality, (4.5.14), (4.5.15) and the monotonicity of $H(\cdot)$, we have

$$Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) - (1 - \alpha_t)Q(\bar{w}_t, u)$$

$$= G(\bar{w}_{t+1}) - (1 - \alpha_t) G(\bar{w}_t) - \alpha_t \langle H(u), \bar{w}_t - u \rangle$$

$$+ J(w_{t+1}) - (1 - \alpha_t) J(\bar{w}_t) - \alpha_t J(u)$$

$$\leq G(\bar{w}_{t+1}) - (1 - \alpha_t) G(\bar{w}_t) - \alpha_t G(u) + \alpha_t \langle H(u), w_{t+1} - u \rangle$$

$$+ \alpha_t J(w_{t+1}) - \alpha_t J(u)$$

$$\leq \alpha_t \langle \nabla G(w_j), w_{t+1} - u \rangle + \frac{La^2}{2} \|w_{t+1} - u\|^2 + \alpha_t \langle H(w_{t+1}), w_{t+1} - u \rangle$$

$$+ \alpha_t J(w_{t+1}) - \alpha_t J(u).$$

In the sequel, we will use the following notations to describe the inexactness of the first order information from SFO$_H$ and SFO$_G$. At the $t$-th iteration, letting $H(r_t; \xi_{t-1}), H(w_{t+1}; \xi_t)$ and $G(w_j; \xi_t)$ be the output of the stochastic oracles, we denote

$$\Delta_{H}^{t-1} := H(r_t; \xi_{t-1}) - H(r_t),$$

$$\Delta_{H}^{t} := H(w_{t+1}; \xi_t) - H(w_{t+1}),$$

$$\Delta_{G}^{t} := G(w_j; \xi_t) - \nabla G(w_j).$$

(4.5.29)

Lemma 3 below provides a bound on $Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u)$ for all $u \in Z$. 

**Lemma 3** Suppose that the parameters $\{\alpha_t\}$ in Algorithm 4.4 satisfies $\alpha_t = 1$ and $0 \leq \alpha_t < 1$ for all $t > 1$. Then the iterates $\{r_t\}, \{w_t\}$ and $\{\bar{w}_t\}$ satisfy
Applying Lemma 1 to (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) (with $\Gamma_1$ defined in (4.5.17)),

\[ B_t(u, r_{\|a\|}) := \sum_{i=1}^{T/\gamma} \left( V(r_t, u) - V(r_{t+1}, u) \right), \]

and

\[ A_t(u) := \frac{3\gamma_t^{2/T}}{2T} \left( \left\| \Delta_{i} \right\|_2^2 + \left\| \Delta_{i} \right\|_2 \right) - \frac{(1-q)}{2T} \left\| r_t - w_{t+1} \right\|^2 \]

\[ - \frac{\alpha_t}{r_{\|a\|}} \left( \Delta_{i}^2 + \Delta_{i}^1, w_{t+1} - u \right). \]

**Proof.** Observe from (4.5.29) that

\[ \| H(w_{t+1}; \zeta_2) - H(r_t; \zeta_{2-1}) \|^2 \]

\[ \leq \left( \| H(w_{t+1}) - H(r_t) \|_s + \| \Delta_{i} \|_s + \| \Delta_{i} \|_s \right)^2 \]

\[ \leq 3 \left( \| H(w_{t+1}) - H(r_t) \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 \right) \]

\[ \leq 3 \left( \| w_{t+1} - r_t \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 \right). \]

Applying Lemma 1 to (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) (with $r = r_t, w = w_{t+1}, y = r_{t+1}, \eta = \gamma H(r_t; \zeta_{2-1}) + \gamma G(w_t; \bar{z})$, $\theta = \gamma H(w_{t+1}; \zeta_2) + \gamma G(w_t; \bar{z}), J = \gamma J, L^2 = 3M^2 \gamma^2$ and $M^2 = 3 \gamma^2 (\| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2)$), and using (4.5.33), we have for any $u \in Z$,

\[ \gamma (H(w_{t+1}; \zeta_2) + G(w_t; \bar{z}), w_{t+1} - u) + \gamma J(w_{t+1}) - \gamma J(u) \]

\[ \leq V(r_t, u) - V(r_{t+1}, u) - \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3M^2 \gamma^2}{2} \right) \left\| r_t - w_{t+1} \right\|^2 + \frac{3\gamma^2}{2} \left( \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 \right). \]

Applying (4.5.29) and the above inequality to (4.5.28), we have

\[ Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) - (1 - \alpha_t) Q(\bar{w}_t, u) \]

\[ \leq \alpha_t (H(w_{t+1}; \zeta_2) + G(w_t; \bar{z}), w_{t+1} - u) + \alpha_t J(w_{t+1}) - \alpha_t J(u) \]

\[ + \frac{\alpha_t}{2T} \| w_{t+1} - r_t \|^2 - \alpha_t \left( \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2, w_{t+1} - u \right) \]

\[ \leq \frac{\alpha_t}{T} \left( V(r_t, u) - V(r_{t+1}, u) \right) - \alpha_t \left( \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 \right) \left( 1 - \frac{L \alpha_t \gamma - 3M^2 \gamma^2}{T} \right) \left\| r_t - w_{t+1} \right\|^2 \]

\[ + \frac{3\gamma^2}{2} \left( \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 \right) - \alpha_t \left( \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{i} \|^2, w_{t+1} - u \right). \]

Dividing the above inequality by $\Gamma_1$, and using the definition of $A_t(u)$ in (4.5.32), we obtain

\[ \frac{1}{T} Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) - \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{T} Q(\bar{w}_t, u) \]

\[ \leq \frac{\alpha_t}{T} \left( V(r_t, u) - V(r_{t+1}, u) \right) \]

\[ - \frac{\alpha_t}{2T} \left( q - L \alpha_t \gamma - 3M^2 \gamma^2 \right) \left\| r_t - w_{t+1} \right\|^2 + A_t(u). \]
Noting the fact that \( \alpha_t = 1 \) and \((1 - \alpha_t)/T_i = 1/T_{i-1}, t > 1, \) due to (4.5.17), applying the above inequality recursively and using the definition of \( B_r(\cdot, \cdot) \) in (4.5.31), we conclude (4.5.30).

We still need the following technical result that helps to provide a bound on the last stochastic term in (4.5.30) before proving Theorems 5 and 7.

**Lemma 4** Let \( \theta_t, \gamma > 0, t = 1, 2, \ldots, \) be given. For any \( w_1 \in Z \) and any sequence \( \{\Delta^t\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n, \) if we define \( w_i^v = w_1 \) and

\[
\sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta^t, w_i^v - u) = \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (V(w_i^v, u) - V(w_{i+1}^v, u)) + \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma ||\Delta_i||^2, \forall u \in Z, \tag{4.5.35}
\]

Then, if we define \( w_i^v = w_1 \) and

\[
\sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (\Delta^t, w_i^v - u) = \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma (V(w_i^v, u) - V(w_{i+1}^v, u)) + \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma ||\Delta_i||^2, \forall u \in Z. \tag{4.5.36}
\]

**Proof.** Applying Lemma 3.5 to (4.5.34) (with \( r = w_i^v, w = w_{i+1}^v, \zeta = -\gamma \Delta^t \) and \( J = 0 \)), we have

\[
-\gamma (\Delta^t, w_i^v - u) \leq V(w_i^v, u) - V(w_{i+1}^v, u) - V(w_{i+1}^v, u), \forall u \in Z.
\]

Moreover, by Schwartz inequality, Young’s inequality and (4.5.26) we have

\[
-\gamma (\Delta^t, w_i^v - w_{i+1}^v) \leq \gamma ||\Delta^t|| ||w_i^v - w_{i+1}^v|| \leq \frac{\gamma}{2} ||\Delta_i||^2 + \frac{1}{2} ||w_i^v - w_{i+1}^v||^2 \leq \frac{\gamma}{2} ||\Delta_i||^2 + V(w_i^v, w_{i+1}^v).
\]

Adding the above two inequalities and multiplying the resulting inequality by \( \theta_i/\gamma \), we obtain

\[
-\theta_i (\Delta^t, w_i^v - u) \leq \frac{\theta_i \gamma}{2} ||\Delta_i||^2 + \frac{\theta_i}{\gamma} (V(w_i^v, u) - V(w_{i+1}^v, u)).
\]

Summing the above inequalities from \( i = 1 \) to \( t \), we conclude (4.5.35).

With the help of Lemma 3 and 4, we are now ready to prove Theorem 5, which provides an estimate of the gap function of SAMP in both expectation and probability.

**Theorem 5** Suppose that

\[
\sup_{z_1, z_2 \in Z} V(z_1, z_2) \leq D_Z^2. \tag{4.5.36}
\]

Also assume that the parameters \( \{\alpha_t\} \) and \( \{\gamma_t\} \) in Algorithm 4.4 satisfy \( \alpha_1 = 1, \)

\[
q - L \alpha_t \gamma_t - 3M^2 \gamma_t^2 \geq 0 \text{ for some } q \in (0, 1), \text{ and } \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t} \leq \frac{\alpha_{t+1}}{\gamma_{t+1}}, \forall t \geq 1, \tag{4.5.37}
\]

where \( T_i \) is defined in (4.5.17). Then,
(a) Under Assumption 10, for all \( t \geq 1 \),
\[
\mathbb{E} [g(\bar{w}_{t+1})] \leq Q_0(t) := \frac{2\alpha}{r} D_Z^2 + \left[4\sigma_H^2 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{2(1-q)}\right) \sigma_G^2\right] \Gamma_i \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i^2}. \tag{4.5.38}
\]

(b) Under Assumption 11, for all \( \lambda > 0 \) and \( t \geq 1 \),
\[
\text{Prob}\{g(\bar{w}_{t+1}) > Q_0(t) + \lambda Q_1(t)\} \leq 2\exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + 3\exp\{-\lambda\}, \tag{4.5.39}
\]
where
\[
Q_1(t) := \Gamma_i (\sigma_G + \sigma_H) D_Z \sqrt{2 \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{(\alpha_i)}{T_i^2}} + \left[4\sigma_H^2 + \left(1 + \frac{1}{2(1-q)}\right) \sigma_G^2\right] \Gamma_i \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i^2}. \tag{4.5.40}
\]

Proof. We first provide a bound on \( B_t(u, r_{[i]} \). Since the sequence \( \{r_{[i]}\}_{i=1}^{t+1} \) is in the bounded set \( Z \), applying (4.5.36) and (4.5.37) to (4.5.31) we have
\[
B_t(u, r_{[i]} \]
\[
= \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i]}^2} V(r_{[i]}, u) - \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \left[ \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i+1]}^2} - \frac{\alpha_{i+1}}{r_{[i+1]}^2}\right] V(r_{[i]} - r_{[i+1]}, u) - \frac{\alpha}{r_{[i]}^2} V(r_{t+1}, u) \tag{4.5.41}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i]}^2} D_Z^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \left[ \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i+1]}^2} - \frac{\alpha_{i+1}}{r_{[i+1]}^2}\right] D_Z^2 = \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i]}^2} D_Z^2, \forall u \in Z,
\]
Applying (4.5.37) and the above inequality to (4.5.30) in Lemma 3, we have
\[
\frac{1}{r_i} Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) \leq \frac{\alpha_i}{r_{[i]}^2} D_Z^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \lambda_i(u), \forall u \in Z. \tag{4.5.42}
\]

Letting \( w_1^* = w_1 \), defining \( w_i^* \) as in (4.5.34) with \( \Lambda_i = \Delta_{Hi}^2 + \Delta_G^2 \) for all \( i > 1 \), we conclude from (4.5.31) and Lemma 4 (with \( \theta_i = \alpha_i/T_i \)) that
\[
-\sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} (\Delta_{Hi} + \Delta_G^2, w_i^* - u) \leq B_t(u, w_i^*) + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} \|\Delta_{Hi} + \Delta_G^2\|_0^2, \forall u \in Z. \tag{4.5.43}
\]

The above inequality together with (4.5.32) and the Young’s inequality yield
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{t} \lambda_i(u) = -\sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} (\Delta_{Hi}^2 + \Delta_G^2, w_i^* - u) + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{3\alpha_i}{2r_i^2} (\|\Delta_{Hi}^2\|_0^2 + \|\Delta_{Hi}^2 - \Delta_G^2\|_0^2)
\]
\[
+ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} \left[ -\frac{1}{2(1-q)} \|r_i - w_i + u - r_i\|^2 - (\Delta_G^2, w_i^* - u) \right]
\]
\[
- \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} (\Delta_G^2, r_i - w_i^*) - \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{r_i^2} (\Delta_{Hi}^2, w_{i+1} - w_i^*)
\]
\[
\leq B_t(u, w_i^*) + U_t, \tag{4.5.44}
\]

where
Applying (4.5.41) and (4.5.44) to (4.5.42), we have
\[ U_t := \sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_i \nabla \| \Delta H_i \|^2 + \Delta t \| \Delta G_i \|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \| \Delta H_i \|^2 \]
\[ + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{3\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \left( \| \Delta H_i \|^2 + \| \Delta H_i - \Delta H_{i-1} \|^2 \right) \]
\[ - \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \langle \Delta H_i, r_i - w_i \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \langle \Delta H_i, w_{i+1} - w_i \rangle. \]  
(4.5.45)

Applying (4.5.41) and (4.5.44) to (4.5.42), we have
\[ \frac{1}{t} Q(\bar{w}_{t+1}, u) \leq \frac{2\alpha}{\eta} D_Z^2 + U_t, \quad \forall u \in Z, \]
or equivalently,
\[ g(\bar{w}_{t+1}) \leq \frac{2\alpha}{\eta} D_Z^2 + I_t U_t. \]  
(4.5.46)

Now it suffices to bound \( U_t \), in both expectation and probability.

We prove part (a) first. By our assumptions on \( SO_G \) and \( SO_H \) and in view of
(4.5.12), (4.5.13) and (4.5.34), during the \( i \)-th iteration of Algorithm 4.4, the random noise \( \Delta H_i \) is independent of \( w_{i+1} \) and \( w_i \), and \( \Delta G_i \) is independent of \( r_i \) and \( w_i \), hence \( \mathbb{E}[\langle \Delta H_i, r_i - w_i \rangle] = \mathbb{E}[\langle \Delta H_i, w_{i+1} - w_i \rangle] = 0 \). In addition, Assumption 10 implies that \( \mathbb{E}[\| \Delta G_i \|^2] \leq \sigma_G^2 \), \( \mathbb{E}[\| \Delta H_i \|^2] \leq \sigma_H^2 \) and \( \mathbb{E}[\| \Delta H_i \|^2] \leq \sigma_H^2 \), where \( \Delta G_i, \Delta H_i \) and \( \Delta H_i \) are independent. Therefore, taking expectation on (4.5.45) we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[U_t] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \alpha_i \nabla \| \Delta H_i \|^2 + \Delta t \| \Delta G_i \|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \| \Delta H_i \|^2 \right] 
\[ + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{3\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \left( \| \Delta H_i \|^2 + \| \Delta H_i - \Delta H_{i-1} \|^2 \right) \]
\[ = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{2(1-\eta)} \left( \frac{2\sigma_G^2}{\eta} + \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(1-\eta)} \right) \sigma_H^2 \right). \]  
(4.5.47)

Taking expectation on both sides of (4.5.46), and using (4.5.47), we obtain (4.5.38).

Next we prove part (b). Observe that the sequence \( \{ \langle \Delta G_i, r_i - w_i \rangle \}_{i \geq 1} \) is a martingale difference and hence satisfies the large-deviation theorem (see Lemma 4.1). Therefore using Assumption 11 and the fact that
\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{(\alpha_i (\eta - 1) \| \Delta G_i \|^2)}{2\sigma_G^2 (\eta - 1) \| \Delta G_i \|^2} \right\} \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{(\alpha_i) \| \Delta G_i \|^2}{2\sigma_G^2 (\eta - 1) \| \Delta G_i \|^2} \right\} \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{(\| \Delta G_i \|^2)}{\sigma_G^2 (\eta - 1) \| \Delta G_i \|^2} \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{ 1 \}, \]
we conclude from the large-deviation theorem that
\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ -\sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{\eta} \langle \Delta H_i, r_i - w_i \rangle > \lambda \sigma_G D_Z \sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^{t} \left( \frac{\alpha_i}{\eta} \right)^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{ -\lambda^2 / 3 \}. \]  
(4.5.48)

By using a similar argument we have
\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ -\sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \left( \Delta^2_H, w_{i+1} - w_i \right) > \lambda \sigma_H D_Z \sqrt{2 \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \left( \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \right)^2} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda^2 / 3\}.
\]

(4.5.49)

In addition, letting \( S_i = \alpha_i \gamma_i / (\Gamma_i) \) and \( S = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \), by Assumption 11 and the convexity of exponential functions, we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 / \sigma^2_G \right\} \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \| \Delta_G \|^2 / \sigma^2_G \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{1\}.
\]

Noting by Markov’s inequality that \( P(X > a) \leq \mathbb{E}[X]/a \) for all nonnegative random variables \( X \) and constants \( a > 0 \), the above inequality implies that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \| \Delta_G \|^2 > (1 + \lambda) \sigma^2_G S \right\}
\]

\[
= \text{Prob} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 / \sigma^2_G \right\} > \exp \{1 + \lambda\} \right]
\]

\[
\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 / \sigma^2_G \right\} \right] / \exp \{1 + \lambda\}
\]

\[
\leq \exp \{-\lambda\}.
\]

Recalling that \( S_i = \alpha_i \gamma_i / (\Gamma_i) \) and \( S = \sum_{i=1}^{s'} S_i \), the above relation is equivalent to

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(1-q)} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 > (1 + \lambda) \sigma^2_G \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(1-q)} \right) \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \right\}
\]

\[
\leq \exp \{-\lambda\}.
\]

(4.5.50)

Using similar arguments, we also have

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{3 \alpha_i}{2 \gamma_i} \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 > (1 + \lambda) \frac{3 \sigma^2_G}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\},
\]

(4.5.51)

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{5 \alpha_i}{2 \gamma_i} \| \Delta_{i} \|^2 > (1 + \lambda) \frac{5 \sigma^2_G}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{s'} \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i} \right\} \leq \exp \{-\lambda\}.
\]

(4.5.52)

Using the fact that \( \| \Delta_{H} \|^2 + \| \Delta_{G} \|^2 \leq 2 \| \Delta_{H} \|^2 + 2 \| \Delta_{G} \|^2 \), we conclude from (4.5.46)–(4.5.52) that (4.5.39) holds.

There are various options for choosing the parameters \( \{ \alpha_i \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_i \} \) that satisfy (4.5.37). In the following corollary, we give one example of such parameter settings.

**Corollary 6** Suppose that (4.5.36) holds. If the stepsizes \( \{ \alpha_i \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_i \} \) in Algorithm 4.4 are set to:

\[
\alpha_i = \frac{2}{r+1} \text{ and } \gamma_i = \frac{1}{4L + 3Mr + \beta(r+1)q},
\]

(4.5.53)

where \( \beta > 0 \) is a parameter. Then under Assumption 10,

\[
\mathbb{E}[g(\tilde{w}_{i+1})] \leq \frac{16L^2 D_2}{r(t+1)} + \frac{12M D^2}{r+1} + \frac{\sigma D_Z}{\sqrt{r+1}} \left( \frac{4 \beta D_Z}{\sigma} + \frac{16 \sigma}{3 \beta D_Z} \right) =: C_0(t),
\]

(4.5.54)
where $\sigma$ and $D_Z$ are defined in (4.5.7) and (4.5.36), respectively. Furthermore, under Assumption 11,

\[
\text{Prob}\{g(\bar{w}_{t+1}) > C_0(t) + \lambda C_1(t)\} \leq 2\exp\{-\lambda^2/3\} + 3\exp\{-\lambda\}, \ \forall \lambda > 0,
\]

where

\[
C_1(t) := \frac{\sigma D_Z}{\sqrt{t-1}} \left(\frac{q^2}{3} + \frac{16\sigma}{3\beta D_Z}\right).
\] (4.5.55)

**Proof.** It is easy to check that

\[
\tilde{\Gamma}_t = \frac{2}{t(t+1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\alpha_t}{t^{3/2}} \leq \frac{\alpha_{t+1}}{(t+1)^{3/2}}.
\]

In addition, in view of (4.5.53), we have $\gamma_t \leq t/(4L)$ and $\gamma_t^2 \leq 1/(9M^2)$, which implies

\[
\frac{5}{6} - L\alpha_t \gamma_t^2 - 3M^2 t^2 \gamma_t^2 \geq \frac{5}{6} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{t+1} - \frac{1}{3} \geq 0.
\]

Therefore the first relation in (4.5.37) holds with constant $q = 5/6$. In view of Theorem 5, it now suffices to show that $Q_0(t) \leq C_0(t)$ and $Q_1(t) \leq C_1(t)$. Observing that $\alpha_t/\tilde{\Gamma}_t = t$, and $\gamma_t \leq 1/(\beta\sqrt{t})$, we obtain

\[
\sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\tilde{\Gamma}_i^2} \leq \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^t \sqrt{i} \leq \frac{1}{p} \int_0^{t+1} \sqrt{i} \, di = \frac{1}{p} \cdot \frac{2(t+1)^{3/2}}{3} = \frac{2(t+1)^{3/2}}{3p}.
\]

Using the above relation, (4.5.36), (4.5.38), (4.5.40), (4.5.53), and the fact that $\sqrt{i+1}/i \leq 1/\sqrt{i-1}$ and $\sum_{i=1}^t t^2 \leq t(t+1)^2/3$, we have

\[
Q_0(t) = \frac{4D_Z^2}{(t+1)^2} \left(4L + 3Mt + \beta (t+1)\sqrt{t}\right) + \frac{8\sigma^2}{t(t+1)} \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\tilde{\Gamma}_i^2}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{16D_Z^2}{(t+1)^2} + \frac{12MD_Z^2}{t+1} + \frac{4\beta D_Z^2}{\sqrt{t}} + \frac{16\alpha^2\sqrt{t+1}}{3\beta t}
\]

\[
\leq C_0(t),
\]

and

\[
Q_1(t) = \frac{2(\alpha_0 + \sigma t)}{t(t+1)} D_Z \sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^t i^2 + \frac{8\sigma^2}{t(t+1)} \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\tilde{\Gamma}_i^2}}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2\sqrt{2(\alpha_0 + \sigma t)} D_Z}{3\beta t} + \frac{16\sigma^2\sqrt{t+1}}{3\beta t}
\]

\[
\leq C_1(t).
\]

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 6. Firstly, in view of (4.5.8), (4.5.54) and (4.5.55), we can clearly see that the SAMP method is robust with respect to the estimates of $\sigma$ and $D_Z$. Indeed, the SAMP method achieves the optimal iteration complexity for solving the SVI problem as long as
We call \( \tilde{v} \) with unbounded feasible sets, under the assumption that a strong solution of (4.5.6) \( L \), which implies that this algorithm allows \( t \geq \gamma \), we have \( \varepsilon \), where \( \Gamma \). Suppose that \( V \) exists. In the following theorem, we demonstrate some convergence properties of Algorithm 4.4 for solving the stochastic problem \( SVI(Z;G,H,J) \) when \( Z \) is unbounded. To study the convergence properties of SAMP in this case, we use a perturbation-based termination criterion based on the enlargement of a maximal monotone operator. More specifically, we say that the pair \((\tilde{v},\tilde{u})\) in \( \mathbb{R}^n \times Z \) is a \((\rho,\varepsilon)\)-approximate solution of \( SVI(Z;G,H,J) \) if \( \|\tilde{v}\| \leq \rho \) and \( \bar{g}(\tilde{u},\tilde{v}) \leq \varepsilon \), where the gap function \( \bar{g}(:,\cdot) \) is defined by

\[
\bar{g}(\tilde{u},\tilde{v}) := \sup_{w \in Z} Q(\bar{u},u) - \langle \tilde{u},\tilde{u} - u \rangle.
\]

We call \( \tilde{v} \) the perturbation vector associated with \( \tilde{u} \). One advantage of employing this termination criterion is that the convergence analysis does not depend on the boundedness of \( Z \).

Theorem 7 below describes the convergence properties of SAMP for solving SVIs with unbounded feasible sets, under the assumption that a strong solution of (4.5.6) exists.

**Theorem 7** Suppose that \( V(r,z) := \|z - r\|^2/2 \) for any \( r \in Z \) and \( z \in Z \). If the parameters \( \{\alpha_t\} \) and \( \{\gamma_t\} \) in Algorithm 4.4 are chosen such that \( \alpha_1 = 1 \), and for all \( t > 1 \),

\[
0 \leq \alpha_t < 1, \quad L\alpha_t + 3M^2\gamma_t^2 \leq c^2 < q \text{ for some } c, q \in (0,1), \quad \text{and } \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t} = \frac{\alpha_{t+1}}{\gamma_{t+1}}.
\]

where \( \Gamma_t \) is defined in (4.5.17). Then for all \( t \geq 1 \) there exists a perturbation vector \( v_{t+1} \) and a residual \( \varepsilon_{t+1} \geq 0 \) such that \( \bar{g}(\bar{w}_{t+1},v_{t+1}) \leq \varepsilon_{t+1} \). Moreover, for all \( t \geq 1 \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|v_{t+1}\|] \leq \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t} \left( 2D + 2\sqrt{D^2 + C_t^2} \right),
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon_{t+1}] \leq \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma_t} \left( (3 + 6\theta)D^2 + (1 + 6\theta)C_t^2 \right) + \frac{18q^2\gamma_t^2}{\gamma_t} \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^3,
\]

where

\[
\beta = O(\sigma/D) \Rightarrow \text{sub-optimality gap}.
\]
We then conclude from (4.5.63), (4.5.66), and (4.5.68) that
\[ D := \| r_1 - u^* \|, \quad (4.5.61) \]

\( u^* \) is a strong solution of SVI(\( Z, G, H, J \)),

\[ \theta = \max \left\{ 1, \frac{c^2}{q-c^2} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad C_i = \sqrt{\left[ 4\sigma_G^2 + \left( 1 + \frac{1}{q-1} - \frac{1}{q-1} \right) \right] \sigma_G^2 \sum_{i=1}^t \gamma_i^2}. \quad (4.5.62) \]

**Proof.** Let \( U_t \) be defined in (4.5.45). Firstly, applying (4.5.58) and (4.5.44) to (4.5.30) in Lemma 3, we have

\[ \frac{1}{t} Q(\tilde{w}_{t+1}, u) \quad (4.5.63) \]

\[ \leq B_t(u, r_t) - \frac{\alpha_t}{2t/\|y\|} \sum_{i=1}^t (q - c^2) \| r_i - w_{t+1} \|^2 + B_t(u, w_{t+1}^* + U_t), \quad \forall u \in Z. \quad (4.5.64) \]

In addition, applying (4.5.58) to the definition of \( B_t(\cdot, \cdot) \) in (4.5.31), we obtain

\[ B_t(u, r_t) = \frac{\alpha_t}{2t/\|y\|} (\| r_1 - u \|^2 - \| r_{t+1} - u \|^2) \quad (4.5.65) \]

\[ = \frac{\alpha_t}{2t/\|y\|} (\| r_1 - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 - \| r_{t+1} - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 + 2 \langle r_1 - r_{t+1}, \tilde{w}_{t+1} - u \rangle). \quad (4.5.66) \]

By using a similar argument and the fact that \( w_{t+1}^* = w_1 = r_1 \), we have

\[ B_t(u, w_{t+1}^*) = \frac{\alpha_t}{2t/\|y\|} (\| r_1 - u \|^2 - \| w_{t+1}^* - u \|^2) \quad (4.5.67) \]

\[ = \frac{\alpha_t}{2t/\|y\|} (\| r_1 - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 - \| w_{t+1}^* - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 + 2 \langle r_1 - w_{t+1}^*, \tilde{w}_{t+1} - u \rangle). \quad (4.5.68) \]

We then conclude from (4.5.63), (4.5.66), and (4.5.68) that

\[ Q(\tilde{w}_{t+1}, u) - \langle v_{t+1}, \tilde{w}_{t+1} - u \rangle \leq \varepsilon_{t+1}, \quad \forall u \in Z, \quad (4.5.69) \]

where

\[ v_{t+1} := \frac{\alpha_t}{8} (2r_1 - r_{t+1} - w_{t+1}^*) \quad (4.5.70) \]

and

\[ \varepsilon_{t+1} := \frac{\alpha_t}{8} \left( 2 \| r_1 - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 - \| r_{t+1} - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 - \| w_{t+1}^* - \tilde{w}_{t+1} \|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^t (q - c^2) \| r_i - w_i \|^2 + \Gamma_t U_t. \right) \quad (4.5.71) \]

It is easy to see that the residual \( \varepsilon_{t+1} \) is positive by setting \( u = \tilde{w}_{t+1} \) in (4.5.69). Hence \( \hat{g}(\tilde{w}_{t+1}, v_{t+1}) \leq \varepsilon_{t+1} \). To finish the proof, it suffices to estimate the bounds for \( E[\| v_{t+1} \|] \) and \( E[\varepsilon_{t+1}] \). Observe that by (4.5.2), (4.5.6), (4.5.15) and the convexity of \( G \) and \( J \), we have

\[ Q(\tilde{w}_{t+1}, u^*) \geq \langle F(u^*), \tilde{w}_{t+1} - u^* \rangle \geq 0, \quad (4.5.72) \]
where the last inequality follows from the assumption that \( u^* \) is a strong solution of \( SVI(Z; G, H, J) \). Using the above inequality and letting \( u = u^* \) in (4.5.63), we conclude from (4.5.65) and (4.5.67) that

\[
2\|r_1 - u^*\|^2 - \|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^t (q - c^2) \|r_i - w_{i+1}\|^2 + \frac{2\bar{E} \gamma}{\alpha} U_t \\
\geq 2\bar{E} Q(\bar{w}_{i+1}, u^*) \geq 0.
\]

By the above inequality and the definition of \( D \) in (4.5.61), we have

\[
\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + \|w_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^t (q - c^2) \|r_i - w_{i+1}\|^2 \leq 2D^2 + \frac{2\bar{E} \gamma}{\alpha} U_t.
\]

In addition, applying (4.5.58) and the definition of \( C_t \) in (4.5.62) to (4.4.74), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[U_t] \leq \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha r_t^2}{\tau^2} \left[ 4\sigma_H^2 + \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2(1-q)} \right) \sigma_G^2 \right] = \frac{\alpha r_t^2 C_t}{\tau^2}.
\]

Combining (4.5.73) and (4.5.74), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2] + \mathbb{E}[\|w_{i+1} - u^*\|^2] + \sum_{i=1}^t (q - c^2) \mathbb{E}[\|r_i - w_{i+1}\|^2] \leq 2D^2 + 2C_t^2.
\]

We are now ready to prove (4.5.59). Observe from the definition of \( v_{i+1} \) in (4.5.70) and the definition of \( D \) in (4.5.61) that \( \|v_{i+1}\| \leq \alpha (2D + \|w_{i+1} - u^*\| + \|r_{i+1} - u^*\|)/\gamma \), using the previous inequality, Jensen’s inequality, and (4.5.75), we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|v_{i+1}\|] \leq \frac{\alpha}{\bar{r}} (2D + \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[\|r_{i+1} - u^*\| + \|w_{i+1} - u^*\|^2]}) \\
\leq \frac{\alpha}{\bar{r}} (2D + 2\sqrt{\mathbb{E}[\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + \|w_{i+1} - u^*\|^2]}) \leq \frac{\alpha}{\bar{r}} (2D + 2\sqrt{D^2 + C_t^2}).
\]

Our remaining goal is to prove (4.5.60). By (4.5.14) and (4.5.17), we have

\[
\frac{1}{r_{i+1}} \bar{w}_{i+1} = \frac{1}{r_{i+1}} \bar{w}_i + \frac{\alpha}{r_{i+1}} w_{i+1}, \quad \forall t > 1.
\]

Using the assumption that \( \bar{w}_1 = w_1 \), we obtain

\[
\bar{w}_{i+1} = \Gamma_i \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha}{r_i} w_{i+1}, \quad \text{ (4.5.76)}
\]

where by (4.5.17) we have

\[
\Gamma_i \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha}{r_i} = 1. \quad \text{ (4.5.77)}
\]

Therefore, \( \bar{w}_{i+1} \) is a convex combination of iterates \( w_2, \ldots, w_{i+1} \). Also, by a similar argument in the proof of Lemma 3, applying Lemma 1 to (4.5.12) and (4.5.13) (with \( r = r_1, w = w_{i+1}, y = r_{i+1}, \eta = \eta H(w_1; \xi_{i+1}) + \gamma G(w_1; \xi_1), \bar{\eta} = \gamma H(w_{i+1}; \xi_2) + \gamma G(w_{i+1}; \xi_1), J = \gamma J, L = 3M^2 \gamma^2 \) and \( M^2 = 3\gamma^2 (\|A_H^2\|_2^2 + \|A_H^{2-1}\|_2^2), \) and using
we conclude from (4.5.78) and Assumption 10 that
\[
\frac{1}{2} \|(r_{t+1} - w_{t+1})\|^2 \leq \frac{3M^2\gamma^2}{T} \|r_t - w_{t+1}\|^2 + \frac{3\gamma^2}{T} \left(\|\Delta_H^2\|^2 + \|\Delta_H^{2-1}\|^2\right)
\]
where the last inequality follows from (4.5.58).

Now using (4.5.71), (4.5.76), (4.5.77), the above inequality, and applying Jensen’s inequality, we have
\[
e_{t+1} - \Gamma_t U_t \leq \frac{\alpha_t}{2} \|r_1 - \bar{w}_t\|^2
\]
\[
= \frac{\alpha_t}{2} \left\|r_1 - u^* + \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} (u^* - r_{i+1}) + \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} (r_{i+1} - w_{t+1})\right\|^2
\]
\[
\leq \frac{3\alpha_t}{2} \left[ D^2 + \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} \left(\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + \|w_{t+1} - r_{i+1}\|^2\right)\right]
\]
\[
\leq \frac{3\alpha_t}{2} \left[ D^2 + \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} \left(\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + c^2 \|w_{t+1} - r_{i}\|^2\right)\right.
\]
\[
+ \left. 3\gamma^2 \left(\|\Delta_H^2\|^2 + \|\Delta_H^{2-1}\|^2\right)\right].
\]
(4.5.78)

Noting that by (4.5.62) and (4.5.73),
\[
\Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} \left(\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + c^2 \|w_{t+1} - r_{i}\|^2\right)
\]
\[
\leq \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} \left(\|r_{i+1} - u^*\|^2 + (q - c^2) \|w_{t+1} - r_{i}\|^2\right)
\]
\[
\leq \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} \left(2D^2 + \frac{2\gamma^2}{\alpha_i} U_i\right) = 2\theta D^2 + 2\theta \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i U_i,
\]
and that by (4.5.58),
\[
\Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{3\alpha_i^2}{T_i} \left(\|\Delta_H^2\|^2 + \|\Delta_H^{2-1}\|^2\right)
\]
\[
= \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{3\alpha_i^2}{T_i} \left(\|\Delta_H^2\|^2 + \|\Delta_H^{2-1}\|^2\right) = \frac{3\alpha_t}{T_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i \left(\|\Delta_H^2\|^2 + \|\Delta_H^{2-1}\|^2\right),
\]
we conclude from (4.5.74), (4.5.78) and Assumption 10 that
\[
\mathbb{E}[e_{t+1}] \leq \Gamma_t \mathbb{E}[U_t] + \frac{3\alpha_t}{T_t} \left[ D^2 + 2\theta D^2 + 2\theta \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i \mathbb{E}[U_i] + \frac{6\alpha_t \gamma_i^2}{T_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i^2\right]
\]
\[
\leq \frac{\alpha_t}{T_t} C_t^2 + \frac{3\alpha_t}{T_t} \left[ (1 + 2\theta) D^2 + 2\theta \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} C_i^2 + \frac{6\alpha_t \gamma_i^2}{T_t} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma_i^2\right].
\]
Finally, observing from (4.5.62) and (4.5.77) that
\[
\Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} C_i^2 \leq C_t^2 \Gamma_t \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\alpha_i}{T_i} = C_t^2,
\]
we conclude (4.5.60) from the above inequality.
Below we give an example of parameters $\alpha_t$ and $\gamma_t$ that satisfies (4.5.58).

**Corollary 8** Suppose that there exists a strong solution of (4.5.1). If the maximum number of iterations $N$ is given, and the stepsizes $\{\alpha_t\}$ and $\{\gamma_t\}$ in Algorithm 4.4 are set to

$$\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_t = \frac{t}{5L+3MN+\beta N\sqrt{N-1}},$$

where $\sigma$ is defined in Corollary 6, then there exists $v_N \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\varepsilon_N > 0$, such that

$$\tilde{g}(\bar{w}_t)[N], v_N \leq \varepsilon_N,$$

and

$$E[\|v_N\|] \leq \frac{4L}{N(N-1)} + \frac{2MD}{N-1} + \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N-1}} \left( \frac{8BD}{\sigma} + 5 \right),$$

which implies that (4.5.58) is satisfied with $c = 1/2$ and $q = 4/3$. Observing from (4.5.79) that $\gamma_t = t\gamma_1$, setting $t = N - 1$ in (4.5.62) and (4.5.79), we obtain

$$E[\varepsilon_N] \leq \frac{90LD^2}{N(N-1)} + \frac{54MD^2}{N-1} + \frac{\sigma D}{\sqrt{N-1}} \left( \frac{18BD}{\sigma} + \frac{56}{3} \right).$$

Proof. Clearly, we have $\Gamma_t = 2/[t(t+1)]$, and hence (4.5.17) is satisfied. Moreover, in view of (4.5.79), we have

$$L\alpha_t \gamma_t + 3M^2 \gamma_t^2 \leq \frac{2L}{5L+3MN} + \frac{3M^2N^2}{(5L+3MN)^2} \leq \frac{10L^2+6LMN+3M^2N^2}{(5L+3MN)^2} < \frac{5}{12} < \frac{5}{6},$$

which implies that (4.5.58) is satisfied with $c = 5/12$ and $q = 5/6$. Observing from (4.5.79) that $\gamma_t = t\gamma_1$, setting $t = N - 1$ in (4.5.62) and (4.5.79), we obtain

$$\frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{\gamma_{N-1}} = \frac{2}{\gamma_N(N-1)} \quad \text{and} \quad C_{N-1}^2 = 4\sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \gamma_i^2 \leq \frac{4\sigma^2 \gamma_1^2 N^2 (N-1)}{3},$$

where $C_{N-1}$ is defined in (4.5.62). Applying (4.5.82) to (4.5.59) we have

$$E[\|v_N\|] \leq \frac{2}{\gamma_N(N-1)} \left( 4D + 2C_{N-1} \right) \leq \frac{8D}{\gamma_N(N-1)} + \frac{8\sigma}{\sqrt{N-1}} \left( \frac{8BD}{\sigma} + 5 \right).$$

In addition, using (4.5.60), (4.5.82), and the facts that $\theta = 1$ in (4.5.62) and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \gamma_i^3 = \gamma_1^3 N^2 (N-1)^2 / 4,$$

we have
4.6 Stochastic block mirror descent method

In the section we consider the stochastic programming problem given by

\[ f^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ f(x) := \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)] \}. \]  

(4.6.1)

Here \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a closed convex set, \( \xi \) is a random variable with support \( \Xi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( F(\cdot, \xi) : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is continuous for every \( \xi \in \Xi \). In addition, we assume that \( X \) has a block structure, i.e.,

\[ X = X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots \times X_b, \]  

(4.6.2)

where \( X_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, i = 1, \ldots, b \) are closed convex sets with \( n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_b = n \).

The block coordinate descent (BCD) method is a natural method for solving problems with \( X \) given in the form of (4.6.2). In comparison with regular first-order methods, each iteration of these methods updates only one block of variables. In particular, if each block consists of only one variable (i.e., \( n_i = 1, i = 1, \ldots, b \)), then the BCD method becomes the classical coordinate descent (CD) method.

Most BCD methods were designed for solving deterministic optimization problems. One possible approach for solving problem (4.6.1), based on these methods and the sample average approximation (SAA), can be described as follows. For a given set of i.i.d. samples (dataset) \( \xi_k, k = 1, \ldots, N \), of \( \xi \), we first approximate \( f(\cdot) \) in (4.6.1) by \( \hat{f}(x) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} F(x, \xi_k) \) and then apply the BCD methods to \( \min_{x \in X} \hat{f}(x) \).

Several remarks are in place for the results obtained in Theorem 7 and Corollary 8. Firstly, similarly to the bounded case (see the remark after Corollary 6), one may want to choose \( \beta \) in a way such that the right hand side of (4.5.80) or (4.5.81) is minimized, e.g., \( \beta = \mathcal{O}(\sigma / D) \). However, since the value of \( D \) will be very difficult to estimate for the unbounded case and hence one often has to resort to a suboptimal selection for \( \beta \). For example, if \( \beta = \sigma \), then the RHS of (4.5.80) and (4.5.81) will become \( \mathcal{O}(LD/N^2 + MD/N + \sigma D / \sqrt{N}) \) and \( \mathcal{O}(LD^2/N^2 + MD^2/N + \sigma D^2 / \sqrt{N}) \), respectively. Secondly, both residuals \( \| \nu_k \| \) and \( \epsilon_N \) in (4.5.80) and (4.5.81) converge to 0 at the same rate (up to a constant factor). Finally, it is only for simplicity that we assume that \( V(r, z) = \| z - r \|^2 / 2 \); Similar results can be achieved under assumptions that \( \nabla \omega \) is Lipschitz continuous.
Since $\xi_k, k = 1, \ldots, N$, are fixed a priori, by recursively updating the (sub)gradient of $\tilde{f}$, the iteration cost of the BCD method can be considerably smaller than that of the gradient descent methods. However, the above SAA approach is also known for the following drawbacks: a) the high memory requirement to store $\xi_k, k = 1, \ldots, N$; b) the high dependence (at least linear) of the iteration cost on the sample size $N$, which can be expensive when dealing with large datasets; and c) the difficulty to apply the approach to the on-line setting where one needs to update the solution whenever a new piece of data $\xi_k$ is collected.

A different approach to solve problem (4.6.1) is to apply the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) type methods as introduced in the previous few sections. Note that all these algorithms only need to access one single $\xi_k$ at each iteration, and hence does not require much memory. In addition, their iteration cost is independent of the sample size $N$. However, since these algorithms need to update the whole vector $x$ at each iteration, their iteration cost can strongly depend on $n$ unless the problem is very sparse.

Our main goal in this section is to present a new class of stochastic optimization methods, referred to as the stochastic block mirror descent (SBMD) methods, by incorporating the aforementioned block-coordinate decomposition into the classic stochastic mirror descent method. As a motivating example, consider an important class of SP problems with $F(x, \xi) = \psi(Bx - q, \xi)$, where $B$ is a certain linear operator and $\psi$ is a relatively simple function. These problems arise from many machine learning applications, where $\psi$ is a loss function and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ denotes a certain basis (or dictionary) obtained by, e.g., metric learning. Each iteration of existing SGD methods would require $O(mn)$ arithmetic operations to compute $Bx$ and becomes prohibitive if $mn$ exceeds $10^{12}$. On the other hand, by using block-coordinate decomposition with $n_i = 1$, the iteration cost of the SBMD algorithms can be significantly reduced to $O(m)$, which can be further reduced if $B$ and $\xi_k$ are sparse (see Subsection 4.6.1.1 for more discussions). Our development has also been motivated by the situation when the bottleneck of the mirror descent method exists in the projection (or prox-mapping) subproblems (see (?)), in the sense that $X$ is decomposable and the computation of the projection over $X$ is more expensive than that of gradient. In this case, we can also significantly reduce the iteration cost by using the block-coordinate decomposition, since each iteration of the SBMD method requires only one projection over $X_i$ for some $1 \leq i \leq b$, while the mirror descent method needs to perform the projections over $X_i$ for all $1 \leq i \leq b$. It should be noted, however, that our algorithm does not apply to the situation when a decomposition of $X$ is not available.

To fix notation in this section, we use $\mathbb{R}^{n_i}, i = 1, \ldots, b$, to denote Euclidean spaces equipped with inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and norm $\| \cdot \|_{i}$ ($\| \cdot \|_{i,*}$ be the conjugate) such that $\sum_{i=1}^{b} n_i = n$. Let $I_n$ be the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $U_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n_i}$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, b$, be the set of matrices satisfying $(U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_b) = I_n$. For a given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we denote its $i$-th block by $x^{(i)} = U_i^T x, i = 1, \ldots, b$. Note that $x = U_1 x^{(1)} + \ldots + U_b x^{(b)}$. Moreover, we define $\|x\|_2^2 = \|x^{(1)}\|_{2,i}^2 + \ldots + \|x^{(b)}\|_{2,b}^2$, and denote its conjugate by $\|y\|_2^2 = \|y^{(1)}\|_{2,i,*}^2 + \ldots + \|y^{(b)}\|_{2,b,*}^2$.
4.6 Stochastic block mirror descent method

4.6.1 Nonsmooth convex optimization

In this subsection we assume that the objective function \( f \) of problem (4.6.1) is convex but not necessarily differentiable. The SBMD method incorporates random block decomposition into the classic mirror descent method. More specifically, each iteration of this algorithm updates one block of the search point along a stochastic (sub)gradient direction given by

\[
G_i(x, \xi) = U^T_i G(x, \xi).
\]

Here, the index \( i_k \) is randomly chosen and \( G(x, \xi) \) is an unbiased estimator of the subgradient of \( f(\cdot) \), i.e.,

\[
\mathbb{E}[G(x, \xi)] = g(x) \in \partial f(x), \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

Moreover, we assume that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|G_i(x, \xi)\|^2_{\alpha}] \leq M^2_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, b.
\]

(4.6.4)

Clearly, by (4.6.3) and (4.6.4), we have

\[
\|g_i(x)\|_{\alpha}^2 = \|\mathbb{E}[G_i(x, \xi)]\|_{\alpha}^2 \leq \mathbb{E}[\|G_i(x, \xi)\|^2_{\alpha}] \leq M^2_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, b,
\]

and

\[
\|g(x)\|^2_{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \|g_i(x)\|^2_{\alpha} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{b} M^2_i.
\]

(4.6.6)

4.6.1.1 The SBMD algorithm for nonsmooth problems

We present a general scheme of the SBMD algorithm, based on Bregman’s divergence, to solve stochastic convex optimization problems.

Recall that a function \( \nu_i : X_i \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) is a distance generating function with modulus \( \alpha_i \) with respect to \( \|\cdot\|_i \), if \( \nu \) is continuously differentiable and strongly convex with parameter \( \alpha_i \) with respect to \( \|\cdot\|_i \). Without loss of generality, we assume throughout the paper that \( \alpha_i = 1 \) for any \( i = 1, \ldots, b \) because we can always rescale \( \nu(x) \) to \( \bar{\nu}(x) = \nu(x)/\alpha_i \) in case \( \alpha_i \neq 1 \). Therefore, we have

\[
\langle x - z, \nabla \nu_i(x) - \nabla \nu_i(z) \rangle \geq \|x - z\|^2_i \quad \forall x, z \in X_i.
\]

The prox-function (or Bregman distance) associated with \( \nu_i \) is given by

\[
V_i(z, x) = \nu_i(x) - [\nu_i(z) + \langle \nabla \nu_i(z), x - z \rangle] \quad \forall x, z \in X_i.
\]

(4.6.7)

Suppose that the set \( X_i \) is bounded, the distance generating function \( \nu_i \) also gives rise to the diameter of \( X_i \) that will be used frequently in our convergence analysis:

\[
\mathcal{D}_{\nu_i, X_i} := \max_{x \in X_i} \nu_i(x) - \min_{x \in X_i} \nu_i(x).
\]

(4.6.8)

For the sake of notational convenience, sometimes we simply denote \( \mathcal{D}_{\nu_i, X_i} \) by \( D_i \). Note that the definition of \( \mathcal{D}_{\nu_i, X_i} \) slightly differs the diameter \( D_{X_i} \) in (3.2.4).
which, in view of the strong convexity of $x$. Therefore, for any $x \in X$,

$$V_i(x^{(i)}_1, x^{(i)}) = V_i(x^{(i)}) - \langle \nabla V_i(x^{(i)}_1), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_1 \rangle \leq V_i(x^{(i)}) - V_i(x^{(i)}_1) \leq D_i,$$

(4.6.9)

which, in view of the strong convexity of $V_i$, also implies that $\|x^{(i)}_1 - x^{(i)}\|_2^2 / 2 \leq D_i$. Therefore, for any $x, y \in X$, we have

$$\|x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}\|_i \leq \|x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_1\|_i + \|x^{(i)}_1 - y^{(i)}\|_i \leq 2\sqrt{2D_i},$$

(4.6.10)

$$\|x - y\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b \|x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}\|_i^2} \leq 2\sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^b D_i}.$$

(4.6.11)

With the above definition of the prox-mapping, we can formally describe the stochastic block mirror descent (SBMD) method as in Algorithm 4.5.

**Algorithm 4.5 The Stochastic Block Mirror Descent (SBMD) Algorithm**

Let $x_i \in X$, positive stepsizes $\{\gamma_i\}_{i=1}^b$, nonnegative weights $\{\theta_i\}_{i=1}^b$, and probabilities $\pi_i \in [0, 1]$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, such that $\sum_{i=1}^b \pi_i = 1$ be given. Set $x_1 = 0$, and $u_i = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, b$.

For $k = 1, \ldots, N$ do

1. Generate a random variable $i_k$ according to

$$\text{Prob}\{i_k = i\} = \pi_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b.$$  

(4.6.12)

2. Update $s^{(i)}_k$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, by

$$s^{(i)}_{k+1} = \begin{cases} s^{(i)}_k + \sum_{j=0}^b \theta_j \quad &\text{if } i = i_k, \\ s^{(i)}_k &\text{if } i \neq i_k, \end{cases}$$

(4.6.13)

and then set $u_{i_k} = k + 1$.

3. Update $x^{(i)}_k$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, by

$$x^{(i)}_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{G_{\pi_i}(x, \xi_k), u\} + \frac{1}{\pi_i} V_i(x^{(i)}_k, u) &\text{if } i = i_k, \\ x^{(i)}_k &\text{if } i \neq i_k. \end{cases}$$

(4.6.14)

End for

Output: Set $s^{(i)}_{N+1} = s^{(i)}_{N+1} + \sum_{j=0}^b \theta_j, i = 1, \ldots, b, i \neq i_N$ and $\bar{x}_N = s_{N+1} / \sum_{i=1}^b \theta_i$.

We now add a few remarks about the SBMD algorithm stated above. Firstly, note that in this algorithm, the random variables $\xi_k$ and $i_k$, $k = 1, \ldots$, are assumed to be independent of each other. Secondly, each iteration of the SBMD method recursively updates the search point $x_k$ based on $G_{\pi_i}(x_k, \xi_k)$, the $i_k$-th block of the stochastic subgradient. In addition, rather than taking the average of $\{x_k\}$ in the end
of algorithm as in the mirror-descent method, we introduce an incremental block averaging scheme to compute the output of the algorithm. More specifically, we use a summation vector $s_k$ to denote the weighted sum of $x_k$'s and the index variables $u_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, to record the latest iteration when the $i$-th block of $s_k$ is updated. Then in (4.6.13), we add up the $i_k$-th block of $s_k$ with $x_k \sum_{j=i_k}^{i_k} \theta_j$, where $\sum_{j=i_k}^{i_k} \theta_j$ is often given by explicit formula and hence easy to compute. It can be checked that by using this averaging scheme, we have

$$\bar{x}_N = (\sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_i)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\theta_i x_k).$$

(4.6.15)

Thirdly, observe that in addition to (4.6.13) and (4.6.14), each iteration of the SBMD method involves the computation of $G_{i_k}$. Whenever possible, we should update $G_{i_k}$ recursively in order to reduce the iteration cost of the SBMD algorithm. Consider the SP problems with the objective function

$$f(x) = \mathbb{E}[\psi(Bx - q, \xi)] + \chi(x),$$

where $\psi(\cdot)$ and $\chi(\cdot)$ are relatively simple functions, $q \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$. For the sake of simplicity, let us also assume that $n_1 = \ldots = n_b = 1$. For example, in the well-known support vector machine (SVM) problem, we have $\psi(y) = \max \{\langle y, \xi \rangle, 0\}$ and $\chi(x) = \|x\|^2_2/2$. In order to compute the full vector $G(x_k, \xi_k)$, we need $O(mn)$ arithmetic operations to compute the vector $Bx_k - q$, which majorizes other arithmetic operations if $\psi$ and $\chi$ are simple. On the other hand, by recursively updating the vector $y_k = Bx_k$ in the SBMD method, we can significantly reduce the iteration cost from $O(mn)$ to $O(m)$. This bound can be further reduced if both $\xi_k$ and $B$ are sparse (i.e., the vector $\xi_k$ and each row vector of $B$ contain just a few nonzeros).

The above example can be generalized to the case when $B$ has $r \times b$ blocks denoted by $B_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $1 \leq i \leq r$ and $1 \leq j \leq b$, and each block row $B_i = (B_{i,1}, \ldots, B_{i,b})$, $i = 1, \ldots, r$, is block-sparse.

Finally, observe that the above SBMD method is conceptual only because we have not yet specified the selection of the stepsizes $\gamma_k$, the weights $\theta_k$, and the probabilities $p_i$. We will specify these parameters after establishing some basic convergence properties of this method.

### 4.6.1.2 Convergence properties of SBMD for nonsmooth problems

In this subsection, we discuss the main convergence properties of the SBMD method for solving general nonsmooth convex problems.

**Theorem 4.10.** Let $\bar{x}_N$ be the output of the SBMD algorithm and suppose that

$$\theta_k = \gamma_k, \ k = 1, \ldots, N.$$  

(4.6.16)

Then we have, for any $N \geq 1$, 


\[
\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x)] \leq V_{k+1}^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x_i^{(i)}, x_i^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_{k}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2,
\]
(4.6.17)
where \(x_*\) is an arbitrary solution of (4.6.1) and the expectation is taken with respect to (w.r.t.) \(i_k\) and \(\xi_k\).

Proof. For simplicity, let us denote \(V_i(z, x) \equiv V_i(\bar{z}^{(i)}, x^{(i)})\), \(g_{i_k} \equiv g(x^{(i)})(x_k)\) (c.f. (4.6.3)) and \(V(z, x) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} p_i^{-1} V_i(z, x)\). Also let us denote \(\zeta_k = (i_k, \xi_k)\) and \(\zeta_{[k]} = (\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_k)\). By the optimality condition of (??) (see Lemma 4.3) and the definition of \(x_k^{(i)}\) in (4.6.14), we have
\[
V_{i_k}(x_{k+1}, x) \leq V_{i_k}(x_k, x) + \gamma_k \langle G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k), U_{i_k}^T (x - x_k) \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \| G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k) \|_{i_k, *}^2.
\]
Using this observation, we have, for any \(k \geq 1\) and \(x \in X\),
\[
\begin{align*}
V(x_{k+1}, x) &= \sum_{i \neq i_k} p_i^{-1} V_i(x_k, x) + p_{i_k}^{-1} V_{i_k}(x_{k+1}, x) \\
&\leq \sum_{i \neq i_k} p_i^{-1} V_i(x_k, x) + p_{i_k}^{-1} \left[ V_{i_k}(x_k, x) + \gamma_k \langle G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k), U_{i_k}^T (x - x_k) \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \| G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k) \|_{i_k, *}^2 \right] \\
&= V(x_k, x) + \gamma_k p_{i_k}^{-1} \langle U_{i_k} G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k), x - x_k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 p_{i_k}^{-1} \| G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k) \|_{i_{i_k}, *}^2 \\
&= V(x_k, x) + \gamma_k \langle g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle + \gamma_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \tilde{\delta}_k,
\end{align*}
\]
(4.6.18)
where
\[
\delta_k := \langle p_{i_k}^{-1} U_{i_k} G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k) - g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\delta}_k := p_{i_k}^{-1} \| G_{i_k}(x_k, \xi_k) \|_{i_{i_k}, *}^2.
\]
(4.6.19)
It then follows from (4.6.18) and the convexity of \(f(\cdot)\) that, for any \(k \geq 1\) and \(x \in X\),
\[
\gamma_k [f(x_k) - f(x)] \leq \gamma_k \langle g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle \leq V(x_k, x) - V(x_{k+1}, x) + \gamma_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \tilde{\delta}_k.
\]
By using the above inequalities, the convexity of \(f(\cdot)\), and the fact that \(\bar{x}_N = \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k x_k) / \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k\) due to (4.6.15) and (4.6.16), we conclude that for any \(N \geq 1\) and \(x \in X\),
\[
f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \left[ f(x_k) - f(x) \right] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \left( V(x_k, x) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \gamma_i^2 \delta_i + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_i^2 \tilde{\delta}_i \right).
\]
(4.6.20)
Now, observe that by (4.6.3) and (4.6.12),
\[
\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ p_{i_k}^{-1} \langle U_{i_k} G_{i_k}(x_k, x - x_k) \rangle \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \langle U_i G_i(x_k, \xi_k), x - x_k \rangle \right] = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \langle g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle = \langle g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle,
\]
and hence that using the independence between \(i_k\) and \(\xi_k\), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\delta_k | \xi_{[k-1]}] = 0.
\]
(4.6.21)
Also, by (4.6.4) and (4.6.12),
\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ p_k^{-1} \| G_k(x_k; \xi_k) \|_{x_k}^2 \right] = \sum_{i=1}^b p_i p_i^{-1} \| G_i(x_k; \xi_k) \|_{x_k}^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2. \] (4.6.22)

Our result in (4.6.17) then immediately follows by taking expectation on both sides of (4.6.20), replacing \( x \) by \( x_\ast \), and using the previous observations in (4.6.21) and (4.6.22).

Below we provide a few specialized convergence results for the SBMD algorithm after properly selecting \( \{p_i\} \), \( \{\gamma_k\} \), and \( \{\theta_k\} \).

**Corollary 4.5.** Suppose that \( \{\theta_k\} \) in Algorithm 4.5 are set to (4.6.16) and \( x_\ast \) is an arbitrary solution of (4.6.1).

a) If \( X \) is bounded, and \( \{p_i\} \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are set to
\[ p_i = \frac{\sqrt{D_i}}{\sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i}}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b, \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_k = \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i}}{\gamma^{N}}} \quad k = 1, \ldots, N, \] (4.6.23)
then
\[ \mathbb{E} [f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\ast)] \leq \sqrt{\frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2}. \] (4.6.24)

b) If \( \{p_i\} \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are set to
\[ p_i = \frac{1}{b}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b, \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_k = \gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^b D_i}{\gamma^{N}}} \quad k = 1, \ldots, N, \] (4.6.25)
for some \( \tilde{D} > 0 \), then
\[ \mathbb{E} [f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\ast)] \leq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1, x_\ast) + \tilde{D} \right) \sqrt{\frac{b}{2N}}. \] (4.6.26)

**Proof.** We show part a) only, since part b) can be proved similarly. Note that by (4.6.9) and (4.6.23), we have
\[ \sum_{i=1}^b p_i^{-1} V_i(x_1, x_\ast) \leq \sum_{i=1}^b p_i^{-1} D_i = \left( \sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i} \right)^2. \]
Using this observation, (4.6.17), and (4.6.23), we have
\[ \mathbb{E} [f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\ast)] \leq (N\gamma)^{-1} \left[ \left( \sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i} \right)^2 + \frac{N^2}{2} \sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2 \right] = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N} \sum_{i=1}^b \sqrt{D_i}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2}. \]

A few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 4.10 and Corollary 4.5 are in place. First, the parameter setting in (4.6.23) only works for the case when \( X \) is bounded, while the one in (4.6.25) also applies to the case when \( X \) is unbounded or when the bounds \( D_i, i = 1, \ldots, b \), are not available. It can be easily seen that the optimal choice of \( \tilde{D} \) in (4.6.26) would be \( \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1, x_\ast)} \). In this case, (4.6.26) reduces to
\( E[f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\star)] \leq \sqrt{2}\sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x_1, x_\star)} \frac{n}{\sqrt{N}} \leq \sqrt{2}\sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i} \frac{\sqrt{b}}{\sqrt{N}}, \)

(4.6.27)

where the second inequality follows from (4.6.9). It is interesting to note the difference between the above bound and (4.6.24). Specifically, the bound obtained in (4.6.24) by using a non-uniform distribution \( \{p_i\} \) always minorizes the one in (4.6.27) by the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality.

Second, observe that in view of (4.6.24), the total number of iterations required by the SBMD method to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (4.6.1) can be bounded by

\[
2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i \right)^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \varepsilon. \tag{4.6.28}
\]

Also note that the iteration complexity of the mirror-descent SA algorithm employed with the same \( \nu_i(\cdot), i = 1, \ldots, b \), is given by

\[
2\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \varepsilon. \tag{4.6.29}
\]

Clearly, the bound in (4.6.28) can be larger, up to a factor of \( b \), than the one in (4.6.29). Therefore, the total arithmetic cost of the SBMD algorithm will be comparable to or smaller than that of the mirror descent SA, if its iteration cost is smaller than that of the latter algorithm by a factor of \( O(b) \).

Third, in Corollary 4.5 we have used a constant stepsize policy where \( \gamma_1 = \ldots = \gamma_N \). However, it should be noted that variable stepsize policies can also be used in the SBMD method.

4.6.1.3 Nonsmooth strongly convex problems

In this subsection, we assume that the objective function \( f(\cdot) \) in (4.6.1) is strongly convex, i.e., \( \exists \mu > 0 \) s.t.

\[
f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle g(x), y-x \rangle + \mu \sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \forall x, y \in X. \tag{4.6.30}
\]

In addition, for the sake of simplicity, we assume that the probability distribution of \( i_k \) is uniform, i.e.,

\[
p_1 = p_2 = \ldots = p_b = \frac{1}{b}. \tag{4.6.31}
\]

It should be noted, however, that our analysis can be easily adapted to the case when \( i_k \) is non-uniform.

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of the SBMD algorithm for solving nonsmooth strongly convex problems.

Theorem 4.11. Suppose that (4.6.30) and (4.6.31) hold. If

\[
\gamma_k \leq \frac{b}{\mu} \tag{4.6.32}
\]

and
\[ \theta_k = \frac{2}{\mu} \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma_k = \begin{cases} 1 & k = 1 \\ \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \frac{\eta}{\delta' \mu}) & k \geq 2, \end{cases} \]  

then, for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\star)] \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_i \right)^{-1} \left( b - \eta \mu \right) \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1^{(i)}, x_\star^{(i)}) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \eta_k \theta_k \sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2, \]

where \( x_\star \) is the optimal solution of (4.6.1).

**Proof.** For simplicity, let us denote \( V_i(z, x) = V_i(z, x^{(i)}) \), \( g_i = g^{(i)}(x_k) \), and \( V(z, x) = \sum_{i=1}^b \mu_i^{-1} V_i(z, x) \). Also let us denote \( \zeta_k = (i_k, \bar{x}_k) \) and \( \zeta[k] = (\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_k) \), and let \( \delta_k \) and \( \bar{\delta}_k \) be defined in (4.6.19). By (4.6.31), we have

\[ V(z, x) = b \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(z^{(i)}, x^{(i)}). \]  

Using this observation, (4.6.18), and (4.6.30), we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
V(x_{k+1}, x) & \leq V(x_k, x) + \eta_k \left( g(x_k, x - x_k) + \eta_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \bar{\delta}_k \right) \\
& \leq V(x_k, x) + \eta_k \left( \frac{\eta}{\delta' \mu} \|x_k - x\|^2 + \eta_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \bar{\delta}_k \right) \\
& \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\eta \mu}{\delta' \mu} \right) V(x_k, x) + \eta_k \left( \frac{\eta}{\delta' \mu} \|x_k - x\|^2 + \eta_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \bar{\delta}_k \right),
\end{align*}
\]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17, then implies that

\[ \frac{1}{\Gamma_k} V(x_{k+1}, x) \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\eta \mu}{\delta' \mu} \right) V(x_k, x) + \sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma_k^{-1} \eta_k \left( \frac{\eta}{\delta' \mu} \|x_k - x\|^2 + \eta_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \bar{\delta}_k \right). \]  

Using the fact that \( V(x_{N+1}, x) \geq 0 \) and (4.6.33), we conclude from the above relation that

\[ \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \left( f(x_k) - f(x) \right) \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\eta \mu}{\delta' \mu} \right) V(x_1, x) + \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \delta_k + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \eta_k \theta_k \bar{\delta}_k. \]  

Taking expectation on both sides of the above inequality, and using relations (4.6.21) and (4.6.22), we obtain

\[ \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k) - f(x)] \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\eta \mu}{\delta' \mu} \right) V(x_1, x) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \eta_k \theta_k \sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2, \]

which, in view of (4.6.15), (4.6.31), and the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \), then clearly implies (4.6.34).

Below we provide a specialized convergence result for the SBMD method to solve nonsmooth strongly convex problems after properly selecting \( \{\eta_k\} \).

**Corollary 4.6.** Suppose that (4.6.30) and (4.6.31) hold. If \( \{\theta_k\} \) are set to (4.6.33) and \( \{\eta_k\} \) are set to

\[ \eta_k = \frac{2b}{\mu k + 1}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N, \]  

then, for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_\star)] \leq \frac{2b}{\mu (N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^b M_i^2, \]
where $x_*$ is the optimal solution of (4.6.1).

**Proof.** It can be easily seen from (4.6.33) and (4.6.38) that

$$
\Gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)}, \quad \theta_k = \frac{k}{2^k}, \quad b - \gamma \mu = 0,
$$

(4.6.40)

and

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\theta_k^2}{2} = \frac{b^2 N(2N+1)}{6} \leq \frac{b^2 N(N+1)^2}{3}.
$$

(4.6.42)

Hence, by (4.6.34),

$$
\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_*)] \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \leq \frac{2b}{\mu N} \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2.
$$

In view of (4.6.39), the number of iterations performed by the SBMD method to find an $\varepsilon$-solution for nonsmooth strongly convex problems can be bound by $\frac{2b}{\mu} \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2$.

### 4.6.1.4 Large-deviation properties for nonsmooth problems

Our goal in this subsection is to establish the large-deviation results associated with the SBMD algorithm under the following “light-tail” assumption about the random variable $\xi$:

$$
\mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left[ \|G_i(x, \xi)\|_2^2 / M_i^2 \right] \right\} \leq \exp(1), \ i = 1, 2, \ldots, b.
$$

(4.6.43)

It can be easily seen that (4.6.43) implies (4.6.4) by Jensen’s inequality. It should be pointed out that the above “light-tail” assumption is always satisfied for deterministic problems with bounded subgradients.

For the sake of simplicity, we only consider the case when the random variables $\{i_k\}$ in the SBMD algorithm are uniformly distributed, i.e., relation (4.6.31) holds. The following result states the large-deviation properties of the SBMD algorithm for solving general nonsmooth problems.

**Theorem 4.12.** Suppose that Assumptions (4.6.43) and (4.6.31) holds. Also assume that $X$ is bounded.

a) For solving general nonsmooth CP problems (i.e., (4.6.16) holds), we have

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x_*) \geq b \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \right)^{-1} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x^{(i)}_1, x^{(i)}_*) + \frac{1}{2} \bar{M}^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \right] + \lambda \bar{M} \left( \frac{1}{2} \bar{M} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 + 4\sqrt{2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2} \right) \right\} \leq \exp \left( -\lambda^2 / 3 \right) + \exp(-\lambda),
$$

(4.6.44)
for any $N \geq 1$ and $\lambda > 0$, where $M = \max_{i=1,\ldots,b} M_i$ and $x_*$ is an arbitrary solution of (4.6.1).

b) For solving strongly convex problems (i.e., (4.6.30), (4.6.32), and (4.6.33) hold), we have

\[
\Pr \left\{ f(\tilde{x}_N) - f(x_*) \geq b \left( \sum_{i=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{M^2}{b} \right) \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_i(1), x_i(2)) + \frac{1}{2} M^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k \theta_k \right. \\
\left. + \lambda M \left( \frac{1}{2} M \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k \theta_k + 4 \sqrt{2} \sum_{i=1}^b D_i \right) \right] \right\} \leq \exp \left( -\lambda^2 / 3 \right) + \exp(-\lambda),
\]

(4.6.45)

for any $N \geq 1$ where $x_*$ is the optimal solution of (4.6.1).

Proof. We first show part a). Note that by (4.6.43), the concavity of $\phi(t) = \sqrt{t}$ for $t \geq 0$ and the Jensen’s inequality, we have, for any $i = 1, 2, \ldots, b$,

\[
E \left\{ \exp \left[ \|G_i(x, \xi)i\|_{\gamma_i}^2 \right] \right\} \leq \sqrt{E \left\{ \exp \left[ \|G_i(x, \xi)i\|_{\gamma_i}^2 / M_i^2 \right] \right\}} \leq \exp(1/2).
\]

(4.6.46)

Also note that by (4.6.21), $\delta_k, k = 1, \ldots, N$, is the martingale-difference. In addition, denoting $M^2 = 32b^2M^2 \sum_{i=1}^b D_i$, we have

\[
E [\exp (M^{-2} \delta_k^2)] \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \frac{1}{b} E \left\{ \exp \left( M^{-2} \left\| x - x_k \right\|^2 + G_i(x_k, \xi) \right) \right\} \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \frac{1}{b} E \left\{ \exp \left( \left[ 16M^{-2} \sum_{i=1}^b D_i \right] \|G_i(x_k, \xi)\|_{\gamma_i}^2 \right) \right\} \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \frac{1}{b} E \left\{ \exp \left( \frac{\|G_i(x_k, \xi)\|_{\gamma_i}^2}{2M_i^2} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right\} \leq \exp(1),
\]

where the first five inequalities follow from (4.6.12) and (4.6.19), (4.6.31), (4.6.6) and (4.6.11), the definition of $M$, and (4.6.46), respectively. Therefore, by the large-deviation theorem on the Martingale-difference (see Lemma 4.1), we have

\[
\Pr \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k \delta_k \geq \lambda M \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2} \right\} \leq \exp(-\lambda^2 / 3).
\]

(4.6.48)

Also observe that under Assumption (4.6.43), (4.6.12), (4.6.19), and (4.6.31)

\[
E \left[ \exp \left( \tilde{\delta}_k/(bM^2) \right) \right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \frac{1}{b} E \left[ \exp \left( \|G_i(x_k, \xi)\|_{\gamma_i}^2 / M_i^2 \right) \right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \frac{1}{b} \exp(1) = \exp(1),
\]

(4.6.49)

where the second inequality follows from the definition of $M$ and the third one follows from (4.6.4). Setting $\psi_k = \gamma_k^2 / \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k$, we have $\exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^N \psi_k \tilde{\delta}_k/(bM^2) \right\} \leq \exp(1)$. 

4.6 Stochastic block mirror decent method 211
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \psi_k \exp \{ \delta_k / (bM^2) \}. \]

Using these previous two inequalities, we have

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\psi_k^2 \delta_k^2}{(bM^2)^2} \right\} \right] \leq \exp \{1\}. \]

It then follows from Markov’s inequality that \( \forall \lambda \geq 0, \)

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\delta_k^2}{(bM^2)^2} > (1 + \lambda) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\gamma_k^2}{(bM^2)^2} \right\} \]

\[ = \text{Prob} \left\{ \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\delta_k^2}{(bM^2)^2} \right\} > \exp \{ (1 + \lambda) \} \right\} \]

\[ \leq \frac{\mathbb{E} \left[ \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\delta_k^2}{(bM^2)^2} \right\} \right]}{\exp \{1 + \lambda \}} \leq \frac{\exp \{1\}}{\exp \{1 + \lambda \}} = \exp \{-\lambda\}. \quad (4.6.50) \]

Combining (4.6.20), (4.6.48) and (4.6.50), we obtain (4.6.44).

The probabilistic bound in (4.6.45) follows from (4.6.37) and an argument similar to the one used in the proof of (4.6.44), and hence the details are skipped.

We now provide some specialized large-deviation results for the SBMD algorithm with different selections of \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) and \( \{ \theta_k \} \).

**Corollary 4.7.** Suppose that (4.6.43) and (4.6.31) hold. Also assume that \( X \) is bounded.

\( a) \) If \( \{ \theta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to (4.6.16), (4.6.25) and \( \hat{D} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i (x_i^{(i)}, x_i^{*(i)})} \) for general nonsmooth problems, then we have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ f(\tilde{x}_N) - f(x_*) \geq \sqrt{2 \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i} \left[ 1 + (1 + \lambda) \frac{\theta^2}{M} + 8 \lambda \frac{M}{m} \right] \right\} \]

\[ \leq \exp \left( -\lambda^2 / 3 \right) + \exp \left( -\lambda \right) \quad (4.6.51) \]

for any \( \lambda \geq 0 \), where \( m = \min_{i=1,...,b} M_i \) and \( x_* \) is an arbitrary solution of (4.6.1).

\( b) \) If \( \{ \theta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to (4.6.33) and (4.6.38) for strongly convex problems, then we have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ f(\tilde{x}_N) - f(x_*) \geq \frac{2(1 + \lambda) b \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \theta^2}{(N + 1) \mu^2} + \frac{8 \sqrt{2 \lambda} b M \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i}{m \sqrt{3N}} \right\} \]

\[ \leq \exp \left( -\lambda^2 / 3 \right) + \exp \left( -\lambda \right) \quad (4.6.52) \]

for any \( \lambda \geq 0 \), where \( x_* \) is the optimal solution of (4.6.1).

**Proof.** Note that by (4.6.9), we have \( \sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i (x_i^{(i)}, x_i^{*(i)}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i \). Also by (4.6.25), we have

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 = \left( \frac{2b \theta^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2} \right)^{1/2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k^2 = \frac{2b \theta^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2}. \]

Using these identities and (4.6.44), we conclude that
4.6 Stochastic block mirror descent method

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Prob} & \left\{ f(\bar{x}_N) - f(x^*) \geq b \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2}{2N b^2} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x_i^{(i)}, \bar{x}_N^{(i)}) + b \tilde{D}_M^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \right)^{-1} \\
& \quad + \lambda \tilde{M} \left( 2b \tilde{M} \tilde{D}^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \right)^{-1} \right) + 8b^{1/2} \tilde{D} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \right)^{-1/2}} \right] \right\} \\
& \leq \exp \left( -\frac{\lambda^2}{3} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \right).
\end{align*}
\]

Using the fact that \( \sum_{i=1}^{b} M_i^2 \geq b \bar{m}^2 \) and \( \tilde{D} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x_i^{(i)}, x^*)} \) to simplify the above relation, we obtain (4.6.51). Similarly, relation (4.6.52) follows directly from (4.6.45) and a few bounds in (6.4.79), (6.4.80) and (4.6.42).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 4.12 and Corollary 4.7. Firstly, observe that by (4.6.51), the number of iterations required by the SBMD method to find an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (4.6.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \text{Prob}\{ f(\bar{x}) - f^* \geq \varepsilon \} \leq \Lambda \) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left( \frac{b \log^2 (1/\Lambda)}{\varepsilon^2} \right)
\]

after disregarding a few constant factors.

Secondly, it follows from (4.6.52) that the number of iterations performed by the SBMD method to find an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution for nonsmooth strongly convex problems, after disregarding a few constant factors, can be bounded by \( \mathcal{O} \left( b \log^2 (1/\Lambda) / \varepsilon^2 \right) \), which, in case \( b = 1 \), is about the same as the one obtained for solving nonsmooth problems without assuming convexity. It should be noted, however, that this bound can be improved to \( \mathcal{O} \left( b \log (1/\Lambda) / \varepsilon \right) \), for example, by incorporating a domain shrinking procedure (see Section 4.2).

### 4.6.2 Convex composite optimization

In this section, we consider a special class of convex stochastic composite optimization problems given by

\[
\phi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \phi(x) := f(x) + \chi(x) \}.
\]

(4.6.53)

Here \( \chi(\cdot) \) is a relatively simple convex function and \( f(\cdot) \) defined in (4.6.1) is a smooth convex function with Lipschitz-continuous gradients \( g(\cdot) \). Our goal is to present a variant of the SBMD algorithm which can make use of the smoothness properties of the objective function of an SP problem. More specifically, we consider convex composite optimization problems given in the form of (4.6.53), where \( f(\cdot) \) is smooth and its gradients \( g(\cdot) \) satisfy

\[
\|g_i(x + U_i \rho_i) - g_i(x)\|_{i,*} \leq L_i \|\rho_i\|_i \quad \forall \rho_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, \ i = 1, 2, \ldots, b.
\]

(4.6.54)

It then follows that
Algorithm 4.6 as a weighted average of the search points

\[ f(x + U_t\rho_t) \leq f(x) + \langle g_t(x), \rho_t \rangle + \frac{1}{2}\|\rho_t\|^2 \quad \forall \rho_t \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \in X. \] (4.6.55)

The following assumption is made throughout this section.

**Assumption 12** The function \( \chi(\cdot) \) is block separable, i.e., \( \chi(\cdot) \) can be decomposed as

\[ \chi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^b \chi_i(x^{(i)}) \quad \forall x \in X. \] (4.6.56)

where \( \chi_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \) are closed and convex.

We are now ready to describe a variant of the SBMD algorithm for solving smooth and composite problems.

**Algorithm 4.6** A variant of SBMD for convex stochastic composite optimization

Let \( x_1 \in X \), positive stepsizes \( \{\eta_k\}_{k \geq 1} \), nonnegative weights \( \{\theta_k\}_{k \geq 1} \), and probabilities \( p_k \in [0, 1] \), \( i = 1, \ldots, b \), s.t. \( \sum_{i=1}^b p_i = 1 \) be given. Set \( x_1 = 0 \), \( u_i = 1 \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, b \), and \( \theta_1 = 0 \).

for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) do

1. Generate a random variable \( z_k \) according to (4.6.12).
2. Update \( x_k^{(i)} \), \( i = 1, \ldots, b \), by (4.6.13) and then set \( u_i = k + 1 \).
3. Update \( x_k^{(i)} \), \( i = 1, \ldots, b \), by

\[
x_{k+1}^{(i)} = \begin{cases} \arg \min_{x \in X} & \left\{ G(x, \xi_k), z - x^{(i)} \right\} + \frac{1}{p_i} V_i(x^{(i)}, z) + \xi_i(x) \quad i = i_k, \\ \in X \quad & \text{if } i = i_k, \\ \end{cases}
\] (4.6.57)

end for

Output: Set \( s_{N+1}^{(i)} = s_{N+1}^{(i)} + \sum_{k=1}^{N+1} \theta_k \), \( i = 1, \ldots, b \), and \( \bar{x} = s_{N+1}^{(i)} / \sum_{k=1}^{N+1} \theta_k \).

A few remarks about the above variant of SBMD algorithm for composite convex problem in place. Firstly, similar to Algorithm 4.5, \( G(x_k, \xi_k) \) is an unbiased estimator of \( g(x_k) \) (i.e., (4.6.3) holds). Moreover, in order to know exactly the effect of stochastic noises in \( G(x_k, \xi_k) \), we assume that for some \( \sigma_i \geq 0 \),

\[ E[\|G_i(x, \xi) - g_i(x)\|_{i,\rho}^2] \leq \sigma_i^2, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b. \] (4.6.58)

Clearly, if \( \sigma_i = 0, i = 1, \ldots, b \), then the problem is deterministic. For notational convenience, we also denote

\[ \sigma := \left( \sum_{i=1}^b \sigma_i^2 \right)^{1/2}. \] (4.6.59)

Secondly, observe that the way we compute the output \( \bar{x}_N \) in Algorithm 4.6 is slightly different from Algorithm 4.5. In particular, we set \( \theta_i = 0 \) and compute \( \bar{x}_N \) of Algorithm 4.6 as a weighted average of the search points \( x_2, \ldots, x_{N+1} \), i.e.,

\[ \bar{x}_N = (\sum_{k=2}^{N+1} \theta_k)^{-1} s_{N+1} = (\sum_{k=2}^{N+1} \theta_k)^{-1} \sum_{k=2}^{N+1} (\theta_k x_k), \] (4.6.60)

while the output of Algorithm 4.5 is taken as a weighted average of \( x_1, \ldots, x_N \).
Then, under Assumption (4.6.3), we can significantly improve the dependence of the rate of convergence of the SBMD where \( \bar{\theta} \) (4.6.57) that, for any \( x \) (4.6.53) and (4.6.55), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[[G_i(x, \xi)]^2_{\mathbb{E}}] \leq 2\|g_i(x)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\mathbb{E}[||G_i(x, \xi) - g_i(x)||^2_{\mathbb{E}}] \leq 2\|g_i(x)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\sigma_i^2
\]

\[
\leq 2\|g(x) - g(x_i)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\|g(x_i)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\sigma_i^2
\]

\[
\leq 4 \left( \sum_{i=1}^b L_i \right)^2 \|x - x_i\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 4\|g(x_i)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\sigma_i^2
\]

\[
\leq 8b^2 L^2 \sum_{i=1}^b D_i + 4\|g(x_i)\|^2_{\mathbb{E}} + 2\sigma_i^2, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b, \quad (4.6.61)
\]

where \( \bar{L} := \max_{i=1,\ldots,b} L_i \) and the fourth inequality follows from the fact that \( g \) is Lipschitz continuous with constant \( \sum_{i=1}^b L_i \). Hence, we can directly apply Algorithm 4.5 in the previous section to problem (4.6.53), and its rate of convergence is readily given by Theorem 4.10 and 4.11. However, in this section we will show that by properly selecting \( \{\theta_i\}, \{\gamma_i\}, \) and \( \{p_i\} \) in the above variant of the SBMD algorithm, we can significantly improve the dependence of the rate of convergence of the SBMD algorithm on the Lipschitz constants \( L_i, i = 1, \ldots, b \).

We first discuss the main convergence properties of Algorithm 4.6 for convex stochastic composite optimization without assuming strong convexity.

**Theorem 4.13.** Suppose that \( \{i_k\} \) in Algorithm 4.6 are uniformly distributed, i.e., (4.6.31) holds. Also assume that \( \{\gamma_i\} \) and \( \{\theta_k\} \) are chosen such that for any \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
\gamma_i \leq \frac{1}{2\theta_i}.
\]

\[
\theta_{k+1} = b\gamma_k - \theta - 1 \gamma_{k+1}. \quad (4.6.62)
\]

Then, under Assumption (4.6.3) and (4.6.58), we have, for any \( N \geq 2 \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[[\phi(\bar{x}_N) - \phi(x_i)] \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left[ (b - 1) \gamma_i \phi(x_i) - \phi(x_i) \right] + b \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_i^{(i)}, x_i^{(i)}) + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^b \xi_{i}^2 \quad (4.6.64)
\]

where \( x_i \) is an arbitrary solution of problem (4.6.53) and \( \sigma \) is defined in (4.6.59).

**Proof.** For simplicity, let us denote \( V_i(z, x) \equiv V_i(z, x^{(i)}), g_i \equiv g^{(i)}(x_i), \) and \( V(z, x) = \sum_{i=1}^b p_i^{-1} V_i(z, x) \). Also denote \( \zeta_i = (\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}) \) and \( \zeta_{kl} = (\xi_i, \ldots, \xi_l) \), and let \( \delta_i = G_i(x_i, \xi_{i+1}) - g_i(x_i) \) and \( \rho_i = U_i^T(x_{i+1} - x_i) \). By the definition of \( \phi(\cdot) \) in (4.6.53) and (4.6.55), we have

\[
\phi(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle g_i(x_k), \rho_i \rangle + \frac{L_i}{2} \|\rho_i\|^2 + \mathcal{X}(x_{k+1})
\]

\[
= f(x_k) + \langle G_i(x_k, \xi_k), \rho_i \rangle + \frac{L_i}{2} \|\rho_i\|^2 + \mathcal{X}(x_{k+1}) - \langle \delta_i, \rho_i \rangle. \quad (4.6.65)
\]

Moreover, it follows from the optimality condition of (??) (see Lemma 3.5) and (4.6.57) that, for any \( x \in X \),
\[ \langle G_k(x_k, \xi_k), \rho_k \rangle + \chi_k(x^{(i)}_k) \leq \langle G_k(x_k, \xi_k), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_k \rangle + \chi_k(x^{(i)}_k) + \frac{1}{\bar{\kappa}} [V_k(x_k, x) - V_k(x_{k+1}, x) - V_k(x_{k+1}, x_k)] \]

Combining the above two inequalities and using (4.6.56), we obtain
\[
\phi(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle G_k(x_k, \xi_k), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_k \rangle + \chi_k(x^{(i)}_k) + \frac{1}{\bar{\kappa}} [V_k(x_k, x) - V_k(x_{k+1}, x) - V_k(x_{k+1}, x_k)] + \frac{L_k}{2} \| \rho_k \|_k^2 + \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_{k+1}) - (\delta_k, \rho_k). \tag{4.6.66}
\]

By the strong convexity of \( V_k(\cdot) \) and (4.6.62), using the simple inequality that \( bu - \frac{a^2}{2} \leq \frac{b^2}{2\sigma}, \forall a > 0 \), we have
\[
-\frac{1}{\bar{\kappa}} V_k(x_{k+1}, x_k) + \frac{L_k}{2} \| \rho_k \|_k^2 - (\delta_k, \rho_k) \leq - \left( \frac{1}{\bar{\kappa}} - \frac{L_k}{2} \right) \| \rho_k \|_k^2 - (\delta_k, \rho_k)
\leq \frac{\bar{\kappa} \| \delta_k \|_k^2}{2(1 - \bar{\kappa})} \leq \frac{\bar{\kappa} \| \delta_k \|_k^2}{2(1 - \bar{\kappa})} \leq \bar{\kappa} \| \delta_k \|_k^2.
\]

Also observe that by the definition of \( x_{k+1} \) in (4.6.57), (4.6.14), and the definition of \( V(\cdot, \cdot) \), we have \( \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_{k+1}) = \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) + V_k(x_k, x) - V_k(x_{k+1}, x) = [V(x_k, x) - V(x_{k+1}, x)]/b. \) Using these observations, we conclude from (4.6.66) that
\[
\phi(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle G_k(x_k, \xi_k), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_k \rangle + \frac{1}{\bar{\kappa}} [V(x_k, x) - V(x_{k+1}, x)] + \frac{L_k}{2} \| \rho_k \|_k^2 + \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) + \chi_k(x^{(i)}_k). \tag{4.6.67}
\]

Now noting that
\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \langle G_k(x_k, \xi_k), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_k \rangle \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b E_{\xi_k} \left[ \langle G_i(x_k, \xi_k), x^{(i)} - x^{(i)}_k \rangle \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] = \frac{1}{b} \langle g(x_k), x - x_k \rangle \leq \frac{1}{b} [f(x) - f(x_k)], \tag{4.6.68}
\]
\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \| \delta_k \|_k^2 \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b E_{\xi_k} \left[ \| G_i(x_k, \xi_k) - g_i(x_k) \|_k^2 \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] \leq \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b \sigma_i^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{b}, \tag{4.6.69}
\]
\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \neq i_k} \sum_{i \neq j} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) = \frac{b-1}{b} \chi(x_k), \tag{4.6.70}
\]
\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \chi_k(x^{(i)}_k) \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) = \frac{1}{b} \chi(x), \tag{4.6.71}
\]

we conclude from (4.6.67) that
\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \phi(x_{k+1}) + \frac{V(x_{k+1}, x)}{b \bar{\kappa}} \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] \leq f(x_k) + \frac{1}{b} [f(x) - f(x_k)] + \frac{1}{b} \chi(x) + \frac{L_k}{2} \| \rho_k \|_k^2 + \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) = \frac{b-1}{b} \phi(x_k) + \frac{1}{b} \phi(x) + \frac{V(x_{k+1}, x)}{b \bar{\kappa}} + \frac{\bar{\kappa}}{b} \sigma^2,
\]

\[
E_{\xi_k} \left[ \phi(x_{k+1}) + \frac{V(x_{k+1}, x)}{b \bar{\kappa}} \right| \xi_{k-1} \right] \leq f(x_k) + \frac{1}{b} [f(x) - f(x_k)] + \frac{1}{b} \chi(x) + \frac{L_k}{2} \| \rho_k \|_k^2 + \sum_{i \neq i_k} \chi_i(x^{(i)}_k) = \frac{b-1}{b} \phi(x_k) + \frac{1}{b} \phi(x) + \frac{V(x_{k+1}, x)}{b \bar{\kappa}} + \frac{\bar{\kappa}}{b} \sigma^2.
\]
which implies that
\[ b\gamma_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_{k+1}) - \phi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x_{k+1}, x)] \leq (b - 1) \gamma_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x_k, x)] + \gamma_k^2 \sigma^2. \]  
(4.6.72)

Now, summing up the above inequalities (with \( x = x_s \)) for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), and noting that \( \theta_{k+1} = b\gamma_k - (b - 1)\gamma_{k+1} \), we obtain
\[ \sum_{k=2}^{N+1} \theta_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_s)] + b\gamma_N \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_{N+1}) - \phi(x_s)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x_{N+1}, x_s)] \leq (b - 1) \gamma_1 \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_s)] + V(x_1, x_s) + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2, \]
Using the above inequality and the facts that \( V(\cdot, \cdot) \geq 0 \) and \( \phi(x_{N+1}) \geq \phi(x_s) \), we conclude
\[ \sum_{k=2}^{N+1} \theta_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_s)] \leq (b - 1) \gamma_1 \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_s)] + V(x_1, x_s) + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2, \]
which, in view of (4.6.59), (4.6.60) and the convexity of \( \phi(\cdot) \), clearly implies (4.6.64).

The following corollary describes a specialized convergence result of Algorithm 4.6 for solving convex stochastic composite optimization problems after properly selecting \( \{\gamma_k\} \).

**Corollary 4.8.** Suppose that \( \{p_i\} \) in Algorithm 4.6 are set to (4.6.31). Also assume that \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are set to
\[ \gamma_k = \gamma = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{2L}, \frac{\bar{D}}{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}} \right\} \]  
(4.6.73)
for some \( \bar{D} > 0 \), and \( \{\theta_k\} \) are set to (4.6.63). Then, under Assumptions (4.6.3) and (4.6.58), we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \phi(x)] \leq \frac{(b - 1)\gamma \phi(x_1) - \phi(x_s)}{N} + \frac{2bL \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1^{(i)}, x_1^{(i)})}{N} \]
\[ + \frac{\sigma \sqrt{\frac{1}{N}}}{\sqrt{\bar{D}}} \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1^{(i)}, x_s^{(i)})}{\bar{D}} + \sqrt{\bar{D}} \right]. \]  
(4.6.74)
where \( x_s \) is an arbitrary solution of problem (4.6.53).

**Proof.** It follows from (4.6.63) and (4.6.73) that \( \theta_k = \gamma_k = \gamma, k = 1, \ldots, N \). Using this observation and Theorem 4.13, we obtain
\[ \mathbb{E}[\phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \phi(x)] \leq \frac{(b - 1)\gamma \phi(x_1) - \phi(x_s)}{N} + \frac{b \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1^{(i)}, x_s^{(i)})}{\sigma \sqrt{N}} + \gamma \sigma^2, \]
which, in view of (4.6.73), then implies (4.6.74).}

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 4.8. First, in view of (4.6.74), an optimal selection of \( \bar{D} \) would be \( \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1^{(i)}, x_s^{(i)})} \). In this case, (4.6.74) reduces to
Then, for any $N \geq (4.6.68)$ can be strengthened to (4.6.27) and (4.6.61), we have
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(x_N) - \phi(x_*)\right] & \leq \frac{(b-1)\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_*)}{N} + 2b\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i^2(x_i^{(i)}, x_*)} + \frac{2\sigma \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i}}{\sqrt{N}} \\
& \leq \frac{(b-1)\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_*)}{N} + 2b\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i} + \frac{2\sigma \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i}}{\sqrt{N}}.
\end{align*}
(4.6.75)

Second, if we directly apply Algorithm 4.5 to problem (4.6.53), then, in view of (4.6.27) and (4.6.61), we have
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(x_N) - \phi(x_*)\right] & \leq 2\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} \left[4b^2 \bar{L}^2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i\right) + 2\|g_i(x_1)\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \sigma_i^2\right]} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i} \\
& \leq 4b^2 \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i} + 2\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} \left[2\|g_i(x_1)\|_{\ell_2}^2 + \sigma_i^2\right]} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{b} D_i}.
\end{align*}
(4.6.76)

Clearly, the bound in (4.6.75) has a much weaker dependence on the Lipschitz constant $\bar{L}$ than the one in (4.6.76). In particular, we can see that $\bar{L}$ can be as large as $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N})$ without affecting the bound in (4.6.75), after disregarding some other constant factors. Moreover, the bound in (4.6.75) also has a much weaker dependence on the number of blocks $b$ than the one in (4.6.76).

In the remaining part of this section, we consider the case when the objective function is strongly convex, i.e., the function $f(\cdot)$ in (4.6.53) satisfies (4.6.30). The following theorem describes some convergence properties of the SBMD algorithm for solving strongly convex composite problems.

**Theorem 4.14.** Suppose that (4.6.30) and (4.6.31) hold. Also assume that the parameters $\{\gamma_k\}$ and $\{\theta_k\}$ are chosen such that for any $k \geq 1$,
\begin{equation}
\gamma_k \leq \min\left\{\frac{1}{\mu_0} \cdot \frac{b}{\theta_0}\right\},
\end{equation}
(4.6.77)
\begin{equation}
\theta_{k+1} = \frac{\theta_k}{\Gamma_k} - \frac{(b-1)\theta_{k+1}}{\mu_0} \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma_k = \begin{cases} 1 & k = 1 \\ \Gamma_{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\theta_k}{\theta_0}\right) & k \geq 2. \end{cases}
\end{equation}
(4.6.78)

Then, for any $N \geq 2$, we have
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}\left[\phi(x_N) - \phi(x_*)\right] & \leq \left[\sum_{k=1}^{N+1} \theta_k\right]^{-1} \left(\frac{b-\mu_0}{\theta_0} \sum_{i=1}^{b} V_i(x_i^{(i)}, x_*)\right) \\
& \quad + (b-1)\gamma_1 \left[\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_*)\right] + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\theta_k}{\mu_0} \sigma_i^2,
\end{align*}
(4.6.79)

where $x_*$ is the optimal solution of problem (4.6.53).

**Proof.** Observe that by the strong convexity of $f(\cdot)$, for any $x \in X$, the relation in (4.6.68) can be strengthened to
Then, for any $N \geq k$ where the last inequality follows from (4.6.78) and the fact that

$$
\frac{1}{b} g(x_k, x - x_k) \leq \frac{1}{b} [f(x) - f(x_k)] - \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_k\|^2.
$$

Using this observation, (4.6.69), (4.6.70), and (4.6.71), we conclude from (4.6.67) that

$$
\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \phi(x_{k+1}) + \frac{1}{b \gamma_k} V(x_{k+1}, x) | \xi_{k-1} \right] \leq f(x_k) + \frac{1}{b} \left[ f(x) - f(x_k) - \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_k\|^2 \right] + \frac{1}{b \gamma_k} V(x_k, x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{1}{b \gamma_k} V(x_k, x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x)
$$

where the last inequality follows from (4.6.35). By taking expectation w.r.t. $\xi_{k-1}$ on both sides of the above inequality and replacing $x$ by $x_k$, we conclude that, for any $k \geq 1$,

$$
\mathbb{E}[V(x_{k+1}, x_k)] \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu \gamma_k}{b} \right) \mathbb{E}[V(x_k, x_k)] + (b - 1) \gamma_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] - \frac{b \gamma_k}{b} \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x)
$$

which, in view of Lemma 3.17 (with $a_k = \gamma_k \mu / (b)$, $A_k = I_k$ and $B_k = (b - 1) \gamma_k [\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] - b \gamma_k [\phi(x_{k+1}) - \phi(x_k)] + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x)$), then implies that

$$
\frac{1}{I_k} \mathbb{E}[V(x_{k+1}, x_k)] \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu \gamma_k}{b} \right) \mathbb{E}[V(x_k, x_k)] + (b - 1) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{b \gamma_k}{b} \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)]
$$

$$
- \frac{b \gamma_k}{b} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{b \gamma_k}{b} \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x)
$$

where the last inequality follows from (4.6.78) and the fact that $\phi(x_{N+1}) - \phi(x_k) \geq 0$. Noting that $V(x_{N+1}, x_k) \geq 0$, we conclude from the above inequality that

$$
\sum_{k=2}^{N+1} \gamma_k \mathbb{E}[\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu \gamma_k}{b} \right) \mathbb{E}[V(x_k, x_k)] + (b - 1) \gamma_k [\phi(x_k) - \phi(x_k)] + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x) + \frac{b - 1}{b} \chi(x_k) \chi(x)
$$

Our result immediately follows from the above inequality, the convexity of $\phi(\cdot)$, and (4.6.60).

Below we specialize the rate of convergence of the SBMD method for solving strongly convex composite problems with a proper selection of $\{a_k\}$.

**Corollary 4.9.** Suppose that (4.6.30) and (4.6.31) hold. Also assume that $\{\theta_k\}$ are set to (4.6.78) and

$$
\gamma_k = 2 \mu / (\mu (k + k_0)) \quad \forall k \geq 1,
$$

where

$$
k_0 := \left\lceil \frac{4bL}{\mu} \right\rceil.
$$

Then, for any $N \geq 2$, we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\phi(\bar{x}_N) - \phi(x_*)] \leq \frac{\mu k_0^2}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^b V_i(x_1, x_*) + \frac{2(b-1)k_0}{N(N+1)} [\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_*)] + \frac{4b\sigma^2}{\mu(N+1)}, \]

where \( x_* \) is the optimal solution of problem (4.6.53).

**Proof.** We can check that
\[ \gamma_k = \frac{2b}{\mu(k+[4bL/\mu])} \leq \frac{1}{M}. \]

It can also be easily seen from the definition of \( \gamma_k \) and (4.6.78) that
\[ \Gamma_k = \frac{k_0(k_0+1)}{(k+k_0)(k+k_0-1)}, \quad 1 - \frac{\gamma_k}{b} = \frac{k_0-1}{k_0+1}, \quad \forall k \geq 1, \]
\[ \theta_k = \frac{b\gamma_k}{\Gamma_k} - \frac{(b-1)\gamma_{k+1}}{\Gamma_{k+1}} = \frac{2bk+2b(k_0-1)}{\mu k_0(k_0+1)} \geq \frac{2b}{\mu k_0(k_0+1)}, \]
where the relation \( k_0 \geq b \) follows from the definition of \( k_0 \) and the fact that \( \bar{L} \geq \mu \).

Hence,
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N+1} \theta_k \geq \frac{bN(N+1)}{\mu k_0(k_0+1)}, \quad \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\gamma_k^2}{\Gamma_k} \leq \frac{4b^2}{\mu^2 k_0(k_0+1)} \sigma^2 \leq \frac{4b^2}{\mu^2 k_0(k_0+1)} \sigma^2. \]

By using the above observations and (4.6.79), we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\phi(\bar{x}_N) - \phi(x_*)] \]
\[ \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N+1} \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left[ (1 - \frac{\gamma_k}{b}) V(x_1, x_*) + (b-1) \gamma_k [\phi(x_1) - \phi(x_*)] + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\gamma_k^2}{\Gamma_k} \sigma^2 \right]. \]

It is interesting to observe that, in view of (4.6.81) and the definition of \( k_0 \), the Lipschitz constant \( \bar{L} \) can be as large as \( \Theta(\sqrt{N}) \) without affecting the rate of convergence of the SBMD algorithm, after disregarding other constant factors, for solving strongly convex stochastic composite optimization problems.

### 4.7 Exercises and notes

1. Establish the rate of convergence for the stochastic mirror descent method applied to problem (4.1.1) under the following situation.

   a. Non-smooth and strongly convex for which (4.1.7) holds and
   \[
   f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y-x \rangle \geq \mu V(x,y), \forall x, y \in X. \tag{4.7.85}
   \]

   b. Smooth and strongly convex for which both (4.1.20) and (4.7.85) hold.
2. Establish the lower complexity bound stated in (4.2.3) and (4.2.4) for stochastic optimization methods applied to problem 4.2.1.
3. Establish the rate of convergence of the accelerated stochastic gradient descent method if the objective function \( f \) in (4.2.1) is differentiable and its gradients are Hölder continuous, i.e.,
\[
\| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y) \|_* \leq L \| x - y \|_v, \forall x, y \in X
\]
for some \( v \in [0, 1] \).
4. Consider the matrix game problem, that is, problem (4.3.1) with
\[
\phi(x, y) := y^T Ax + b^T x + c^T y,
\]
where \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, X \) is the standard Euclidean ball, i.e.,
\[
X := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2 \leq 1 \},
\]
and \( Y \) is the standard simplex, i.e.,
\[
Y := \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^m : y \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^m y_i = 1 \}.
\]
Try to derive a randomized oracle for the stochastic mirror descent method discussed in Section 4.3 for solving this problem.
5. Consider the linearized primal-dual method in Algorithm 4.1.
   a. Establish the rate of convergence for solving deterministic saddle point problems in (4.4.1).
   b. Develop a stochastic version of this method and establish its rate of convergence for solving problem (4.4.1) under the stochastic first-order oracle as described in Section 4.4.
6. The stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method with \( \alpha_t = 1, G = 0 \) and \( J = 0 \) will be equivalent to a stochastic version of the mirror-prox method.
   a. Establish the rate of convergence of this algorithm applied to monotone variational inequalities (i.e., \( H \) is monotone).
   b. Establish the rate of convergence of this algorithm applied to generalized monotone variational inequalities, i.e., there exists an \( \bar{z} \in Z \) such that
\[
\langle H(z), z - \bar{z} \rangle \geq 0, \forall z \in Z.
\]
**Notes.** Stochastic gradient descent (a.k.a, stochastic approximation) goes back to Robbins and Monro [95]. Nemirovski and Yudin [78] first introduced the stochastic mirror descent method in 1983 and further improvement was made in [89, 90, 81, 77]. In particular, Nemirovski et. al. [77] presented a comprehensive treatment for the stochastic mirror descent method, which includes the complexity analysis for general nonsmooth, strongly convex, and convex-concave saddle point point problems, the derivation of large-deviation results, and extensive numerical experimentation.
Moreover, Lan, Nemirovski and Shapiro [57] presents the validation analysis, i.e., accuracy certificates for this method. Lan [50] first presented the accelerated stochastic gradient descent (a.k.a., accelerated stochastic approximation or SGD with momentum) in 2008 and the paper was formally published in [51]. A comprehensive study of this method, including the generaliztion for solving strongly convex composite optimization problems, multi-epoch (or multi-stage) variants, shrinking procedures, and accuracy certificates, was presented by Ghadimi and Lan in [31, 32]. Chen, Lan and Ouyang presented the stochastic accelerated primal-dual method for solving stochastic saddle point problems with a bilinear structure in [18], and the stochastic accelerated mirror-prox method for solving a class of composite variational inequalities in [17]. Note that an earlier stochastic mirror-prox method without the acceleration steps was presented in [47]. Dang and Lan first introduced the randomized block decomposition into nonsmooth and stochastic optimization in [23]. Note that here exists a long history for block coordinate descent methods for solving deterministic optimization problems (see, e.g., [69, 105, 84, 66, 94]).
Chapter 5
Finite-sum and Distributed Optimization

In this chapter, we will study a special class of convex optimization problems whose objective function is given by the summation of many components. These problems have found wide applications in empirical risk minimization and distributed optimization. These problems are deterministic optimization problems with a special finite-sum structure, but they can also be viewed as stochastic optimization problems with a discrete distribution. We will study two typical classes of randomized algorithms for finite-sum optimization. The first class incorporates random block decomposition into the dual space of the primal-dual methods for deterministic convex optimization, while the second one employs variance reduction techniques into stochastic gradient descent methods for stochastic optimization.

5.1 Random primal-dual gradient method

In this section we are interested in the convex programming (CP) problem given by

$$\Psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x) + h(x) + \mu \nu(x) \}. \quad (5.1.1)$$

Here, $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a closed convex set, $h$ is a relatively simple convex function, $f_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, are smooth convex functions with Lipschitz continuous gradient, i.e., $\exists L_i \geq 0$ such that

$$\| \nabla f_i(x_1) - \nabla f_i(x_2) \|_* \leq L_i \| x_1 - x_2 \|, \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (5.1.2)$$

$\nu : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a strongly convex function with modulus 1 w.r.t. an arbitrary norm $\| \cdot \|$, i.e.,

$$\langle \nabla \nu(x_1) - \nabla \nu(x_2), x_1 - x_2 \rangle \geq \frac{1}{2} \| x_1 - x_2 \|^2, \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in X, \quad (5.1.3)$$

and $\mu \geq 0$ is a given constant. Hence, the objective function $\Psi$ is strongly convex whenever $\mu > 0$. For notational convenience, we also denote $f(x) \equiv \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x)$ and $L \equiv \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i$. It is easy to see that for some $L_f \geq 0$, $\nabla f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nabla f_i(x)$.
\[ \| \nabla f(x_1) - \nabla f(x_2) \|_* \leq L_f \| x_1 - x_2 \| \leq L \| x_1 - x_2 \|, \quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n. \] (5.1.4)

Throughout this section, we assume subproblems of the form

\[ \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle g, x \rangle + h(x) + \mu \nu(x) \] (5.1.5)

are easy to solve for any \( g \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \mu \geq 0 \). We point out below a few examples where such an assumption is satisfied.

- If \( X \) is relatively simple, e.g., Euclidean ball, simplex or \( l_1 \) ball, and \( h(x) = 0 \), and \( w(\cdot) \) is some properly choosing distance generating function, we can obtain closed form solutions of problem (5.1.5). This is the standard setting used in the regular first-order methods.

- If the problem is unconstrained, i.e., \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \), and \( h(x) \) is relatively simple, we can derive closed form solutions of (5.1.5) for some interesting cases. For example, if \( h(x) = \| x \|_1 \) and \( w(x) = \| x \|_2^2 \), then an explicit solution of (5.1.5) is readily given by its first-order optimality condition. A similar example is given by \( h(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d \sigma_i(x) \) and \( w(x) = \text{tr}(x^T x) / 2 \), where \( \sigma_i(x), i = 1, \ldots, d \), denote the singular values of \( x \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \).

- If \( X \) is relatively simple and \( h(x) \) is nontrivial, we can still compute closed form solutions of (5.1.5) for some interesting special cases, e.g., when \( X \) is the standard simplex, \( w(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i \log x_i \) and \( h(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d x_i \).

The deterministic finite-sum problem (5.2.1) can model the empirical risk minimization in machine learning and statistical inferences, and hence has become the subject of intensive studies during the past few years. Our study on the finite-sum problems (5.2.1) and (5.2.2) has also been motivated by the emerging need for distributed optimization and machine learning. One typical example of the aforementioned distributed problems is Federated Learning (see Figure 5.1). Under such settings, each component function \( f_i \) is associated with an agent \( i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), which are connected through a distributed network. While different topologies can be considered for distributed optimization, in this section we focus on the star network where \( m \) agents are connected to one central server, and all agents only communicate with the server (see Figure 5.1). These types of distributed optimization problems have several unique features. Firstly, they allow for data privacy, since no local data is stored in the server. Secondly, network agents behave independently and they may not be responsive at the same time. Thirdly, the communication between the server and agent can be expensive and has high latency. Under the distributed setting, methods requiring full gradient computation may incur extra communication and synchronization costs. As a consequence, methods which require fewer full gradient computations seem to be more advantageous in this regard. As a particular example, in the \( \ell_2 \)-regularized logistic regression problem, we have

\[ f_i(x) = l_i(x) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \log(1 + \exp(-b_j^T d_j x)), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \quad \nu(x) = R(x) := \frac{1}{2} \| x \|_2^2, \] (5.1.6)
provided that \( f_i \) is the loss function of agent \( i \) with training data \( \{a_{ij}^i, b_{ij}^i\}_{j=1}^{N_i} \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \{-1, 1\} \), and \( \mu := \lambda \) is the penalty parameter. Note that another type of topology for distributed optimization is the multi-agent network without a central server, namely the decentralized setting, as shown in Figure 5.2, where the agents can only communicate with their neighbors to update information (see Section 8.3 for discussions about decentralized algorithms).

Stochastic (sub)gradient descent (SGD) type methods, as discussed in Chapter 4 have been proven useful to solve problems given in the form of (5.1.1). Recall that SGD was originally designed to solve stochastic optimization problems given by

\[
\min_{x \in X} \mathbb{E}_\xi [F(x, \xi)],
\]  

(5.1.7)

where \( \xi \) is a random variable with support \( \Xi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \). Problem (5.1.1) can be viewed as a special case of (5.1.7) by setting \( \xi \) to be a discrete random variable supported on \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) with \( \text{Prob}\{\xi = i\} = p_i \) and

\[
F(x, i) = (mp_i)^{-1}f_i(x) + h(x) + \mu \nu(x), i = 1, \ldots, m.
\]

Since each iteration of SGDs needs to compute the (sub)gradient of only one randomly selected \( f_i \). Observe that the subgradients of \( h \) and \( \nu \) are not required due to the assumption in (5.1.5), their iteration cost is significantly smaller than that for deterministic first-order methods (FOM), which involves the computation of first-order information of \( f \) and thus all the \( m \) (sub)gradients of \( f_i \)'s. Moreover, when \( f_i \)'s are general nonsmooth convex functions, by properly specifying the probabilities \( p_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \). Indeed, suppose that \( f_i \) are Lipschitz continuous with constants \( M_i \), and let us denote \( M := \sum_{i=1}^m M_i \), we should set \( p_i = M_i / M \) in order to get the optimal complexity for SGDs. It can be shown (see Section 4.1) that the iteration complexities for both SGD and FOM are in the same order of magnitude. Consequently, the total

![Fig. 5.1: A distributed network with 5 agents and one server](image1)

![Fig. 5.2: An example of the decentralized network](image2)
number of subgradients required by SGDs can be $m$ times smaller than those by FOMs.

Note however, that there is a significant gap on the complexity bounds between SGDs and deterministic FOMs if $f_i$'s are smooth convex functions. For the sake of simplicity, let us focus on the strongly convex case when $\mu > 0$ and let $x^*$ be the optimal solution of (5.1.1). In order to find a solution $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\|\bar{x} - x^*\|^2 \leq \epsilon$, the total number of gradient evaluations for $f_i$'s performed by optimal FOMs (see Section 3.3) can be bounded by

$$O\left\{ m \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right\}. \quad (5.1.8)$$

On the other hand, a direct application of optimal SGDs (see Section 4.2) to the aforementioned stochastic optimization reformulation of (5.1.1) would yield an iteration complexity bound on the number of gradient evaluations for $f_i$'s. Here $\sigma > 0$ denotes variance of the stochastic gradients, i.e., $E[\|G(x, \xi) - \nabla f(x)\|^2] \leq \sigma^2$, where $G(x, \xi)$ is an unbiased estimator for the gradient $\nabla f(x)$. Clearly, the latter bound is significantly better than the one in (5.1.8) in terms of its dependence on $m$, but much worse in terms of its dependence on accuracy $\epsilon$ and a few other problem parameters (e.g., $L$ and $\mu$). It should be noted that the optimality of (5.1.9) for general stochastic programming (5.1.7) does not preclude the existence of more efficient algorithms for solving (5.1.1), because (5.1.1) is a special case of (5.1.7) with finite support $\Xi$.

Following the constructions in Section 3.3, we develop a randomized primal-dual gradient (RPDG) method, which is an incremental gradient method using only one randomly selected component $\nabla f_i$ at each iteration. This method was developed by using the following ideas: 1) a proper reformulation of (5.1.1) as a primal-dual saddle point problem with multiple dual players; and 2) the incorporation of a new non-differentiable prox-function (or Bregman distance) based on the conjugate functions of $f$ in the dual space. Different from the game interpretation of the accelerated gradient descent method, the RPDG method incorporates an additional dual prediction step before performing the primal descent step (with a properly defined primal prox-function). We prove that the number of iterations (and hence the number of gradients) required by RPDG is bounded by

$$O\left( \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{\mu}} \right) \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right), \quad (5.1.10)$$

both in expectation and with high probability. The complexity bounds of the RPDG method are established in terms of not only the distance from the iterate $x^k$ to the optimal solution, but also the primal optimality gap based on the ergodic mean of the iterates.

Moreover, we show that the number of gradient evaluations required by any randomized incremental gradient methods to find an $\epsilon$-solution of (5.1.1), i.e., a point
\[ \bar{x} \in X \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{x} - x^*\|^2] \leq \varepsilon, \text{ cannot be smaller than } \]
\[ \Omega \left( \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{\mu}} \right) \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right), \] (5.1.11)

whenever the dimension
\[ n \geq (k + m/2)/\log(1/q), \]

This bound is obtained by carefully constructing a special class of separable quadratic programming problems and tightly bounding the expected distance to the optimal solution for any arbitrary distribution used to choose \( f_i \) at each iteration. Note that we assume that the distribution is chosen prior to the execution of the algorithms and is independent of the iteration number for the sake of simplicity. However, the construction can be extended for more general randomized methods. Comparing (5.1.10) with (5.1.11), we conclude that the complexity of the RPDG method is optimal if \( n \) is large enough. As a byproduct, we also derived a lower complexity bound for randomized block coordinate descent methods by utilizing the separable structure of the aforementioned worst-case instances.

Finally, we generalize RPDG for problems which are not necessarily strongly convex (i.e., \( \mu = 0 \)) and/or involve structured nonsmooth terms \( f_i \). We show that for all these cases, the RPDG can save \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m}) \) times gradient computations (up to certain logarithmic factors) in comparison with the corresponding optimal deterministic FOMs at the cost of making \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m}) \) times more calls to the prox-oracle. In particular, we show that when both the primal and dual of (5.1.1) are not strongly convex, the total number of iterations performed by the RPDG method can be bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m}/\varepsilon) \) (up to some logarithmic factors), which is \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m}) \) times better, in terms of the total number of dual subproblems to be solved, than deterministic methods for solving bi-linear saddle point problems (see Section 3.6).

### 5.1.1 Multi-dual-player game reformulation

We start by introducing a new saddle point reformulation of (5.1.1) than (5.2.14). Let \( J_i : \mathcal{Y}_i \to \mathbb{R} \) be the conjugate functions of \( f_i/m \) and \( \mathcal{Y}_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), denote the dual spaces where the gradients of \( f_i/m \) reside. For the sake of notational convenience, let us denote \( J(y) := \sum_{i=1}^n J_i(y_i), \mathcal{Y} := \mathcal{Y}_1 \times \mathcal{Y}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathcal{Y}_m \), and \( y = (y_1; y_2; \ldots; y_m) \) for any \( y_i \in \mathcal{Y}_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \). Clearly, we can reformulate problem (5.1.1) equivalently as a saddle point problem:

\[ \Psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ h(x) + \mu \nu(x) + \max_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \langle x, Uy \rangle - J(y) \right\}, \] (5.1.12)

where \( U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times nm} \) is given by

\[ U := [I, I, \ldots, I]. \] (5.1.13)
Here $I$ is the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Given a pair of feasible solutions $\bar{z} = (\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ and $z = (x, y)$ of (5.1.12), we define the primal-dual gap function $Q(\bar{z}, z)$ by

$$Q(\bar{z}, z) := [h(\bar{x}) + \mu v(\bar{x}) + \langle \bar{x}, Uy \rangle - J(y)] - [h(x) + \mu v(x) + \langle x, U\bar{y} \rangle - J(\bar{y})].$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.14)

It is well-known that $\bar{z} \in Z \equiv X \times Y$ is an optimal solution of (5.1.12) if and only if $Q(\bar{z}, z) \leq 0$ for all $z \in Z$.

We now discuss both primal and dual prox-functions (proximity control functions) in the primal and dual spaces, respectively, associated with problem 5.1.12.

Recall that the function $v : X \to \mathbb{R}$ in (5.1.1) is strongly convex with modulus 1 with respect to $\|\cdot\|$. We can define a primal prox-function associated with $v$ as

$$V(x^0, x) \equiv V_v(x^0, x) := v(x) - \|v(x^0) + \langle v'(x^0), x - x^0 \rangle\|,$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.15)

where $v'(x^0) \in \partial v(x^0)$ is an arbitrary subgradient of $v$ at $x^0$. Clearly, by the strong convexity of $v$, we have

$$V(x^0, x) \geq \frac{1}{2}\|x - x^0\|^2, \hspace{1cm} \forall x, x^0 \in X.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.16)

Note that the prox-function $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ described above generalizes the Bregman’s distance in the sense that $v$ is not necessarily differentiable (see Section 3.2). Throughout this section, we assume that the prox-mapping associated with $X,$ $V$, and $h,$ given by

$$\arg \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle g, x \rangle + h(x) + \mu v(x) + \eta V(x^0, x) \right\},$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.1.17)

is easily computable for any $x^0 \in X, g \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mu \geq 0,$ and $\eta > 0.$ Clearly this is equivalent to the assumption that (5.1.5) is easy to solve. Whenever $v$ is non-differentiable, we need to specify a particular selection of the subgradient $v'$ before performing the prox-mapping. We assume throughout this section that such a selection of $v'$ is defined recursively as follows. Denote

$$x^1 = \arg \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle g, x \rangle + h(x) + \mu v(x) + \eta V(x^0, x) \right\}.$$  

By the optimality condition, we have

$$g + h'(x^1) + (\mu + \eta)v'(x^1) - \eta v'(x^0) \in \mathcal{N}_{\bar{x}}(x^1),$$

where where $\mathcal{N}_{\bar{x}}(x^1)$ denotes the normal cone of $X$ at $x^1$ given by $\mathcal{N}_{\bar{x}}(x^1) := \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v^T(x - \bar{x}) \leq 0, \forall x \in X \}.$ Once such a $v'(x^1)$ satisfying the above relation is identified, we will use it as a subgradient when defining $V(x^1, x)$ in the next iteration. Note that such a subgradient can be identified without additional computational cost as long as $x^1$ is obtained, since one needs it to check the optimality condition of (5.1.17) when finding $x^1$.

Since $J_i, i = 1, \ldots, m,$ are strongly convex with modulus $\sigma_i = m/L_i$ w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|,$ we can define their associated dual prox-functions and dual prox-mappings as
5.1 Random primal-dual gradient method

\[ W_i(y_i^0, y_i) := J_i(y_i) - \langle J_i(y_i^0), y_i - y_i^0 \rangle, \quad (5.1.18) \]

\[ \arg \min_{y_i \in Y_i} \{ \langle -\tilde{x}, y_i \rangle + J_i(y_i) + \tau W_i(y_i^0, y_i) \}, \quad (5.1.19) \]

for any \( y_i^0, y_i \in Y_i \). Accordingly, we define

\[ W_i(y, y_i) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} W_i(y_i^0, y_i). \quad (5.1.20) \]

Again, \( W_i \) may not be uniquely defined since \( J_i \) are not necessarily differentiable. However, we will discuss how to specify the particular selection of \( J_i' \in \partial J_i \) later in this section.

5.1.2 Randomization on gradient computation

The basic idea of the randomized primal-dual gradient method (see Algorithm 5.1) is to incorporate the random block decomposition into the primal-dual method discussed in Section 3.6 for solving problem 5.1.12. In view of our discussions in Section 3.4, the computation of dual prox-mapping is equivalent to the computation of gradient, hence, the randomization the computation of dual prox-mapping reduces to the randomized computation of gradients.

**Algorithm 5.1** A randomized primal-dual gradient (RPDG) method

Let \( x^0 = x^{-1} \in X \), and the nonnegative parameters \( \{ \tau_i \}, \{ \eta_t \}, \{ \alpha_t \} \) be given.

Set \( y_i^0 = \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(x^0), i = 1, \ldots, m \).

for \( t = 1, \ldots, k \) do

Choose \( i_t \) according to \( \text{Prob} \{ i_t = i \} = p_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \).

Update \( \tilde{x} = (x, y) \) according to

\[ \tilde{x}^t = \alpha \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} \tilde{x}^{-1} - x^{-1} \right) + x^{-1}, \quad (5.1.21) \]

\[ y_i^t = \begin{cases} \arg \min_{y_i \in Y_i} \{ \langle -\tilde{x}, y_i \rangle + J_i(y_i) + \tau W_i(y_i^0, y_i) \}, & i = i_t, \\ y_i^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases} \quad (5.1.22) \]

\[ y_i^t = \begin{cases} p_i^{-1}(y_i^t - y_i^{t-1}) + y_i^{t-1}, & i = i_t, \\ y_i^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases} \quad (5.1.23) \]

\[ x^t = \arg \min_{x \in X} \{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^t(x) + h(x) + \mu \nabla V(x) + \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x) \}. \quad (5.1.24) \]

end for

We now add some remarks about the randomized primal-dual gradient method. Firstly, in (5.1.22), we only compute a randomly selected dual prox-mapping in this method in (5.1.22). Secondly, in addition to the primal prediction step (5.1.21), we add a new dual prediction step (5.1.23), and then use the predicted dual variable \( \tilde{y}^t \) for the computation of the new search point \( x^t \) in (5.1.24). It can be easily seen
that the RPDG method reduces to the primal-dual method, as well as the accelerated gradient method, whenever the number of blocks \( m = 1. \)

The RPDG method can be viewed as a game iteratively performed by a buyer and \( m \) suppliers for finding the solutions (order quantities and product prices) of the saddle point problem in (5.1.12). In this game, both the buyer and suppliers have access to their local cost \( h(x) + \mu v(x) \) and \( J_i(y_i) \), respectively, as well as their interactive cost (or revenue) represented by a bilinear function \( \langle x, y_i \rangle. \) Also, the buyer has to purchase the same amount of products from each supplier (e.g., for fairness). Although there are \( m \) suppliers, in each iteration only a randomly chosen supplier can make price changes according to (5.1.22) using the predicted demand \( \tilde{x}. \) In order to understand the buyer’s decision in (5.1.24), let us first denote

\[
\hat{y}_t^i := \arg\min_{y_i \in \mathcal{Y}_i} \left\{ \langle -\tilde{x}, y_i \rangle + J_i(y_i) + \tau W_i(y_i^{-1}, y_i) \right\}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m; \quad t = 1, \ldots, k.
\]

(5.1.25)

In other words, \( \hat{y}_t^i, \ i = 1, \ldots, m, \) denote the prices that all the suppliers can possibly set up at iteration \( t. \) Then we can see that

\[
E_t[\hat{y}_t^i] = \hat{y}_t^i.
\]

(5.1.26)

Indeed, we have

\[
y_t^i = \begin{cases} \hat{y}_t^i, & i = i_t, \\
y_t^{i_t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases}
\]

(5.1.27)

Hence \( E_t[\hat{y}_t^i] = p_i \hat{y}_t^i + (1-p_i)\hat{y}_t^{i_t-1}, i = 1, \ldots, m. \) Using this identity in the definition of \( \hat{y}_t^i \) in (5.1.23), we obtain (5.1.26). Instead of using \( \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{y}_t^i \) in determining his order in (5.1.24), the buyer notices that only one supplier has made a change on the price, and thus uses \( \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{y}_t^i \) to predict the case when all the dual players would modify the prices simultaneously.

In order to implement the above RPDG method, we shall explicitly specify the selection of the subgradient \( f'_t \) in the definition of the dual prox-mapping in (5.1.22). Denoting \( x^0_t = x^0, i = 1, \ldots, m, \) we can easily see from \( y_t^0 = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla f_i(x^0) \) that \( x_t^0 \in \partial J_i(y_t^0), i = 1, \ldots, m. \) Using this relation and letting \( f'_t(y_t^{i_t-1}) = x_t^{i_t-1} \) in the definition of \( W_i(y_t^{i_t-1}, y_i) \) in (5.1.22) (see (5.1.18)), we then conclude from Lemma 3.6 and (5.1.22) that for any \( t \geq 1, \)

\[
\begin{align*}
\tau_t & = (\tilde{x} + \tau x_t^{i_t-1})/(1 + \tau_t), \quad x_t = x_t^{i_t-1}, \quad \forall i \neq i_t; \\
\hat{y}_t^i & = \frac{1}{\mu} \nabla f_i(x_t^i), \quad y_t^i = y_t^{i_t-1}, \quad \forall i \neq i_t.
\end{align*}
\]

Moreover, observe that the computation of \( x_t \) in (5.1.24) requires an involved computation of \( \sum_{i=1}^m \hat{y}_t^i. \) In order to save computational time, we suggest to compute this quantity in a recursive manner as follows. Let us denote \( g' = \sum_{i=1}^m y_t^i. \) Clearly, in view of the fact that \( y_t^i = y_t^{i_t-1}, \forall i \neq i_t, \) we have

\[
g' = g'^{i_t-1} + (y_t^{i_t} - y_t^{i_t-1}).
\]
Also, by the definition of $g^t$ and (5.1.23), we have
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^t = \sum_{i \neq i^t} y_i^{t-1} + p_{n_i}^{-1} (y_{n_i}^t - y_{n_i}^{t-1}) + y_{i^t}^{t-1} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^{t-1} + p_{n_i}^{-1} (y_{n_i}^t - y_{n_i}^{t-1}) = g^{t-1} + p_{n_{i^t}}^{-1} (y_{n_{i^t}}^t - y_{n_{i^t}}^{t-1}).
\]

Incorporating these two ideas mentioned above, we present an efficient implementation of the RPDG method in Algorithm 5.2.

**Algorithm 5.2** An efficient implementation of the RPDG method

Let $x^0 = x^{t-1} \in X$, and nonnegative parameters $\{\alpha_t\}$, $\{\tau_t\}$, and $\{\eta_t\}$ be given.

Set $\tilde{y}_0^t = \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(x^0)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, and $g^0 = \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^0$.

for $t = 1, \ldots, k$ do

Choose $i_t$ according to $\text{Prob}\{i_t = i\} = p_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$.

Update $z^t := (x^t, y^t)$ by

\[
\tilde{x}^t = \alpha_t (x^{t-1} - x^{t-2}) + x^t^{t-1},
\]

\[
\tilde{y}_i^t = \begin{cases} (1 + \tau_t)^{-1} (\tilde{x}^t + \tau_t \tilde{y}_i^{t-1}), & i = i_t, \\ \tilde{y}_i^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases}
\]

\[
y_i^t = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}^t), & i = i_t, \\ y_i^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases}
\]

\[
x^t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ (g^{t-1} + p_{n_{i_t}}^{-1} (y_{n_{i_t}}^t - y_{n_{i_t}}^{t-1}), x) + h(x) + \mu \nu(x) + \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x) \right\},
\]

\[
g^t = g^{t-1} + y_{i_t}^t - y_{i_t}^{t-1}.
\]

end for

Clearly, the RPDG method is an incremental gradient type method since each iteration of this algorithm involves the computation of the gradient $\nabla f_i$ of only one component function. As shown in the following Subsection, such a randomization scheme can lead to significantly savings on the total number of gradient evaluations, at the expense of more primal prox-mappings.

It should also be noted that due to the randomness in the RPDG method, we can not guarantee that $y_i^t \in X$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, m$, and $t \geq 1$ in general, even though we do have all the iterates $x^t \in X$. That is why we need to make the assumption that $f_i$’s are differentiable over $\mathbb{R}^n$ for the RPDG method. We will address this issue later in Section 5.2 by developing a different randomized algorithm.
5.1.3 Convergence for strongly convex problems

Our goal in this subsection is to describe the convergence properties of the RPDG method for the strongly convex case when $\mu > 0$. Generalization of the RPDG method for the non-strongly convex case will be discussed in Section 5.1.5.

We first introduce some basic tools and general results about the RPDG method in Subsection 5.1.3.1 and 5.1.3.2, respectively. Then we describe the main convergence properties in Subsection 5.1.3.3. Moreover, in Subsection 5.1.4, we derive the lower complexity bound for randomized algorithms for solving finite-sum optimization problems.

5.1.3.1 Some basic tools

The following result provides a few different bounds on the diameter of the dual feasible sets $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathcal{F}$ in (5.2.14) and (5.1.12).

**Lemma 5.1.** Let $x^0 \in X$ be given, and $y^0_i = \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(x^0)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Assume that $J'_i(y^0_i) = x^0$ in the definition of $W(y^0, y)$ in (5.1.18).

a) For any $x \in X$ and $y_i = \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(x)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, we have

$$W(y^0, y) \leq \frac{L_f}{2} ||x^0 - x||^2 \leq L_f V(x^0, x).$$  \hfill (5.1.33)

b) If $x^* \in X$ is an optimal solution of (5.1.1) and $y^*_i = \frac{1}{m} \nabla f_i(x^*)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, then

$$W(y^0, y^*) \leq \Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*).$$  \hfill (5.1.34)

**Proof.** We first show part a). It follows from the definitions of $W(y^0, y)$ and $J_i$, that

$$W(y^0, y) = J(y) - J(y^0) - \sum_{i=1}^m (J'_i(y^0), y_i - y^0_i)$$

$$= \langle x, Uy \rangle - f(x) + f(x^0) - \langle x^0, Uy^0 \rangle - \langle x^0, U(y - y^0) \rangle$$

$$= f(x^0) - f(x) - \langle Uy, x^0 - x \rangle$$

$$\leq \frac{L_f}{2} ||x^0 - x||^2 \leq L_f V(x^0, x),$$

where the last inequality follows from (5.1.16). We now show part b). By the above relation, the convexity of $h$ and $\nu$, and the optimality of $(x^*, y^*)$, we have

$$W(y^0, y^*) = f(x^0) - f(x^*) - \langle Uy^*, x^0 - x^* \rangle$$

$$= f(x^0) - f(x^*) + \langle h'(x^*) + \mu \nu'(x^*), x^0 - x^* \rangle - \langle Uy^* + h'(x^*) + \mu \nu'(x^*), x^0 - x^* \rangle$$

$$\leq f(x^0) - f(x^*) + \langle h'(x^*) + \mu \nu'(x^*), x^0 - x^* \rangle \leq \Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*).$$
The following lemma gives an important bound for the primal optimality gap \( \Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) \) for some \( \bar{x} \in X \).

**Lemma 5.2.** Let \((\bar{x}, \bar{y}) \in Z\) be a given pair of feasible solutions of (5.1.12), and \(z^* = (x^*, y^*)\) be a pair of optimal solutions of (5.1.12). Then, we have

\[
\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) \leq Q((\bar{x}, \bar{y}), z^*) + \frac{L_f}{2} \| \bar{x} - x^* \|^2. \tag{5.1.35}
\]

**Proof.** Let \(\bar{y}_u = (\frac{1}{m_1} \nabla f_1(\bar{x}); \frac{1}{m_2} \nabla f_2(\bar{x}); \ldots; \frac{1}{m_m} \nabla f_m(\bar{x}))\), and by the definition of \(Q(\cdot, \cdot)\) in (5.1.14), we have

\[
Q((\bar{x}, \bar{y}), z^*) = [h(\bar{x}) + \mu V(\bar{x}) + (x^*, U y^*) - J(y^*)] - [h(x^*) + \mu V(x^*) + (x^*, U y^*) - J(y^*)]
\geq [h(\bar{x}) + \mu V(\bar{x}) + (x^*, U \bar{y}_u) - J(\bar{y}_u)] + (x^*, U(y^* - \bar{y}_u)) - J(y^*) - J(\bar{y}_u)
\geq \Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) + f(x^*) - f(\bar{x}) - (x^* - \bar{x}, \nabla f(\bar{x}))
\geq \Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) - \frac{L_f}{2} \| \bar{x} - x^* \|^2,
\]

where the second equality follows from the fact that \(J_i, i = 1, \ldots, m\), are the conjugate functions of \(f_i\).

---

### 5.1.3.2 General results for RPDG

We will establish some general convergence results in Proposition 5.1. Before showing Proposition 5.1 we will develop a few technical results. Lemma 5.3 below characterizes the solutions of the prox-mapping in (5.1.17) and (5.1.19). This result slightly generalizes Lemma 3.5.

**Lemma 5.3.** Let \(U\) be a closed convex set and a point \(\bar{u} \in U\) be given. Also let \(w : U \to \mathbb{R}\) be a convex function and

\[
W(\bar{u}, u) = w(u) - w(\bar{u}) - \langle w'(\bar{u}), u - \bar{u} \rangle, \tag{5.1.36}
\]

for some \(w'(\bar{u}) \in \partial w(\bar{u})\). Assume that the function \(q : U \to \mathbb{R}\) satisfies

\[
q(u_1) - q(u_2) - \langle q'(u_2), u_1 - u_2 \rangle \geq \mu_0 W(u_2, u_1), \quad \forall u_1, u_2 \in U \tag{5.1.37}
\]

for some \(\mu_0 \geq 0\). Also assume that the scalars \(\mu_1\) and \(\mu_2\) are chosen such that \(\mu_0 + \mu_1 + \mu_2 \geq 0\). If

\[
u^* \in \text{Argmin}\{q(u) + \mu_1 w(u) + \mu_2 W(\bar{u}, u) : u \in U\}, \tag{5.1.38}
\]

for some \(\mu_1, \mu_2 \geq 0\), then

\[
\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{L_f}{2} \| \bar{x} - x^* \|^2,
\]

where

\[
\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) \leq Q((\bar{x}, \bar{y}), z^*) + \frac{L_f}{2} \| \bar{x} - x^* \|^2.
\]
then for any $u \in U$, we have
\[ q(u^*) + \mu_1 w(u^*) + \mu_2 W(\tilde{u}, u^*) + (\mu_0 + \mu_1 + \mu_2)W(u^*, u) \leq q(u) + \mu_1 w(u) + \mu_2 W(\tilde{u}, u). \]

**Proof.** Let $\phi(u) := q(u) + \mu_1 w(u) + \mu_2 W(\tilde{u}, u)$. It can be easily checked that for any $u_1, u_2 \in U$,
\[ W(\tilde{u}, u_1) = W(\tilde{u}, u_2) + \langle W'(\tilde{u}, u_2), u_1 - u_2 \rangle + W(u_2, u_1), \]
\[ w(u_1) = w(u_2) + \langle w'(u_2), u_1 - u_2 \rangle + W(u_2, u_1). \]
Using these relations and (5.1.37), we conclude that
\[ \phi(u_1) - \phi(u_2) = \langle \phi'(u_2), u_1 - u_2 \rangle \geq (\mu_0 + \mu_1 + \mu_2)W(u_2, u_1) \quad (5.1.39) \]
for any $u_1, u_2 \in Y$, which together with the fact that $\mu_0 + \mu_1 + \mu_2 \geq 0$ then imply that $\phi$ is convex. Since $u^*$ is an optimal solution of (5.1.38), we have $\langle \phi'(u^*), u - u^* \rangle \geq 0$. Combining this inequality with (5.1.39), we conclude that
\[ \phi(u) - \phi(u^*) \geq (\mu_0 + \mu_1 + \mu_2)W(u^*, u), \]
from which the result immediately follows. \hfill \blacksquare

The following simple result provides a few identities related to $y'$ and $y''$ that will be useful for the analysis of the RPDG algorithm.

**Lemma 5.4.** Let $y'$, $y''$, and $y'''$ be defined in (5.1.22), (5.1.23), and (5.1.25), respectively. Then we have, for any $i = 1, \ldots, m$ and $t = 1, \ldots, k$,
\[ E_t[W_i(y_i^{-1}, y_i')] = p_t W_i(y_i^{-1}, y_i'), \quad E_t[W_i(y_i', y_i)] = p_t W_i(y_i', y_i) + (1 - p_t)W_i(y_i^{-1}, y_i), \quad (5.1.40) \]
for any $y \in \mathcal{Y}$, where $E_t$ denotes the conditional expectation w.r.t. $i_t$ given $i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1}$.

**Proof.** (5.1.40) follows immediately from the facts that $\operatorname{Prob}\{y_i' = y_i''\} = \operatorname{Prob}\{i_t = i\} = p_t$ and $\operatorname{Prob}\{y_i' = y_i''^{-1}\} = 1 - p_t$. Here $\operatorname{Prob}_t$ denotes the conditional probability w.r.t. $i_t$ given $i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1}$. Similarly, we can show (5.1.41). \hfill \blacksquare

We now prove an important recursion about the RPDG method.

**Lemma 5.5.** Let the gap function $Q$ be defined in (5.1.14). Also let $x'$ and $y''$ be defined in (5.1.24) and (5.1.25), respectively. Then for any $t \geq 1$, we have
\[ E_t[Q(x', y'', z)] \leq E_t \left[ \eta_t V(x_t^{-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_t) V(x_t, x) - \eta_t V(x_t^{-1}, x_t') \right] \]
\[ + \sum_{i=1}^m E_t \left[ (p_t^{-1}(1 + \tau_t) - 1) W_i(y_i^{-1}, y_i) - p_t^{-1}(1 + \tau_t)W_i(y_i', y_i) \right] \]
\[ + E_t \left[ (x' - x, U(y'' - y)) - \tau_t p_t W_i(y_i'^{-1}, y_i') \right], \quad \forall z \in Z. \quad (5.1.42) \]

**Proof.** It follows from Lemma 5.3 applied to (5.1.24) that $\forall x \in X,$
Moreover, by Lemma 5.3 applied to (5.1.25), we have, for any \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) and \( t = 1, \ldots, k \),

\[
\langle \tilde{x}, y_i^t - y_i \rangle + J_i(y_i^t) - J_i(y_i) \leq \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i) - (1 + \tau)W_i(y_i^t, y_i) - \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t).
\]

Summing up these inequalities over \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), we have, for any \( y \in \mathcal{Y} \),

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i) - (1 + \tau)W_i(y_i^t, y_i) - \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t) \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i) - (1 + \tau)W_i(y_i^t, y_i) - \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t) \right).
\]

Using the definition of \( Q \) in (5.1.14), (5.1.43), and (5.1.44), we have

\[
Q((\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}), z) \leq \eta V(x^{t-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta) V(x^t, x) - \eta V(x^{t-1}, x') + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i) - (1 + \tau)W_i(y_i^t, y_i) - \tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t) \right] + \langle \tilde{x}, U(y^t - y) \rangle - \langle x, U(y^t - y) \rangle + \langle x, U(y^t - y) \rangle.
\]

Also observe that by (5.1.22), (5.1.26), (5.1.40), and (5.1.41),

\[
W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t) = 0, \quad \forall i \neq i_t,
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x}, U(y^t - y))] = 0,
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x}, U(y^t))] = \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x}, U(y^t))],
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t)] = \mathbb{E}[\tau W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i^t)]
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[W_i(y_i^t, y_i)] = p_i^{-1}\mathbb{E}[W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i)] - (p_i^{-1} - 1)\mathbb{E}[W_i(y_i^{t-1}, y_i)].
\]

Taking expectation on both sides of (5.1.45) and using the above observations, we obtain (5.1.42). 

We are now ready to establish a general convergence result for RPDG.

**Proposition 5.1.** Suppose that \( \{\tau_i\} \), \( \{\eta_i\} \), and \( \{\alpha_i\} \) in the RPDG method satisfy

\[
\theta_i \left( p_i^{-1}(1 + \tau_i) - 1 \right) \leq p_i^{-1}\theta_{i-1}(1 + \tau_{i-1}), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m; t = 2, \ldots, k,
\]

\[
\eta_i \leq \theta_{i-1}(\mu + \eta_{i-1}), \quad t = 2, \ldots, k,
\]

\[
\eta_i \geq \frac{L_i(1-p_i)^2}{m\kappa_i}, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m,
\]

\[
\frac{\eta_i}{2} \geq \frac{L_i\kappa_i}{m\kappa_i} + \frac{(1-p_i)^2L_j}{m\kappa_i}, \quad i, j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}; t = 2, \ldots, k,
\]

\[
\eta_i \geq \frac{m^{-1}(p_i)}{m(1+\kappa_i)},
\]

\[
\alpha_i \theta_i = \theta_{i-1}, \quad t = 2, \ldots, k,
\]

for some \( \theta_i \geq 0, \quad t = 1, \ldots, k \). Then, for any \( k \geq 1 \) and any given \( z \in Z \), we have
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\mathcal{Q}(x^t, y^t), z] \leq \eta_t \theta_t V(x^0, x) - (\mu + \eta_t) \theta_t \mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x)] + \sum_{t=1}^{m} \theta_t \left( p_{t-1}^{-1}(1 + \tau_t) - 1 \right) W_t(y, y_t, y_t).
\]

**Proof.** Multiplying both sides of (5.1.42) by \( \theta_t \) and summing the resulting inequalities, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathcal{Q}(x^t, y^t, z)] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \left( \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_t)V(x^t, x) - \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x^t) \right) \right] + \sum_{t=1}^{m} \mathbb{E} \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \left[ (p_{t-1}^{-1}(1 + \tau_t) - 1) W_t(y^t, y_t, y_t) - p_{t}^{-1}(1 + \tau_t)W_t(y^t, y_t) \right] \right\}
\]

which, in view of the assumptions in (5.1.47) and (5.1.46), then implies that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathcal{Q}(x^t, y^t, z)] \leq \eta_t \theta_t V(x^0, x) - (\mu + \eta_t) \theta_t \mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x)] + \sum_{t=1}^{m} \mathbb{E} \left[ \theta_t \left( p_{t-1}^{-1}(1 + \tau_t) - 1 \right) W_t(y^t, y_t, y_t) - p_{t}^{-1}(1 + \tau_t)W_t(y^t, y_t) \right]
\]

where

\[
\Delta_t := \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x^t) - \langle \bar{x}^t - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle + \tau_t p_{t-1}^{-1}W_t(y^t, y_t).
\]

We now provide a bound on \( \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \Delta_t \) in (5.1.53). Note that by (5.1.21), we have

\[
\langle \bar{x}^t - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle = \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle - \alpha_t \langle x^{t-2} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle
\]

\[
= \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle - \alpha_t \langle x^{t-2} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle
\]

\[
- \alpha_t \langle x^t - x^{t-1}, U(y^t - y) \rangle
\]

\[
= \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle - \alpha_t \langle x^{t-2} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle
\]

\[
- \alpha_t \langle x^t - x^{t-1}, y^{t-1} - y_{t-1} \rangle
\]

\[
- \alpha_t \langle p_{t-1}^{-1}(x^{t-1} - x^t), y_{t-1} - y_{t-1} \rangle
\]

\[
= p_{t-1}^{-1}(y^t - y_{t-1}) + (p_{t-1}^{-1} - 1)(y_{t-1}^t - y_{t-1}^t),
\]

where the last identity follows from the observation that by (5.1.22) and (5.1.23),

\[
U(y^t - y^{t-1}) = \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left\{ [p_{t-1}^{-1}(y_t^t - y_{t-1}^t) + y_{t-1}^t] - [p_{t-1}^{-1}(y_t^t - y_{t-1}^t) + y_{t-1}^t] \right\}
\]

\[
= \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left\{ [p_{t-1}^{-1}(y_t^t - (p_{t-1}^{-1} - 1)y_{t-1}^t) - [p_{t-1}^{-1}(y_t^t - y_{t-1}^t) - (p_{t-1}^{-1} - 1)y_{t-1}^t] \right\}
\]

\[
= p_{t}^{-1}(y_t^t - y_{t-1}^t) + (p_{t-1}^{-1} - 1)(y_{t-1}^t - y_{t-1}^t).
\]

Using relation (5.1.55) in the definition of \( \Delta_t \) in (5.1.54), we have
Observe that by (5.1.51) and the fact that $x^{-1} = x^0$,

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \Delta_t = \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \left[ \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x^t) - \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, U(y^t - y) \rangle + \alpha_t \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, U(y^{t-1} - y) \rangle + \alpha_t p_{i_t-1}^{-1} \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, y_{i_t}^{t-2} - y_{i_t}^{t-1} \rangle + p_{i_t}^{-1} \tau_t W_t (y_{i_t}^{t-1}, y_{i_t}^t) \right].
$$

(5.1.56)

where the last identity follows from the definitions of $y^k$ and $\tilde{y}^k$ in (5.1.22) and (5.1.23), respectively. Also, by the strong convexity of $P$ and $W_t$, we have

$$
V(x^{t-1}, x^t) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|x^{t-1} - x^t\|^2 \quad \text{and} \quad W_t (y_{i_t}^{t-1}, y_{i_t}^t) \geq \frac{m}{\Xi_{i_t}} \|y_{i_t}^{t-1} - y_{i_t}^t\|^2.
$$

Using the previous three relations in (5.1.56), we have

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \Delta_t \geq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \left[ \frac{\eta_t}{2} \|x^{t-1} - x^t\|^2 + \alpha_t p_{i_t}^{-1} \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, y_{i_t}^{t-2} - y_{i_t}^{t-1} \rangle + \alpha_t (p_{i_t-1}^{-1} - 1) \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, y_{i_t}^{t-2} - y_{i_t}^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{m}{\Xi_{i_t} p_{i_t}} \|y_{i_t}^{t-1} - y_{i_t}^t\|^2 \right]
$$

$$
- \theta_t \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, U(y^k - y) \rangle - \theta_t (p_{i_t}^{-1} - 1) \langle x^{t-1} - x^t, y_{i_t}^k - y_{i_t}^{k-1} \rangle.
$$

Regrouping the terms in the above relation, and the fact that $x^{-1} = x^0$, we obtain
\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \Delta_t \geq \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle \right) \]

\[ + \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - (p_{t-1} - 1) \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, y_{t-1} - y_{t-1} \rangle \right) + \frac{m \tau_t}{2 L_i p_i} \|y_{t-1} - y_{t-1}\|^2 \]

\[ + \sum_{t=2}^{k} \theta_t \left[ \alpha \left( \theta_{t-1} p_{t-1} - 1 \right) \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, y_{t-2} - y_{t-1} \rangle + \frac{m \tau_t \theta_{t-1}}{2 L_i p_i} \|y_{t-2} - y_{t-1}\|^2 \right] \]

\[ + \sum_{t=2}^{k} \theta_t \left( \frac{L_i (1 - p_{t-1})^2}{m \tau_t p_i} \right) \|x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \]

\[ \geq \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle \right) \]

\[ + \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle \right) \]

\[ + \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle \right) \]

\[ + \sum_{t=2}^{k} \theta_t \left( \frac{L_i (1 - p_{t-1})^2}{m \tau_t p_i} \right) \|x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \]

\[ \geq \theta_k \left( \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle \right), \quad (5.1.57) \]

where the second inequality follows from the simple relation that

\[ b \langle u, v \rangle + a \|v\|^2 / 2 \geq -b^2 \|u\|^2 / (2a), \forall a > 0, \quad (5.1.58) \]

and the last inequality follows from (5.1.48) and (5.1.49). Plugging the bound (5.1.57) into (5.1.53), we have

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E} \left[ Q \left( (x^t, y^t, s_t) \right) \right] \leq \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x) - \theta_k (\mu + \eta_k) \mathbb{E} [V(x^k, x)] \]

\[ + \sum_{t=1}^{m} \theta_t \left( \frac{L_i (1 - p_{t-1})^2}{m \tau_t p_i} \right) \mathbb{E} \left[ \|x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}\|^2 - \langle x^{t-2} - x^{t-1}, U(y^t - y) \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i (1 - p_{t-1}) W_i (y^t, y_i) \right] \]

Also observe that by (5.1.50) and (7.1.30),

\[ \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, U(y^k - y) \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i (1 - p_{t-1}) W_i (y^t, y_i) \]

\[ \geq \frac{B}{4} \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ 1 - \langle x^{k-1} - x^k, y_i - y_i \rangle + \frac{m (1 + \tau_i)}{2 L_i p_i} \|y^t - y_i\|^2 \right] \]

\[ \geq \left( \frac{B}{4} - \frac{m (1 + \tau_i)}{2 (m + 1 + \tau_i)} \right) \|x^{k-1} - x^k\|^2 \geq 0, \]

The result then immediately follows by combining the above two conclusion. \[ \blacksquare \]
5.1 Random primal-dual gradient method

5.1.3.3 Main convergence results

We now are now ready to establish the main convergence properties for the RPDG method applied to strongly convex problems with $\mu > 0$.

Theorem 5.1. Suppose that $\{\tau_i\}$, $\{\eta_i\}$, and $\{\alpha_i\}$ in the RPDG method are set to

$$\tau_i = \tau, \quad \eta_i = \eta, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_i = \alpha, \quad (5.1.59)$$

for any $t \geq 1$ such that

$$(1 - \alpha)(1 + \tau) \leq p_i, i = 1, \ldots, m, \quad (5.1.60)$$

$$\eta \leq \alpha(\mu + \eta), \quad (5.1.61)$$

$$\eta \tau p_i \geq 4L_i/m, i = 1, \ldots, m, \quad (5.1.62)$$

for some $\alpha \in (0, 1)$. Then, for any $k \geq 1$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq \left(1 + \frac{L_1\alpha}{1 - \alpha\eta}\right) \alpha^k V(x^0, x^*), \quad (5.1.63)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^k) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \alpha^{k/2} \left(\alpha^{-1}\eta + \frac{1}{1 - \alpha}\right)^2 \nu \mathbb{E}[V(x^0, x^*)], \quad (5.1.64)$$

where $x^k = (\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (\bar{\theta}_i x^i)$ with

$$\bar{\theta}_i = \frac{1}{\eta}, \quad \forall t = 1, \ldots, k, \quad (5.1.65)$$

and $x^*$ denotes the optimal solution of problem (5.1.1), and the expectation is taken w.r.t. $i_1, \ldots, i_k$.

Proof. It can be easily checked that the conditions in (5.1.46)-(5.1.51) are satisfied with our requirements (5.1.59)-(5.1.62) of $\{\tau_i\}$, $\{\eta_i\}$, $\{\alpha_i\}$, and $\{\bar{\theta}_i\}$. Using the fact that $Q(x^i, y^i, z^*) \geq 0$, we then conclude from (5.1.52) (with $x = x^*$ and $y = y^*$) that, for any $k \geq 1$,

$$\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{1}{\eta(\mu + \eta)} \left[\bar{\theta}_i \eta V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{\eta} \mathbb{E}[W(y^0, y^*)]\right] \leq \left(1 + \frac{L_1\alpha}{1 - \alpha\eta}\right) \alpha^k V(x^0, x^*),$$

where the first inequality follows from (5.1.59) and (5.1.60), and the second inequality follows from (5.1.61) and (5.1.63).

Let us denote $\bar{z}^k \equiv (\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^k (\bar{\theta}_i y^i)$, $\bar{z}^k = (\bar{x}^k, \bar{y}^k)$. In view of (5.2.60), the convexity of $\|\cdot\|$, and (5.1.16), we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^k) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \mathbb{E}[Q(z^k, z^*)] + \frac{L_1}{\tau} (\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i \|x^i - x^*\|^2]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E}[Q(z^k, z^*)] + L_1 (\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\theta}_i V(x^i, x^*)]. \quad (5.1.66)$$

Using (5.1.52) (with $x = x^*$ and $y = y^*$), the fact that $V(x^k, x^*) \geq 0$, and (8.1.24), we obtain
\[E[Q(z^k, z^*)] \leq \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t E[Q((x^t, y^t), z^*)] \leq \alpha^k \left( \alpha^{-1} \eta + \frac{L_f}{1-\alpha} \right) V(x^0, x^*).\]

We conclude from (5.1.63) and the definition of \( \{ \theta_t \} \) that
\[
\left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \right)^{-1} E[\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t V(x^t, x^*)] = \left( \sum_{t=1}^{k} \alpha^{-t} \right)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \alpha^{-t} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{1-\alpha}{\alpha} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \alpha^{t-1} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*)
\]
\[
= \frac{1-\alpha}{1-\alpha^{t-1}} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*)
\]
\[
= \frac{1-\alpha^{t-1}}{1-\alpha^{t-2}} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*)
\]
\[
\leq 2^{k/2} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*).\]

Using the above two relations, and (5.1.66), we obtain
\[
E[\Psi(\hat{x}) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \alpha^k \left( \alpha^{-1} \eta + \frac{L_f}{1-\alpha} \right) V(x^0, x^*) + L_f 2^{k/2} \left( 1 + \frac{L_f \alpha}{(1-\alpha)\eta} \right) V(x^0, x^*)
\]
\[
\leq \alpha^k \left( \alpha^{-1} \eta + \frac{2^{k/2} 2L_f}{1-\alpha} \right) V(x^0, x^*).\]

We now provide a few specific selections of \( p_i, \tau, \eta, \) and \( \alpha \) satisfying (5.1.60)-(5.1.62) and establish the complexity of the RPDG method for computing a stochastic \( \bar{\epsilon} \)-solution of problem (5.1.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( E[V(\bar{x}, x^*)] \leq \bar{\epsilon} \), as well as a stochastic \( (\bar{\epsilon}, \bar{\lambda}) \)-solution of problem (5.1.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \text{Prob}\{V(\bar{x}, x^*) \leq \bar{\epsilon} \} \geq 1 - \bar{\lambda} \) for some \( \bar{\lambda} \in (0, 1) \). Moreover, in view of (5.1.64), similar complexity bounds of the RPDG method can be established in terms of the primal optimality gap, i.e., \( E[\Psi(\hat{x}) - \Psi^*] \).

The following corollary shows the convergence of RPDG under a non-uniform distribution for the random variables \( i_t, t = 1, \ldots, k \).

**Corollary 5.1.** Suppose that \( \{ i_t \} \) in the RPDG method are distributed over \( \{ 1, \ldots, m \} \) according to
\[
p_t = \text{Prob}\{ i_t = i \} = \frac{1}{2m} + \frac{L_f}{2m}, i = 1, \ldots, m. \tag{5.1.67}
\]
Also assume that \( \{ \tau_t \}, \{ \eta_t \}, \) and \( \{ \alpha_t \} \) are set to (5.1.59) with
\[
\tau = \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4\mu - (m-1)},
\]
\[
\eta = \frac{\mu \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4\mu + \mu (m-1)}}{2},
\]
\[
\alpha = 1 - \frac{1}{(m+1) + \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4\mu}}, \tag{5.1.68}
\]
where
\[
C = \frac{\mu}{\mu} \tag{5.1.69}
\]
Then for any \( k \geq 1 \), we have
As a consequence, the number of iterations performed by the RPDG method to find a stochastic $\varepsilon$-solution and a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \lambda)$-solution of (5.1.1), in terms of the distance to the optimal solution, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[V(x^\lambda, x^*)]$, can be bounded by $K(\varepsilon, C)$ and $K(\lambda, \varepsilon, C)$, respectively, where

$$K(\varepsilon, C) := \left( m + 1 + \sqrt{(m - 1)^2 + 4mC} \right) \log \left( 1 + \frac{3L_f}{\mu} \right).$$

Similarly, the total number of iterations performed by the RPDG method to find a stochastic $\varepsilon$-solution and a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \lambda)$-solution of (5.1.1), in terms of the primal optimality gap, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^\lambda) - \Psi^*]$, can be bounded by $\bar{K}(\varepsilon, C)$ and $K(\lambda, \varepsilon, C)$, respectively, where

$$\bar{K}(\varepsilon, C) := 2 \left( m + 1 + \sqrt{(m - 1)^2 + 4mC} \right) \log \left( 2(\mu + 2L_f + \frac{L_f^2}{\mu})^{1/2}(m + \sqrt{mC}) \right).$$

**Proof.** It follows from (5.1.68) that

$$(1 - \alpha)(1 + \tau) = 1/(2m) \leq p_i, \quad (1 - \alpha)\eta = (\alpha - 1/2)\mu \leq \alpha\mu, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta \tau p_i = \mu C p_i \geq 4L_d/m,$n

and hence that the conditions in (5.1.60)-(5.1.62) are satisfied. Notice that by the fact that $\alpha \geq 3/4, \forall m \geq 1$ and (5.1.68), we have

$$1 + \frac{L_f}{(1 - \alpha)\eta} = 1 + \frac{L_f}{(\alpha - 1/2)\mu} \leq 1 + \frac{3L_f}{\mu}.$$

Using the above bound in (5.1.63), we obtain (5.1.70). It follows from the facts that $1 - \alpha)\eta \leq \alpha\mu, 1/2 \leq \alpha \leq 1, \forall m \geq 1$, and $\eta \geq \mu\sqrt{C} > 2\mu$ that

$$\alpha^{-1} \eta + \frac{1 - 2\alpha}{\alpha - 1/2} L_f + \frac{2L_f^2}{(1 - \alpha)\eta} \leq (1 - \alpha)^{-1}(\mu + 2L_f + \frac{L_f^2}{\mu}).$$

Using the above bound in (5.1.64), we obtain (5.1.71). Denoting $D \equiv (1 + \frac{3L_f}{\mu}) V(x^0, x^*)$, we conclude from (5.1.70) and the fact that $\log x \leq x - 1$ for any $x \in (0, 1)$ that

$$\mathbb{E}[V(x^{(\varepsilon/C)}, x^*)] \leq D\alpha^{\log(D/C)} \leq D\alpha^{\frac{\log(D/C)}{\log\alpha}} \leq D\alpha^{\frac{\log(\varepsilon/C)}{\log\alpha}} = \varepsilon.$$

Moreover, by Markov’s inequality, (5.1.70) and the fact that $\log x \leq x - 1$ for any $x \in (0, 1)$, we have

$$\text{Prob}\{V(x^{(\lambda\varepsilon/C)}, x^*) > \varepsilon\} \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathbb{E}[V(x^{(\lambda\varepsilon/C)}, x^*)] \leq \frac{D}{\varepsilon} \alpha^{\frac{\log(D/(\lambda\varepsilon))}{\log\alpha}} \leq \frac{D}{\varepsilon} \alpha^{\frac{\log(\lambda\varepsilon/C)}{\log\alpha}} = \lambda.$$
The proofs for the complexity bounds in terms of the primal optimality gap is similar and hence the details are skipped.

The non-uniform distribution in (5.1.67) requires the estimation of the Lipschitz constants $L_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. In case such information is not available, we can use a uniform distribution for $i_t$, and as a result, the complexity bounds will depend on a larger condition number given by

$$\max_{i=1,\ldots,m} L_i/\mu.$$ 

However, if we do have $L_1 = L_2 = \cdots = L_m$, then the results obtained by using a uniform distribution is slightly sharper than the one by using a non-uniform distribution in Corollary 5.1.

\textbf{Corollary 5.2.} Suppose that $\{i_t\}$ in the RPDG method are uniformly distributed over $\{1, \ldots, m\}$ according to

$$p_i = \text{Prob}\{i_t = i\} = \frac{1}{m}, i = 1, \ldots, m. \quad (5.1.74)$$

Also assume that $\{\tau_t\}$, $\{\eta_t\}$, and $\{\alpha_t\}$ are set to (5.1.59) with

$$\tau = \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4m\bar{\mathcal{C}} - (m-1)},$$
$$\eta = \frac{\mu \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4m\bar{\mathcal{C}} + \mu (m-1)}}{2},$$
$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{2}{(m+1) + \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4m\bar{\mathcal{C}}}}, \quad (5.1.75)$$

where

$$\bar{\mathcal{C}} := \frac{4}{\mu} \max_{i=1,\ldots,m} L_i. \quad (5.1.76)$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq (1 + \frac{L_f}{\bar{\mathcal{C}}}) \alpha \sqrt{V(x^0, x^*)},$$

$$\mathbb{E}[^\mathcal{P}(x^k) - \mathcal{P}^*] \leq \alpha \sqrt{V(x^0, x^*)}. \quad (5.1.77)$$

for any $k \geq 1$. As a consequence, the number of iterations performed by the RPDG method to find a stochastic $\epsilon$-solution and a stochastic ($\epsilon, \lambda$)-solution of (5.1.1), in terms of the distance to the optimal solution, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)]$, can be bounded by $K_u(\epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}})$ and $K_u(\lambda \epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}})$, respectively, where

$$K_u(\epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}}) := \frac{(m+1) + \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4m\bar{\mathcal{C}}}}{\alpha} \log \left(1 + \frac{L_f}{\bar{\mathcal{C}}} \frac{V(x^0, x^*)}{\epsilon}\right).$$

Similarly, the total number of iterations performed by the RPDG method to find a stochastic $\epsilon$-solution and a stochastic ($\epsilon, \lambda$)-solution of (5.1.1), in terms of the primal optimality gap, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[^\mathcal{P}(x^k) - \mathcal{P}^*]$, can be bounded by $\tilde{K}(\epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}})/2$ and $\tilde{K}(\lambda \epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}})/2$, respectively, where $\tilde{K}(\epsilon, \bar{\mathcal{C}})$ is defined in (5.1.73).
5.1 Random primal-dual gradient method

**Proof.** It follows from (5.1.75) that

\[(1 - \alpha)(1 + \tau) = 1/m = p_i, \quad (1 - \alpha)\eta - \alpha\mu = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta \tau = \mu \tilde{C} \geq 4L_i,\]

and hence that the conditions in (5.1.60)-(5.1.62) are satisfied. By the identity \((1 - \alpha)\eta = \alpha\mu\), we have

\[1 + \frac{L_i \alpha}{(1 - \alpha)\eta} = 1 + \frac{L_i}{\mu}.\]

Using the above bound in (5.1.63), we obtain (5.1.77). Moreover, note that \(\eta \geq \mu \sqrt{\tilde{C}} \geq 2\mu\) and \(2/3 \leq \alpha \leq 1, \forall m \geq 1\) we have

\[\alpha^{-1} \eta + \frac{1 - 2\alpha}{1 - \alpha} L_i + \frac{2L_i^2 \alpha}{(1 - \alpha)\eta} \leq (1 - \alpha)^{-1} (\mu + 2L_i + \frac{L_i^2}{\mu}).\]

Using the above bound in (5.1.64), we obtain (5.1.78). The proofs for the complexity bounds are similar to those in Corollary 5.1 and hence the details are skipped.

Comparing the complexity bounds obtained from Corollaries 5.1 and 5.2 with those of any optimal deterministic first-order method, they differ in a factor of \(O\left(\sqrt{mL_i/\tilde{C}}\right)\), whenever \(\sqrt{m\tilde{C}} \log(1/\varepsilon)\) is dominating in (5.1.72). Clearly, when \(L_i\) and \(L\) are in the same order of magnitude, RPDG can save up to \(O(\sqrt{m})\) gradient evaluations for the component function \(f_i\) than the deterministic first-order methods. However, it should be pointed out that \(L_i\) can be much smaller than \(L\). In particular, when \(L_i = L_j, \forall i, j \in \{1, \ldots, m\}, L_f = L/m\). In the next subsection, we will construct examples in such extreme cases to obtain the lower complexity bound for general randomized incremental gradient methods.

### 5.1.4 Lower complexity bound for randomized methods

Our goal in this subsection is to demonstrate that the complexity bounds obtained in Theorem 5.1, and Corollaries 5.1 and 5.2 for the RPDG method are essentially not improvable. Observe that although there exist rich lower complexity bounds in the literature for deterministic first-order methods, the study on lower complexity bounds for randomized methods are still quite limited.

To derive the performance limit of the incremental gradient methods, we consider a special class of unconstrained and separable strongly convex optimization problems given in the form of

\[
\min_{x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, i = 1, \ldots, m} \{ \Psi(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{\bar{n}} \left[ f_i(x_i) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_i\|_2^2 \right] \}. \tag{5.1.79}
\]

Here \(\bar{n} \equiv n/m \in \{1, 2, \ldots\}\) and \(\| \cdot \|_2\) denotes standard Euclidean norm. To fix the notation, we also denote \(x = (x_1, \ldots, x_m)\). Moreover, we assume that \(f_i\)’s are quadratic functions given by
finite-sum and Distributed Optimization

\[ f_i(x_i) = \frac{\mu_m(Q-1)}{4} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \langle Ax_i, x_i \rangle - \langle e_1, x_i \rangle \right], \quad (5.1.80) \]

where \( e_1 := (1, 0, \ldots, 0) \) and \( A \) is a symmetric matrix in \( \mathbb{R}^{\tilde{n} \times \tilde{n}} \) given by

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix}
2 & -1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
-1 & 2 & -1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 2 & -1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & -1 & 2 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & -1 & \kappa
\end{pmatrix}
\]

with \( \kappa = \frac{\sqrt{Q+3}}{\sqrt{Q+1}} \). (5.1.81)

Note that the tridiagonal matrix \( A \) above consists of a different diagonal element \( \kappa \).

It can be easily checked that \( A \succeq 0 \) and its maximum eigenvalue does not exceed 4.

Indeed, for any \( s = (s_1, \ldots, s_{\tilde{n}}) \in \mathbb{R}_{\tilde{n}} \), we have

\[
\langle As, s \rangle = s_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{\tilde{n}-1} (s_i - s_{i+1})^2 + (\kappa - 1)s_{\tilde{n}}^2 \geq 0
\]

\[
\langle As, s \rangle \leq s_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{\tilde{n}-1} 2(s_i^2 + s_{i+1}^2) + (\kappa - 1)s_{\tilde{n}}^2
\]

\[
= 3s_1^2 + 4\sum_{i=2}^{\tilde{n}-1} s_i^2 + (\kappa + 1)s_{\tilde{n}}^2 \leq 4\|s\|_2^2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( \kappa \leq 3 \). Therefore, for any \( Q > 1 \), the component functions \( f_i \) in (5.1.80) are convex and their gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant bounded by \( L_i = \mu_m(Q-1) \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \).

The following result provides an explicit expression for the optimal solution of (5.1.79).

**Lemma 5.6.** Let \( q \) be defined in (5.1.91), \( x_{i,j}^* \) is the \( j \)-th element of \( x_i \), and define

\[
x_{i,j}^* = q^j, i = 1, \ldots, m; j = 1, \ldots, \tilde{n}.
\]

Then \( x^* \) is the unique optimal solution of (5.1.79).

**Proof.** It can be easily seen that \( q \) is the smallest root of the equation

\[
q^2 - 2\frac{Q+1}{Q-1} q + 1 = 0.
\]

(5.1.83)

Note that \( x^* \) satisfies the optimality condition of (5.1.79), i.e.,

\[
(A + \frac{4}{Q-1} I) x_i^* = e_1, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m.
\]

(5.1.84)

Indeed, we can write the coordinate form of (5.1.84) as

\[
2\frac{Q+1}{Q-1} x_{i,1}^* - x_{i,2}^* = 1,
\]

(5.1.85)

\[
x_{i,j+1}^* - 2\frac{Q+1}{Q-1} x_{i,j}^* + x_{i,j-1}^* = 0, \quad j = 2, 3, \ldots, \tilde{n} - 1,
\]

(5.1.86)

\[-(\kappa + \frac{4}{Q-1}) x_{i,\tilde{n}}^* + x_{i,\tilde{n}-1}^* = 0,
\]

(5.1.87)
where the first two equations follow directly from the definition of $x^*$ and relation (5.1.83), and the last equation is implied by the definitions of $\kappa$ and $x^*$ in (5.1.81) and (5.1.82), respectively.

We consider a general class of randomized incremental gradient methods which sequentially acquire the gradient of a randomly selected component function $f_i$ at iteration $t$. More specifically, we assume that the independent random variables $i_t, t = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, satisfy
\[
\text{Prob}\{i_t = i\} = p_i, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{m} p_i = 1, \quad p_i \geq 0, i = 1, \ldots, m.
\]
Moreover, we assume that these methods generate a sequence of test points \{x^k\} such that
\[
x^k \in x^0 + \text{Lin}\{\nabla f_{i_1}(x^0), \ldots, \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{k-1})\},
\]
where Lin denotes the linear span.

Theorem 5.2 below describes the performance limit of the above randomized incremental gradient methods for solving (5.1.79). We also need a few technical results to establish the lower complexity bounds.

**Lemma 5.7.**

\(a\) For any $x > 1$, we have
\[
\log(1 - \frac{1}{x}) \geq -\frac{1}{x-1}.
\]

\(b\) Let $\rho, q, \bar{q} \in (0, 1)$ be given. If we have
\[
\bar{n} \geq \frac{t \log \bar{q} + \log(1 - \rho)}{2 \log q},
\]
for any $t \geq 0$, then
\[
\bar{q} - q^{2\bar{n}} \geq \rho \bar{q} (1 - q^{2\bar{n}}).
\]

**Proof.** We first show part (a). Denote $\phi(x) = \log(1 - \frac{1}{x}) + \frac{1}{x-1}$. It can be easily seen that $\lim_{x \to +\infty} \phi(x) = 0$. Moreover, for any $x > 1$, we have
\[
\phi'(x) = \frac{1}{x(x-1)} - \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} = \frac{1}{x-1} \left( \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x-1} \right) < 0,
\]
which implies that $\phi$ is a strictly decreasing function for $x > 1$. Hence, we must have $\phi(x) > 0$ for any $x > 1$. Part (b) follows from the following simple calculation.
\[
\bar{q} - q^{2\bar{n}} - \rho \bar{q} (1 - q^{2\bar{n}}) = (1 - \rho) \bar{q} - q^{2\bar{n}} + \rho \bar{q} q^{2\bar{n}} \geq (1 - \rho) \bar{q} - q^{2\bar{n}} \geq 0.
\]

We are now ready to describe our main results regarding the lower complexity bound.

**Theorem 5.2.** Let $x^*$ be the optimal solution of problem (5.1.79) and denote
\[
q := \frac{\sqrt{Q} - 1}{\sqrt{Q} + 1}.
\]
Then the iterates $\{x^k\}$ generated by any randomized incremental gradient method must satisfy

$$
\frac{\mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^*\|^2_2]}{\|x^0 - x^*\|^2_2} \geq \frac{1}{2} \exp \left( - \frac{4k \sqrt{q}}{m(\sqrt{q} - 1)^2 - 4\sqrt{q}} \right)
$$

(5.1.92)

for any

$$
n \geq n(m, k) = \frac{m \log \left( (1 - (1 - q^2)/m)^{k/2} \right)}{2 \log q}.
$$

(5.1.93)

**Proof.** Without loss of generality, we may assume that the initial point $x^0_i = 0$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Indeed, the incremental gradient methods described in Subsection 3.3 are invariant with respect to a simultaneous shift of the decision variables. In other words, the sequence of iterates $\{x^k\}$, which is generated by such a method for minimizing the function $\Psi(x)$ starting from $x^0$, is just a shift of the sequence generated for minimizing $\Psi(x) = \Psi(x + x^0)$ starting from the origin.

Now let $k_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, denote the number of times that the gradients of the component function $f_i$ are computed from iteration 1 to $k$. Clearly $k_i$'s are binomial random variables supported on $\{0, 1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^m k_i = k$. Also observe that we must have $x^k_i = 0$ for any $k \geq 0$ and $k_i + 1 \leq j \leq \bar{n}$, because each time the gradient $\nabla f_i$ is computed, the incremental gradient methods add at most one more nonzero entry to the $i$-th component of $x^k$ due to the structure of the gradient $\nabla f_i$. Therefore, we have

$$
\|x^k - x^i\|^2_2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \|x^k_i - x^i_i\|^2 \geq \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=k_i+1}^{\bar{n}} (x^k_j - x^i_j)^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (q^{2k_i} - q^{2\bar{n}})}{m(1 - q^{2\bar{n}})}.
$$

(5.1.94)

Observing that for any $i = 1, \ldots, m$,

$$
\mathbb{E}[q^{2k_i}] = \sum_{k=0}^k \binom{k}{i} q^i (1 - q)^{k-i} = (1 - (1 - q^2) p_i)^k,
$$

we then conclude from (5.1.94) that

$$
\frac{\mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^i\|^2_2]}{\|x^0 - x^i\|^2_2} \geq \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m (1 - (1 - q^2) p_i)^k - mq^{2\bar{n}}}{m(1 - q^{2\bar{n}})}.
$$

Noting that $[1 - (1 - q^2) p_i]^k$ is convex w.r.t. $p_i$ for any $p_i \in [0, 1]$ and $k \geq 1$, by minimizing the RHS of the above bound w.r.t. $p_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, subject to $\sum_{i=1}^m p_i = 1$ and $p_i \geq 0$, we conclude that

$$
\frac{\mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^i\|^2_2]}{\|x^0 - x^i\|^2_2} \geq \frac{1 - (1 - q^2)/m}{1 - q^{2\bar{n}}} \geq \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - (1 - q^2)/m \right]^k,
$$

(5.1.95)

for any $n \geq n(m, k)$ (see (5.1.93)) and possible selection of $p_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$ satisfying (5.1.88), where the last inequality follows from Lemma 5.7.b). Noting that
we then conclude from (5.1.95) and Lemma 5.7.a) that
\[
1 - (1 - q^2)/m = 1 - \left[1 - \left(\frac{\sqrt{Q} - 1}{\sqrt{Q} + 1}\right)^2\right] \frac{1}{m} = 1 - \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{m} \left(1 - \frac{2}{\sqrt{Q} + 1}\right)^2
\]
\[
= 1 - \frac{4}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)} + \frac{4}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)^2} = 1 - \frac{4\sqrt{Q}}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)^2},
\]
we then conclude from (5.1.95) and Lemma 5.7.a) that
\[
\frac{\mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^*\|_2^2]}{\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2} \geq \frac{1}{2} \left[1 - \frac{4\sqrt{Q}}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)^2}\right] \geq \frac{1}{2} \exp \left(k \log \left(1 - \frac{4\sqrt{Q}}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)^2}\right)\right)
\]
\[
\geq \frac{1}{2} \exp \left(- \frac{4k\sqrt{Q}}{m(\sqrt{Q} + 1)^2 - 4\sqrt{Q}}\right).
\]

As an immediate consequence of Theorem 5.2, we obtain a lower complexity bound for randomized incremental gradient methods.

**Corollary 5.3.** The number of gradient evaluations performed by any randomized incremental gradient methods for finding a solution \(\hat{x} \in X\) of problem (5.1.1) such that \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{x} - x^*\|_2^2] \leq \epsilon\) cannot be smaller than
\[
\Omega \left(\sqrt{m\epsilon} + m\right) \log \frac{\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{\epsilon}
\]
if \(n\) is sufficiently large, where \(\epsilon = L/m\) and \(L = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i\).

**Proof.** It follows from (5.1.92) that the number of iterations \(k\) required by any randomized incremental gradient methods to find an approximate solution \(\hat{x}\) must satisfy
\[
k \geq \left(m\sqrt{Q} + 1\right)^2 \log \frac{\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{2\epsilon} \geq \left[m\sqrt{Q} + 1\right] \log \frac{\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{2\epsilon}, \quad (5.1.96)
\]
Noting that for the worst-case instance in (5.1.79), we have \(L_i = \mu m(Q - 1), i = 1, \ldots, m\), and hence that \(L = \frac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i = m\mu (Q - 1)\). Using this relation, we conclude that
\[
k \geq \left[m\sqrt{Q} + 1\right] = k.
\]
The above bound holds when \(n \geq n(m, k)\).

In view of Theorem 5.2, we can also derive a lower complexity bound for randomized block coordinate descent methods, which update one randomly selected block of variables at each iteration for \(\min_{x \in X} \Psi(x)\). Here \(\Psi\) is smooth and strongly convex such that
\[
\frac{L\mu}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2 \leq \Psi(x) - \Psi(y) - (\nabla\Psi(y), x - y) \leq \frac{L\mu}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2, \forall x, y \in X.
\]

**Corollary 5.4.** The number of iterations performed by any randomized block coordinate descent methods for finding a solution \(\hat{x} \in X\) of \(\min_{x \in X} \Psi(x)\) such that \(\mathbb{E}[\|\hat{x} - x^*\|_2^2] \leq \epsilon\) cannot be smaller than
\[
\Omega \left\{ \left( m \sqrt{Q_\Psi} \right) \log \frac{||x_0 - x^*||_2^2}{\epsilon} \right\}
\]
if \( n \) is sufficiently large, where \( Q_\Psi = L_\Psi / \mu_\Psi \) denotes the condition number of \( \Psi \).

**Proof.** The worst-case instances in (5.1.79) have a block separable structure. Therefore, any randomized incremental gradient methods are equivalent to randomized block coordinate descent methods. The result then immediately follows from (5.1.96).

5.1.5 Generalization to problems without strong convexity

In this section, we generalize the RPDG method for solving a few different types of convex optimization problems which are not necessarily smooth and strongly convex.

5.1.5.1 Smooth problems with bounded feasible sets

Our goal in this subsection is to generalize RPDG for solving smooth problems without strong convexity (i.e., \( \mu = 0 \)). Different from the deterministic PDG method, it is difficult to develop a simple stepsize policy for \( \{\tau_t\} \), \( \{\eta_t\} \), and \( \{\alpha_t\} \) which can guarantee the convergence of this method unless a weaker termination criterion is used. In order to obtain stronger convergence results, we will discuss a different approach obtained by applying the RPDG method to a slightly perturbed problem of (5.1.1).

In order to apply this perturbation approach, we will assume that \( X \) is bounded (see Subsection 5.1.5.3 for possible extensions), i.e., given \( x_0 \in X \), \( \exists D_X \geq 0 \) s.t.

\[
\max_{x \in X} V_\nu(x_0, x) \leq D_X^2.
\]

(5.1.97)

Now we define the perturbation problem as

\[
\Psi^*_\delta := \min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi_\delta(x) := f(x) + h(x) + \delta V_\nu(x_0, x) \},
\]

(5.1.98)

for some fixed \( \delta > 0 \). It is well-known that an approximate solution of (5.1.98) will also be an approximate solution of (5.1.1) if \( \delta \) is sufficiently small. More specifically, it is easy to verify that

\[
\Psi^* \leq \Psi^*_\delta \leq \Psi^* + \delta D_X^2,
\]

(5.1.99)

\[
\Psi(x) \leq \Psi_\delta(x) \leq \Psi(x) + \delta D_X^2, \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

(5.1.100)

The following result describes the complexity associated with this perturbation approach for solving smooth problems without strong convexity (i.e., \( \mu = 0 \)).
Proposition 5.2. Let us apply the RPDG method with the parameter settings in Corollary 5.1 to the perturbation problem (5.1.98) with
\[ \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2D_X}, \]  
for some \( \epsilon > 0 \). Then we can find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon \) in at most
\[ \mathcal{O} \left\{ \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mLD_X}{\epsilon}} \right) \log \frac{mL_xD_X}{\epsilon} \right\} \]  
iterations. Moreover, we can find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t.
\[ \text{Prob}\{\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^* > \epsilon\} \leq \lambda \]  
for any \( \lambda \in (0,1) \) in at most
\[ \mathcal{O} \left\{ \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mLD_X}{\epsilon}} \right) \log \frac{mL_xD_X}{\lambda \epsilon} \right\} \]  
iterations.

Proof. Let \( x_0^* \) be the optimal solution of (5.1.98). Denote \( C := 16LD_X^2 / \epsilon \) and
\[ K := 2 \left[ (m+1) + \sqrt{(m-1)^2 + 4mC} \right] \log \left[ (m + \sqrt{mC})/(\delta + 2L_f + \frac{L_f^2}{\delta} + \frac{4D_X^2}{\delta}) \right]. \]
It can be easily seen that
\[ \Psi(\bar{x}^K) - \Psi^* \leq \Psi_\delta(\bar{x}^K) - \Psi^*_\delta + \delta D_X^2 = \Psi_\delta(\bar{x}^K) - \Psi^*_\delta + \frac{\epsilon}{2}. \]
Note that problem (5.1.98) is given in the form of (5.1.1) with the strongly convex modulus \( \mu = \delta \), and \( h(x) = h(x) - \delta \langle \nu'(x_0), x \rangle \). Hence by applying Corollary 5.1, we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi_\delta(\bar{x}^K) - \Psi^*_\delta] \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2}. \]
Combining these two inequalities, we have \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}^K) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon \), which implies the bound in (5.1.102). The bound in (5.1.103) can be shown similarly and hence the details are skipped.

Observe that if we apply a deterministic optimal first-order method (e.g., Nesterov’s method or the PDG method), the total number of gradient evaluations for \( \nabla f_i \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), would be given by
\[ m \sqrt{\frac{L_f D_X^2}{\epsilon}}. \]
Comparing this bound with (5.1.102), we can see that the number of gradient evaluations performed by the RPDG method can be \( \mathcal{O} (\sqrt{m} \log^{-1}(mL_fD_X/\epsilon)) \) times smaller than these deterministic methods when \( L \) and \( L_f \) are in the same order of magnitude.
5.1.5.2 Structured nonsmooth problems

In this subsection, we assume that the component functions $f_i$ are nonsmooth but can be approximated closely by smooth ones. More specifically, we assume that

$$f_i(x) := \max_{y_i \in Y_i} \langle A_i x, y_i \rangle - q_i(y_i). \quad (5.1.104)$$

One can approximate $f_i(x)$ and $f$, respectively, by

$$\tilde{f}_i(x, \delta) := \max_{y_i \in Y_i} \langle A_i x, y_i \rangle - \delta w_i(y_i) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}(x, \delta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \tilde{f}_i(x, \delta), \quad (5.1.105)$$

where $w_i(y_i)$ is a strongly convex function with modulus 1 such that

$$0 \leq w_i(y_i) \leq D_i^2, \quad \forall y_i \in Y_i. \quad (5.1.106)$$

In particular, we can easily show that

$$\tilde{f}_i(x, \delta) \leq f_i(x) \leq \tilde{f}_i(x, \delta) + \delta D_i^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{f}(x, \delta) \leq f(x) \leq \tilde{f}(x, \delta) + \delta D^2, \quad (5.1.107)$$

for any $x \in X$, where $D_i^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m D_i^2$. Moreover, $f_i(\cdot, \delta)$ and $f(\cdot, \delta)$ are continuously differentiable and their gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constants given by

$$L_i = \frac{\| A_i \|^2}{\delta} \quad \text{and} \quad L = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m \| A_i \|^2}{m \delta}, \quad (5.1.108)$$

respectively. As a consequence, we can apply the RPDG method to solve the approximation problem

$$\tilde{\Psi}_\delta^* := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \tilde{\Psi}_\delta(x) := \tilde{f}(x, \delta) + h(x) + \mu \nabla(x) \right\}. \quad (5.1.109)$$

The following result provides complexity bounds of the RPDG method for solving the above structured nonsmooth problems for the case when $\mu > 0$.

**Proposition 5.3.** Let us apply the RPDG method with the parameter settings in Corollary 5.1 to the approximation problem (5.1.109) with

$$\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2D^2}, \quad (5.1.110)$$

for some $\epsilon > 0$. Then we can find a solution $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon$ in at most

$$O \left\{ \| A \| D \sqrt{\frac{m}{\mu \epsilon}} \log \frac{\| A \| D \sqrt{\mu \epsilon}}{\lambda m \mu \epsilon} \right\} \quad (5.1.111)$$

iterations. Moreover, we can find a solution $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\operatorname{Prob}\{\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi^* > \epsilon\} \leq \lambda$ for any $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ in at most

$$O \left\{ \| A \| D \sqrt{\frac{m}{\mu \epsilon}} \log \frac{\| A \| D \sqrt{\lambda m \mu \epsilon}}{\lambda m \mu \epsilon} \right\} \quad (5.1.112)$$
5.1 Random primal-dual gradient method

iterations.

Proof. It follows from (5.1.107) and (5.1.109) that
\[ \Psi(x^k) - \Psi^* \leq \Psi_0(x^k) - \Psi_0^* + \delta D_Y^2 = \Psi_0(x^k) - \Psi_0^* + \xi. \]  (5.1.113)

Using relation (5.1.108) and Corollaries 5.1, we conclude that a solution \( \bar{x}^k \in X \) satisfying \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^k) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon/2 \) can be found in \( O \left\{ \frac{\|A\|D_Y \sqrt{m}}{\epsilon} \log \left( \left( m + \frac{\|X^2\|}{\epsilon} \right) \left( \mu + 2\tilde{L}^2 \right) \frac{D_X^2}{\epsilon} \right) \right\} \) iterations. This observation together with (5.1.113) and the definition of \( \tilde{L} \) in (5.1.108) then imply the bound in (5.1.111). The bound in (5.1.112) follows similarly from (5.1.113) and Corollaries 5.1, and hence the details are skipped.

The following result holds for the RPDG method applied to the above structured nonsmooth problems when \( \mu = 0 \).

Proposition 5.4. Let us apply the RPDG method with the parameter settings in Corollary 5.1 to the approximation problem (5.1.109) with \( \delta \) in (5.1.110) for some \( \epsilon > 0 \). Then we can find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon \) in at most \( O \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{m\|A\|D_Y D_X}}{\epsilon} \log \left( \frac{m\|A\|D_Y D_X}{\epsilon} \right) \right\} \) iterations. Moreover, we can find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \text{Prob}\{\Psi(x) - \Psi^* > \epsilon\} \leq \lambda \) for any \( \lambda \in (0, 1) \) in at most \( O \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{m\|A\|D_Y D_X}}{\epsilon} \log \frac{m\|A\|D_Y D_X}{\lambda\epsilon} \right\} \) iterations.

Proof. Similarly to the arguments used in the proof of Proposition 5.3, our results follow from (5.1.113), and an application of Proposition 5.2 to problem (5.1.109).

By Propositions 5.3 and 5.4, the total number of gradient computations for \( \tilde{f}(\cdot, \delta) \) performed by the RPDG method, after disregarding the logarithmic factors, can be \( O(\sqrt{m}) \) times smaller than those required by deterministic first-order methods.

5.1.5.3 Unconstrained smooth problems

In this subsection, we set \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \), \( h(x) = 0 \), and \( \mu = 0 \) in (5.1.1) and consider the basic convex programming problem of
\[ f^* := \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x) \right\}. \]  (5.1.114)

We assume that the set of optimal solutions \( X^* \) of this problem is nonempty.
We will still use the perturbation-based approach as described in Subsection 5.1.5.1 by solving the perturbation problem given by

\[
f^*_\delta := \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f_\delta(x) := f(x) + \frac{\delta}{2} \|x - x^0\|^2 \right\}
\]

for some \(x^0 \in X, \delta > 0\), where \(\| \cdot \|_2\) denotes the Euclidean norm. Also let \(L_\delta\) denote the Lipschitz constant for \(f_\delta(x)\). Clearly, \(L_\delta = L + \delta\). Since the problem is unconstrained and the information on the size of the optimal solution is unavailable, it is hard to estimate the total number of iterations by using the absolute accuracy in terms of \(E[f(\bar{x}) - f^*]\). Instead, we define the relative accuracy associated with a given \(\bar{x} \in X\) by

\[
R_{\text{ac}}(\bar{x}, x^0, f^*) := \frac{2(f(\bar{x}) - f^*)}{L(1 + \min_{u \in \mathcal{X}^*} \|x^0 - u\|_2^2)}.
\]

We are now ready to establish the complexity of the RPDG method applied to (5.1.114) in terms of \(R_{\text{ac}}(\bar{x}, x^0, f^*)\).

**Proposition 5.5.** Let us apply the RPDG method with the parameter settings in Corollary 5.1 to the perturbation problem (5.1.115) with

\[
\delta = \frac{L\varepsilon}{2},
\]

for some \(\varepsilon > 0\). Then we can find a solution \(\bar{x} \in X\) s.t. \(E[R_{\text{ac}}(\bar{x}, x^0, f^*)] \leq \varepsilon\) in at most

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{m}{\varepsilon}} \log \frac{m}{\varepsilon} \right\}
\]

iterations. Moreover, we can find a solution \(\bar{x} \in X\) s.t. \(\text{Prob}\{R_{\text{ac}}(\bar{x}, x^0, f^*) > \varepsilon\} \leq \lambda\) for any \(\lambda \in (0, 1)\) in at most

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{m}{\varepsilon}} \log \frac{m}{\varepsilon\lambda} \right\}
\]

iterations.

**Proof.** Let \(x^*_\delta\) be the optimal solution of (5.1.115). Also let \(x^*\) be the optimal solution of (5.1.114) that is closest to \(x^0\), i.e., \(x^* = \arg\min_{u \in \mathcal{X}^*} \|x^0 - u\|_2\). It then follows from the strong convexity of \(f_\delta\) that

\[
\frac{\delta}{2} \|x^*_\delta - x^*\|^2 \leq f_\delta(x^*) - f_\delta(x^*_\delta)
= f(x^*) + \frac{\delta}{2} \|x^* - x^0\|^2 - f_\delta(x^*_\delta)
\leq \frac{\delta}{2} \|x^* - x^0\|^2,
\]

which implies that

\[
\|x^*_\delta - x^*\|_2 \leq \|x^* - x^0\|_2.
\]

Moreover, using the definition of \(f_\delta\) and the fact that \(x^*\) is feasible to (5.1.115), we have

\[
f^* \leq f^*_\delta \leq f^* + \frac{\delta}{2} \|x^* - x^0\|^2,
\]

which implies that
As discussed earlier, one potential problem associated with RPDG is that it requires continuous gradients over the whole \( \mathbb{R}^n \) due to its primal extrapolation step. Moreover, RPDG has a complicated algorithmic scheme, which contains a primal extrapolation step and a gradient (dual) prediction step in addition to solving a primal proximal subproblem, and thus leads to an intricate primal-dual convergence analysis. Our

\[
f(x^K) - f^* \leq f_\delta(x^K) - f_\delta^* + f_\delta - f^*
\]

\[
\leq f_\delta(x^K) - f_\delta^* + \frac{\delta}{2} \|x^* - x^0\|^2.
\]

Now suppose that we run the RPDG method applied to (5.1.115) for \( K \) iterations. Then by Corollary 5.1, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[f_\delta(x^K) - f_\delta^*] \leq \alpha^{K/2}(1 - \alpha)^{-1} \left( \delta + 2L\delta + \frac{L^2}{\delta} \right) \|x^0 - x_\delta^*\|^2
\]

\[
\leq \alpha^{K/2}(1 - \alpha)^{-1} \left( \delta + 2L\delta + \frac{L^2}{\delta} \right) \left[ \|x^0 - x^*\|^2 + \|x^* - x_\delta^*\|^2 \right]
\]

\[
= 2\alpha^{K/2}(1 - \alpha)^{-1} \left( 3\delta + 2L + \frac{(L+\delta)^2}{\delta} \right) \|x^0 - x^*\|^2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from (5.1.120) and \( \alpha \) is defined in (5.1.68) with \( C = 8L\delta/\delta = \frac{8(\alpha - \delta)}{\delta} = 8(2/\varepsilon + 1) \). Combining the above relations, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x^K) - f^*] \leq \left[ 2\alpha^{K/2}(1 - \alpha)^{-1} \left( 3\delta + 2L + \frac{(L+\delta)^2}{\delta} \right) + \frac{\delta}{2} \right] \|x^0 - x^*\|^2.
\]

Dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( L(1 + \|x^0 - x^*\|^2)/2 \), we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}[R_{ac}(x^K, x^0, f^*)] \leq \frac{2}{L} \left[ 2\alpha^{K/2}(1 - \alpha)^{-1} \left( 3\delta + 2L + \frac{(L+\delta)^2}{\delta} \right) + \frac{\delta}{2} \right]
\]

\[
\leq 4 \left( m + 2m(\frac{\delta}{\varepsilon} + 1) \right) \left( 3\varepsilon + 4 + (2 + \varepsilon)(\frac{\delta}{2} + 1) \right) \alpha^{K/2} + \frac{\delta}{2},
\]

which clearly implies the bound in (5.1.118). The bound in (5.1.119) also follows from the above inequality and the Markov’s inequality.

By Proposition 5.5, the total number of gradient evaluations for the component functions \( f_i \) required by the RPDG method can be \( \mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m\log^{-1}(m/\varepsilon)}) \) times smaller than those performed by deterministic optimal first-order methods.

### 5.2 Random gradient extrapolation method

In the last section, we have introduced a randomized primal-dual gradient (RPDG) method, which can be viewed as a randomized version of the accelerated gradient methods in Section 3.3, for solving finite-sum and distributed optimization problems. As discussed earlier, one potential problem associated with RPDG is that it requires a restrictive assumption that each \( f_i \) has to be differentiable and has Lipschitz continuous gradients over the whole \( \mathbb{R}^n \) due to its primal extrapolation step. Moreover, RPDG has a complicated algorithmic scheme, which contains a primal extrapolation step and a gradient (dual) prediction step in addition to solving a primal proximal subproblem, and thus leads to an intricate primal-dual convergence analysis. Our
goal in this section is to address these issues by presenting a novel randomized first-order method, namely randomized gradient extrapolation method (RGEM). Before discussing RGEM, we first need to introduce the gradient extrapolation method, a new optimal first-order method inspired by the game interpretation of accelerated gradient descent method.

More specifically, we consider the finite-sum convex programming problem given in the form of

\[
\psi^* := \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \psi(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x) + \mu \nu(x) \right\}.
\] (5.2.1)

Here, \( \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a closed convex set, \( f_i : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}, \ i = 1, \ldots, m, \) are smooth convex functions with Lipschitz continuous gradients over \( \mathcal{X} \), i.e., \( \exists L_i \geq 0 \) such that

\[
\| \nabla f_i(x_1) - \nabla f_i(x_2) \|_2 \leq L_i \| x_1 - x_2 \|, \ \forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X},
\] (5.2.2)

where \( \nu(\cdot) \) denotes any subgradient (or gradient) of \( \nu(\cdot) \) and \( \mu \geq 0 \) is a given constant. Hence, the objective function \( \psi \) is strongly convex whenever \( \mu \geq 0 \). For notational convenience, we also denote \( f(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x), \ L = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i \), and \( \hat{L} = \max_{i=1,\ldots,m} L_i \). It is easy to see that for some \( L_f \geq 0 \),

\[
\| \nabla f(x_1) - \nabla f(x_2) \|_2 \leq L_f \| x_1 - x_2 \| \leq L \| x_1 - x_2 \|, \ \forall x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}.
\] (5.2.4)

Observe that problem (5.2.1) is slightly simpler than the finite-sum optimization problem (5.1.1) in the previous section since the convex term \( h \) does not appear in (5.2.1). However, it is relatively easy to extend our discussions here in this section to solve the more general finite-sum optimization problem in (5.1.1).

We also consider a class of stochastic finite-sum optimization problems given by

\[
\psi^* := \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \psi(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_i} [f_i(x, \xi_i)] + \mu \nu(x) \right\},
\] (5.2.5)

where \( \xi_i \)'s are random variables with support \( \Xi_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \). It can be easily seen that (5.2.5) is a special case of (5.2.1) with \( f_i(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi_i} [f_i(x, \xi_i)], \ i = 1, \ldots, m. \) However, different from deterministic finite-sum optimization problems, only noisy gradient information of each component function \( f_i \) can be accessed for the stochastic finite-sum optimization problem in (5.2.5). By considering the stochastic finite-sum optimization problem, we are interested in not only the deterministic empirical risk minimization, but also the generalization risk for distributed machine learning which allows the private data for each agent to be collected in an online (streaming) fashion. In the distributed learning example given in (5.1.6), for minimization of the generalization risk, \( f_i \)'s are given in the form of expectation, i.e.,

\[
f_i(x) = l_i(x) := \mathbb{E}_{\xi_i} [\log(1 + \exp(-\xi_i^T x))], \ i = 1, \ldots, m,
\]
where the random variable $\xi_i$ models the underlying distribution for training dataset of agent $i$. It should be noted, however, that little attention in the study of randomized first-order methods has been paid to the stochastic finite-sum problem in (5.2.5). For example, it is unknown whether there exists an algorithm which only requires a significantly smaller number of communication rounds (e.g., $\mathcal{O}(\log 1/\varepsilon)$), but can achieve the optimal $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon)$ sampling complexity for solving the stochastic finite-sum problem in (5.2.5).

### 5.2.1 Gradient extrapolation method

Our goal in this section is to introduce a new algorithmic framework, referred to as the gradient extrapolation method (GEM), for solving the convex optimization problem given by

$$
\psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \psi(x) := f(x) + \mu \nu(x) \right\}. 
$$

(5.2.6)

We show that GEM can be viewed as a dual of the accelerated gradient descent method although these two algorithms appear to be quite different. Moreover, GEM possess some nice properties which enable us to develop and analyze the random gradient extrapolation method for distributed and stochastic optimization.

#### 5.2.1.1 The algorithm

Similar to Section 5.1, we define a prox-function associated with $\nu$ as

$$
V(x^0, x) \equiv V_\nu(x^0, x) := v(x) - \left[ v(x^0) + \langle v'(x^0), x - x^0 \rangle \right],
$$

(5.2.7)

where $v'(x^0) \in \partial v(x^0)$ is an arbitrary subgradient of $v$ at $x^0$. By the strong convexity of $v$, we have

$$
V(x^0, x) \geq \frac{1}{2} \| x - x^0 \|^2, \quad \forall x, x^0 \in X.
$$

(5.2.8)

It should be pointed out that the prox-function $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ described above is a generalized Bregman distance in the sense that $v$ is not necessarily differentiable. Throughout this section, we assume that the prox-mapping associated with $X$ and $v$, given by

$$
\arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle g, x \rangle + \mu v(x) + \eta V(x^0, x) \right\},
$$

(5.2.9)

is easily computable for any $x^0 \in X, g \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mu \geq 0, \eta > 0$. Note that whenever $v$ is non-differentiable, we need to specify a particular selection of the subgradient $v'$ before performing the prox-mapping. We assume throughout this paper that such a selection of $v'$ is defined recursively as follows. Denote

$$
\mathbf{x}^1 = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \langle g, x \rangle + \mu v(x) + \eta V(x^0, x) \right\}.
$$
By its optimality condition, we have
\[ g + (\mu + \eta)\nabla'v(x) - \eta \nabla v(x^0) \in \mathcal{N}_X(x), \]
where \( \mathcal{N}_X(x) := \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v(x - x^1) \leq 0, \forall x \in X \} \) denotes the normal cone of \( X \) at \( x^1 \). Once such a \( \nabla'v(x^1) \) satisfying the above relation is identified, we will use it as a subgradient when defining \( V(x^1, x) \) in the next iteration. Note that such a subgradient can be identified as long as \( x^1 \) is obtained, since it satisfies the optimality condition of (5.2.9).

We are now ready to describe the gradient extrapolation method (GEM). As shown in Algorithm 5.3, GEM starts with a gradient extrapolation step (5.2.10) to compute \( \tilde{g}^t \) from the two previous gradients \( g^t-1 \) and \( g^t-2 \). Based on \( \tilde{g}^t \), it performs a proximal gradient descent step in (5.2.11) and updates the output solution \( x^t \). Finally, the gradient at \( x^t \) is computed for gradient extrapolation in the next iteration.

**Algorithm 5.3 An optimal gradient extrapolation method (GEM)**

**Input:** Let \( x^0 \in X \), and the nonnegative parameters \( \{\alpha_t\} \), \( \{\eta_t\} \), and \( \{\tau_t\} \) be given.

Set \( x^0 = x^0 \) and \( g^1 = \nabla f(x^0) \).

for \( t = 1, 2, \ldots, k \) do

\[ \tilde{g}^t = \alpha_t (g^t-1 - g^t-2) + g^t-1. \] (5.2.10)

\[ x^t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ \langle \tilde{g}^t, x \rangle + \mu \nu(x) + \eta_t V(x^t-1, x) \}. \] (5.2.11)

\[ x^t = (x^t + \tau_t x^t-1) / (1 + \tau_t). \] (5.2.12)

\[ g^t = \nabla f(x^t). \] (5.2.13)

end for

**Output:** \( x^k \).

We now show that GEM can be viewed as the dual of the accelerated gradient descent (AGD) method. To see such a relationship, we will first rewrite GEM in a primal-dual form. Let us consider the dual space \( \mathcal{G} \), where the gradients of \( f \) reside, and equip it with the conjugate norm \( \| \cdot \|_* \). Let \( J_f : \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) be the conjugate function of \( f \) such that \( f(x) := \max_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \{ \langle x, g \rangle - J_f(g) \} \). We can reformulate the original problem in (5.2.6) as the following saddle point problem:

\[ \psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \max_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \{ \langle x, g \rangle - J_f(g) \} + \mu \nu(x) \right\}. \] (5.2.14)

It is clear that \( J_f \) is strongly convex with modulus \( 1/L_f \) w.r.t. \( \| \cdot \|_* \). Therefore, we can define its associated dual generalized Bregman distance and dual prox-mappings as
Another interesting fact is that in GEM, the gradients are computed for the output with a specific selection of 

\[
\{ \mathcal{S}_t \} \quad \text{towards further enhance the randomized primal-dual gradient methods in Section 5.1.}
\]

The step in GEM is performed in the dual space while the one in AGD is performed in the equation of (5.2.24)-(6.6.13). The major difference exists in that the extrapolation is a dual version of AGD, obtained by switching the primal and dual variables in each update in GEM (5.2.17)-(5.2.19) with (5.2.24)-(6.6.13), we can clearly see that GEM is equivalent to the computation of \( \nabla f \). Using this result, we can see that the GEM iteration can be written in a primal-dual form. Given \((x^0, g^{-1}, \bar{g}^0) \in X \times G \times \mathcal{G}\), it updates \((x', g')\) by

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{g}' &= \alpha_t(g^{-1} - g^{-2}) + g^{-1}, \\
x' &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ (\bar{g}', x) + \mu \nu(x) + \eta_t \nu(x^{-1}, x) \}, \\
g' &= \arg\min_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \{ (\bar{x}', g) + J_f(g) + \tau W_f(g^{-1}, g) \},
\end{align*}
\]

with a specific selection of \( J_f'(g^{-1}) = \bar{x}'^{-1} \) in \( W_f(g^{-1}, g) \). Indeed, by denoting \( \bar{x}'^0 = x^0 \), we can easily see from \( g^0 = \nabla f(\bar{x}^0) \) that \( \bar{x}^0 \in \partial J_f(g^0) \). Now assume that \( g^{-1} = \nabla f(x^{-1}) \) and hence that \( \bar{x}'^{-1} = \partial J_f(g^{-1}) \). By the definition of \( g' \) in (5.2.19) and Lemma 3.6, we conclude that \( g' = \nabla f(x') \) with \( x' = (x + \tau x^{-1})/(1 + \tau) \), which are exactly the definitions given in (5.2.12) and (5.2.13).

Recall that in a simple version of the AGD method given \((x^{-1}, \bar{x}^{-1}) \in X \times X\), it updates \((x', \bar{x}')\) by

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}' &= (1 - \lambda_x)x^{-1} + \lambda_x x^{-1}, \\
g' &= \nabla f(x'), \\
x' &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ (g', x) + \mu \nu(x) + \eta_t \nu(x^{-1}, x) \}, \\
\bar{x}' &= (1 - \lambda_x)\bar{x}^{-1} + \lambda_x x',
\end{align*}
\]

for some \( \lambda_x \in [0, 1] \). Moreover, in view of the discussions in Section 3.4, we can show that (5.2.20)-(5.2.23) can be viewed as a specific instantiation of the following primal-dual updates:

\[
\begin{align*}
\bar{x}' &= \alpha_t(x^{-1} - \bar{x}^{-2}) + x^{-1}, \\
g' &= \arg\min_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \{ (\bar{x}', g) + J_f(g) + \tau W_f(g^{-1}, g) \}, \\
x' &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \{ (g', x) + \mu \nu(x) + \eta_t \nu(x^{-1}, x) \},
\end{align*}
\]

Comparing (5.2.17)-(5.2.19) with (5.2.24)-(6.6.13), we can clearly see that GEM is a dual version of AGD, obtained by switching the primal and dual variables in each equation of (5.2.24)-(6.6.13). The major difference exists in that the extrapolation step in GEM is performed in the dual space while the one in AGD is performed in the primal space. In fact, extrapolation in the dual space will help us to greatly simplify and further enhance the randomized primal-dual gradient methods in Section 5.1. Another interesting fact is that in GEM, the gradients are computed for the output solutions \( \{\bar{x}'\} \). On the other hand, the output solutions in the AGD method are given by \( \{x'\} \) while the gradients are computed for the extrapolation sequence \( \{\bar{x}'\} \).
5.2.1.2 Convergence of GEM

We set out to establish the convergence properties of the GEM method for solving (5.2.6). Observe that our analysis is carried out completely in the primal space and does not rely on the primal-dual interpretation described in the previous section. This type of analysis technique appears to be new for solving problem (5.2.6) as it also differs significantly from that of AGD.

We will need to establish some basic properties for a smooth convex function.

Lemma 5.8. If \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) has Lipschitz continuous gradients with constant \( L \), then
\[
\frac{1}{L} \| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(z) \|^2 \leq f(x) - f(z) - \langle \nabla f(z), x - z \rangle \quad \forall x, z \in X.
\]

Proof. Denote \( \phi(x) = f(x) - f(z) - \langle \nabla f(z), x - z \rangle \). Clearly \( \phi \) also has \( L \)-Lipschitz continuous gradients. It is easy to check that \( \nabla \phi(z) = 0 \), and hence that \( \min_x \phi(x) = \phi(z) = 0 \), which implies
\[
\phi(z) \leq \phi(x) - \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla \phi(x) \|^2.
\]
Therefore, we have \( \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla \phi(x) \|^2 \leq \phi(x) - \phi(z) = \phi(x) \), and the result follows immediately from this relation. \( \blacksquare \)

We first establish some general convergence properties for GEM for both smooth convex (\( \mu = 0 \)) and strongly convex cases (\( \mu > 0 \)).

Theorem 5.3. Suppose that \( \{ \eta_t \}, \{ \tau_t \}, \) and \( \{ \alpha_t \} \) in GEM satisfy
\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{t-1} &= \alpha_t \theta_t, \quad t = 2, \ldots, k, \quad (5.2.27) \\
\theta_t \eta_t &\leq \theta_{t-1}(\mu + \eta_{t-1}), \quad t = 2, \ldots, k, \quad (5.2.28) \\
\theta_t \tau_t &= \theta_{t-1}(1 + \tau_{t-1}), \quad t = 2, \ldots, k, \quad (5.2.29) \\
\alpha L_f &\leq \tau_{t-1} \eta_t, \quad t = 2, \ldots, k, \quad (5.2.30) \\
2L_f &\leq \tau_t (\mu + \eta_k), \quad (5.2.31)
\end{align*}
\]
for some \( \theta_t \geq 0, \ t = 1, \ldots, k \). Then, for any \( k \geq 1 \) and any given \( x \in X \), we have
\[
\theta_k (1 + \tau_k) [\psi(x^k) - \psi(x)] + \frac{\theta_k (\mu + \eta_k)}{2} V(x^k, x) \leq \theta_1 \tau_1 [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x)] + \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x). \quad (5.2.32)
\]

Proof. Applying Lemma 3.5 to (5.2.11), we obtain
\[
\langle x' - x, \alpha (g'^{-1} - g^{t-2}) + g'^{-1} \rangle + \mu v(x') - \mu v(x) \\
\leq \eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_i) V(x', x) - \eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x').
\] (5.2.33)

Moreover, using the definition of \( \psi \), the convexity of \( f \), and the fact that \( g' = \nabla f(x') \), we have

\[
(1 + \tau_i) f(x') + \mu v(x') - \psi(x) \\
\leq (1 + \tau_i) f(x') + \mu v(x') - \mu v(x) - [f(x') + \langle g', x - x' \rangle] \\
= \tau_i [f(x') - \langle g', x - x' \rangle] - \langle g', x - x' \rangle + \mu v(x') - \mu v(x) \\
\leq -\frac{\tau_i}{2} \| g' - g^{t-1} \|^2 + \tau_i f(x'^{-1}) - \tau_i (x' - x) + \mu v(x') - \mu v(x),
\]

where the first equality follows from the definition of \( \mathcal{A} \) in (5.2.12), and the last inequality follows from Lemma 5.8. In view of (5.2.33), we then have

\[
(1 + \tau_i) f(x') + \mu v(x') - \psi(x) \\
\leq -\frac{\tau_i}{2} \| g' - g^{t-1} \|^2 + \tau_i f(x'^{-1}) + \langle x' - x, g' - g^{t-1} - \alpha_i (g^{t-1} - g^{t-2}) \rangle \\
+ \eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_i) V(x', x) - \eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x').
\]

Multiplying both sides of the above inequality by \( \theta_i \), and summing up the resulting inequalities from \( i = 1 \) to \( k \), we obtain

\[
\Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i (1 + \tau_i) f(x') + \Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i [\mu v(x') - \psi(x)] \\
\leq -\Sigma_{i=1}^k \frac{\theta_i \tau_i}{2} \| g' - g^{t-1} \|^2 + \Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i f(x'^{-1}) \\
+ \Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i \langle x' - x, g' - g^{t-1} - \alpha_i (g^{t-1} - g^{t-2}) \rangle \\
+ \Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i [\eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_i) V(x', x) - \eta_i V(x'^{-1}, x')].
\] (5.2.34)

Now by (5.2.27) and the fact that \( g^{-1} = g^0 \), we have

\[
\Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i \langle x' - x, g' - g^{t-1} - \alpha_i (g^{t-1} - g^{t-2}) \rangle \\
= \Sigma_{i=1}^k \theta_i [\langle x' - x, g' - g^{t-1} \rangle - \alpha_i (g^{t-1} - g^{t-2})] \\
- \Sigma_{i=2}^k \theta_i \alpha_i \langle x' - x, g^{t-1} - g^{t-2} \rangle \\
= \theta_k \langle x' - x, g^k - g^{k-1} \rangle - \Sigma_{i=2}^k \theta_i \alpha_i \langle x' - x, g^{t-1} - g^{t-2} \rangle.
\] (5.2.35)

Moreover, in view of (5.2.28), (5.2.29) and the definition of \( \mathcal{A} \) (5.2.12), we obtain
Therefore, by (5.2.34) - (5.2.39), and the definition of \( \psi \), we conclude that

\[
\theta_k (1 + \tau_k) \mu \upsilon (\chi^k) \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \mu \upsilon (\chi^i) + \theta_1 \tau_1 \upsilon (\chi^0).
\]

By the strong convexity of \( \upsilon (\cdot, \cdot) \) in (5.2.8), the simple relation that \( b(u, v) - a\|v\|^2 / 2 \leq b^2 \|u\|^2 / (2a) \), \( \forall a > 0 \), and the conditions in (5.2.30) and (5.2.31), we have

\[
-\sum_{i=2}^k \left[ \frac{\theta_i}{2} \|g^{i-1} - g^{i-2}\|^2 + \theta_k \alpha_k \langle x^i - x^{i-1}, g^{i-1} - g^{i-2} \rangle + \theta_i \eta_i V(x^{i-1}, x^i) \right] \\
\leq \sum_{i=2}^k \left[ \frac{\theta_i}{2} \left( \frac{\alpha_i}{\xi - 1} - \eta_i \right) \right] \|x^{i-1} - x^i\|^2 \leq 0 \\
-\theta_k \left[ \frac{\theta_k}{2} \|g^k - g^{k-1}\|^2 - \langle x^k, g^k - g^{k-1} \rangle + \frac{(\mu + \eta_k)}{2} V(x^k, x) \right] \\
\leq \frac{\theta_k}{2} \left( \frac{\alpha_k}{\xi - 1} - \frac{\mu + \eta_k}{2} \right) \|x^k - x^0\|^2 \leq 0.
\]

Using the above relations in (5.2.40), we obtain (8.2).

We are now ready to establish the optimal convergence behavior of GEM as a consequence of Theorem 5.3. We first provide a constant step-size policy which guarantees an optimal linear rate of convergence for the strongly convex case \( \mu > 0 \).

**Corollary 5.5.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (5.2.1), \( x^k \) and \( \chi^k \) be defined in (5.2.11) and (5.2.12), respectively. Suppose that \( \mu > 0 \), and that \( \{\tau_k\}, \{\eta_k\} \) and \( \{\alpha_k\} \)
are set to
\[
\tau_t \equiv \tau = \sqrt{\frac{2L_f}{\mu}}, \quad \eta_t \equiv \eta = \sqrt{\frac{2L_f}{\mu}}, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t \equiv \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{2L_f}/\mu}{1 + \sqrt{2L_f}/\mu}, \quad \forall t = 1, \ldots, k.
\]

Then,
\[
V(x^k, x^*) \leq 2\alpha^k[V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{\mu} (\psi(x^0) - \psi^*)],
\]
\[
\psi(x^k) - \psi^* \leq \alpha^k [\mu V(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi^*].
\]

**Proof.** Let us set \( \theta_t = \alpha^{-t}, \ t = 1, \ldots, k. \) It is easy to check that the selection of \( \{ \tau_t \}, \{ \eta_t \} \) and \( \{ \alpha_t \} \) in (5.2.41) satisfies conditions (5.2.27)-(5.2.31). In view of Theorem 5.3 and (5.2.41), we have
\[
\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*) \leq \alpha^k [\mu V(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi^*].
\]

It also follows from the above relation, the fact \( \psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*) \geq 0 \), and (5.2.41) that
\[
V(x^k, x^*) \leq 2\alpha^k[V(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)]
\]
\[
= 2\alpha^k[V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{\mu} (\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)]].
\]

We now provide a stepsize policy which guarantees the optimal rate of convergence for the smooth case \( (\mu = 0) \). Observe that in smooth case we can estimate the solution quality for the sequence \( \{ x^k \} \) only.

**Corollary 5.6.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (5.2.1), and \( x^k \) be defined in (5.2.12). Suppose that \( \mu = 0 \), and that \( \{ \tau_t \}, \{ \eta_t \} \) and \( \{ \alpha_t \} \) are set to
\[
\tau_t = \tau, \quad \eta_t = \frac{4L_f}{\tau}, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t = \frac{1}{t+1}, \quad \forall t = 1, \ldots, k.
\]

Then,
\[
\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*) = f(x^k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{2}{(k+1)(k+2)} [f(x^0) - f(x^*) + 8L_f V(x^0, x^*)].
\]

**Proof.** Let us set \( \theta_t = t + 1, \ t = 1, \ldots, k. \) It is easy to check that the parameters in (5.2.44) satisfy conditions (5.2.30)-(5.2.31). In view of (8.2) and (5.2.44), we conclude that
\[
\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*) \leq \frac{2}{(k+1)(k+2)} [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*) + 8L_f V(x^0, x^*)].
\]
In Corollary 5.7, we improve the above complexity result in terms of the dependence on $f(x^0) - f(x^*)$ by using a different step-size policy and a slightly more involved analysis for the smooth case ($\mu = 0$).

**Corollary 5.7.** Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (5.2.1). $x^k$ and $\bar{x}^k$ be defined in (5.2.11) and (5.2.12), respectively. Suppose that $\mu = 0$, and that $\{\tau_t\}$, $\{\eta_t\}$ and $\{\alpha_t\}$ are set to

\[
\tau_t = \frac{t-1}{2}, \quad \eta_t = \frac{\delta L_f}{2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t = \frac{t-1}{T}, \quad \forall t = 1, \ldots, k. \tag{5.2.46}
\]

Then, for any $k \geq 1$,

\[
\psi(\bar{x}^k) - \psi(x^*) = f(\bar{x}^k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{12L_f}{T(k+1)} V(x^0, x^*). \tag{5.2.47}
\]

**Proof.** If we set $\theta_1 = t$, $t = 1, \ldots, k$. It is easy to check that the parameters in (5.2.46) satisfy conditions (5.2.27)-(5.2.29) and (5.2.31). However, condition (5.2.30) only holds for $t = 3, \ldots, k$, i.e.,

\[
\alpha L_f \leq \tau_{t-1} \eta_t, \quad t = 3, \ldots, k. \tag{5.2.48}
\]

In view of (5.2.40) and the fact that $\tau_1 = 0$, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_t (1 + \tau_t) & [\psi(x^k) - \psi(x)] \\
& \leq -\theta_t [\alpha_t (x^k - x^1, g^1 - g^0) + \eta_t V(x^1, x^2)] - \theta_t \eta_1 V(x^0, x^1) \\
& - \sum_{t=3}^{k} \left[ \frac{\theta_t}{2L_f} \|g^{t-1} - g^{t-2}\|_2^2 + \theta_t \alpha_t (x^t - x^{t-1}, g^t - g^{t-2}) + \theta_t \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x^t) \right] \\
& - \theta_t \left[ \frac{L_f}{2 \eta_t} \|g^k - g^{k-1}\|_2^2 + \theta_t \eta_1 V(x^0, x) \right] \\
& \leq \theta_t \frac{\alpha_t L_f}{2L_f} \|g^1 - g^0\|_2^2 + \theta_t \eta_1 V(x^0, x) - \frac{\theta_t}{2} \eta_1 V(x^k, x) \\
& \leq \theta_t \frac{\alpha_t L_f}{2L_f} \|x^1 - x^0\|_2^2 + \theta_t \eta_1 V(x^0, x) - \frac{\theta_t}{2} \eta_1 V(x^k, x),
\end{align*}
\]

where the second inequality follows from the simple relation that $b(u, v) = a\|v\|^2/2 \leq b^2\|u\|^2/(2a)$, $\forall a > 0$ and (5.2.8), the third inequality follows from (5.2.48), (5.2.31), the definition of $g^t$ in (5.2.13) and (5.2.4), and the last inequality follows from the facts that $\bar{x}^0 = x^0$ and $\bar{x}^1 = x^1$ (due to $\tau_1 = 0$). Therefore, by plugging the parameter setting in (5.2.46) into the above inequality, we conclude that

\[
\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*) = f(x^k) - f(x^*) \leq \theta_t (1 + \tau_t)^{-1} \left[ \theta_t \eta_1 V(x^0, x^*) - \frac{\theta_t}{2} \eta_1 V(x^k, x) \right] \leq \frac{12L_f}{T(k+1)} V(x^0, x^*).
\]
In view of the results obtained in the above two corollaries, GEM exhibits optimal rates of convergence for both strongly convex and smooth cases. Different from the classical AGD method, GEM performs extrapolation on the gradients, rather than the iterates. This fact will help us to develop an enhanced randomized incremental gradient method than RPDG, i.e., the random gradient extrapolation method, with a much simpler analysis.

5.2 Deterministic finite-sum problems

We present in this subsection a randomized version of GEM and discuss its convergence properties for solving the deterministic finite-sum problem in (5.2.1).

5.2.2 Algorithmic framework

The basic scheme of RGEM is formally stated in Algorithm 5.4. This algorithm simply initializes the gradient as \( y_i^{-1} = y_i^0 = 0, \ i = 1, \ldots, m \). At each iteration, RGEM requires the new gradient information of only one randomly selected component function \( f_i \), but maintains \( m \) pairs of search points and gradients \( (x_t^i, y_t^i), \ i = 1, \ldots, m \), which are stored, possibly by their corresponding agents in the distributed network. More specifically, it first performs a gradient extrapolation step in (5.2.49) and the primal proximal mapping in (5.2.50). Then a randomly selected block \( x_t^i \) is updated in (5.2.51) and the corresponding component gradient \( \nabla f_i^t \) is computed in (5.2.52).

As can be seen from Algorithm 5.4, RGEM does not require any exact gradient evaluations. Note that the computation of \( x_t \) in (5.2.50) requires an involved computation of \( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^t \). In order to save computational time when implementing this algorithm, we suggest to compute this quantity in a recursive manner as follows. Let us denote \( g_t^i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i^t, \ t = 1, \ldots, k \). Clearly, in view of the fact that \( y_i^t = y_i^{t-1} \), \( \forall i \neq i_t \), we have

\[
g_t^i = g_t^{i-1} + \frac{1}{m} (y_t^i - y_t^{i-1}). \tag{5.2.54}
\]

Also, by the definition of \( g^t \) and (5.2.49), we have

\[
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_t^i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_t^{i-1} + \frac{\alpha}{m} (y_{t-1}^i - y_{t-1}^{i-1}) = g_t^{i-1} + \frac{\alpha}{m} (y_{t-1}^i - y_{t-1}^{i-1}). \tag{5.2.55}
\]

Using these two ideas mentioned above, we can compute \( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_t^i \) in two steps: i) initialize \( g^0 = 0 \), and update \( g^t \) as in (5.2.54) after the gradient evaluation step (5.2.52); ii) replace (5.2.49) by (5.2.55) to compute \( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_t^i \). Also note that the difference \( y_t^i - y_t^{i-1} \) can be saved as it is used in both (5.2.54) and (5.2.55) for the next iteration. These enhancements will be incorporated into the distributed setting in Subsection 5.2.4 to possibly save communication costs.
Algorithm 5.4 A random gradient extrapolation method (RGEM)

Input: Let $x^0 \in X$, and the nonnegative parameters $\{\alpha_t\}, \{\eta_t\}$, and $\{\tau_t\}$ be given.

Initialization:
Set $y^{0}_i = x^0, y^{1}_i = y^{0}_i = 0, i = 1, \ldots, m$.

for $t = 1, \ldots, k$ do

Choose $i_t$ according to $\text{Prob}\{i_t = i\} = \frac{1}{m}, i = 1, \ldots, m$.

\[ y^{t}_i = y^{t-1}_i + \alpha_t (y^{t-1}_i - y^{t-2}_i), \forall i, \quad (5.2.49) \]

\[ x^t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{t}_i, x \right\} + \mu V(x) + \eta \nabla V(x^t), \quad (5.2.50) \]

\[ y^{t}_i = \begin{cases} (1 + \tau_t)^{-1} (x^t + \tau_t y^{t-1}_i), & i = i_t, \\ y^{t-1}_i, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases} \quad (5.2.51) \]

\[ y^{t}_i = \begin{cases} \nabla f_i(x^t), & i = i_t, \\ y^{t-1}_i, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases} \quad (5.2.52) \]

end for

Output: For some $\theta_t > 0, t = 1, \ldots, k$, set

\[ x^k := (\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t)^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t x^t. \quad (5.2.53) \]

It is also interesting to observe the differences between RGEM and RPDG (section 5.1). RGEM has only one extrapolation step (5.2.49) which combines two types of predictions. One is to predict future gradients using historic data, and the other is to obtain an estimator of the current exact gradient of $f$ from the randomly updated gradient information of $f_i$. However, RPDG method needs two extrapolation steps in both the primal and dual spaces. Due to the existence of the primal extrapolation step, RPDG cannot guarantee the search points where it performs gradient evaluations to fall within the feasible set $X$. Hence, it requires the assumption that $f_i$’s are differentiable with Lipschitz continuous gradients over $\mathbb{R}^n$. Such a strong assumption is not required by RGEM, since all the primal iterates generated by RGEM stay within the feasible region $X$. As a result, RGEM can deal with a much wider class of problems than RPDG. Moreover, in RGEM we do not need to compute the exact gradients at the initial point $x^0$, but simply set them as $y^{0}_i = 0$. It can be seen that under the $L$-smooth assumption on gradients (cf. (5.2.4)), there exists $0 \leq \alpha_0 < +\infty$ such that

\[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \| \nabla f_i(x^0) \|_i^2 = \alpha_0^2. \quad (5.2.56) \]

5.2.2.2 Convergence analysis

Our main goal in this subsection is to establish the convergence of RGEM for solving problem (5.2.1).
The following simple result demonstrates a few identities related to \( f \). Moreover, observing that the convexity of \( x \), we can conclude that \( \nu \) defined in (5.2.52) as an intermediate tool; 2) bound the error caused by inexact gradients at the initial point and 3) analyze the accumulated error caused by randomization and noisy stochastic gradients.

Before establishing the convergence of RGEM, we first provide some important technical results. Let \( Q \) be defined in (6.6.26) as an intermediate tool; 2) bound the error caused by inexact gradients at the initial point and 3) analyze the accumulated error caused by randomization and noisy stochastic gradients.

Comparing RGEM in Algorithm 5.4 with GEM in Algorithm 5.3, we can see that RGEM is a direct randomization of GEM. Therefore, inheriting from GEM, its convergence analysis is carried out completely in the primal space. However, the analysis for RGEM is more challenging especially because we need to 1) build up the relationship between \( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i) \) and \( f(x^k) \), for which we exploit the function \( Q \) defined in (6.6.26) as an intermediate tool; 2) bound the error caused by inexact gradients at the initial point and 3) analyze the accumulated error caused by randomization and noisy stochastic gradients.

5.2 Random gradient extrapolation method

Let \( Q \) and \( y_i^t, i = 1, \ldots, m, t \geq 1 \) be defined as

\[
\begin{align*}
Q_i^t &= (1 + \tau)^{-1}(x^t + \tau \Delta x_i^{t-1}), \\
y_i^t &= \nabla f_i(Q_i^t).
\end{align*}
\]

The following simple result demonstrates a few identities related to \( Q_i^t \) (cf. (5.2.51)) and \( y_i^t \) (cf. (5.2.52)).

**Lemma 5.9.** Let \( x^t \) and \( y_i^t \) be defined in (5.2.50) and (5.2.52), respectively, and \( Q_i^t \) and \( y_i^t \) be defined as in (5.2.57) and (5.2.58), respectively. Then we have, for any \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) and \( t = 1, \ldots, k \),

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}_t[Q_i^t] &= \frac{1}{m} Q_i^t + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) y_i^{t-1}, \\
\mathbb{E}_t[y_i^t] &= \frac{1}{m} y_i^t + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) Q_i^{t-1}, \\
\mathbb{E}_t[f_i(Q_i^t)] &= \frac{1}{m} f_i(Q_i^t) + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) f_i(y_i^{t-1}), \\
\mathbb{E}_t[\|\nabla f_i(Q_i^t) - \nabla f_i(y_i^{t-1})\|^2] &= \frac{1}{m} \|\nabla f_i(Q_i^t) - \nabla f_i(y_i^{t-1})\|^2,
\end{align*}
\]

where \( \mathbb{E}_t \) denotes the conditional expectation w.r.t. \( i_t \) given \( i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1} \) when \( y_i^t \) is defined in (5.2.52).

**Proof.** This first equality follows immediately from the facts that \( \text{Prob}_t\{y_i^t = Q_i^t\} = \text{Prob}_t\{i_t = i\} = \frac{1}{m} \) and \( \text{Prob}_t\{y_i^t = y_i^{t-1}\} = 1 - \frac{1}{m} \). Here \( \text{Prob}_t \) denotes the conditional probability w.r.t. \( i_t \) given \( i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1} \). Similarly, we can prove the rest equalities. \( \blacksquare \)

We define the following function \( Q \) to help us analyze the convergence properties of RGEM. Let \( x, x^* \in X \) be two feasible solutions of (5.2.1) (or (5.2.5)), we define the corresponding \( Q(x, x^*) \) by

\[
Q(x, x^*) := \langle \nabla f(x), x - x^* \rangle + \mu \nu(x) - \mu \nu(x^*).
\]

It is obvious that if we fix \( x = x^* \), an optimal solution of (5.2.1) (or (5.2.5)), by the convexity of \( \nu \) and the optimality condition of \( x^* \), for any feasible solution \( x \), we can conclude that

\[
Q(x, x^*) \geq \langle \nabla f(x^*) + \mu \nu'(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0.
\]

Moreover, observing that \( f \) is smooth, we conclude that
\[ Q(x,x^*) = f(x^*) + \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle + \mu \nabla(x) - \psi(x^*) \]
\[ \geq - \frac{L_i}{2} \| x - x^* \|^2 + \psi(x) - \psi(x^*). \]  

(5.2.60)

The following lemma establishes an important relationship regarding \( Q \).

**Lemma 5.10.** Let \( x' \) be defined in (5.2.50), and \( x \in X \) be any feasible solution of (5.2.1) or (5.2.5). Suppose that \( \tau_i \) in RGEM satisfy

\[ \theta_t(m(1 + \tau_t) - 1) = \theta_{t-1}m(1 + \tau_{t-1}), \quad t = 2, \ldots, k, \]  

(5.2.61)

for some \( \theta_t \geq 0 \), \( t = 1, \ldots, k \). Then, we have

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[Q(x', x)] \leq \theta_1(1 + \tau_1) \sum_{t=1}^{m} \mathbb{E}[(f_i(x^*))] + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\mu \nabla(x') - \psi(x)] - \theta_1(m(1 + \tau_1) - 1)(x^0 - x, \nabla f(x)) + f(x). \]  

(5.2.62)

**Proof.** In view of the definition of \( Q \) in (6.6.26), we have

\[ Q(x', x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle \nabla f_i(x), x' - x \rangle + \mu \nabla(x') - \mu \nabla(x) \]  

(5.2.57)

Taking expectation on both sides of the above relation over \( \{i_1, \ldots, i_k\} \), and using Lemma 5.11, we obtain

\[ \mathbb{E}[Q(x', x)] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E}[(1 + \tau_i) \langle x_i' - x, \nabla f_i(x) \rangle - (1 + \tau_i - \frac{1}{m}) \langle x_i'^{-1} - x, \nabla f_i(x) \rangle] + \mathbb{E}[\mu \nabla(x') - \mu \nabla(x)]. \]

Multiplying both sides of the above inequality by \( \theta_t \), and summing up the resulting inequalities from \( t = 1 \) to \( k \), we conclude that

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[Q(x', x)] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}[(1 + \tau_i) \langle x_i' - x, \nabla f_i(x) \rangle - (1 + \tau_i - \frac{1}{m}) \langle x_i'^{-1} - x, \nabla f_i(x) \rangle] + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\mu \nabla(x') - \mu \nabla(x)]. \]

Note that by (5.2.61) and the fact that \( x_i^0 = x^0 \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), we have

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t = \sum_{t=2}^{k} \theta_t(1 + \tau_t) - \theta_{t-1}m(1 + \tau_{t-1}) + \theta_1 = \theta_t m(1 + \tau_t) - \theta_{t-1}m(1 + \tau_{t-1}) - 1, \]  

(5.2.63)

\[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t[1 + \tau_t] \langle x_i' - x, \nabla f(x) \rangle - \theta_t[(1 + \tau_t) - \frac{1}{m}] \langle x_i'^{-1} - x, \nabla f(x) \rangle] = \theta_t[1 + \tau_t] \langle x_i' - x, \nabla f(x) \rangle - \theta_t[(1 + \tau_t) - \frac{1}{m}] \langle x_i^0 - x, \nabla f(x) \rangle], \]  

for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). Combining the above three relations and using the convexity of \( f_i \), we obtain
which in view of (5.2.63) implies (5.2.62).

We now prove the main convergence properties for RGEM to solve (5.2.1). Observe that RGEM starts with $y_0 = 0$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, and only updates the corresponding $i$-th block of $(x_i^*, y_i^*)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, according to (5.2.51) and (5.2.52), respectively. Therefore, for $y_i^*$ generated by RGEM, we have

$$y_i^* = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if the } i\text{-th block has never been updated for the first } t \text{ iterations}, \\ \nabla f_i(x_i^*), & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

(5.2.64)

Throughout this subsection, we assume that there exists $\sigma_0 \geq 0$ which is the upper bound of the initial gradients, i.e., (5.2.56) holds. Proposition 5.6 below establishes some general convergence properties of RGEM for solving strongly convex problems.

**Proposition 5.6.** Let $x^*$ and $x^k$ be defined as in (5.2.50) and (5.2.53), respectively, and $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (5.2.1). Let $\sigma_0$ be defined in (5.2.56), and suppose that $\{\eta_t\}$, $\{\tau_t\}$, and $\{\alpha_t\}$ in RGEM satisfy (5.2.61) and

$$m \theta_{t-1} = \alpha_t \theta_t, \quad t \geq 2, 
\theta_t \eta_t \leq \theta_{t-1} (\mu + \eta_{t-1}), \quad t \geq 2, 
2 \alpha_t L_t \leq m \tau_{t-1} \eta_t, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m; \quad t \geq 2, 
4 L_t \leq \tau_{t-1} (\mu + \eta_k), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m,$$

(5.2.65)–(5.2.68)

for some $\theta_t \geq 0$, $t = 1, \ldots, k$. Then, for any $k \geq 1$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Q(x^k, x^*)] \leq (\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_t)^{-1} \tilde{\Delta}_{0, \sigma_0}, 
\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{2 \Delta_{0, \sigma_0}}{\theta_k (\mu + \eta_k)},$$

(5.2.69)

where

$$\tilde{\Delta}_{0, \sigma_0} := \theta_t (m (1 + \tau_1) - 1) (\psi(x^0) - \psi^*) + \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x^*) + \eta_1 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{m - 1}{m} \tau_{t-1} + \frac{2 \sigma_0}{m \eta_{t-1}} \sigma_0^2.$$ 

(5.2.70)

**Proof.** In view of the definition of $x^t$ in (5.2.50) and Lemma 3.5, we have

$$\langle x^t - x, \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nabla f_i(x^t) \rangle + \mu V(x^t) - \mu V(x) 
\leq \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_t) V(x^t, x) - \eta_t V(x^{t-1}, x^t).$$

(5.2.71)

Moreover, using the definition of $\psi$ in (5.2.1), the convexity of $f_i$, and the fact that $y_i^* = \nabla f_i(x_i^*)$ (see (5.2.58) with $y_i^*$ defined in (5.2.52)), we obtain...
\[
\frac{1 + \tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i') + \mu \nu(x') - \psi(x)
\leq \frac{1 + \tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i') + \mu \nu(x') - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [f_i(x_i') + \langle \hat{g}_i', x - \hat{g}_i' \rangle]
\]
where the first equality follows from the definition of \( \hat{g}_i' \) in (5.2.57), and the last inequality follows from the smoothness of \( f_i \) (see Lemma 5.8) and (5.2.58). It then follows from (5.2.71) and the definition of \( \hat{f}_i' \) in (5.2.49) that

\[
\frac{1 + \tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i') + \mu \nu(x') - \psi(x)
\leq -\frac{\tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla f_i(x_i') - \nabla f_i(x_i'^{-1}) \|^2 + \frac{\tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i'^{-1})
\]

\[
+ \langle x' - x, \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [\mu(y_i' - y_i'^{-1}) - \alpha(y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2})] \rangle
\]

\[
+ \eta \nu(x' - 1, x) - (\mu + \eta) \nu(x', x) - \eta \nu(x', x').
\]

Therefore, taking expectation on both sides of the above relation over \( \{i_1, \ldots, i_k\} \), and using Lemma 5.11, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[(1 + \tau_i) \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i') + \mu \nu(x') - \psi(x)]
\leq \mathbb{E}[-\frac{\tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla f_i(x_i') - \nabla f_i(x_i'^{-1}) \|^2 + \frac{\tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i'^{-1})]
\]

\[
+ \mathbb{E} \{ \langle x' - x, \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [\mu(y_i' - y_i'^{-1}) - \alpha(y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2})] \rangle \}
\]

\[
+ \mathbb{E}[\eta \nu(x' - 1, x) - (\mu + \eta) \nu(x', x) - \eta \nu(x', x')].
\]

Multiplying both sides of the above inequality by \( \theta_i \), and summing up the resulting inequalities from \( i = 1 \) to \( k \), we obtain

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E} \{ \theta_i (1 + \tau_i) f_i(x_i') \} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \mathbb{E} [\mu \nu(x') - \psi(x)]
\leq \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E} [-\frac{\tau}{m} \| \nabla f_i(x_i') - \nabla f_i(x_i'^{-1}) \|^2 + \frac{\tau}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i'^{-1})]
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbb{E} \{ \langle x' - x, y_i' - y_i'^{-1} - \alpha(y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2}) \rangle \}
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \mathbb{E}[\eta \nu(x' - 1, x) - (\mu + \eta) \nu(x', x) - \eta \nu(x', x')].
\]

Now by (5.2.65), and the facts that \( y_i^{-1} = y_i^0 \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), and that we only update \( y_i' \) (see (5.2.52)), we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_i \langle x' - x, y_i' - y_i'^{-1} - \alpha(y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2}) \rangle
\]

\[
= \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \langle x' - x, y_i' - y_i'^{-1} - \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m} (x_i'^{-1} - x_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2}) \rangle
\]

\[
- \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \alpha \frac{m}{(x' - x_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2})}
\]

\[
= \theta_k (x' - x, y_k' - y_k'^{-1}) - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \alpha \left( x' - x_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-1} - y_i'^{-2} \right).
\]
Moreover, in view of (5.2.66), (5.2.61), and the fact that \( x_i^0 = x^0, i = 1, \ldots, m \), we obtain

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_i \eta_i V(x^{t-1}, x) - (\mu + \eta_i) V(x^t, x) \\
\leq \theta_i \eta_i V(x^0, x) - \theta_i (\mu + \eta_i) V(x^0, x),
\]

which together with (5.2.73), (5.2.64) and the fact that \( \theta_i \eta_i V(x^0, x) \geq 0 \) imply that

\[
\theta_i (1 + \tau_i) \sum_{t=1}^{m} \theta_i E[f_i(y^t_{k-1})] + \sum_{t=1}^{m} \theta_i E[\mu V(x^t) - \psi(x)] + \frac{\theta_i (\mu + \eta_i)}{x} E[V(x^t, x)] \\
\leq \theta_i (m(1 + \tau_i) - 1) f(x^t) + \theta_i \eta_i V(x^0, x) \\
+ \sum_{t=2}^{m} \theta_i \eta_i V(x^t, x) - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} \|y_{k-1} - \nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2 \\
- \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} \|y_{k-1} - \nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2 \\
+ \theta_i \|y_k^k - y_{k-1}^k\|_2 \cdot \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} \|y_k^k - \nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2.
\]

By the strong convexity of \( V(\cdot, \cdot) \) in (5.2.8), the simple relations that \( b(u, v) - a\|v\|^2/2 \leq b^2\|u\|^2/(2a) \), \( \forall a > 0 \) and \( \|a + b\|^2 \leq 2\|a\|^2 + 2\|b\|^2 \), we have

\[
\sum_{t=2}^{m} \left[ - \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m} \langle x^t - x^{t-1}, y_{k-1}^t - y_{k-2}^t \rangle - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} V(x^{t-1}, x^t) - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} \|\nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2^2 \right] \\
\leq \sum_{t=2}^{m} \left[ - \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m} \langle x^t - x^{t-1}, y_{k-1}^t - y_{k-2}^t \rangle - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m} \|\nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2^2 \right] \\
+ \sum_{t=2}^{m} \left[ \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m} \|\nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2^2 - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m \eta_{k-1}} \|y_{k-1} - \nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2^2 \right]
\]

which in view of conditions in (5.2.67) implies that

\[
\sum_{t=2}^{m} \left[ - \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m} \langle x^t - x^{t-1}, y_{k-1}^t - y_{k-2}^t \rangle - \frac{\theta_i \eta_i}{m \eta_{k-1}} \|y_{k-1} - \nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2})\|_2^2 \right] \\
\leq \sum_{t=2}^{m} \left[ \frac{\theta_i \alpha}{m \eta_{k-1}} \|\nabla f_{x_{k-1}}(y_{k-2}) - y_{k-1}^t\|_2^2 \right].
\]

Similarly, in view of (5.2.68), we obtain
We now provide a bound on which, in view of the relation
\[ B_{k} \leq \frac{2\theta_{k}}{m\eta_{k}+1} \left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) \right\|_{2}^{2}, \]
where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( m\eta_{k+1} \leq \alpha_{k+1}(\mu + \eta_{k}) \) (induced from (5.2.65) and (5.2.66)). Therefore, combining the above three relations, we conclude that
\[
\theta_{k}(1 + \tau_{i})\sum_{t=1}^{m} \theta_{t}E[f(x_{i}^{k})] + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_{t}E[\mu v(x) - \psi(x)] + \frac{\theta_{k}(\mu + \eta_{k})}{2}E[V(x^{k})] \\
\leq \theta_{1}(m(1 + \tau_{1}) - 1)\mu v(x_{i}^{0}) + \theta_{1} \eta_{1} V(x_{i}^{0},x) \\
+ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{2\theta_{t} \alpha_{t+1}}{m\eta_{t+1}} E[\left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) - x_{i}^{k-1} \right\|_{2}^{2}],
\]
(5.2.75)
We now provide a bound on \( E[\left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) - x_{i}^{k-1} \right\|_{2}^{2}] \). In view of (5.2.64), we have
\[
\left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) - x_{i}^{k-1} \right\|_{2}^{2} = \begin{cases} \left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) \right\|_{2}^{2}, & \text{no update on the } i_{i}-\text{th block until iteration } t; \\
0, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}
\]
Let us denote event \( B_{t} := \{ \text{the } i_{i}-\text{th block has never been updated until iteration } t \} \), for all \( t = 1, \ldots, k \), we have
\[
E[\left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) - x_{i}^{k-1} \right\|_{2}^{2}] = E[\left\| \nabla f_{i}(x_{i}^{k-1}) \right\|_{2}^{2} | B_{t}] \text{Prob}(B_{t}) \leq \left( \frac{m-1}{m} \right)^{t-1} \sigma_{0}^{2},
\]
where the last inequality follows from the definitions of \( B_{t}, x_{i}^{t} \) in (5.2.51) and \( \sigma_{0}^{2} \) in (5.2.56). Fixing \( x = x^{*} \), and using the above result in (5.2.75), we then conclude from (5.2.75) and Lemma 5.10 that
\[
0 \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \theta_{t}E[Q(x^{t},x^{*})] \\
\leq \theta_{1}(m(1 + \tau_{1}) - 1)[f(x^{0}) - (x^{0} - x^{*})^{t} \nabla f(x^{*})] + \theta_{1} \eta_{1} V(x^{0},x^{*}) + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{m-1}{m} y^{t-1} \frac{2\theta_{t} \alpha_{t+1}}{m\eta_{t+1}} \sigma_{0}^{2} + \theta_{k}(\mu + \eta_{k}) E[V(x^{k},x^{*})],
\]
which, in view of the relation \( - (x^{0} - x^{*}, \nabla f(x^{*})) \leq (x^{0} - x^{*}, \mu v^{*}(x^{*})) \leq \mu v(x^{0}) - \mu v(x^{*}) \) and the convexity of \( Q(\cdot, x^{*}) \), implies the first result in (5.2.69). Moreover, we can also conclude from the above inequality that
\[
\frac{\theta_{k}(\mu + \eta_{k})}{2} E[V(x^{k},x^{*})] \\
\leq \theta_{1}(m(1 + \tau_{1}) - 1)[\psi(x^{0}) - \psi(x^{*})] + \theta_{1} \eta_{1} V(x^{0},x^{*}) + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{m-1}{m} y^{t-1} \frac{2\theta_{t} \alpha_{t+1}}{m\eta_{t+1}} \sigma_{0}^{2},
\]
from which the second result in (5.2.69) follows.

With the help of Proposition 5.6, we are now ready to establish the convergence properties of RGEM.
Theorem 5.4. Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (5.2.1), $x^k$ and $\hat{x}^k$ be defined in (5.2.50) and (5.2.53), respectively, and $\hat{L} = \max_{i=1, \ldots, m} L_i$. Also let $\{\tau\}$, $\{\eta\}$ and $\{\alpha\}$ be set to

$$\tau_t \equiv \tau = \frac{1}{m(1-\alpha)} - 1, \quad \eta_t \equiv \eta = \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \mu, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t \equiv \alpha \max.$$

(5.2.76)

If (5.2.56) holds and $\alpha$ is set as

$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{1}{m + \sqrt{m^2 + 16m\hat{L}/\mu}},$$

(5.2.77)

then

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{Q}(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{2\Delta_0, \alpha^k}{\mu},$$

(5.2.78)

$$\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*')] \leq 16 \max \left\{ m, \frac{L}{\mu} \right\} \Delta_0, \alpha^k/2, \sigma_0^2,$$

(5.2.79)

where

$$\Delta_0, \sigma_0 := \mu \mathcal{V}(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi^* + \frac{\sigma_0^2}{m \mu},$$

(5.2.80)

Proof. Letting $\theta_t = \alpha^{-t}$, $t = 1, \ldots, k$, we can easily check that parameter setting in (5.2.76) with $\alpha$ defined in (5.2.77) satisfies conditions (5.2.61) and (5.2.65)-(5.2.68) stated in Proposition 5.6. It then follows from (5.2.76) and (5.2.69) that

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{Q}(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{\alpha^k}{1-\alpha} \left[ \mu \mathcal{V}(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi^* + \frac{2m(1-\alpha)^2 \sigma_0^2}{(m-1)\mu} \sum_{t=1}^{k} (m-1/\alpha)^t \right],$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{V}(x^k, x^*)] \leq 2\alpha^k \left[ \mu \mathcal{V}(x^0, x^*) + \psi(x^0) - \psi^* + \frac{2m(1-\alpha)^2 \sigma_0^2}{(m-1)\mu} \sum_{t=1}^{k} (m-1/\alpha)^t \right], \ \forall k \geq 1.$$

Also observe that $\alpha \geq \frac{2m-1}{2m}$, we then have

$$\sum_{t=1}^{k} \left( \frac{m-1}{m-1} \right)^t \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left( \frac{2(m-1)}{2m-1} \right)^t \leq 2(m-1).$$

Combining the above three relations and the fact that $m(1-\alpha) \leq 1/2$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{Q}(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{\alpha^k}{1-\alpha} \Delta_0, \sigma_0,$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathcal{V}(x^k, x^*)] \leq 2\alpha^k \Delta_0, \sigma_0/\mu, \ \forall k \geq 1,$$

(5.2.81)

where $\Delta_0, \sigma_0$ is defined in (5.2.80). The second relation immediately implies our bound in (5.2.78). Moreover, by the strong convexity of $\mathcal{V}(\cdot, \cdot)$ in (5.2.8) and (5.2.78), we have
\[
\frac{L_f}{2} \mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^*\|^2] \leq \frac{L_f}{2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \Theta_i \right)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \Theta_i \mathbb{E}[\|x^i - x^*\|^2]
\]

Combining the above relation with the first inequality in (5.2.81) and (5.2.60), we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E} [\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \mathbb{E} [\mathcal{Q}(x^k, x^*)] + \frac{L_f}{2} \mathbb{E}[\|x^k - x^*\|^2] \leq \left( 1 + \frac{2L_f(1-\alpha)}{\mu} k \right) \frac{\Delta_0 \sigma_k}{1-\alpha^k}.
\]

Observing that

\[
\frac{1}{1-\alpha} \leq \frac{16 \max \{ m, \hat{L}/\mu \} }{k},
\]

\[
\frac{2L_f}{\mu} \leq \frac{16 \max \{ m, \hat{L}/\mu \} }{k},
\]

\[
(k+1) \frac{\alpha^k(1-\alpha)}{1-\alpha^k} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha^i}{1-\alpha} \right) \frac{\alpha^k(1-\alpha)}{1-\alpha^k} \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\alpha^i}{1-\alpha^k} + 1 \right) \frac{\alpha^k(1-\alpha)}{1-\alpha^k}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{1}{\alpha^k(1-\alpha^k)} \frac{\alpha^k(1-\alpha)}{1-\alpha^k} + \alpha^k \leq 2\alpha^{k/2} + \alpha^k \leq 3\alpha^{k/2},
\]

we have

\[
\mathbb{E} [\psi(x^k) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{16}{\alpha} \max \left\{ \frac{m}{\mu} \right\} \frac{(k+1)\alpha^{k}(1-\alpha)}{1-\alpha^k} \leq 16 \max \left\{ \frac{m}{\mu} \right\} \frac{\Delta_0 \sigma_k \alpha^{k/2}}{1-\alpha^k}.
\]

In view of Theorem 5.4, we can provide bounds on the total number of gradient evaluations performed by RGEM to find a stochastic \(\varepsilon\)-solution of problem (5.2.1), i.e., a point \(\tilde{x} \in X\) s.t. \(\mathbb{E} [\psi(\tilde{x}) - \psi^*] \leq \varepsilon\). Theorem 5.4 implies the number of gradient evaluations of \(f_i\) performed by RGEM to find a stochastic \(\varepsilon\)-solution of (5.2.1) can be bounded by

\[
K(\varepsilon, C, \sigma_0^2) = 2 \left( m + \sqrt{m^2 + 16mc} \right) \log \frac{16 \max \{ mC, \Delta_0 \sigma_k \}}{\varepsilon} = O \left( \left( m + \sqrt{mC} \right) \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right).
\]

Here \(C = \hat{L}/\mu\). Therefore, whenever \(\sqrt{mC} \log(1/\varepsilon)\) is dominating, and \(L_f\) and \(\hat{L}\) are in the same order of magnitude, RGEM can save up to \(O(\sqrt{m})\) gradient evaluations of the component function \(f_i\) than the optimal deterministic first-order methods. More specifically, RGEM does not require any exact gradient computation and its iteration cost is similar to pure stochastic gradient descent. It should be pointed out that while the rates of convergence of RGEM obtained in Theorem 5.4 is stated in terms of expectation, we can develop large-deviation results for these rates of convergence using similar techniques in Section 5.1 for solving strongly convex problems.
Furthermore, if a one-time exact gradient evaluation is available at the initial point, i.e., $y^{-1}_i = y^0_i = \nabla f_i(x^0)$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, we can employ a more aggressive stepsize policy with
$$\alpha = 1 - \frac{2}{m + \sqrt{m^2 + 8mL/\mu}}.$$ Similarly, we can demonstrate that the number of gradient evaluations of $f_i$ performed by RGEM with this initialization method to find a stochastic $\varepsilon$-solution can be bounded by
$$\left(m + \sqrt{m^2 + 8mC}\right) \log \left(\frac{6\max\{m, C\}\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}\right) + m = \mathcal{O}\left(m + \sqrt{mL/\mu}\log\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right).$$
It is worth noting that according to the parameter setting in (5.2.76), we have
$$\eta = (\frac{1}{1 - \alpha} - 1)\mu = \left(m + \sqrt{m^2 + 16mL/\mu}\right)\mu - \mu = \Omega(m\mu + \sqrt{mL\mu}).$$
In some statistical learning applications with $L^2$ regularization (i.e., $\omega(x) = \|x\|^2/2$), one usually chooses $\mu = \Omega(1/m)$. For these applications, the stepsize of RGEM is in the order of $1/\sqrt{L}$, which is larger than $1/L$ for those un-accelerated methods.

### 5.2.3 Stochastic finite-sum problems

We discuss in this subsection the stochastic finite-sum optimization and online learning problems, where only noisy gradient information of $f_i$ can be accessed via a stochastic first-order (SFO) oracle. In particular, for any given point $x'_i \in X$, the SFO oracle outputs a vector $G_i(x'_i, \xi'_i)$ s.t.
$$\mathbb{E}_\xi[G_i(x'_i, \xi'_i)] = \nabla f_i(x'_i), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \quad (5.2.83)$$
$$\mathbb{E}_\xi[\|G_i(x'_i, \xi'_i) - \nabla f_i(x'_i)\|_2^2] \leq \sigma^2, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m. \quad (5.2.84)$$
We also assume that throughout this subsection that the $\|\cdot\|$ is associated with the inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$.

As shown in Algorithm 5.5, the RGEM for stochastic finite-sum optimization is naturally obtained by replacing the gradient evaluation of $f_i$ in Algorithm 5.4 (see (5.2.52)) with a stochastic gradient estimator of $f_i$ given in (5.2.85). In particular, at each iteration, we collect $B_i$ number of stochastic gradients of only one randomly selected component $f_i$ and take their average as the stochastic estimator of $\nabla f_i$. Moreover, it needs to be mentioned that the way RGEM initializes gradients, i.e., $y^{-1} = y^0 = 0$, is very important for stochastic optimization, since it is usually impossible to compute exact gradient for expectation functions even at the initial point.
Algorithm 5.5 RGEM for stochastic finite-sum optimization

This algorithm is the same as Algorithm 5.4 except that \((5.2.52)\) is replaced by

\[
y_i'^* = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^B G_i(x_j', \xi_{ij}), & i = i_t, \\ y_{i_t}^{-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases}
\]  

(5.2.85)

Here, \(G_i(x_j', \xi_{ij}), j = 1, \ldots, B_i\), are stochastic gradients of \(f_i\) computed by the SFO oracle at \(x_j'\).

Under the standard assumptions in \((5.2.83)\) and \((5.2.84)\) for stochastic optimization, and with proper choices of algorithmic parameters, we can show that RGEM can achieve the optimal \(O\{\sigma^2/(\mu^2 \varepsilon)\}\) rate of convergence (up to a certain logarithmic factor) for solving strongly convex problems given in the form of \((5.2.5)\) in terms of the number of stochastic gradients of \(f_i\).

Before establishing the convergence of RGEM, we first provide some important technical results. Let \(\hat{x}_m\) be defined in \((5.2.57)\) and

\[
y_i'^* = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{j=1}^B G_i(x_j', \xi_{ij}).
\]  

(5.2.86)

Note the above definition of \(\bar{B}_t\) is different from the one in \((5.2.86)\).

The following simple result demonstrates a few identities related to \(\hat{x}_m'\) (cf. \((5.2.51)\)) and \(y_i'\) (cf. \((5.2.52)\) or \((5.2.85)\)). For notation convenience, we use \(\mathbb{E}_{[i_t]}\) for taking expectation over \(\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}\), \(\mathbb{E}_\xi\) for expectations over \(\{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k\}\), respectively, we use \(\mathbb{E}\) to denote the expectations over all random variables.

**Lemma 5.11.** Let \(x_i'\) and \(y_i'\) be defined in \((5.2.50)\) and \((5.2.85)\), respectively, and \(\hat{x}_m'\) and \(\hat{y}_i'\) be defined as in \((5.2.57)\) and \((5.2.86)\), respectively. Then we have, for any \(i = 1, \ldots, m\) and \(t = 1, \ldots, k\),

\[
\mathbb{E}_t[y_i'] = \frac{1}{m} y_i' + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) y_i'^{-1},
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\hat{x}_m'] = \frac{1}{m} \hat{x}_m' + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \hat{x}_m'^{-1},
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_t[f_i(\hat{x}_m')] = \frac{1}{m} f_i(\hat{x}_m') + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) f_i(\hat{x}_m'^{-1}),
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\|\nabla f_i(x_i') - \nabla f_i(\hat{x}_m')\|^2] = \frac{1}{m} \|\nabla f_i(x_i') - \nabla f_i(\hat{x}_m'^{-1})\|^2,
\]

where \(\mathbb{E}_t\) denotes the conditional expectation w.r.t. \(i_t\) given \(i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1}\) when \(y_{i_t}'\) is defined in \((5.2.52)\), and w.r.t. \(i_t\) given \(i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1}, \xi_{i_t1}, \ldots, \xi_{im}\) when \(y_{i_t}'\) is defined in \((5.2.85)\), respectively.

**Proof.** This first equality follows immediately from the facts that \(\text{Prob}_{i_t}(y_{i_t}' = y_{i_t}'^*) = \text{Prob}_{i_t}(i_t = i) = \frac{1}{m}\) and \(\text{Prob}_{i_t}(y_{i_t}' = y_{i_t}'^{-1}) = 1 - \frac{1}{m} \frac{B_i}{m}\). Here Prob denotes the conditional probability w.r.t. \(i_t\) given \(i_1, \ldots, i_{t-1}, \xi_{i_t1}, \ldots, \xi_{im}\). Similarly, we can prove the rest equalities.

Note that the parameter \(\{B_t\}\) in Algorithm 5.5 denotes the batch size used to compute \(y_{i_t}'\) in \((5.2.85)\). Since we now assume that \(\|\cdot\|\) is associated with a certain
inner product, it can be easily seen from (5.2.85), and the two assumptions we have for the stochastic gradients computed by SFO oracle, i.e., (5.2.83) and (5.2.84), that

\[ E[\xi_t] = \nabla f_i(x^*_i) \quad \text{and} \quad E[||y'_t - \nabla f_i(x'_t)||^2_i] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{B_i}, \quad \forall i, t = 1, \ldots, k, \quad (5.2.87) \]

and hence \( y'_t \) is an unbiased estimator of \( \nabla f_i(x'_t) \). Moreover, for \( y'_t \) generated by Algorithm 5.5, we can see that

\[
y'_t = \begin{cases} 
0, & \text{no update on the } i\text{-th block for the first } t \text{ iterations;} \\
\frac{1}{B_i} \sum_{j=1}^{B_i} G_i(x'_t, \xi'_t), & \text{latest update happened at } l\text{-th iteration, for } 1 \leq l \leq t. 
\end{cases}
\]

We now establish some general convergence properties for Algorithm 5.5.

**Proposition 5.7.** Let \( x^t \) and \( x^k \) be defined as in (5.2.50) and (5.2.53), respectively, and \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (5.2.5). Suppose that \( \sigma_0 \) and \( \sigma \) are defined in (5.2.56) and (5.2.84), respectively, and \( \{\eta_l\}, \{\tau_l\}, \) and \( \{\alpha_l\} \) in Algorithm 5.5 satisfy (5.2.61), (5.2.65), (5.2.66), and (5.2.68) for some \( \Theta_0 \geq 0, t = 1, \ldots, k \). Moreover, if

\[ 3\alpha_l L_i = m \tau_{l-1} \eta_l, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m; t \geq 2, \quad (5.2.89) \]

then for any \( k \geq 1 \), we have

\[
E[Q(x^k, x^*)] \leq (\sum_{l=1}^{k} \Theta_l)^{-1} \tilde{\delta}_{0, \sigma_0}, \quad \E[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{2\tilde{\delta}_{0, \sigma} \sigma}{\Theta_0 (\mu + \eta_0)}, \quad (5.2.90)
\]

where

\[
\tilde{\delta}_{0, \sigma} := \delta_{0, \sigma_0} + \sum_{l=2}^{k} \frac{3 \theta_l + \alpha_l \sigma^2}{2m^l \eta_{l-1}} + \sum_{l=1}^{k} \frac{2 \theta_l + \eta_l}{m^{l-1}} \sum_{j=1}^{l-1} \left( m^{-j} \right)^{-l} \frac{\tau_{l-1} \eta_l}{B_l} \sigma^2, \quad (5.2.91)
\]

with \( \tilde{\delta}_{0, \sigma} \) defined in (5.2.70).

**Proof.** Observe that in Algorithm 5.5 \( y'_t \) is updated as in (5.2.85). Therefore, according to (5.2.86), we have

\[
y'_t = \frac{1}{B_t} \sum_{j=1}^{B_t} G_i(x'_t, \xi'_t), \quad i = 1, \ldots, m; t \geq 1,
\]

which together with the first relation in (5.2.87) imply that \( E[\xi_t] = E[\nabla f_i(x'_t)] = E[\nabla f_i(x'_t)] \). Hence, we can rewrite (5.2.72) as
where the last inequality follows from (5.2.71). Following the same procedure as in the proof of Proposition 5.6, we obtain the following similar relation (cf. (5.2.74))

\[
\theta_k (1 + \tau_k) \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}[f_i(x_k^*)] + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \mathbb{E}[\mu(x') - \psi(x)] + \frac{\theta_m}{2} \mathbb{E}[V(x', x)] \\
\leq \theta_1 (m(1 + \tau_1) - 1) f(x^0) + \theta_1 \eta \mathbb{E}[V(x^0, x)] \\
+ \sum_{i=2}^k \mathbb{E} \left[ -\frac{\theta_i}{m} (x' - x, y_{i-1}' - y_{i-1}'') - \theta_i \eta V(x''', x') - \frac{\theta_m}{2} \mathbb{E} \|f_{i-1}(x^*_k) - f_{i-1}(y_{i-1})\|^2 \right] \\
+ \theta_k \mathbb{E} \left[ (x' - x, y_k' - y_k'') - \frac{\mu + \eta}{2} \mathbb{E} \|f_k(x^*_k) - f_k(x')\|^2 \right].
\]

By the strong convexity of \(V(\cdot, \cdot)\) in (5.2.7), and the fact that \(b(u, v) - a||v||^2 / 2 \leq b^2 ||u||^2 / (2a), \forall a > 0\), we have, for \(t = 2, \ldots, k,\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} \left[ -\frac{\theta m}{m} (x' - x, y_{i-1}' - y_{i-1}'') - \theta_i \eta V(x''', x') - \frac{\theta_m}{2} \mathbb{E} \|f_{i-1}(x^*_k) - f_{i-1}(y_{i-1})\|^2 \right] \\
\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ -\frac{\theta m}{m} (x' - x, y_{i-1}' - y_{i-1}'') - \frac{\theta_i}{2} \mathbb{E} \|f_{i-1}(x^*_k) - f_{i-1}(y_{i-1})\|^2 \right] \\
+ \frac{\theta_m}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \|f_{i-1}(y_{i-1}'') - f_{i-1}(y_{i-1}'')\|^2 \right] \\
\leq \frac{3 \theta m}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \|x_{i-1}' - x\|^2 + \|f_{i-1}(x_{i-1}^-) - f_{i-1}(y_{i-1}^-)\|^2 + \|f_{i-1}(y_{i-1}'') - y_{i-1}'\|^2 \right].
\end{align*}
\]
Algorithm 5.5, and

\[ E \left[ \langle x^k - x, y_k^i - y_{k-1}^i \rangle - \frac{\mu + \eta_k}{2} V(x^k, x) - \frac{\partial^2}{2 \eta_k} \| f_k (x_k^i) - \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) \|^2 \right] \]

(5.2.87),(5.2.8)

\[ \leq E \left[ \langle x^k - x, \nabla f_k (x_k^i) - \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) + \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) - y_k^i \rangle \right] \]

\[ - E \left[ \frac{(\mu + \eta_k)}{4} \| x^k - x \|^2 + \frac{\partial^2}{2 \eta_k} \| f_k (x_k^i) - \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) \|^2 \right] \]

\[ \leq \left( \frac{2}{\mu + \eta_k} - \frac{2}{\eta_k} \right) \| \nabla f_k (x_k^i) - \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) \|^2 + \frac{2}{\mu + \eta_k} \| \nabla f_k (x_k^{i-1}) - y_k^{i-1} \|^2 \]

Combining the above three relations, and using the fact that \( m \eta_{k+1} \leq \alpha_{k+1} (\mu + \eta_k) \) (induced from (5.2.65) and (5.2.66)), we have

\[ \theta_k (1 + \tau_k) \sum_{i=1}^{m} E[f_i (x_k^i)] + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_k E[\mu V(x) - \psi(x)] + \frac{\theta_k (\mu + \eta_k)}{2} E[V(x^k, x)] \]

\[ \leq \theta_1 (m(1 + \tau_k) - 1) f(x^0) + \theta_1 \eta_k V(x^0, x) \]

\[ + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{3 \alpha_{i-1}}{2 \eta_k} E[\| y_{k-1}^i - \nabla f_{i-1} (x_{i-1}^{i-1}) \|^2] + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{2 \alpha_{i-1}}{m \eta_{i-1} \eta_k} E[\| \nabla f_i (x_i^{i-1}) - y_{i-1}^i \|^2] \]

Moreover, in view of the second relation in (5.2.87), we have

\[ E[\| y_{k-1}^i - \nabla f_{i-1} (x_{i-1}^{i-1}) \|^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\eta_k}, \quad \forall \tau \geq 2. \]

Let us denote \( \delta_{i,t} := \max \{ l : i_l = i, l < t \} \) with \( \delta_{i,t} = 0 \) denoting the event that the \( i \)-th block has never been updated until iteration \( t \), we can also conclude that for any \( t \geq 1 \)

\[ E[\| \nabla f_i (x_{i}^{i-1}) - y_{i}^{i-1} \|^2] \leq \sum_{l=0}^{t-1} E \left[ \| \nabla f_i (x_{i}^l) - y_{i}^l \|^2 \{ \delta_{i,t} = l \} \right] \]

\[ \leq \left( \frac{m-1}{m} \right)^{t-1} \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{m-1}{m} \right)^{t-1} \frac{1}{m} \left( \frac{m-1}{m} \right)^{t-1} \sigma^2 \frac{2^t}{\eta_i} \]

where the first term in the inequality corresponds to the case when the \( i \)-th block has never been updated for the first \( t - 1 \) iterations, and the second term represents that its latest update for the first \( t - 1 \) iterations happened at the \( t \)-th iteration. Hence, using Lemma 5.10 and following the same argument as in the proof of Proposition 5.6, we obtain our results in (5.2.90).

We are now ready to prove Theorem 5.5, which establishes an optimal complexity bound (up to a logarithmic factor) on the number of calls to the SFO oracle and a linear rate of convergence in terms of the communication complexity for solving problem (5.2.5).

**Theorem 5.5.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (5.2.5), \( x^k \) and \( x^k \) be generated by Algorithm 5.5, and \( L = \max_{i=1,...,m} L_i \). Suppose that \( \sigma_0 \) and \( \sigma \) are defined in (5.2.56) and (5.2.84), respectively. Given the iteration limit \( k \), let \( \{ \tau \} \), \( \{ \eta_k \} \) and \( \{ \alpha_k \} \) be set to (5.2.76) with \( \alpha \) being set as (5.2.77), and we also set
where \(\Delta(5.2.90)\), we obtain stochastic \(\varepsilon\). Hence, similar to the proof of Theorem 5.4, using the above relations and (5.2.76) in \(B\) in (5.2.76) with \(\alpha \Delta_0, \alpha, \sigma\) in (5.2.77) satisfies conditions (5.2.61), (5.2.65), (5.2.66), and (5.2.89) as required by Proposition 5.7. By (5.2.76), the definition of \(B_t\) in (5.2.92), and the fact that \(\alpha \geq \frac{2m-1}{2m} > (m-1)/m\), we have

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{2\theta_t \alpha_t \sigma_t^2}{2m_T B_t - 1} \leq \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{2\sigma_t^2}{\alpha \mu (1-\alpha) \Delta_t} \leq \frac{2\sigma_t^2}{\alpha \mu (1-\alpha) \Delta_0} \leq \frac{2\sigma_t^2}{\mu (1-\alpha) m \alpha (m-1)} \leq \frac{2\sigma_t^2}{\mu (1-\alpha) m \alpha (m-1)} \leq \frac{\Delta_0 \sigma_t^2}{\mu (1-\alpha)}.
\]

Hence, similar to the proof of Theorem 5.4, using the above relations and (5.2.76) in (5.2.90), we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}[Q(x^k, x^*)] \leq \frac{\alpha}{1-\alpha} \left[ \Delta_0, \sigma_0 + \frac{3\sigma^2}{\mu} \right],
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[V(x^k, x^*)] \leq 2\alpha \left[ \Delta_0, \sigma_0 + \frac{5\sigma^2}{\mu} \right],
\]

where \(\Delta_0, \sigma_0\) is defined in (5.2.80). The second relation implies our results in (5.2.93). Moreover, (5.2.94) follows from the same argument as we used in proving Theorem 5.4.

In view of (5.2.94), the number of iterations performed by RGEM to find a stochastic \(\varepsilon\)-solution of (5.2.5), can be bounded by

\[
\hat{K}(\varepsilon, C, \sigma_0^2, \sigma^2) := 2 \left( m + \sqrt{m^2 + 16mC} \right) \log \frac{16\max(Cm)}{\varepsilon} \frac{\Delta_0, \sigma_0}{\sigma^2}.
\]

Furthermore, in view of (5.2.93) this iteration complexity bound can be improved to

\[
\hat{K}(\varepsilon, \alpha, \sigma_0^2, \sigma^2) := \log \frac{2\Delta_0, \sigma_0}{\mu \varepsilon},
\]
in terms of finding a point $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $E[V(\bar{x}, x^*)] \leq \varepsilon$. Therefore, the corresponding number of stochastic gradient evaluations performed by RGEM for solving problem (5.2.5) can be bounded by

$$\sum_{t=1}^k B_t \leq k \sum_{t=1}^k (1 - \alpha)^t + k = \mathcal{O}\left(\left(\frac{A_0 \sigma_0 \sigma}{\mu \varepsilon} + m + \sqrt{mc}\right) \log \frac{A_0 \sigma_0 \sigma}{\mu \varepsilon}\right),$$

which together with (5.2.95) imply that the total number of required stochastic gradients or samples of the random variables $\xi_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, can be bounded by

$$\tilde{\mathcal{O}}\left(\frac{\sigma^2_0}{m} + \frac{\mu V(x^0, x^*) + \nu(x^0) - \nu^*}{\mu \varepsilon} + m + \sqrt{\frac{mL \mu}{\mu}}\right).$$

Observe that this bound does not depend on the number of terms $m$ for small enough $\varepsilon$. This complexity bound in fact is in the same order of magnitude (up to a logarithmic factor) as the complexity bound achieved by the optimal accelerated stochastic approximation methods (Section 4.2), which uniformly sample all the random variables $\xi_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. However, this latter approach will thus involve much higher communication costs in the distributed setting (see Subsection 5.2.4 for more discussions).

### 5.2.4 Distributed implementation

This subsection is devoted to RGEMs (see Algorithm 5.4 and Algorithm 5.5) from two different perspectives, i.e., the server and the activated agent under a distributed setting. We also discuss the communication costs incurred by RGEM under this setting.

Both the server and agents in the distributed network start with the same global initial point $x^0$, i.e., $x^0_i = x^0$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, and the server also sets $\Delta y = 0$ and $g^0 = 0$.

During the process of RGEM, the server updates iterate $x^t$ and calculates the output solution $x^t$ (cf. (5.2.53)) which is given by $\text{sum}x / \text{sum}\theta$. Each agent only stores its local variable $x^t_i$ and updates it according to information received from the server (i.e., $x^t$) when activated. The activated agent also needs to upload the changes of gradient $\Delta y_i$ to the server. Note that line 5 of RGEM from the $i_t$-th agent’s perspective is optional if the agent saves historic gradient information from the last update.

---

**RGEM**

The server’s perspective

```plaintext
1: while $t \leq k$ do
2: \hspace{1em} $x^t$ ← $\arg\min_{x \in X} \{\langle g^{t-1} + \frac{\mu}{m} \Delta y, x \rangle + \mu V(x) + \eta t V(x^{t-1}, x)\}$
3: \hspace{1em} \text{sum}x ← \text{sum}x + $\theta_i x^t$
4: \hspace{1em} \text{sum}$\theta$ ← \text{sum}$\theta + \theta_i$
5: \hspace{1em} Send signal to the $i_t$-th agent where $i_t$ is selected uniformly from $\{1, \ldots, m\}$
6: \hspace{1em} if $i_t$-th agent is responsive then
7: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} Send current iterate $x^t$ to $i_t$-th agent
8: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} if Receive feedback $\Delta y$ then
9: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} $g^t ← g^{t-1} + \Delta y$
10: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} $t ← t + 1$
11: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} end if
12: \hspace{1em} else goto Line 5
13: \hspace{1em} \hspace{1em} end if
14: \hspace{1em} end if
15: end while
```
RGEM The activated $i_t$-th agent’s perspective

1: Download the current iterate $x^t$ from the server

2: if $t = 1$

3: \( y_{i}^{t-1} \leftarrow 0 \) \( \triangleright \) Optional

4: else

5: \( y_{i}^{t-1} \leftarrow \nabla f_i(x_{i}^t) \)

6: end if

7: \( x_{i}^t \leftarrow (1 + \tau_t)^{-1}(x_{i}^t + \tau_t y_{i}^t) \)

8: \( y_{i}^t \leftarrow \nabla f_i(x_{i}^t) \)

9: Upload the local changes to the server, i.e., \( \Delta y_{i} = y_{i}^t - y_{i}^{t-1} \)

We now add some remarks about the potential benefits of RGEM for distributed optimization and machine learning. Firstly, since RGEM does not require any exact gradient evaluation of $f$, it does not need to wait for the responses from all agents in order to compute an exact gradient. Each iteration of RGEM only involves communication between the server and the activated $i_t$-th agent. In fact, RGEM will move to the next iteration in case no response is received from the $i_t$-th agent. This scheme works under the assumption that the probability for any agent being responsive or available at a certain point of time is equal. Secondly, since each iteration of RGEM involves only constant number of communication rounds between the server and one selected agent, the communication complexity for RGEM under distributed setting can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{n}} \right) \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right).
\]

Therefore, it can save up to $O(\sqrt{m})$ rounds of communication than the optimal deterministic first-order methods.

For solving distributed stochastic finite-sum optimization problems (5.2.5), RGEM from the $i_t$-th agent’s perspective will be slightly modified as follows.

RGEM The activated $i_t$-th agent’s perspective for solving (5.2.5)

1: Download the current iterate $x^t$ from the server

2: if $t = 1$

3: \( y_{i}^{t-1} \leftarrow 0 \) \( \triangleright \) Assuming RGEM saves $y_{i}^{t-1}$ for $t \geq 2$ at the latest update

4: end if

5: \( x_{i}^t \leftarrow (1 + \tau_t)^{-1}(x_{i}^t + \tau_t G_i) \)

6: \( y_{i}^t \leftarrow \frac{1}{B_t} \sum_{j=1}^{B_t} G_i(x_{i}^t, \xi_{i}^t, j) \) \( \triangleright \) $B_t$ is the batch size, and $G_i$’s are the stochastic gradients given by SFO

7: Upload the local changes to the server, i.e., \( \Delta y_{i} = y_{i}^t - y_{i}^{t-1} \)

Similar to the case for the deterministic finite-sum optimization, the total number of communication rounds performed by the above RGEM can be bounded by
5.3 Variance-reduced mirror descent

In the previous two sections, we have derived a few stochastic algorithms for finite-sum optimization by introducing randomization into accelerated gradient descent (or primal-dual) methods in Chapter 3. In this section, we will study these finite-sum problems from a different perspective by viewing them as some special stochastic optimization problems with finite support. Our goal is to improve the stochastic optimization methods in Chapter 4 by introducing novel gradient estimators with reduced variance.

More specifically, we consider the problem of

$$
\min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x) \},
$$

(5.3.1)

where $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is a closed convex set, $f$ is the average of $m$ smooth convex component functions $f_i$, i.e., $f(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x)$, and $h$ is a simple but possibly non-differentiable convex function. We assume that for $\forall i=1,2,\ldots,m$, $\exists L_i > 0$, s.t.

$$
\| \nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(y) \|_* \leq L_i \| x - y \|, \forall x, y \in X.
$$

Clearly, $f$ has Lipschitz continuous gradients with constant

$$
L_f \leq L \equiv \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i.
$$

Moreover, we assume that the objective function $f$ is possibly strongly convex, i.e., $\exists \mu \geq 0$ s.t.

$$
f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y-x \rangle + \mu V(x,y), \forall x, y \in X.
$$

(5.3.2)

It is worth noting that in comparison with problem (5.1.1) and (5.2.1), we do not need to explicitly put a strongly convex term into the objective function of (5.3.1),

$$
\theta \left\{ \left( m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{n}} \right) \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right\},
$$

for solving (5.2.5). Each round of communication only involves the server and a randomly selected agent. This communication complexity seems to be optimal, since it matches the lower complexity bound (5.1.11) established in Section 5.1.4. Moreover, the sampling complexity, i.e., the total number of samples to be collected by all the agents, is also nearly optimal and comparable to the case when all these samples are collected in a centralized location and processed by an optimal stochastic approximation method. On the other hand, if one applies an existing optimal stochastic approximation method to solve the distributed stochastic optimization problem, the communication complexity will be as high as $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$, which is much worse than RGEM.
because the stochastic algorithm we will introduce in this section does not rely on the strong convexity.

In the basic stochastic gradient (mirror) descent method, we can use \( \nabla f_i(x) \) for a randomly selected component \( i \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \) as an unbiased estimator of the exact gradient \( \nabla f(x) \). The variance of this gradient estimator will remain as a constant throughout the algorithm. In contrast to this basic algorithm, variance-reduced mirror descent intends to find an unbiased gradient estimator whose variance will vanish as the algorithm converges. The basic scheme of the variance-reduced mirror descent method is described in Algorithm 5.6.

The variance-reduced mirror descent method is a multi-epoch algorithm. Each epoch of this method contains \( T \) iterations and requires the computation of a full gradient at the point \( \tilde{x} \). The gradient \( \nabla f(\tilde{x}) \) will then be used to define a gradient estimator \( G_t \) for \( \nabla f(x_t-1) \) at each iteration \( t \). We will show that \( G_t \) has smaller variance than the aforementioned estimator \( \nabla f_i(x_t-1) \), notwithstanding both are unbiased estimators for \( \nabla f(x_t-1) \).

\begin{algorithm}[h]
\caption{A variance-reduced mirror descent method}
\begin{algorithmic}
\State \textbf{Input:} \( x^0, \gamma, T, \{\theta_t\} \).
\State \( \tilde{x}^0 = x^0 \).
\For {s = 1, 2, \ldots} \Repeat
\State Set \( \tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{s-1} \) and \( \bar{g} = \nabla f(\tilde{x}) \).
\State Set \( x_1 = x^{s-1} \) and \( T = T_s \).
\State Probability \( Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_m\} \) on \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \).
\For {t = 1, 2, \ldots, T} \Do
\State Pick \( i_t \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \) randomly according to \( Q \).
\State \( G_t = (\nabla f_i(x_t) - \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}))/\{q_i, m\} + \bar{g} \).
\State \( x_{t+1} = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \{\gamma[\langle G_t, x \rangle + h(x)] + V(x, x)\} \).
\EndFor
\State Set \( x^s = x_{T+1} \) and \( \tilde{x}^s = \sum_{t=2}^{T} \theta_t x_t / \sum_{t=2}^{T} \theta_t \).
\EndFor
\end{algorithmic}
\end{algorithm}

Different from the randomized methods discussed in the previous two sections, variance-reduced mirror descent needs to compute full gradients from time to time, which may incur extra delays caused by synchronization under distributed settings for optimization and machine learning. However, this method does not require the computation of gradients at \( m \) search points \( x_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \). Moreover, one does not need to save the gradients \( \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}) \) by computation two gradient components \( \nabla f_i(x_t) \) and \( \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}) \) in each iteration. Therefore, this algorithm can does not require much memory. As we will show later in next section, an accelerated version of variance-reduced mirror descent method can achieve comparable or even slightly better rate of convergence than RPGD and RGEM. In this section, we focus on the convergence analysis of the basic scheme of variance-reduced mirror descent method without acceleration.

We now discuss a few results that will be used to establish the convergence of variance reduced stochastic mirror descent method.
The following result follows as a consequence of Lemma 5.8.

**Lemma 5.12.** Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (5.3.1). Then we have
\[
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \left\| \nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(x^*) \right\|^2 \leq 2L_Q \left[ \Psi(x) - \Psi(x^*) \right], \quad \forall x \in X, \quad (5.3.3)
\]
where
\[
L_Q = \frac{1}{m} \max_{i=1, \ldots, m} \frac{L_i}{q_i} \quad (5.3.4)
\]

**Proof.** By Lemma 5.8 (with $f = f_i$), we have
\[
\left\| \nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(x^*) \right\|^2 \leq 2L_q \left[ f_i(x) - f_i(x^*) - \langle \nabla f_i(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \right].
\]
Dividing this inequality by $1/(m^2 q_i)$, and summing over $i = 1, \ldots, m$, we obtain
\[
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \left\| \nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(x^*) \right\|^2 \leq 2L_Q \left[ f(x) - f(x^*) - \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \right]. \quad (5.3.5)
\]
By the optimality of $x^*$, we have $\langle \nabla f(x^*) + h'(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0$ for any $x \in X$, which in view of the convexity of $h$, implies that $\langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq h(x^*) - h(x)$ for any $x \in X$. The result then follows by combining the previous two conclusions. \[\square\]

In the sequel, we still denote $\delta_i := G_i - g(x_i)$, where $g(x_i) = \nabla f(x_i)$. Lemma 5.13 below shows that if the algorithm converges, then the variance of $\delta_i$ will also become smaller and smaller.

**Lemma 5.13.** Conditionally on $x_1, \ldots, x_t$,
\[
\mathbb{E}[\delta_i] = 0, \quad (5.3.6)
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \delta_i \|^2] \leq 2L_Q \left[ f(x_i) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x_i), x_i - x \rangle \right], \quad (5.3.7)
\]
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| \delta_i \|^2 \right] \leq 4L_Q \left[ \Psi(x_i) - \Psi(x^*) + \Psi(x) - \Psi(x^*) \right]. \quad (5.3.8)
\]

**Proof.** Taking expectation with respect to $i$, conditionally on $x_1, \ldots, x_t$, we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \nabla f_i(x_i) \right] = \frac{1}{m} \frac{q_i}{m_{q_i}} \nabla f_i(x_i) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nabla f_i(x_i) = \nabla f(x).
\]
Similarly we have $\mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \nabla f_i(x_i) \right] = \nabla f(x)$. Therefore,
\[
\mathbb{E}[G_i] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \left( \nabla f_i(x_i) - \nabla f_i(x) \right) + \nabla f(x) \right] = \nabla f(x_i).
\]
To bound the variance, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \delta_i \|^2] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \left\| \frac{1}{m_{q_i}} \left( \nabla f_i(x_i) - \nabla f_i(x) \right) + \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x_i) \right\|^2 \right]
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}^2} \left\| \nabla f_i(x_i) - \nabla f_i(x) \right\|^2 \right] - \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}^2} \left\| \nabla f_i(x_i) - \nabla f(x) \right\|^2 \right]
\]
\[
\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_i}^2} \left\| \nabla f_i(x_i) - \nabla f_i(x) \right\|^2 \right].
\]
The above relation, in view of relation 5.3.5 (with \( x \) and \( x^* \) replaced by \( \bar{x} \) and \( x_{t} \)), then implies (5.3.7). Moreover,

\[
\mathbb{E}\left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_{i}}} \| \nabla f_{i}(x_{t}) - \nabla f_{i}(\bar{x}) \|^{2} \right] = \mathbb{E}\left[ \frac{1}{m_{q_{i}}} \| \nabla f_{i}(x_{t}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) + \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) - \nabla f_{i}(\bar{x}) \|^{2} \right]
\leq \mathbb{E}\left[ \frac{2}{m_{q_{i}}} \| \nabla f_{i}(x_{t}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) \|^{2} \right] + \mathbb{E}\left[ \frac{2}{m_{q_{i}}} \| \nabla f_{i}(\bar{x}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) \|^{2} \right]
= \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m_{q_{i}}} \| \nabla f_{i}(x_{t}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) \|^{2} + \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \| \nabla f_{i}(\bar{x}) - \nabla f_{i}(x_{s}) \|^{2},
\]

which together with Lemma 5.12 then imply (5.3.8).

We now show the possible progress made by each iteration of the variance-reduced mirror descent method. This result resembles Lemma 4.2 for the original stochastic mirror descent method.

**Lemma 5.14.** If the stepsize \( \gamma \) satisfies \( L\gamma \leq 1/2 \), then for any \( x \in X \),

\[
\gamma[\Psi(x_{t+1}) - \Psi(x)] + V(x_{t+1}, x) \leq (1 - \gamma \mu) V(x_{t}, x) + \gamma(\delta_{t}, x - x_{t}) + \gamma^{2} \| \delta \|^{2}.
\]

(5.3.10)

Moreover, conditionally on \( i_{1}, \ldots, i_{t-1} \)

\[
\gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{t+1}) - \Psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x_{t+1}, x^{*})]
\leq (1 - \gamma \mu) V(x_{t}, x^{*}) + 4L_{Q} \gamma^{2} [\Psi(x_{t}) - \Psi(x^{*})] + \Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^{*}).
\]

(5.3.11)

**Proof.** Similarly to (4.1.26), we have

\[
\gamma f(x_{t+1}) \leq \gamma [f(x_{t}) + (G_{t}, x_{t+1} - x_{t})] + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) + \frac{\gamma^{2} \| \delta_{t} \|^{2}}{2(1 - L \gamma)}
\leq \gamma [f(x_{t}) + (G_{t}, x_{t+1} - x_{t})] + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) + \gamma^{2} \| \delta_{t} \|^{2},
\]

where the last inequality follows from the assumption that \( L \gamma \leq 1/2 \). Moreover, it follows from Lemma 3.5 that

\[
\gamma [f(x_{t}) + (G_{t}, x_{t+1} - x_{t}) + h(x_{t+1})] + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1})
\leq \gamma [f(x_{t}) + (G_{t}, x - x_{t}) + h(x)] + V(x_{t}, x) - V(x_{t+1}, x)
\leq \gamma [f(x_{t}) + (G_{t}, x_{t+1} - x_{t}) + h(x_{t+1})] + V(x_{t}, x_{t+1}) - V(x_{t+1}, x),
\]

where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \). Combining the above two conclusions and rearranging the terms, we obtain (5.3.10). Using Lemma 5.13 and taking expectation on both sides of (5.3.10) with respect to \( i_{t} \), we obtain (5.3.11).

With the help of Lemma 5.14, we will be able to establish the rate of convergence for the stochastic variance-reduced mirror descent method for solving a few different classes of finite-sum optimization problems.
5.3 Variance-reduced mirror descent

5.3.1 Smooth problems without strong convexity

In this subsection, we assume that $f$ is not necessarily strongly convex, i.e., $\mu = 0$ in (5.3.2). We will present a general convergence results first and then discuss the selection of some algorithmic parameters (e.g., $\gamma$ and $T_i$).

**Theorem 5.6.** Suppose that the algorithmic parameters for the variance reduced stochastic mirror descent method satisfy

$$\theta_i = 1, t \geq 1, \quad \text{(5.3.12)}$$

$$4L_Q \gamma \leq 1, \quad \text{(5.3.13)}$$

$$w_s := (1 - 4L_Q \gamma)(T_{s-1} - 1) - 4L_Q \gamma T_s > 0, s \geq 2. \quad \text{(5.3.14)}$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^S) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{\gamma(1 + 4L_Q \gamma T_1)[\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(0, x^*)}{\gamma \sum_{s=1}^{\tilde{w}_s}}, \quad \text{(5.3.15)}$$

where

$$\tilde{x}^S = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{\tilde{w}_s} w_s x^s}{\sum_{s=1}^{\tilde{w}_s}}. \quad \text{(5.3.16)}$$

**Proof.** Summing up (5.3.11) (with $\mu = 0$) over $t = 1, \ldots, T$ and taking expectation with respect to random variables $i_1, \ldots, i_T$, we obtain

$$\gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{T+1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + (1 - 4L_Q \gamma) \gamma S_{T=2}^{\sum_{t=2}^{T} \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_t) - \Psi(x^*)]} + \mathbb{E}[V(x_{T+1}, x^*)]$$

$$\leq 4L_Q \gamma^2 [\Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4L_Q \gamma^2 T_1 [\Psi(\tilde{x}^1) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x_1, x^*).$$

Now consider a fixed epoch $s$ with iteration limit $T = T_s$, input $x_1 = x^{t-1}$ and $\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{t-1}$, and output $x^t = x_{T+1}$ and $\tilde{x}^t = \sum_{t=2}^{T} \tilde{x}^t/(T - 1)$ due to $\theta_i = 1$. By the above inequality and the convexity of $\Psi$, we have

$$\gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^t) - \Psi(x^*)] + (1 - 4L_Q \gamma) \gamma (T_s - 1) \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^S) - \Psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^t, x^*)]$$

$$\leq 4L_Q \gamma^2 [\Psi(x^{t-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4L_Q \gamma^2 T_s [\Psi(\tilde{x}^{t-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^{t-1}, x^*)$$

$$\leq \gamma [\Psi(x^{t-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4L_Q \gamma^2 T_s [\Psi(\tilde{x}^{t-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^{t-1}, x^*),$$

where the last inequality follows from the assumption that $4L_Q \gamma \leq 1$. Summing up the above inequalities over $s = 1, \ldots, S$, and taking full expectation over all random variables, we have

$$\gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^S) - \Psi(x^*)] + (1 - 4L_Q \gamma) \sum_{s=1}^{S} \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^S) - \Psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(\tilde{x}^S, x^*)]$$

$$\leq \gamma [\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4L_Q \gamma^2 T_1 [\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^0, x^*)$$

$$= \gamma(1 + 4L_Q \gamma T_1)[\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^0, x^*),$$
which, in view of (5.3.16) and the convexity of $\Psi$, then implies the result in (5.3.15).

In light of Theorem 5.6, we now provide some specific rules to select $\gamma$ and $T_s$ and establish the complexity of the resulting algorithm. Certainly it is possible to develop many other rules to specify these parameters.

**Corollary 5.8.** Suppose that $\theta = 1$, $\gamma = 1/(16LQ)$, and

$$T_s = 2T_{s-1}, s = 2, 3, \ldots, \quad (5.3.17)$$

with $T_1 = 7$. Then for any $S \geq 1$, we have

$$E[\Psi(\bar{x}^S) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{8}{2^S - 1} \left[ \frac{11}{4} (\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*)) + 16LQV(x^0, x^*) \right]. \quad (5.3.18)$$

Moreover, the total number of gradient computations required to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (5.3.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \varepsilon$, can be bounded by

$$O \left\{ m \log \frac{\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*) + LQV(x^0, x^*)}{\varepsilon} \right\}. \quad (5.3.19)$$

**Proof.** Note that by (5.3.17), we have

$$w_s = \frac{3}{4} (T_{s-1} - 1) - \frac{1}{4} T_s = \frac{1}{8} T_s - \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{8} T_s - \frac{3}{28} T_s = \frac{1}{35} T_s, \quad (5.3.20)$$

where the inequality follows from the fact that $T_s \geq 7$. Using this observation and (5.3.17), we have

$$\sum_{s=1}^{S} w_s \geq \frac{1}{8} (2^S - 1).$$

Using these relations in (5.3.15), we obtain (5.3.18). In view of (5.3.18), the total number of epochs $S$ to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (5.3.1) can be bounded by $\bar{S} \equiv \log(\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x^*) + LQV(x^0, x^*))/\varepsilon$. Hence the total number of gradient computations can be bounded $m\bar{S} + \sum_{s=1}^{S} T_s$, which is bounded by (5.3.19).

Recall that directly applying the mirror descent method would require $\tilde{O}(m/\varepsilon)$ gradient computations for each component functions $f_i$ to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (5.3.1). It is interesting to see that the total number of gradient computations required by the stochastic variance reduced mirror descent methods improves this bound significantly in terms of its dependence on $m$. Moreover, the bound in (5.3.19) is also smaller than a direct application of the stochastic mirror descent method to (5.3.1) as long as

$$m \leq \tilde{O} \left\{ \frac{1}{\log(1/\varepsilon)} \left( \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} - \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right) \right\}$$

after disregarding some constant factors.
5.3 Variance-reduced mirror descent

5.3.2 Smooth and strongly convex problems

In this subsection, we assume that \( f \) is strongly convex, i.e., \( \mu > 0 \) in (5.3.2).

The following result shows the progress made by each epoch of the variance-reduced mirror descent method.

**Theorem 5.7.** Suppose that the algorithmic parameters for the variance-reduced mirror descent method satisfy

\[
\theta_i = (1 - \gamma \mu)^{-i}, \quad t \geq 0, \tag{5.3.21}
\]

\[
1 \geq 2L \gamma, \tag{5.3.22}
\]

\[
1 \geq \gamma \mu + 4LQ \gamma. \tag{5.3.23}
\]

Then we have \( \Delta_s \leq \rho \Delta_{s-1} \) for any \( s \geq 1 \), where

\[
\Delta_s := \gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^s) - \Psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^s, x^*)] + (1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) \mu^{-1} (\theta_T - \theta_1) \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x}^s) - \Psi(x^*)], \tag{5.3.24}
\]

\[
\rho := \max \left\{ 1, \frac{4LQ \gamma \theta^{-1}}{(1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) (\theta_T - \theta_1)} \right\}. \tag{5.3.25}
\]

**Proof.** Multiplying both sides of (5.3.11) by \( \theta_i \) in (5.3.21), we have

\[
\gamma \theta_i \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{i+1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + \theta_i \mathbb{E}[V(x_{i+1}, x^*)] \leq 4LQ \gamma^2 \theta_i [\Psi(x_i) - \Psi(x^*) + \Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi(x^*)] + \theta_{i-1} V(x_i, x^*)].
\]

Summing up the previous inequality over \( t = 1, \ldots, T \) and taking expectation with respect to the history of random variables \( i_1, \ldots, i_T \), we obtain

\[
\gamma \theta_T \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{T+1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + (1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) \gamma \sum_{t=2}^{T} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_t) - \Psi(x^*)] + \theta_T \mathbb{E}[V(x_{T+1}, x^*)] \leq 4LQ \gamma^2 [\Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4LQ \gamma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{T} \theta_t [\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x_1, x^*).
\]

Now consider a fixed epoch \( s \) with input \( x_1 = x^{s-1} \) and \( \tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{s-1} \), and output \( x^s = x_{T+1} \) and \( x^* = \sum_{t=2}^{T} \theta_t x^t / \sum_{t=2}^{T} \theta_t \). By the above inequality, the convexity of \( \Psi \) and the fact that

\[
\sum_{t=s}^{T} \theta_t = (\gamma \mu)^{-1} \sum_{t=s}^{T} (\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}) = (\gamma \mu)^{-1} (\theta_T - \theta_{s-1}), \tag{5.3.26}
\]

we have

\[
\gamma \theta_T \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^s) - \Psi(x^*)] + (1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) \mu^{-1} (\theta_T - \theta_1) \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi(x^*)] + \theta_T \mathbb{E}[V(x^s, x^*)] \leq 4LQ \gamma^2 [\Psi(x^{s-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4LQ \gamma \mu^{-1} (\theta_T - 1) [\Psi(\tilde{x}^{s-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^{s-1}, x^*) \leq \gamma \psi(x^{s-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + 4LQ \gamma \mu^{-1} (\theta_T - 1) [\Psi(\tilde{x}^{s-1}) - \Psi(x^*)] + V(x^{s-1}, x^*),
\]

where

\[
\Delta_s := \gamma \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^s) - \Psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^s, x^*)] + (1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) \mu^{-1} (\theta_T - \theta_1) \mathbb{E}[(\tilde{x}^s) - \Psi(x^*)],
\]

\[
\rho := \max \left\{ 1, \frac{4LQ \gamma \theta^{-1}}{(1 - \gamma \mu - 4LQ \gamma) (\theta_T - \theta_1)} \right\}.
\]
where the last inequality follows from the fact $4L_Q \gamma \leq 1$ due to (5.3.23). The result then immediately follows the above inequality.

We are now ready to establish the convergence of the variance-reduced mirror descent method.

**Corollary 5.9.** Suppose that the algorithmic parameters for the variance-reduced mirror descent method are set to

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{2T},$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.27)

$$q_i = \sum_{m=1}^{L_i},$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.28)

$$T \geq 2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.29)

$$\theta_t = (1 - \gamma \mu)^{-t}, t \geq 0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.30)

Then for any $s \geq 1$, we have

$$\Delta_s \leq \{ \max \left[ (1 - \frac{\mu}{2L})^T \right] \}^s \Delta_0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.31)

where $\Delta_s$ is defined in (5.3.24). In particular, if $T$ is set to a constant factor of $m$, denoted by $o\{m\}$, then the total number of gradients required to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of problem (5.3.1) can be bounded by $O\left\{ \left( \frac{k}{\mu} + m \right) \log \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right\}$.

**Proof.** It is easy to check that $L_Q = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{L_i} = L$. Moreover, whenever $T \geq 2$, we have

$$\frac{\theta_{T-1}}{\theta_{T-1}} - 2 = \frac{1-(1-\gamma \mu)^T}{1-(1-\gamma \mu)^T} - 2 = \frac{(1-\gamma \mu)^{-T} - 1}{1-(1-\gamma \mu)^T} \leq 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.32)

Hence,

$$\frac{4L_Q \gamma (\theta_T - 1)}{1-(1-\gamma \mu)^T} \leq \frac{8L_Q \gamma}{1-\gamma \mu - 4L_Q \gamma} \leq \frac{8L_Q \gamma}{1-\gamma \mu} \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (5.3.33)

Using these relations in Proposition 5.7, we obtain (5.3.31). Now assume that $T = o\{m\}$. We consider two cases. If $(1 - \frac{\mu}{2L})^T \leq \frac{1}{2}$, then by (5.3.31) the total number of epochs can be bounded by $O\{ \log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon) \}$, which implies that the total number of gradient computations $(s \times (m+T))$ can be bounded by $O\{ m \log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon) \}$. Now if $(1 - \frac{\mu}{2L})^T \geq \frac{1}{2}$, then by (5.3.31), then the total number of iterations $(s \times T)$ and hence the total number of gradient computations $(s \times (m+T))$ are both bounded by $O\{ \frac{L}{\mu} \log(\Delta_0/\varepsilon) \}$. The result follows by combining these two cases.

The complexity bound obtained in Corollary 5.9 significantly improves the $O\left( \frac{1}{\mu \varepsilon} \right)$ complexity bound for a direction application of stochastic mirror descent method since the former one only depends on $\log(1/\varepsilon)$. However, the stochastic mirror descent and stochastic accelerated gradient descent methods still have their own merits. Firstly, they can be used to handle different classes of problems such as general nonsmooth problems, as well as stochastic optimization problems with
5.4 Variance-reduced accelerated gradient descent

In this section, we introduce a novel randomized incremental gradient method, namely, the variance-reduced accelerated gradient algorithm, for solving the finite-sum optimization problem in (5.3.1) whose objective function consists of the average of $m$ smooth components together with a simple convex term. We demonstrate that the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method exhibits a unified optimal rates of convergence for solving both convex and strongly convex problems. In particular, for solving smooth convex problems which are not necessarily strongly convex, the variance-reduced accelerated gradient algorithm does not require to add any strongly convex perturbation into the objective, but can directly achieve the optimal $O(m \log m + \sqrt{mL/\epsilon})$ complexity bound. This bound can be improved to $O(m \log(1/\epsilon))$ under certain lower accuracy regime. Here $L$ and $\epsilon$ denote the Lipschitz constant of the gradients and target accuracy respectively. Moreover, for solving strongly convex problems with modulus $\mu$, the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method equipped with a unified step-size policy can adjust itself according to the value of the conditional number ($L/\mu$), and achieve the optimal linear rate of convergence when the conditional number is relatively small, and the best-known sublinear rate of convergence that is independent of the condition number otherwise. In addition, we show that the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method exhibits an accelerated linear rate of convergence for solving a wide class of weakly strongly convex problems, which only satisfy a certain error bound condition rather than strong convexity.

The basic scheme of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method is formally described in Algorithm 5.7. This algorithm consists of multiple epochs. In each epoch (or outer loop), it first computes the full gradient $\nabla f(\hat{x})$ at the point $\hat{x}$, which will then be repeatedly used to define a gradient estimator $G_t$ at each iteration of the inner loop. This is the same as the variance reduction technique introduced in Section 5.3. The inner loop has a similar algorithmic scheme to the stochastic accelerated gradient method in Section 4.2 with a constant step-size policy. Indeed, the parameters used in the inner loop, i.e., $\{y_t\}, \{\alpha_t\}$, and $\{p_s\}$, only depend on the index of epoch $s$. Each
Algorithm 5.7 Variance-reduced accelerated gradient method

Input: $x^0, y, T, \{\theta_i\}$. 

$x^0 = x^0$. 

for $s = 1, 2, \ldots$ do 

Set $\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{s-1}$ and $\tilde{g} = \nabla F(\tilde{x})$. 

Set $x_0 = x^{s-1}$, $\tilde{x}_0 = \tilde{x}$ and $T = T_s$. 

for $t = 1, 2, \ldots, T$ do 

Pick $i_t \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ randomly according to $Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_m\}$ on $\{1, \ldots, m\}$. 

$\tilde{x} = [(1 + \mu Y)(1 - \alpha_t - p_s)\tilde{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_{t-1} + (1 + \mu Y)\tilde{x}_0]/(1 + \mu Y(1 - \alpha_t))$. 

$G_t = (\nabla f_i(\tilde{x})) + \tilde{g}$. 

$x_t = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}_i} \{G_t(x) + h(x) + \mu V(\tilde{x}, x) + V(x_{t-1}, x)\}$. 

$\tilde{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t - p_s)\tilde{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t + p_s\tilde{x}$. 

end for 

set $x^s = x_T$ and $\tilde{x} = \sum_{t=1}^T (\theta_t \tilde{x})/\sum_{t=1}^T \theta_t$. 

end for 

The variance-reduced accelerated gradient method reduces to the variance-reduced mirror descent method if $\alpha_t = 1$ and $p_s = 0$. In this case, the algorithm only maintains one primal sequence $\{x_t\}$ and exhibits a non-accelerated rate of convergence with complexity bounded by $\mathcal{O}\{(m + L/\mu)\log(1/\varepsilon)\}$ for solving (5.3.1). 

In the sequel, we define

$$I_f(z, x) := f(z) + \langle \nabla f(z), x - z \rangle, \tag{5.4.1}$$

$$\delta := G_t - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_t), \tag{5.4.2}$$

$$x^+_{t-1} := \frac{1}{1 + \mu Y}(x_{t-1} + \mu Y \tilde{x}) \tag{5.4.3}$$

Similarly to the results (i.e., (5.3.6) and (5.3.7) in Lemma 5.13, we have, conditionally on $x_1, \ldots, x_t$,

$$\mathbb{E}[\delta] = 0, \tag{5.4.4}$$

$$\mathbb{E}[[\delta]]_2^2 \leq 2L_Q[f(\tilde{x}) - f(x_t) - \langle \nabla f(x_t), \tilde{x} - x_t \rangle]. \tag{5.4.5}$$

Also observe that the auxiliary point $x^+_{t-1}$ has been used in the original accelerated gradient method and its stochastic counterpart. Using the above definition of $x^+_{t-1}$, and the definitions of $\tilde{x}_t$ and $\tilde{x}$ in Algorithm 5.7, we have

$$\tilde{x}_t - \tilde{x}_t = (1 - \alpha_t - p_s)\tilde{x}_{t-1} + \alpha_t x_t + p_s\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}_t$$

$$= \alpha_t x_t + \frac{1}{1 + \mu Y} \{[1 + \mu Y(1 - \alpha_t)]\tilde{x}_t - \alpha_t x_{t-1}\} - \tilde{x}_t$$

$$= \alpha_t(x_t - x^+_{t-1}). \tag{5.4.6}$$
The following result examines the optimality conditions associated with the definition of \( x_t \) in Algorithm 5.7.

**Lemma 5.15.** For any \( x \in X \), we have
\[
\gamma_t[f(x_t, x_t) - f(x, x) + h(x_t) - h(x)] \leq \gamma_t \mu V(x_t, x) + V(x_t, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) - \frac{1 + \mu \gamma_t}{2} ||x_t - x_{t-1}^+||^2 - \gamma_t \langle \delta_t, x_t - x \rangle.
\]

**Proof.** It follows from Lemma 3.5 and the definition of \( x_t \) in Algorithm 5.7 that
\[
\gamma_t[f(G_t, x_t) + h(x_t) - h(x)] + V(x_t, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) \leq \gamma_t \mu V(x_t, x) + V(x_t, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x).
\]

Also observe that
\[
\langle G_t, x_t - x \rangle = \langle \nabla f(x_t), x_t - x \rangle + \langle \delta_t, x_t - x \rangle = l_f(x_t, x_t) - l_f(x, x) + \langle \delta_t, x_t - x \rangle
\]
and
\[
\gamma_t \mu V(x_t, x_t) + V(x_t, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma_t) V(x_t, x) \geq \frac{1}{2} \left( \mu \gamma_t ||x_t - x_t^+||^2 + ||x_t - x_{t-1}^+||^2 \right)
\geq \frac{1 + \mu \gamma_t}{2} ||x_t - x_{t-1}^+||^2,
\]
where the last inequality follows from the definition of \( x_{t-1}^+ \) in (5.4.3) and the convexity of \( \parallel \cdot \parallel \). The result then follows by combining the above three relations. ■

We now show the possible progress made by each inner iteration of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method.

**Lemma 5.16.** Assume that \( \alpha_t \in [0, 1], p_t \in [0, 1] \) and \( \gamma_t > 0 \) satisfy
\[
1 + \mu \gamma_t - L \alpha_t \gamma_t > 0, \quad (5.4.7)
\]
\[
p_t - \frac{L \alpha_t \gamma_t}{1 + \mu \gamma_t - L \alpha_t \gamma_t} \geq 0. \quad (5.4.8)
\]

Then, conditional on \( x_1, \ldots, x_{t-1} \), we have
\[
\frac{L}{\alpha_t} \mathbb{E} [\psi(x_t) - \psi(x)] + (1 + \mu \gamma_t) \mathbb{E} [V(x_t, x)] \leq \frac{L}{\alpha_t} (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) \mathbb{E} [\psi(x_{t-1}) - \psi(x)] + \frac{L \alpha_t}{\alpha_t} \mathbb{E} [\psi(x_t) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E} [V(x_{t-1}, x)] \quad (5.4.9)
\]
for any \( x \in X \).

**Proof.** Note that by the smoothness of \( f \) and the definition of \( \tilde{x}_t \), we have
\[
f(\tilde{x}_t) \leq l_f(x_t, \tilde{x}_t) + \frac{L}{2} \parallel \tilde{x}_t - x \parallel^2
\]
\[
= (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) l_f(x_t, x_{t-1}) + \alpha_t l_f(\tilde{x}_t, x_t) + p_t l_f(\tilde{x}_t, \tilde{x}) + \frac{L \alpha_t}{2} \parallel x_t - x^t_{t-1} \parallel^2.
\]
The above inequality, in view of Lemma 5.15 and the (strong) convexity of \( f \), then implies that

\[
\begin{align*}
    f(\bar{x}_t) &\leq (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) f(x_t, \bar{x}_{t-1}) \\
    &+ \alpha_t \left[ l_f(x_t, x) + h(x_t) - h(x_t) - \mu V(x_t, x) + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) - \frac{1+\mu \gamma}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) \right] \\
    &+ p_t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma} (1 + \mu \alpha_t - L \alpha_t) \|x_t - x_{t-1}^+\|^2 - \alpha_t \langle \delta_t, x_t - x \rangle \right] \\
    &\leq (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) \\
    &+ \alpha_t \left[ \Psi(x) - h(x_t) + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) - \frac{1+\mu \gamma}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) \right] \\
    &+ p_t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma} (1 + \mu \alpha_t - L \alpha_t) \|x_t - x_{t-1}^+\|^2 - \alpha_t \langle \delta_t, x_t - x_{t-1}^+ - x \rangle \right] \\
    &\leq (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) f(\bar{x}_{t-1}) \\
    &+ \alpha_t \left[ \Psi(x) - h(x_t) + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) - \frac{1+\mu \gamma}{\gamma} V(x_t, x) \right] \\
    &+ p_t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma} (1 + \mu \alpha_t - L \alpha_t) \|x_t - x_{t-1}^+\|^2 + \alpha_t \langle \delta_t, x_t - x_{t-1}^+ - x \rangle \right].
\end{align*}
\]

Note that by (5.4.4), (5.4.5), (5.4.8) and the convexity of \( f \), we have, conditional on \( x_1, \ldots, x_{t-1} \),

\[
\begin{align*}
p_t l_f(x_t, x) + \frac{\alpha_t \gamma \|x_t - x_{t-1}^+\|^2}{2(1 + \mu \gamma - L \alpha_t \gamma)} + \alpha_t \mathbb{E} \left[ \langle \delta_t, x_{t-1}^+ - x \rangle \right] \\
\leq p_t l_f(\bar{x}, \bar{x}) + \frac{L_0 \alpha_t}{1 + \mu \gamma - L \alpha_t \gamma} \mathbb{E} \left[ f(\bar{x}) - f(\bar{x}) \right] \\
\leq \left( p_t - \frac{L_0 \alpha_t}{1 + \mu \gamma - L \alpha_t \gamma} \right) l_f(x_t, x) + \frac{L_0 \alpha_t}{1 + \mu \gamma - L \alpha_t \gamma} f(\bar{x}) \\
\leq p_t f(\bar{x}).
\end{align*}
\]

Moreover, by the convexity of \( h \), we have \( h(\bar{x}_t) \leq (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) h(\bar{x}_{t-1}) + \alpha_t h(x_t) + p_t h(\bar{x}) \). Summing up the previous three conclusions we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}_t) \right] &\leq (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}_{t-1}) \right] + p_t \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}) \right] + \alpha_t \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x) \right] \\
&+ \frac{\alpha_t}{\gamma} \mathbb{E} \left[ V(x_{t-1}, x) - (1 + \mu \gamma) V(x_t, x) \right].
\end{align*}
\]

The result then follows by subtracting \( \Psi(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality.

Utilizing this result in Lemma 5.16, we will discuss the convergence properties of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method for solving smooth problems, smooth and strongly convex problems, and smooth problems satisfying a certain error bound condition in the following few subsections.
5.4 Variance-reduced accelerated gradient descent

5.4.1 Smooth problems without strong convexity

In this subsection, we consider the case when $f$ is not necessarily strongly convex, i.e., $\mu = 0$ in (5.3.2).

The following result shows possible decrease of functional values in each epoch of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method for solving smooth finite-sum convex optimization problems.

**Lemma 5.17.** Assume that for each epoch $s$, $s \geq 1$, $\alpha_s$, $\gamma_s$, $p_s$, and $T_s$ are chosen such that (5.4.7)-(5.4.8) hold. Also, let us set

$$
\theta_t = \begin{cases} 
\frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} (\alpha_s + p_s) & t = 1, \ldots, T_s - 1 \\
\frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} & t = T_s.
\end{cases}
$$

Moreover, let us denote

$$
L_s := \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} + (T_s - 1) \frac{\gamma_s (\alpha_s + p_s)}{\alpha_s},
$$

$$
\rho_s := \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} (1 - \alpha_s) + (T_s - 1) \frac{\gamma_s p_s}{\alpha_s},
$$

and assume that

$$
w_s := L_s - \rho_{s+1} \geq 0, \forall s \geq 1.
$$

Then we have

$$
\mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^t) - \Psi(x)] + (\sum_{j=1}^{t-1} w_j) \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x^j) - \Psi(x)] \\
\leq \rho_s \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x^0) - \Psi(x)] + V(x^0, x) - V(x^t, x),
$$

where

$$
x^t := (\sum_{j=1}^{t-1} w_j) \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} (w_j \tilde{x}^j),
$$

**Proof.** Using our assumptions on $\alpha_s$, $\gamma_s$ and $p_s$, the fact that $\mu = 0$, we have

$$
\frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_t^t) - \Psi(x)] \leq \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} (1 - \alpha_s - p_s) \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_{t-1}) - \Psi(x)] \\
+ \frac{\gamma_s p_s}{\alpha_s} \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x) - \Psi(x)] + V(x_{t-1}, x) - V(x_t, x).
$$

Summing up these inequalities for $t = 1, \ldots, T_s$, using the definition of $\theta_t$ in (5.4.12) and the fact that $\tilde{x}_0 = \tilde{x}$, and rearranging the terms, we have

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_t^t) - \Psi(x)] \leq \left[ \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} (1 - \alpha_s) + (T_s - 1) \frac{\gamma_s p_s}{\alpha_s} \right] \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x) - \Psi(x)] \\
+ V(x_0, x) - V(x_T, x).
$$

Now using the facts that $x_t^t = x_T$, $\tilde{x} = \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} (\theta_t, x_t)/\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t$, $\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{-1}$, and the convexity of $\Psi$, we have

$$
\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_t) - \Psi(x)] \leq \left[ \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} (1 - \alpha_s) + (T_s - 1) \frac{\gamma_s p_s}{\alpha_s} \right] \mathbb{E} [\Psi(x^{-1}) - \Psi(x)] \\
+ V(x^{t-1}, x) - V(x^t, x),
$$
which, in view of the fact that \( \sum_{t=1}^{T_t} \theta_t = \frac{\theta}{\alpha_s} + (T_s - 1) \frac{\theta(\alpha_s + p_s)}{\alpha_s} \), then implies that
\[
\mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^t) - \Psi(x)] \leq \mathcal{R}_s \mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^{t-1}) - \Psi(x)] + V(x^{t-1}, x) - V(x, x).
\]

Summing over the above relations, using the convexity of \( \Psi \) and rearranging the terms, we then obtain (5.4.15).

With the help of Lemma 5.17 we are now ready to establish the main convergence properties of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method for the case when \( \mu = 0 \) in (5.3.2).

**Theorem 5.8.** Assume that \( \theta_t \) are defined in (5.4.12) and the probabilities \( q_i \) are set to \( L_i / \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). Moreover, let us denote \( s_0 := [\log_2 m] + 1 \) and assume that
\[
T_s = \begin{cases} 2^{s-1}, & s \leq s_0, \\ T_0, & s > s_0, \end{cases} \quad \gamma_s = \frac{1}{\alpha_s}, \quad \text{and} \quad p_s = \frac{1}{2}, \quad (5.4.17)
\]
with
\[
\alpha_s = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & s \leq s_0, \\ \frac{2}{s-2s_0+4}, & s > s_0. \end{cases} \quad (5.4.18)
\]

Then for any \( x \in X \),
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\tilde{x}^t) - \Psi(x)] \leq \begin{cases} 2^{-(s+1)} D_0, & 1 \leq s \leq s_0, \\ \frac{8LD_0}{(s-s_0+2)(m+1)}, & s > s_0, \end{cases} \quad (5.4.19)
\]
where
\[
D_0 := 2[\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)] + 3LV(x^0, x^*). \quad (5.4.20)
\]

**Proof.** Note that by the definition of \( L_Q \) in (5.3.4) and the selection of \( q_i \), we have \( L_Q = L \). Observe that both conditions in (5.4.7) and (5.4.8) are satisfied since
\[
1 + \mu \gamma_s - L \alpha_s \gamma_s = 1 - L \alpha_s \gamma_s = \frac{2}{3}
\]
and
\[
p_s = \frac{L_0 \alpha_s \gamma_s}{1 + \mu \gamma_s - L \alpha_s \gamma_s} = p_s - \frac{1}{2} = 0.
\]

Next, letting \( \mathcal{L}_s \) and \( \mathcal{R}_s \) be defined in (5.4.13), we will show that \( \mathcal{L}_s \geq \mathcal{R}_{s+1} \) for any \( s \geq 1 \). Indeed, if \( 1 \leq s < s_0 \), we have \( \alpha_{s+1} = \alpha_s, \gamma_{s+1} = \gamma_s, T_{s+1} = 2T_s \), and hence
\[
w_s = \frac{\theta}{\alpha_s} [1 + (T_s - 1)(\alpha_s + p_s) - (1 - \alpha_s) - (2T_s - 1)p_s]
= \frac{\theta}{\alpha_s} [T_s(\alpha_s - p_s)] = 0.
\]

Moreover, if \( s \geq s_0 \), we have
\[ w = \mathcal{L}_s = \mathcal{R}_s + \mathcal{R}_{s+1} = \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} - \frac{\gamma_{s+1}}{\alpha_{s+1}} (1 - \alpha_{s+1}) + (T_{s_0} - 1) \left[ \frac{\gamma_s}{\alpha_s} + p_s - \frac{\gamma_{s+1}}{\alpha_{s+1}} p_{s+1} \right] \]

\[ = \frac{1}{12 \epsilon} + \frac{(T_{s_0} - 1)[2(s - s_0) + 1]}{24 \epsilon} \geq 0. \]

Using these observations in (5.4.15) iteratively, we then conclude that

\[ \mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi (\tilde{x}) - \Psi (x) \right] \leq \mathcal{R}_1 \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi (\tilde{x}) - \Psi (x) \right] + V(x^0, x) - V(x^0, x) \]

for any \( s \geq 1 \), where the last identity follows from the fact that \( \mathcal{R}_1 = \frac{1}{3 \epsilon} \). It can be easily seen that if \( s \leq s_0 \), \( \mathcal{L}_s = \frac{2^{s+1}}{3 \epsilon} \). In addition, if \( s \geq s_0 \), we have

\[ \mathcal{L}_s = \frac{1}{3 \epsilon} \left[ 1 + (T_{s_0} - 1) \left( \alpha_s + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right] \]

\[ = \frac{(s - s_0 + 4)(T_{s_0} - 1)}{6 \epsilon} + \frac{(s - s_0 + 4)^2(T_{s_0} + 1)}{24 \epsilon} \]

\[ \geq \frac{(s - s_0 + 4)^2(m + 1)}{24 \epsilon}. \]

The result then follows immediately by combining the previous three inequalities.

In view of Theorem 5.8, we can bound the total number of gradient computations of \( f_i \) as follows.

**Corollary 5.10.** The total number of gradient evaluation performed by the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method can be bounded by

\[ \bar{N} := \begin{cases} O \left\{ m \log \frac{D_0}{\epsilon} \right\}, & m \epsilon \geq D_0, \\ O \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{mD_0}{\epsilon} + m \log m} \right\}, & o.w. \end{cases} \]

where \( D_0 \) is defined in (5.4.20).

**Proof.** First let us consider the regime of lower accuracy and/or large number of components, i.e., when \( m \epsilon \geq D_0 \). In this case we need to run the algorithm for at most \( s_0 \) epochs because we can easily check that

\[ \frac{D_0}{2^{s_0} - 1} \leq \epsilon. \]

More precisely, the number of epochs can be bounded by

\[ S_i := \min \left\{ \left[ 1 + \log_2 \left( \frac{D_0}{\epsilon} \right) \right], s_0 \right\}. \]

Hence the total number of gradient evaluations can be bounded by

\[ mS_i + \sum_{i=1}^{S_i} T_i = mS_i + \sum_{i=1}^{S_i} 2^{s_i - 1} \leq mS_i + 2^{S_i} \]

\[ = O \left\{ \min \left\{ m \log \frac{D_0}{\epsilon}, m \log m \right\} \right\} = O \left\{ m \log \frac{D_0}{\epsilon} \right\}, \]

(5.4.23)
where the last identity follows from the assumption that $m\varepsilon \geq D_0$. Now let us consider the regime for high accuracy and/or smaller number of components, i.e., when $m\varepsilon < D_0$. In this case, we may need to run the algorithm for more than $s_0$ epochs. More precisely, the total number of epochs can be bounded by

$$S_h := \left\lceil \sqrt{\frac{16D_0}{(m+1)\varepsilon}} + s_0 - 4 \right\rceil.$$ 

Note that the total number of gradient evaluations needed for the first $s_0$ epochs can be bounded by $ms_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{s_0} T_s$ while the total number of gradient evaluations for the remaining epochs can be bounded by $(T_{s_0} + m)(S_h - s_0)$. As a consequence, the total number of gradient evaluations can be bounded by

$$ms_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{s_0} T_s + (T_{s_0} + m)(S_h - s_0) = \sum_{i=1}^{s_0} T_s + (T_{s_0} + m)S_h$$

$$= \mathcal{O}\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{mD_0}{\varepsilon}} + m\log m \right\}. \quad (5.4.24)$$

We now make a few observations regarding the results obtained in Corollary 5.10. Firstly, whenever the required accuracy $\varepsilon$ is low and/or the number of components $m$ is large, the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method can achieve a fast linear rate of convergence even if the objective function is not strongly convex. Otherwise, it exhibits an optimal sublinear rate of convergence with complexity bounded by $\mathcal{O}\{\sqrt{mD_0/\varepsilon} + m\log m\}$. Secondly, whenever $\sqrt{mD_0/\varepsilon}$ is dominating in the second case of (5.4.22), the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method can save up to $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m})$ gradient evaluations of the component function $f_i$ than the optimal deterministic first-order methods for solving (5.3.1).

### 5.4.2 Smooth and strongly convex problems

In this subsection we consider the case when $f$ is possibly strongly convex, including the situation when the problem is almost non-strongly convex, i.e., $\mu \approx 0$. Our goal is to provide a unified step-size policy which allows the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method to achieve an optimal rate of convergence for finite-sum optimization in (5.3.1) regardless of its strong convexity.

We first discuss how to specify the algorithmic parameters used in the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method. In fact, our selection of $\{T_s\}$, $\{\gamma_s\}$, and $\{p_s\}$ will be exactly the same as those in (5.4.17) for the smooth convex case, but with $\alpha_s$ given by

$$\alpha_s = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } s \leq s_0, \\ \max\left\{ \frac{2}{s-s_0+4}, \min\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{m\mu}{3L}}, \frac{1}{2} \right\} \right\}, & \text{if } s > s_0. \end{cases} \quad (5.4.25)$$
5.4 Variance-reduced accelerated gradient descent

Such a selection of $\alpha_t$ enables us to consider different classes of problems with different problem parameters such as $L/\mu$ and $m$. However, the selection of $\{\theta_t\}$, i.e., the weights to take the average of the iterates for each epoch, will be more complicated. Specifically, denoting $s_0 := \lfloor \log m \rfloor + 1$, we assume that the weights $\{\theta_t\}$ are set to (5.4.12) if $1 \leq s \leq s_0$ or $s_0 < s \leq s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{m T}{m \mu}} - 4$, $m < \frac{3 L}{4 \mu}$. Otherwise, we set them to

$$
\theta_t = \begin{cases} 
T_{t-1} - (1 - \alpha_t - p_t) T_t, & 1 \leq t \leq T_s - 1, \\
T_{t-1}, & t = T_s,
\end{cases} \tag{5.4.26}
$$

where $T_t = (1 + \mu \gamma)_t'$. The selection of these weights come from the convergence analysis of the algorithms as we will see later.

Below we consider four different cases and establish the convergence properties of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method in each case.

**Lemma 5.18.** If $s \leq s_0$, then for any $x \in X$,

$$
E[\psi(\tilde{x}^s) - \psi(x)] \leq 2^{-(s+1)} D_0, \quad 1 \leq s \leq s_0,
$$

where $D_0$ is defined in (5.4.20).

**Proof.** In this case, we have $\alpha_t = p_t = \frac{1}{2}$, $\gamma_t = \frac{2}{T_t}$, and $T_s = 2^{t-1}$. It then follows from (5.4.9) that

$$
\frac{p_t}{\alpha_t} E[\psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \psi(x)] + (1 + \mu \gamma_t) E[V(x_t, x)] \leq \frac{p_t}{\alpha_t} E[\psi(\tilde{x}) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x_{t-1}, x)].
$$

Summing up the above relation from $t = 1$ to $T_s$, we have

$$
\frac{p_t}{\alpha_t} \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} E[\psi(\tilde{x}_t) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x_{t-1}, x)] + \mu \gamma \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} E[V(x_t, x)]
\leq \frac{p_t}{\alpha_t} E[\psi(\tilde{x}) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x_0, x)].
$$

Note that in this case $\theta_t$ are chosen as in (5.4.12), i.e., $\theta_t = \frac{p_t}{\alpha_t}$, $t = 1, \ldots, T_s$ in the definition of $\tilde{x}^t$, we then have

$$
\frac{4 T_s}{\mu} E[\psi(\tilde{x}^0) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x^{t-1}, x)] \leq \frac{4 T_s}{\mu} E[\psi(\tilde{x}^{t-1}) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x^{t-1}, x)]
= \frac{4 T_s}{\mu} E[\psi(\tilde{x}^{t-1}) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x^{t-1}, x)],
$$

where we use the facts that $\tilde{x} = \tilde{x}^{t-1}$, $x_0 = x^{t-1}$, and $x^t = x_T$ in the epoch $s$ and the parameter settings in (5.4.17). Applying this inequality recursively, we then have

$$
\frac{4 T_s}{\mu} E[\psi(\tilde{x}^0) - \psi(x)] + E[V(x^{s-1}, x)] \leq \frac{2}{\mu} E[\psi(\tilde{x}^0) - \psi(x)] + V(x^0, x)
= \frac{2}{\mu} E[\psi(x^0) - \psi(x)] + V(x^0, x). \tag{5.4.27}
$$

By plugging $T_s = 2^{s-1}$ into the above inequality, we obtain the result.  

\[\blacksquare\]
Lemma 5.19. If $s \geq s_0$ and $m \geq \frac{M}{4}$,
\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^s) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \left(\frac{4}{5}\right)^s D_0,
\]
where $x^*$ is an optimal solution of (5.3.1).

Proof. In this case, we have $\alpha_0 = \rho_s = \frac{1}{2}$, $\gamma_s = \gamma = \frac{2}{\pi}$, and $T_s \equiv T_{s_0} = 2^{s_0-1}, s \geq s_0$. It then follows from (5.4.9) that
\[
\frac{4}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}_t) - \psi(x)] + (1 + \frac{2u}{M}) \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)] \leq \frac{2}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)].
\]
Multiplying both sides of the above inequality by $T_{s-1} = (1 + \frac{2u}{M})^{t-1}$, we obtain
\[
\frac{4}{5} \frac{T_{s-1} T_{s_0}}{T_{s-1}} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}_t) - \psi(x)] + T_{s_1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)] \leq \frac{2}{5} \frac{1}{T_{s-1}} \frac{1}{T_{s_0}} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}) - \psi(x)] + \frac{T_{s_1}}{T_{s_0}} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)], s \geq s_0.
\]
Note that $\theta_t$ are chosen as in (5.4.26) when $s \geq s_0$, i.e., $\theta_t = T_{s-1} = (1 + \frac{2u}{M})^{t-1}, t = 1, \ldots, T_s, s \geq s_0$. Summing up the above inequality for $t = 1, \ldots, T_s$ we have
\[
\frac{4}{5} \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}_t) - \psi(x)] + T_{s_1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)] \leq \frac{2}{5} \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}) - \psi(x)] + \frac{T_{s_1}}{T_{s_0}} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x)], s \geq s_0.
\]
Observe that for $s \geq s_0$, $m \geq T_s \equiv T_{s_0} = 2^\lceil \log_2 m \rceil \geq m/2$, and hence that
\[
\mathcal{F}_T = (1 + \frac{2u}{M})^T = (1 + \frac{2u}{M})^{T_{s_0}} \geq 1 + \frac{2u T_{s_0}}{M} \geq 1 + \frac{T_{s_0}}{2m} \geq \frac{5}{4}, \forall s \geq s_0,
\]
and using the facts that $\bar{x}^t = \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} (\theta_t \bar{x}_t) / \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t, \bar{x} = \bar{x}^{s-1}, x_0 = x^{s-1}$, and $x_{T_s} = x^s$ in the $s$ epoch, and $\psi(\bar{x}^s) - \psi(x^*) \geq 0$, we conclude from the above inequalities that
\[
\frac{5}{4} \left\{ \frac{2}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^s) - \psi(x^*)] + (\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^s)] \right\} \leq \frac{2}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^{s-1}) - \psi(x^s)] + (\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{s-1})], s \geq s_0.
\]
Applying this relation recursively for $s \geq s_0$, we then obtain
\[
\frac{2}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^s) - \psi(x^*)] + (\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^s)] \leq (\frac{4}{5})^{s-s_0} \left\{ \frac{2}{5} \mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^{s_0}) - \psi(x^{s_0})] + (\sum_{t=1}^{T_{s_0}} \theta_t)^{-1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{s_0})] \right\} \leq (\frac{4}{5})^{s-s_0} \frac{T_{s_0}}{T_{s_0}} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{s_0})],
\]
where the last inequality follows from $\sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \geq T_s = T_{s_0}$. Plugging (5.4.27) into the above inequality, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(\bar{x}^s) - \psi(x^*)] \leq (\frac{4}{5})^{s-s_0} \frac{D_{s_0}}{T_{s_0}} = (\frac{4}{5})^{s-s_0} \frac{D_{s_0}}{2^{s_0}} \leq (\frac{4}{5})^{s} D_0, s \geq s_0.
\]
Lemma 5.20. If \( s_0 < s \leq s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{3L}{m\mu}} - 4 \) and \( m < \frac{3L}{4\mu} \), then for any \( x \in X \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] \leq \frac{16\mu_0}{(s-s_0+4)^2\gamma}. 
\]

**Proof.** In this case, \( \frac{1}{T} \leq \frac{2}{s-s_0+4} \leq \frac{m\mu}{\sqrt{\mu}} \). Therefore, we set \( \theta_t \) as in (5.4.12), \( \alpha_t = \frac{2}{s-s_0+4}, p_s = \frac{1}{2}, \gamma_t = \frac{1}{s-s_0+4}, \) and \( T_s = T_0 \). Observe that the parameter setting in this case is the same as the smooth case in Theorem 5.8. Hence, by following the same procedure as in the proof of Theorem 5.8, we can obtain

\[
\mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^*,x)] \leq \mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^*,x)] 
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( \mathcal{L}_s \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^*,x)] \leq \mathcal{L}_s (s-s_0+4)^2\gamma \). The result then follows by noting that \( \mathcal{L}_s \geq \frac{(s-s_0+4)^2\gamma}{4s} \) (see (5.4.21)). \( \blacksquare \)

**Lemma 5.21.** If \( s > s_0 := s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{3L}{m\mu}} - 4 \) and \( m < \frac{3L}{4\mu} \), then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] \leq \left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{3m\mu}} \right) \frac{m(s-s_0)}{2} \frac{d_0}{3L/4\mu}, 
\]

where \( x^* \) is an optimal solution of (5.3.1).

**Proof.** In this case, \( \frac{1}{T} \geq \frac{m\mu}{\sqrt{\mu}}, p_s = \frac{1}{2}, \gamma_s = \frac{1}{s-s_0+4} \). Therefore, we use constant step-size policy that \( \alpha_t = \frac{\mu}{s-s_0+4}, p_s = \frac{1}{2}, \gamma_s = \frac{1}{s-s_0+4} \), and \( T_s = T_0 \). Also note that in this case \( \theta_t \) are chosen as in (5.4.26). Multiplying both sides of (5.4.9) by \( T_{t-1} = (1 + \mu \gamma_t)^{-1} \), we obtain

\[
\frac{\mu}{\alpha_t} T_{t-1} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x_t) - \psi(x)] + T_{t-1} \mathbb{E}[V(x_t,x)] \leq \frac{T_{t-1} \gamma_t}{\alpha_t} (1 - \alpha_t - p_s) \mathbb{E}[\psi(x_t) - \psi(x)] 
\]

Summing up the above inequality from \( t = 1, \ldots, T_s \) and using the fact that \( x_0 = \bar{x} \), we arrive at

\[
\frac{\mu}{\alpha_t} \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\psi(x_t) - \psi(x)] + T_{t-1} \mathbb{E}[V(x_t,x)] 
\]

Now using the facts that \( x^* = x_{T_s}, x_0 = x_{s-1}, \bar{x} = \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} (\theta_t x_t) / \sum_{t=1}^{T_s} \theta_t, \bar{x} = \bar{x}_t, T_s = T_0 \), and the convexity of \( \psi \), we obtain
According to the parameter settings in this case, i.e., applying the above relation recursively for $\psi\sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \theta_t \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^t) - \psi(x)] + \Gamma_{T_f_0} \mathbb{E}[V(x^t, x)]$

$$\leq \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{t-1}) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^{t-1}, x)] \tag{5.4.31}$$

for any $s > s_0$. Moreover, we have

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \theta_t = \Gamma_{T_f_0-1} + \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0-1} (\Gamma_{t-1} - (1 - \alpha_s - p_s)\Gamma_t)$$
$$= \Gamma_{T_f_0} (1 - \alpha_s - p_s) + \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} (\Gamma_{t-1} - (1 - \alpha_s - p_s)\Gamma_t)$$
$$= \Gamma_{T_f_0} (1 - \alpha_s - p_s) + (1 - (1 - \alpha_s - p_s)(1 + \mu \gamma))\sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1}.$$

Observe that for any $T > 1$ and $0 \leq \delta T \leq 1$, $(1 + \delta)^T \leq 1 + 2T \delta$, $\alpha_s = \sqrt{\frac{m \mu}{2L}}$, and hence that

$$1 - (1 - \alpha_s - p_s)(1 + \mu \gamma) \geq (1 + \mu \gamma)(\alpha_s - \mu \gamma + p_s)$$
$$\geq (1 + \mu \gamma)(T_{s_0} \mu \gamma - \mu \gamma + p_s)$$
$$= p_s(1 + \mu \gamma)[2(T_{s_0} - 1) \mu \gamma + 1]$$
$$\geq p_s(1 + \mu \gamma)T_{s_0} = p_s \Gamma_{T_{s_0}}.$$

Then we conclude that $\sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \theta_t \geq \Gamma_{T_{s_0}} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1} \right]$. Together with (5.4.31) and the fact that $\psi(x^t) - \psi(x^*) \geq 0$, we have

$$\Gamma_{T_{s_0}} \left\{ \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^t) - \psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^t, x^*)] \right\}$$
$$\leq \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{t-1}) - \psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^{t-1}, x^*)].$$

Applying the above relation recursively for $s > s_0 = s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{12L}{m \mu}} - 4$, and also noting that $\Gamma_t = (1 + \mu \gamma)^t$ and the constant step-size policy in this case, we obtain

$$\frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_f_0} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^t) - \psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^t, x^*)]$$

$$(1 + \mu \gamma)^{-T_{s_0}}(x-s_0) \left\{ \frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_{s_0}} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \right\} \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^{s_0}) - \psi(x^*)] + \mathbb{E}[V(x^{s_0}, x^*)]].$$

According to the parameter settings in this case, i.e., $\alpha_s \equiv \sqrt{\frac{m \mu}{2L}}$, $p_s \equiv \frac{1}{2}$, $\gamma \equiv \frac{1}{2\mu \alpha_s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3m \mu \alpha_s}}$, and $s_0 = s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{12L}{m \mu}} - 4$, we have

$$\frac{\gamma}{\alpha_s} \left[ 1 - \alpha_s - p_s + p_s \sum_{t=1}^{T_{s_0}} \Gamma_{t-1} \right] \geq \frac{\gamma p_s T_{s_0}}{\alpha_s} \frac{T_{s_0}}{2m \mu}.$$
\[ \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] \leq (1 + \mu \gamma) - T_0(\delta - \delta_0) \left[ \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^0) - \psi(x)] + \frac{24L}{(\delta - \delta_0 + 4)^2} T_0 \mathbb{E}[V(x^0, x)] \right] \]
\[ \leq (1 + \mu \gamma) - T_0(\delta - \delta_0) \frac{24L}{(\delta - \delta_0 + 4)^2} D_0 \frac{D_0}{m} \]
\[ \leq (1 + \mu \gamma) - T_0(\delta - \delta_0) \frac{16D_0}{(\delta - \delta_0 + 4)^2 m} \]
\[ = (1 + \mu \gamma) - T_0(\delta - \delta_0) \frac{D_0}{mL/4 \mu}, \]

where the second inequality follows from the fact that \( \mathcal{L}_{T_0} \geq \frac{(\delta - \delta_0 + 4)^2 T_0}{24L} \) due to (5.4.21), the third inequality follows from (5.4.29) in Case 3, and last inequality follows from \( T_0 = 2^{\lceil \log_2 m \rceil} \geq m/2. \)

Putting the above four technical results together, we obtain the following main result of this subsection.

**Theorem 5.9.** Suppose that the probabilities \( q_i \)'s are set to \( L_i / \sum_{i=1}^m L_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). Moreover, let us denote \( s_0 := \lfloor \log m \rfloor + 1 \) and assume that the weights \( \{ \theta_i \} \) are set to (5.4.12) if \( 1 \leq s \leq s_0 \) or \( s_0 < s \leq s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{12L}{m\mu}} - 4, \) \( m < \frac{3L}{4 \mu} \). Otherwise, they are set to (5.4.26). If the parameters \( \{ T_s \}, \{ \gamma'_s \} \) and \( \{ p_s \} \) set to (5.4.17) with \( \{ \alpha_s \} \) given by (5.4.25), then we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^*) - \psi(x)] \leq \begin{cases} 
2^{-(s+1)} D_0, & 1 \leq s \leq s_0, \\
\left( \frac{4}{5} \right)^s D_0, & s > s_0 \text{ and } m \geq \frac{3L}{4 \mu}, \\
\frac{16D_0}{(s - \delta_0 + 4)^2 m}, & s_0 < s \leq s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{12L}{m\mu}} - 4 \\
(1 + \sqrt{\frac{m}{3mL}}) \frac{-m(s - \delta_0)}{2} \frac{D_0}{mL/4 \mu}, & s_0 + \sqrt{\frac{12L}{m\mu}} - 4 = \delta_0 < s \\
& \text{and } m < \frac{3L}{4 \mu}, \\
\end{cases} \]

(5.4.32)

where \( x^* \) is an optimal solution of (5.3.1) and \( D_0 \) is defined as in (5.4.20).

We are now ready to derive the complexity bound in terms of the total number of gradient evaluations.

**Corollary 5.11.** The total number of gradient evaluations of \( f_i \) performed by Algorithm 5.7 to find a stochastic \( \epsilon \)-solution of (2.0.1) can be bounded by

\[ \bar{N} := \begin{cases} 
\Theta \left\{ \frac{m \log \frac{D_0}{\epsilon}}{4} \right\}, & m \geq \frac{D_0}{\epsilon} \text{ or } m \geq \frac{3L}{4 \mu}, \\
\Theta \left\{ \frac{m \log m + \sqrt{mD_0}}{3 \epsilon} \right\}, & m < \frac{D_0}{\epsilon} \leq \frac{3L}{4 \mu}, \\
\Theta \left\{ \frac{m \log m + \log \frac{D_0}{\epsilon}}{3L/4 \mu} \right\}, & m < \frac{3L}{4 \mu} \leq \frac{D_0}{\epsilon}, \\
\end{cases} \]

(5.4.33)

where \( D_0 \) is defined as in (5.4.20).
Proof. Firstly, it is clear that the first case and the third case correspond to the results of the smooth case discussed in Corollary 5.10. As a consequence, the total number of gradient evaluations can also be bounded by (5.4.23) and (5.4.24), respectively. Secondly, for the second case of (5.4.32), it is easy to check that the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method needs to run at most \( S = \mathcal{O}\left\{ \log \frac{D_0}{\varepsilon} \right\} \) epochs, and hence the total number of gradient evaluations can be bounded by

\[
mS + \sum_{s=1}^{S} T_s \leq 2mS = \mathcal{O}\left\{ m \log \frac{D_0}{\varepsilon} \right\}. \quad (5.4.34)
\]

Finally, for the last case of (5.4.32), since the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method only needs to run at most \( S' = \bar{s}_0 + 2\sqrt{\frac{3L}{m\mu}} \log \frac{D_0/\varepsilon}{3L/4\mu} \) epochs, the total number of gradient evaluations can be bounded by

\[
\sum_{s=1}^{S'} (m + T_s) = \sum_{s=1}^{\bar{s}_0} (m + T_s) + \sum_{s=\bar{s}_0+1}^S (m + T_s) + (m + T_{\bar{s}_0})(S' - \bar{s}_0)
\leq 2m\log m + 2m\left( \sqrt{\frac{3L}{m\mu}} - 4 \right) + 4m\sqrt{\frac{3L}{m\mu}} \log \frac{D_0/\varepsilon}{3L/4\mu}
= \mathcal{O}\left\{ m \log m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{\mu}} \log \frac{D_0/\varepsilon}{3L/4\mu} \right\}.
\]

Observe that the complexity bound (5.4.33) is a unified convergence result for the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method to solve deterministic smooth finite-sum optimization problems (2.0.1). When the strongly convex modulus \( \mu \) of the objective function is large enough, i.e., \( 3L/\mu < D_0/\varepsilon \), the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method exhibits an optimal linear rate of convergence as can be seen from the third case of (5.4.33). If \( \mu \) is relatively small, this algorithm treats the finite-sum problem (5.3.1) as a smooth problem without strongly convexity, which leads to the same complexity bounds as in Corollary 5.10.

5.4.3 Problems satisfying an error-bound condition

In this subsection, we establish the convergence properties of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method to solve some more general classes of finite-sum optimization problems. In particular, we investigate a class of weakly strongly convex problems, i.e., the objective function \( \phi(x) \) satisfies the error bound condition given by

\[
V(x,X^*) \leq \frac{1}{\mu}(\psi(x) - \psi^*), \quad \forall x \in X,
\]

where \( X^* \) denotes the set of optimal solutions of (5.3.1). Many optimization problems satisfy the above error bound condition, including linear systems, quadratic programs, linear matrix inequalities, and composite problems with strongly convex outer function and polyhedral inner functions. Even
though these problems are not strongly convex, by properly restarting the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method we can solve them with an accelerated linear rate of convergence as shown in the following result.

**Theorem 5.10.** Assume that the probabilities \( q_i \)’s are set to \( L_i / \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), and \( \Theta_i \) are defined as (5.4.12). Moreover, let us set parameters \( \{ \gamma_i \}, \{ p_i \} \) and \( \{ \alpha_i \} \) as in (5.4.17) and (5.4.18) with

\[
T_s = \begin{cases} T_1 2^{s-1}, & s \leq s_0, \\ T_{s_0}, & s > s_0, \end{cases}
\]

(5.4.36)

where \( s_0 = 4, s = s_0 + 4 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu m}} \) and \( T_1 = \min \{ m, \frac{L}{\mu} \} \). Then under (5.4.35), for any \( x^* \in X^* \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{s}{4T} \left[ \psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*) \right].
\]

(5.4.37)

Moreover, if we restart Algorithm 5.7 \( k = \log \frac{\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)}{\epsilon} \) times and each time has \( s \) iterations, then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon_k) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \left( \frac{s}{4T} \right)^k \left[ \psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*) \right] \leq \epsilon,
\]

and the total number of gradient evaluations of \( f_i \) to find a stochastic \( \epsilon \)-solution of (2.0.1) can be bounded by

\[
\tilde{N} := k(\sum_i (m + T_s)) = O(m + \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu m}}) \log \frac{\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)}{\epsilon}.
\]

(5.4.38)

**Proof.** Similar to the smooth case, according to (5.4.15), for any \( x \in X \), we have

\[
\mathcal{L}_S \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon) - \psi(x)] \leq \mathcal{B}_i \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon) - \psi(x)] + \mathbb{E}[\psi(x) - \psi(x^*)] + V(x^\epsilon, x) \leq \mathcal{B}_i [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x)] + V(x^0, x).
\]

Then we use \( x^* \) to replace \( x \) and use the relation of (5.4.35) to obtain

\[
\mathcal{L}_S \mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \mathcal{B}_i [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)] + \frac{1}{n} [\psi(x) - \psi(x^*)].
\]

Now, we compute \( \mathcal{L}_S \) and \( \mathcal{B}_i \). According to (5.4.21), we have \( \mathcal{L}_S \geq \frac{(x-x_0+4)^2 T_{s_0} + 1}{24L} \). We have \( \mathcal{B}_i = \frac{T_i}{2L} \) by plugging the parameters \( \gamma_i, p_i, \alpha_i \) and \( T_i \) into (5.4.13). Thus, we prove (5.4.37) as follows (recall that \( s_0 = 4 \) and \( s = s_0 + 4 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu m}} \)):

\[
\mathbb{E}[\psi(x^\epsilon) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{16T_i + 24L/\mu}{(x-x_0+4)^2 T_{s_0} + 1} [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{16 + 24L/\mu T_i}{(x-x_0+4)^2 T_{s_0} + 1} [\psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*)]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{s}{4T} \left[ \psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*) \right]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{s}{4T} \left[ \psi(x^0) - \psi(x^*) \right],
\]
where the last inequality follows from $T_1 = \min\{m, \frac{L}{\mu}\}$. Finally, we plug $k = \log \frac{\psi(x_0) - \psi(x^*)}{\epsilon}$, $s_0 = 4, s = s_0 + 4 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu m}}$ and $T_1 = \min\{m, \frac{L}{\mu}\}$ to prove (5.4.38):

$$\tilde{N} := k(\sum_s (m + T_s)) \leq k(ms + T_1 2^{s_0}(s - s_0 + 1)) = O(m + \sqrt{\frac{mL}{\mu}}) log \frac{\psi(x_0) - \psi(x^*)}{\epsilon}. $$

\[\square\]

5.5 Exercises and notes

1. Figure out one way to use the function values $f_i$ and its gradients $\nabla f_i$, rather than the conjugate functions $J_i$, in the analysis of the primal-dual gradient method.

2. It is possible to specialize the mirror-prox method for solving the saddle point problem in (5.2.14). Please state this algorithm in a way such so that only gradient computation rather than dual prox-mapping is involved.

3. Consider the finite-sum problem in (5.3.1). Also assume that (5.3.2) holds with $\mu > 0$. Show the rate of convergence of the following variance-reduced gradient method applied to solve this problem. Given the value of $x_{k-1}$ and of each $f'_i(\phi_{k-1}^i)$ at the end of iteration $k - 1$, the updates for iteration $k$ is as follows:

a. Pick a $j$ uniformly at random.

b. Take $\phi_{kj}^k = x_{k-1}$, and store $f'_j(\phi_{kj}^k)$ in the table. All other entries in the table remain unchanged. The quantity $\phi_{kj}^k$ is not explicitly stored.

c. Update $x$ using $f'_j(\phi_{kj}^k)$, $f'_j(\phi_{j-1}^k)$ and the table average:

$$w^k = x_{k-1} - \gamma \left[f'_j(\phi_{kj}^k) - f'_j(\phi_{j-1}^k) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f'_i(\phi_{ki}^{k-1})\right], \quad (5.5.39)$$

$$x^k = \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{\gamma \langle w^k, x \rangle + h(x) \right\} + V(x_t, x). \quad (5.5.40)$$

4. Try to establish the convergence of the variance-reduced mirror descent for solving stochastic finite-sum problems in (5.2.5).

5. Try to establish the convergence of the variance-reduced accelerated gradient method for solving stochastic finite-sum problems in (5.2.5).

Notes. The randomized primal-dual gradient (RPDG) method was first presented by Lan and Zhou [62] in 2015. They also established a lower complexity bound for solving a class of finite-sum optimization problems. The gradient extrapolation methods for stochastic and distributed optimization was first presented by Lan and Zhou in [60]. RPDG and the catalyst scheme by Lin et al. [67] are the first two incremental gradient methods that can achieve the lower complexity bound in [62]. Allen-zhu [2] presented the Katyusha method which combines a special class of accelerated SGD with variance reduction technique. Lan et. al. [61] introduced a new variance-reduced accelerated gradient method called Varag, which is uniformly
optimal for convex and strongly convex problems, as well as problems satisfying an error-bound condition. Our introduction to variance-reduced accelerated gradient method follows [61]. Earlier important progresses on random incremental gradient method were made in [12, 99, 46, 24] among many others. In particular, Schimidt et al. [99] presented a stochastic average gradient (SAG) method, which uses randomized sampling of $f_i$ to update the gradients, and can achieve a linear rate of convergence, i.e., an $\mathcal{O}\left\{m + (mL/\mu) \log(1/\varepsilon)\right\}$ complexity bound, to solve unconstrained finite-sum problems (5.2.1). Johnson and Zhang later in [46] presented a stochastic variance reduced gradient (SVRG) method, which computes an estimator of $\nabla f$ by iteratively updating the gradient of one randomly selected $f_i$ of the current exact gradient information and re-evaluating the exact gradient from time to time. [109] later extended SVRG to solve proximal finite-sum problems (5.2.1). All these methods exhibit an $\mathcal{O}\left\{(m + L/\mu) \log(1/\varepsilon)\right\}$ complexity bound, and [24] also presented an improved SAG method, called SAGA, that can achieve such a complexity result. Related stochastic dual methods (e.g., [101, 100, 110]) may involve the solution of a more complicated subproblem. In spite of these developments, variance reduction was not incorporated into the more general mirror descent method until Section 5.3 of this monograph to the best of our knowledge.
Chapter 6
Nonconvex Stochastic Optimization

In the last few chapters, we have discussed a few stochastic gradient descent type methods and established their convergence rates for solving different convex optimization problems. Note however that convexity has played an important role in our analysis. In this chapter, we focus on stochastic optimization problems which are not necessarily convex. We first introduce some new stochastic optimization algorithms, including the randomized stochastic gradient and stochastic accelerated gradient descent methods, for solving these nonconvex problems. We establish the complexity of these methods for computing an approximate stationary point of a nonlinear programming problem. We will also discuss variants of these methods for solving a class of simulation-based optimization problems in which only stochastic zeroth-order information is available. In addition, we study indirect acceleration schemes through proximal point methods for solving nonconvex finite-sum and multi-block problems without or with linearly coupled constraints.

6.1 Unconstrained nonconvex stochastic optimization

In this section, we study the classical unconstrained nonlinear programming (NLP) problem given in the form of

$$f^* := \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x),$$

(6.1.1)

where $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a differentiable (not necessarily convex), bounded from below, and its gradient $\nabla f(\cdot)$ satisfies

$$\|\nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq L\|y - x\|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

We say that $f \in C^{1,1}_L(\mathbb{R}^n)$ if it is differentiable and the above assumption is satisfied. Clearly, we have
If, in addition, $f(\cdot)$ is convex, then
\[
\langle \nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle \geq \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x) \|^2,
\]
and
\[
\langle \nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle \geq \frac{1}{L} \| \nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x) \|^2,
\]
\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.

Assumption 13 For any $k \geq 1$, we have
\[
a) \quad \mathbb{E}[G(x_k, \xi_k)] = \nabla f(x_k),
\]
\[
b) \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \| G(x_k, \xi_k) - \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] \leq \sigma^2,
\]
for some parameter $\sigma \geq 0$.

Observe that, by (6.1.5), $G(x_k, \xi_k)$ is an unbiased estimator of $\nabla f(x_k)$ and, by (6.1.6), the variance of the random variable $\| G(x_k, \xi_k) - \nabla f(x_k) \|$ is bounded. It is worth noting that in the standard setting for SP, the random vectors $\xi_k, k \geq 1$, are independent of each other (and also of $x_k$). Our assumption here is slightly weaker since we do not need to assume $\xi_k, k = 1, 2, \ldots$, to be independent.

Our study on the aforementioned SP problems has been motivated by a few interesting applications which are briefly outlined as follows.

- In many machine learning problems, we intend to minimize a regularized loss function $f(\cdot)$ given by
\[
f(x) = \int_{\Xi} L(x, \xi)dP(\xi) + r(x),
\]
where either the loss function $L(x, \xi)$ or the regularization $r(x)$ is nonconvex.

- Another important class of problems originate from the so-called endogenous uncertainty in SP. More specifically, the objective functions for these SP problems are given in the form of
\[
f(x) = \int_{\Xi(x)} F(x, \xi)dP_\xi(\xi),
\]
where the support $\mathcal{E}(x)$ and the distribution function $P_\xi$ of the random vector $\xi$ depend on $x$. The function $f$ in (6.1.8) is usually nonconvex even if $F(x, \xi)$ is convex with respect to $x$. For example, if the support $\mathcal{E}$ does not depend on $x$, it is often possible to represent $dP_\xi = H(x)dP$ for some fixed distribution $P$. Typically this transformation results in a nonconvex integrand function. Other techniques have also been developed to compute unbiased estimators for the gradient of $f(\cdot)$ in (6.1.8).

- Finally, in simulation-based optimization, the objective function is given by $f(x) = \mathbb{E}_\xi[F(x, \xi)]$, where $F(\cdot, \xi)$ is not given explicitly, but through a black-box simulation procedure. Therefore, we do not know if the function $f$ is convex or not. Moreover, in these cases, we usually only have access to stochastic zeroth-order information about the function values of $f(\cdot)$ rather than its gradients.

The complexity of the gradient descent method for solving problem (6.1.1) has been well-understood under the deterministic setting (i.e., $\sigma = 0$ in (6.1.6)). In particular, it is well-known that after running the method for at most $N = \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)$ steps, we have $\min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2 \leq \epsilon$. Note, however, such an analysis is not applicable to the stochastic setting (i.e., $\sigma > 0$ in (6.1.6)). Moreover, even if we have $\min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2 \leq \epsilon$, to find the best solution from $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$ is still difficult since $\|\nabla f(x_k)\|$ is not known exactly. This section proceeds as follows. Firstly, to solve the aforementioned nonconvex SP problem, we present a randomized stochastic gradient descent (RSGD) method by introducing the following modifications to the classical stochastic gradient descent. Instead of taking average of the iterates as in the stochastic mirror descent for convex SP, we randomly select a solution $\bar{x}$ from $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$ according to a certain probability distribution as the output. We show that such a solution satisfies $\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(\bar{x})\|^2] \leq \epsilon$ after running the method for at most $N = \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^2)$ iterations. Moreover, if $f(\cdot)$ is convex, we show that the relation $\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}) - f^*] \leq \epsilon$ always holds. We demonstrate that such a complexity result is nearly optimal for solving convex SP problems (see the discussions after Corollary 6.1). It should not be too surprising to see that the complexity for the stochastic case is much worse than that for the deterministic case. For example, in the convex case, it is known from the previous chapter that the complexity for finding an solution $\bar{x}$ satisfying $f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \epsilon$ will be substantially increased from $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$ to $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^2)$ as one moves from the deterministic to stochastic setting.

Secondly, in order to improve the large deviation properties and hence the reliability of the RSGD method, we present a two-phase randomized stochastic gradient descent (2-RSGD) method by introducing a post-optimization phase to evaluate a short list of solutions generated by several independent runs of the RSGD method. We show that the complexity of the 2-RSGD method for computing an $(\epsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (6.1.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x}$ such that $\text{Prob}\{\|\nabla f(\bar{x})\|^2 \leq \epsilon\} \geq 1 - \Lambda$ for some $\epsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$, can be bounded by

$$\mathcal{O}\left\{\frac{\log(1/\alpha)}{\epsilon} \left[\frac{1}{\epsilon} + \frac{\log(1/\alpha)}{\Lambda}\right]\right\}.$$  

We further show that, under certain light-tail assumption about the SFO, the above complexity bound can be reduced to
Thirdly, we specialize the RSGD method for the case where only stochastic zeroth-order information is available. There exists a somewhat long history for the development of zeroth-order (or derivative-free) methods in nonlinear programming. However, only few complexity results are available for these types of methods, mostly for convex programming and deterministic nonconvex programming problems. By incorporating a Gaussian smoothing technique into the aforementioned RSGD method, we present a randomized stochastic gradient free (RSGF) method for solving a class of simulation-based optimization problems and demonstrate that its iteration complexity for finding the aforementioned $\varepsilon$-solution (i.e., $E[\|\nabla f(\bar{x})\|^2] \leq \varepsilon$) can be bounded by $O(n/\varepsilon^2)$. Moreover, the same RSGF algorithm possesses an $O(n/\varepsilon^2)$ complexity bound, in terms of $E[f(\bar{x}) - f^*_\varepsilon] \leq \varepsilon$, for solving smooth convex SP problems.

6.1.1 Stochastic first-order methods

Our goal in this section is to present and analyze a new class of SGD algorithms for solving general smooth nonlinear (possibly nonconvex) SP problems. More specifically, we present the RSGD method and establish its convergence properties in Subsection 6.1.1.1, and then introduce the 2-RSGD method which can significantly improve the large-deviation properties of the RSGD method in Subsection 6.1.1.2.

We assume throughout this section that Assumption 13 holds. In some cases, Assumption 13 is augmented by the following “light-tail” assumption.

**Assumption 14** For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $k \geq 1$, we have

$$E\left[\exp\left\{\frac{\|G(x, \xi_k) - \nabla f(x)\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right\}\right] \leq \exp\{1\}.$$ (6.1.9)

It can be easily seen that Assumption 14 implies Assumption 13.b) by Jensen’s inequality.

6.1.1.1 The randomized stochastic gradient method

The convergence of existing SGD methods requires $f(\cdot)$ to be convex. Moreover, in order to guarantee the convexity of $f(\cdot)$, one often need to assume that the random variables $\xi_k$, $k \geq 1$, to be independent of the search sequence $\{x_k\}$. Below we present a new SGD-type algorithm that can deal with both convex and nonconvex SP problems, and allow random noises to be dependent on the search sequence. This algorithm is obtained by incorporating a certain randomization scheme into the classical SGD method.

A randomized stochastic gradient (RSGD) method
6.1 Unconstrained nonconvex stochastic optimization

Input: Initial point $x_1$, iteration limit $N$, stepsizes $\{\gamma_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ and probability mass function $P_R(\cdot)$ supported on $\{1, \ldots, N\}$.

Step 0. Let $R$ be a random variable with probability mass function $P_R$.

Step $k = 1, \ldots, R$. Call the stochastic first-order oracle for computing $G(x_k, \xi_k)$ and set

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma_k G(x_k, \xi_k).$$

Output $x_R$.

A few remarks about the above RSGD method are in order. Firstly, in comparison with the classical SGD, we have used a random iteration count, $R$, to terminate the execution of the RSGD algorithm. Equivalently, one can view such a randomization scheme from a slightly different perspective described as follows. Instead of terminating the algorithm at the $R$-th step, one can also run the RSGD algorithm for $N$ iterations but randomly choose a search point $x_R$ (according to $P_R$) from its trajectory as the output of the algorithm. Clearly, using the latter scheme, we just need to run the algorithm for the first $R$ iterations and the remaining $N - R$ iterations are surpluses. Note however, that the primary goal to introduce the random iteration count $R$ is to derive new complexity results for nonconvex SP, rather than save the computational efforts in the last $N - R$ iterations of the algorithm. Indeed, if $R$ is uniformly distributed, the computational gain from such a randomization scheme is simply a factor of 2. Secondly, the RSGD algorithm described above is conceptual only because we have not specified the selection of the stepsizes $\{\gamma_k\}$ and the probability mass function $P_R$ yet. We will address this issue after establishing some basic convergence properties of the RSGD method.

The following result describes some convergence properties of the RSGD method.

**Theorem 6.1.** Suppose that the stepsizes $\{\gamma_k\}$ and the probability mass function $P_R(\cdot)$ in the RSGD method are chosen such that $\gamma_k < 2/L$ and

$$P_R(k) := \text{Prob}\{R = k\} = \frac{2\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (2\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2)}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N. \tag{6.1.11}$$

Then, under Assumption 13,

a) for any $N \geq 1$, we have

$$\frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(x_R)\|^2] \leq D_f^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k^2, \quad \tag{6.1.12}$$

where the expectation is taken with respect to $R$ and $\xi[N] := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N)$,

$$D_f := \left[ \frac{2(f(x_1) - f^*)}{L} \right]^\frac{1}{2}, \tag{6.1.13}$$

and $f^*$ denotes the optimal value of problem (6.1.1);

b) if, in addition, problem (6.1.1) is convex with an optimal solution $x^*$, then, for any $N \geq 1$,
where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R \) and \( \xi[N] \), and
\[
D_X := \| x_1 - x^* \| .
\]

**Proof.** Denote \( \delta_k \equiv G(x_k, \xi_k) - \nabla f(x_k) \), \( k \geq 1 \). We first show part a). Using the assumption that \( f \in \mathcal{C}_L^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n) \), (6.1.12) and (6.1.10), we have, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \),
\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| G(x_k, \xi_k) \|^2 \\
= f(x_k) - \gamma_k \| \nabla f(x_k) \| - \gamma_k \langle \nabla f(x_k), \delta_k \rangle \\
+ \frac{L}{2} \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 + 2 \langle \nabla f(x_k), \delta_k \rangle + \| \delta_k \|^2 \\
= f(x_k) - \langle (\gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \delta_k) \rangle \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \\
- \langle (\gamma_k - L \gamma_k) \rangle \langle \nabla f(x_k), \delta_k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2 .
\]

Summing up the above inequalities and re-arranging the terms, we obtain
\[
\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2) \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \leq f(x_1) - f(x_{N+1}) \| \nabla f(x_1) \|^2 \\
\sum_{k=1}^N \| \delta_k \|^2 + \frac{L}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \| \delta_k \|^2 \\
\leq f(x_1) - f^* - \sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2) \langle \nabla f(x_1), \delta_k \rangle \\
+ \frac{L}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \| \delta_k \|^2 ,
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( f(x_{N+1}) \geq f^* \). Note that the search point \( x_k \) is a function of the history \( \xi_{[k-1]} \) of the generated random process and hence is random. Taking expectations (with respect to \( \xi_{[N]} \)) on both sides of (6.1.17) and noting that under Assumption 13, \( E[\| \delta_k \|^2] \leq \sigma^2 \), and

\[
E[\langle \nabla f(x_k), \delta_k \rangle | \xi_{[k-1]}] = 0 ,
\]

we obtain
\[
\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2) E_{\xi[N]} \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \leq f(x_1) - f^* + \frac{L \sigma^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2 
\]

(6.1.19)

Dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( L \sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2/2) \) and noting that
\[
E[\| \nabla f(x_N) \|^2] = E_{R, \xi[N]} \| \nabla f(x_N) \|^2 = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2) E_{\xi[N]} \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2}{\sum_{k=1}^N (2 \gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2)} ,
\]

we conclude
\[
\frac{1}{L} \frac{1}{E[\| \nabla f(x_N) \|^2]} \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^N (2 \gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2)} \left[ \frac{2(f(x_1) - f^*)}{L} + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2 \right] ,
\]
Then, under Assumption 13, we have
which, in view of (6.1.13), clearly implies (6.1.12).

where the last inequality follows from (6.1.15) and the fact that

Moreover, in view of (6.1.4) and the fact that \( \nabla f(x^*) = 0 \), we have

Combining the above two relations, we obtain, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \),

where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \) and the fact that \( \gamma_k \leq 2/L \).

Summing up the above inequalities and re-arranging the terms, we have

where the last inequality follows from (6.1.15) and the fact that \( v_{N+1} \geq 0 \). The rest
of the proof is similar to that of part a) and hence the details are skipped.

We now describe a possible strategy for the selection of the stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) in
the RSGD method. For the sake of simplicity, let us assume that a constant stepsize policy
is used, i.e., \( \gamma_k = \gamma, k = 1, \ldots, N \), for some \( \gamma \in (0, 2/L) \). Note that the assumption
of constant stepsizes does not hurt the efficiency estimate of the RSGD method.

The following corollary of Theorem 6.1 is obtained by appropriately choosing the
parameter \( \gamma \).

**Corollary 6.1.** Suppose that the stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to

for some \( \bar{\gamma} > 0 \). Also assume that the probability mass function \( P_k(\cdot) \) is set to (6.1.11).
Then, under Assumption 13, we have

\[
\frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}[\| \nabla f(x_R) \|^2] \leq \mathbb{B}_N := \frac{L D_f^2}{N} + \left( \bar{D} + \frac{D_f^2}{\bar{\gamma}} \right) \frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{N}},
\]
where $D_f$ is defined in (6.1.13). If, in addition, problem (6.1.1) is convex with an optimal solution $x^*$, then
\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_R) - f^*] \leq \frac{LD^2_X}{N} + \left( \tilde{D} + \frac{D^2_X}{\tilde{D}} \right) \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}},
\]  
(6.1.23)
where $D_X$ is defined in (6.1.15).

**Proof.** Noting that by (6.1.21), we have
\[
\frac{D^2_f + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2}{\sum_{k=1}^N (2\gamma_k - L \gamma_k)} \leq \frac{D^2_f + N \sigma^2 \gamma^2}{N \gamma} = \frac{D^2_f}{N \gamma} + \sigma^2 \gamma
\]
\[
\leq \frac{D^2_f}{N} \max \left\{ L, \frac{\sigma \sqrt{N}}{\tilde{D}} \right\} + \sigma^2 \frac{\tilde{D}}{\sigma \sqrt{N}}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{LD^2}{N} + \left( \tilde{D} + \frac{D^2}{\tilde{D}} \right) \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}},
\]
which together with (6.1.12) then imply (6.1.22). Relation (6.1.23) follows similarly from the above inequality (with $D_f$ replaced by $D_X$) and (6.1.14).

We now make a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 6.1 and Corollary 6.1. Firstly, as can be seen from (6.1.19), instead of randomly selecting a solution $x_R$ from \{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}, another possibility would be to output the solution $\hat{x}_N$ such that
\[
\|\nabla f(\hat{x}_N)\| = \min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|.
\]  
(6.1.24)
We can show that $\mathbb{E}\|\nabla f(\hat{x}_N)\|$ goes to zero with similar rates of convergence as in (6.1.12) and (6.1.22). However, to use this strategy would require some extra computational effort to compute $\|\nabla f(x_k)\|$ for all $k = 1, \ldots, N$. Since $\|\nabla f(x_k)\|$ cannot be computed exactly, to estimate them by using Monte-carlo simulation would incur additional approximation errors and raise some reliability issues. On the other hand, the above RSGD method does not require any extra computational effort for estimating the gradients $\|\nabla f(x_k)\|$, $k = 1, \ldots, N$.

Secondly, observe that in the stepsize policy (6.1.21), we need to specify a parameter $\tilde{D}$. While the RSGD method converges for any arbitrary $\tilde{D} > 0$, it can be easily seen from (6.1.22) and (6.1.23) that an optimal selection of $\tilde{D}$ would be $D_f$ and $D_X$, respectively, for solving nonconvex and convex SP problems. With such selections, the bounds in (6.1.22) and (6.1.23), respectively, reduce to
\[
\frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(x_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{LD^2_f}{N} + \frac{2D_f \sigma}{\sqrt{N}},
\]  
(6.1.25)
and
\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_R) - f^*] \leq \frac{LD^2_X}{N} + \frac{2D_X \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}.
\]  
(6.1.26)
Note however, that the exact values of $D_f$ or $D_X$ are rarely known a priori and one often needs to set $\tilde{D}$ to a suboptimal value, e.g., certain upper bounds on $D_f$ or $D_X$. 

Thirdly, a possible drawback for the above RSGD method is that one needs to estimate $L$ to obtain an upper bound on $\gamma_k$ (see, e.g., (6.1.21)), which will also possibly affect the selection of $P_R$ (see (6.1.11)). Note that similar requirements also exist for some deterministic first-order methods (e.g., gradient descent and accelerated gradient descent methods). While under the deterministic setting, one can somehow relax such requirements by using certain line-search procedures to enhance the practical performance of these methods, it is more difficult to devise similar line-search procedures for the stochastic setting, since the exact values of $f(x_k)$ and $\nabla f(x_k)$ are not available. It should be noted, however, that we do not need very accurate estimate for $L$ in the RSGD method. Indeed, it can be easily checked that the RSGD method exhibits an $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{N})$ rate of convergence if the stepsizes $\{\gamma_k\}$ are set to
\[
\min \left\{ \frac{1}{qL}, \frac{\bar{D}}{\sigma \sqrt{N}} \right\}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N
\]
for any $q \in [1, \sqrt{N}]$. In other words, we can overestimate the value of $L$ by a factor up to $\sqrt{N}$ and the resulting RSGD method still exhibits similar rate of convergence. 

A common practice in stochastic optimization is to estimate $L$ by using the stochastic gradients computed at a small number of trial points. It is also worth noting that, although in general the selection of $P_R$ will depend on $\gamma_k$ and hence on $L$, such a dependence is not necessary in some special cases. In particular, if the stepsizes $\{\gamma_k\}$ are chosen according to a constant stepsize policy (e.g., (6.1.21)), then $R$ is uniformly distributed on $\{1, \ldots, N\}$. It should be stressed that the persisting dependency of the stepsize on the Lipschitz constant seems essentially impossible to overcome at present and it is a potentially challenging direction of future research for stochastic methods.

Fourthly, it is interesting to note that the RSGD method allows us to have a unified treatment for both nonconvex and convex SP problems in view of the specification of $\{\gamma_k\}$ and $P_R(\cdot)$ (c.f., (6.1.11) and (6.1.21)). Recall from Chapter 4 that the optimal rate of convergence for solving smooth convex SP problems is given by
\[
\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\bar{D}^2}{N^2} + \frac{D \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}\right).
\]
Comparing (6.1.26) with the above bound, the RSGD method possesses a nearly optimal rate of convergence, since the second term in (6.1.26) is unimprovable while the first term in (6.1.26) can be much improved.

Finally, observe that we can use different stepsize policy other than the constant one in (6.1.21). In particular, it can be shown that the RSGD method with the following two stepsize policies will exhibit similar rates of convergence as those in Corollary 6.1.

- **Increasing stepsize policy:**
  \[
  \gamma_k = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{L}, \frac{\bar{D}/\bar{X}}{\sigma \sqrt{N}} \right\}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N.
  \]
- **Decreasing stepsize policy:**
\[ \gamma_k = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{L}, \frac{D}{\sigma(kN)^{1/4}} \right\}, k = 1, \ldots, N. \]

Intuitively speaking, one may want to choose decreasing stepsizes which, according to the definition of \( P_R(\cdot) \) in (6.1.11), can stop the algorithm earlier. On the other hand, as the algorithm moves forward and local information about the gradient gets better, choosing increasing stepsizes might be a better option. We expect that the practical performance of these stepsize policies will depend on each problem instance to be solved.

While Theorem 6.1 and Corollary 6.1 establish the expected convergence performance over many runs of the RSGD method, we are also interested in the large-deviation properties for a single run of this method. In particular, we are interested in establishing its complexity for computing an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1), i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \) satisfying

\[ \text{Prob}\{||\nabla f(\bar{x})||^2 \leq \epsilon \} \geq 1 - \Lambda \text{ for some } \epsilon > 0 \text{ and } \Lambda \in (0, 1). \]

By using (6.1.22) and Markov’s inequality, we have

\[ \text{Prob}\{||\nabla f(x_R)||^2 \geq \lambda L_B N\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}, \forall \lambda > 0. \quad (6.1.27) \]

It then follows that the number of calls to SFO performed by the RSGD method for finding an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution, after disregarding a few constant factors, can be bounded by

\[ O \left\{ \frac{1}{\Lambda \epsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\Lambda \epsilon^2} \right\}. \quad (6.1.28) \]

The above complexity bound is rather pessimistic in terms of its dependence on \( \Lambda \). We will investigate one possible way to significantly improve it in next subsection.

### 6.1.1.2 A two-phase randomized stochastic gradient method

In this subsection, we describe a variant of the RSGD method which can considerably improve the complexity bound in (6.1.28). This procedure consists of two phases: an optimization phase used to generate a list of candidate solutions via a few independent runs of the RSGD method and a post-optimization phase in which a solution is selected from this candidate list.

**A two-phase RSGD (2-RSGD) method**

**Input:** Initial point \( x_1 \), number of runs \( S \), iteration limit \( N \), and sample size \( T \).

**Optimization phase:**
- For \( s = 1, \ldots, S \)
  - Call the RSGD method with input \( x_1 \), iteration limit \( N \), stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in (6.1.21) and probability mass function \( P_R \) in (6.1.11). Let \( \bar{x}_s \) be the output of this procedure.

**Post-optimization phase:**
- Choose a solution \( x^* \) from the candidate list \( \{\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_S\} \) such that
\[ \|g(\hat{x})\| = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g(\bar{x}_s)\|, \quad g(\bar{x}) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} G(\bar{x}_t, \xi_t), \quad (6.1.29) \]

where \( G(x, \xi_k) \), \( k = 1, \ldots, T \), are the stochastic gradients returned by the SFO.

Observe that in (6.1.29), we define the best solution \( \hat{x}^* \) as the one with the smallest value of \( \|g(\bar{x}_s)\| \), \( s = 1, \ldots, S \). Alternatively, one can choose \( \hat{x}^* \) from \( \{\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_S\} \) such that

\[ \hat{f}(\hat{x}^*) = \min_{1,\ldots,S} \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s), \quad \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} F(\bar{x}_s, \xi_t). \quad (6.1.30) \]

In the 2-RSGD method described above, the number of calls to the SFO are given by \( S \times N \) and \( S \times T \), respectively, for the optimization phase and post-optimization phase. Also note that we can possibly recycle the same sequence \( \{\xi_k\} \) across all gradient estimations in the post-optimization phase of 2-RSGD method. We will provide in Theorem 6.2 below certain bounds on \( S, N \) and \( T \), to compute an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1).

We need the following results regarding the large deviations of vector valued martingales.

**Lemma 6.1.** Assume that we are given a polish space with Borel probability measure \( \mu \) and a sequence of \( \mathcal{F}_0 = \{\emptyset, \Omega\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{F}_2 \subseteq \cdots \) of \( \sigma \)-sub-algebras of Borel \( \sigma \)-algebra of \( \Omega \). Let \( \zeta_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, i = 1, \ldots, \infty \), be a martingale-difference sequence of Borel functions on \( \Omega \) such that \( \zeta_i \) is \( \mathcal{F}_i \) measurable and \( \mathbb{E}[\zeta_i | \mathcal{F}_{i-1}] = 0 \), where \( \mathbb{E}[\cdot | \mathcal{F}_i], i = 1, 2, \ldots, \), denotes the conditional expectation w.r.t. \( \mathcal{F}_i \) and \( \mathbb{E} \equiv \mathbb{E}[\cdot | 0] \) is the expectation w.r.t. \( \mu \).

(a) If \( \mathbb{E}[\|\zeta_i\|^2] \leq \sigma_i^2 \) for any \( i \geq 1 \), then \( \mathbb{E}[\|\sum_{i=1}^{N} \zeta_i\|^2] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_i^2 \). As a consequence, we have

\[ \forall N \geq 1, \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{N} \zeta_i \right\|^2 \geq \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_i^2 \right\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}; \]

(b) If \( \mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left( \|\zeta_i\|^2 / \sigma_i^2 \right) | \mathcal{F}_{i-1} \right\} \leq \exp(1) \) almost surely for any \( i \geq 1 \), then

\[ \forall N \geq 1, \lambda \geq 0 : \text{Prob} \left\{ \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{N} \zeta_i \right\| \geq \sqrt{2} \left( 1 + \lambda \right) \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sigma_i^2} \right\} \leq \exp(-\lambda^2 / 3). \]

*Proof.* TBD.

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of the 2-RSGD method. More specifically, Theorem 6.2.a) below shows the convergence rate of this algorithm for a given set of parameters \((S, N, T)\), while Theorem 6.2.b) establishes the complexity of the 2-RSGD method for computing an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1).

**Theorem 6.2.** Under Assumption 13, the following statements hold for the 2-RSGD method applied to problem (6.1.1).

(a) Let \( \mathcal{B}_N \) be defined in (6.1.22). We have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \|\nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 \geq 2 \left( 4L \mathcal{B}_N + \frac{3\lambda \sigma^2}{\mu} \right) \right\} \leq \frac{S+1}{\lambda^2} + 2^{-S}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0; \quad (6.1.31) \]
b) Let \( \epsilon > 0 \) and \( \Lambda \in (0, 1) \) be given. If the parameters \( (S, N, T) \) are set to

\[
S = S(\Lambda) := \lceil \log(2/\Lambda) \rceil, \\
N = N(\epsilon) := \max \left\{ \frac{32L^2D^2_f}{\epsilon}, \left[ 32L \left( \bar{D} + \frac{D^2_f}{\sigma^2} \right) \right] \right\}, \\
T = T(\epsilon, \Lambda) := \left\lceil \frac{24(S+1)\sigma^2}{A\epsilon^2} \right\rceil, 
\]

then the 2-RSGD method can compute an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1) after taking at most

\[
S(\Lambda) \lceil N(\epsilon) + T(\epsilon, \Lambda) \rceil 
\]

calls to the stochastic first-order oracle.

Proof. We first show part a). Observe that by the definition of \( \bar{x}^\epsilon \) in (6.1.29), we have

\[
\|g(\bar{x}^\epsilon)\|^2 = \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|g(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 = \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s) + g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \\
\leq \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \left\{ 2\|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \right\} \\
\leq 2 \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 + 2 \max_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2,
\]

which implies that

\[
\|\nabla f(\bar{x}^\epsilon)\|^2 \leq 2\|g(\bar{x}^\epsilon)\|^2 + 2\|\nabla f(\bar{x}^\epsilon) - g(\bar{x}^\epsilon)\|^2 \leq 4 \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \\
+ 4 \max_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|\nabla f(\bar{x}^\epsilon) - g(\bar{x}^\epsilon)\|^2. \tag{6.1.36}
\]

We now provide certain probabilistic upper bounds to the three terms in the right hand side of the above inequality. Firstly, using the fact that \( \bar{x}_s \), \( 1 \leq s \leq S \), are independent and relation (6.1.27) (with \( \lambda = 2 \)), we have

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L\mathcal{B}_N \right\} = \prod_{s=1}^S \text{Prob} \{ \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L\mathcal{B}_N \} \leq 2^{-S}. \tag{6.1.37}
\]

Moreover, denoting \( \delta_{s,k} = G(\bar{x}_s, \bar{x}_k) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s), k = 1, \ldots, T \), we have \( g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s) = \sum_{k=1}^T \delta_{s,k} / T \). Using this observation, Assumption 13 and Lemma 6.1.a), we conclude that, for any \( s = 1, \ldots, S \),

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq \frac{4\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\} = \text{Prob} \{ \|\sum_{k=1}^T \delta_{s,k}\|^2 \geq \lambda T \sigma^2 \} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\lambda}, \forall \lambda > 0,
\]

which implies that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \max_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq \frac{4\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\lambda}, \forall \lambda > 0, \tag{6.1.38}
\]

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{s=1}^S \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq \frac{4\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\lambda}, \forall \lambda > 0,
\]

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \|\nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L\mathcal{B}_N \right\} \leq 2^{-S}.
\]
and that
\[ \text{Prob}\left\{ \|g(\bar{x}^\ast) - \nabla f(\bar{x}^\ast)\|^2 \geq \frac{2\sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}, \ \forall \lambda > 0. \quad (6.1.39) \]
The result then follows by combining relations (6.1.36), (6.1.37), (6.1.38) and (6.1.39).

We now show that part b) holds. Since the 2-RSGD method needs to call the RSGD method \( S \) times with iteration limit \( N(\varepsilon) \) in the optimization phase, and estimate the gradients \( g(\bar{x}_s), s = 1, \ldots, S \) with sample size \( T(\varepsilon) \) in the post-optimization phase, the total number of calls to the stochastic first-order oracle is bounded by \( S[N(\varepsilon) + T(\varepsilon)] \).

It remains to show that \( \bar{x}^\ast \) is an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1). Noting that by the definitions of \( \mathcal{B}_N \) and \( N(\varepsilon) \), respectively, in (6.1.22) and (6.1.33), we have
\[
\mathcal{B}_N(\varepsilon) = \frac{LD^2_f}{N(\varepsilon)} + \left(D + \frac{D^2_f}{D}\right) \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N(\varepsilon)}} \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{3\sigma} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3\sigma} = \frac{\varepsilon}{16L}.
\]
Using the above observation, (6.1.34) and setting \( \lambda = \frac{2(S+1)}{\Lambda} \) in (6.1.31), we have
\[
4LB_N(\varepsilon) + \frac{3\lambda\sigma^2}{T(\varepsilon)} = \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\lambda\varepsilon}{8(S+1)} = \frac{\varepsilon}{2},
\]
which, together with relations (6.1.31) and (6.1.32), and the selection of \( \lambda \), then imply that
\[
\text{Prob}\left\{ \|\nabla f(\bar{x}^\ast)\|^2 \geq \varepsilon \right\} \leq \frac{\Lambda}{4} + 2^{-S} \leq \Lambda.
\]

It is interesting to compare the complexity bound in (6.1.35) with the one in (6.1.28). In view of (6.1.32), (6.1.33) and (6.1.34), the complexity bound in (6.1.35), after disregarding a few constant factors, is equivalent to
\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{\log(1/\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\log^2(1/\Lambda)\sigma^2}{\Lambda \varepsilon} \right\}.
\]
The above bound can be considerably smaller than the one in (6.1.28) up to a factor of \( 1/\left[A^2 \log(1/\Lambda)\right] \), when the second terms are the dominating ones in both bounds.

The following result shows that the bound (6.1.35) obtained in Theorem 6.2 can be further improved under certain light-tail assumption of SFO.

**Corollary 6.2.** Under Assumptions 13 and 14, the following statements hold for the 2-RSGD method applied to problem (6.1.1).

a) Let \( \mathcal{B}_N \) is defined in (6.1.22). We have, \( \forall \lambda > 0, \)
\[
\text{Prob}\left\{ \|\nabla f(\bar{x}^\ast)\|^2 \geq 4 \left[2L\mathcal{B}_N + 3(1 + \lambda)^2\frac{\sigma^2}{T}\right] \right\} \leq (S+1)\exp(-\lambda^2/3) + 2^{-S};
\]

b) Let \( \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( \Lambda \in (0, 1) \) be given. If \( S \) and \( N \) are set to \( S(\Lambda) \) and \( N(\varepsilon) \) as in (6.1.32) and (6.1.33), respectively, and the sample size \( T \) is set to
then the 2-RSGD method can compute an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.1) in at most
\[
S(\Lambda) \left[ N(\varepsilon) + T'(\varepsilon, \Lambda) \right]
\]
calls to the stochastic first-order oracle.

**Proof.** We provide the proof of part a) only, since part b) follows immediately from part a) and an argument similar to the one used in the proof of Theorem 6.2.b). Denoting \(\delta_{s,k} = G(\bar{x}_s, \xi_k) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s), k = 1, \ldots, T,\) we have \(g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s) = \sum_{k=1}^T \delta_{s,k}/T.\) Using this observation, Assumption 14 and Lemma 6.1.b), we conclude that, for any \(s = 1, \ldots, S\) and \(\lambda > 0,\)
\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2(1 + \lambda)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{T} \right\} = \text{Prob} \left\{ \|\sum_{k=1}^T \delta_{s,k}\| \geq \sqrt{2T(1 + \lambda)} \sigma \right\} \leq \exp(-\lambda^2/3),
\]
which implies that
\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g(\bar{x}_s) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2(1 + \lambda)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq S \exp(-\lambda^2/3), \forall \lambda > 0. \tag{6.1.44}
\]
and that
\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \|g(\bar{x}^*) - \nabla f(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 \geq 2(1 + \lambda)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq \exp(-\lambda^2/3), \forall \lambda > 0. \tag{6.1.45}
\]
The result in part a) then follows by combining relations (6.1.36), (6.1.37), (6.1.44) and (6.1.45).

In view of (6.1.32), (6.1.33) and (6.1.42), the bound in (6.1.43), after disregarding a few constant factors, is equivalent to
\[
O \left\{ \frac{\log(1/\Lambda)}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{T^2} \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\log^2(1/\Lambda) \sigma^2}{\varepsilon} \right\}. \tag{6.1.46}
\]
Clearly, the third term of the above bound is significantly smaller than the corresponding one in (6.1.40) by a factor of \(1/\Lambda.\)

### 6.1.2 Stochastic zeroth-order methods

Our problem of interest in this section is problem (6.1.1) with \(f\) given in the form of expectation, i.e.,
\[
f^* := \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ f(x) := \int_{\Xi} F(x, \xi) dP(\xi) \right\}. \tag{6.1.47}
\]
Moreover, we assume that $F(x, \xi) \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$ almost surely, which clearly implies $f(x) \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$. Our goal in this subsection is to specialize the RSGD and 2-RSGD method, respectively, in Subsections 6.1.2.1 and 6.1.2.2, to deal with the situation when only stochastic zeroth-order information of $f$ is available.

### 6.1.2.1 The randomized stochastic gradient free method

Throughout this section, we assume that $f$ is represented by a stochastic zeroth-order oracle (SZO). More specifically, at the $k$-th iteration, $x_k$ and $\xi_k$ being the input, the SZO outputs the quantity $F(x_k, \xi_k)$ such that the following assumption holds:

**Assumption 15** For any $k \geq 1$, we have

$$
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k, \xi_k)] = f(x_k). 
$$

To exploit zeroth-order information, we consider a smooth approximation of the objective function $f$. It is well-known that the convolution of $f$ with any nonnegative, measurable and bounded function $\psi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \psi(u) du = 1$ is an approximation of $f$ which is at least as smooth as $f$. One of the most important examples of the function $\psi$ is the probability density function. Here, we use the Gaussian distribution in the convolution. Let $u$ be $n$-dimensional standard Gaussian random vector and $\mu > 0$ be the smoothing parameter. Then, a smooth approximation of $f$ is defined as

$$
f_\mu(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \int f(x + \mu u) e^{-\frac{1}{2}||u||^2} du = \mathbb{E}_u[f(x + \mu u)].
$$

The following result describes some properties of $f_\mu(\cdot)$.

**Lemma 6.2.** If $f \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, then

a) $f_\mu$ is also Lipschitz continuously differentiable with gradient Lipschitz constant $L_\mu \leq L$ and

$$
\nabla f_\mu(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2}} \int \frac{f(x + \mu v) - f(x)}{\mu} v e^{-\frac{1}{2}||v||^2} dv.
$$

b) for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$
|f_\mu(x) - f(x)| \leq \frac{\mu^2}{2} L n,
$$

$$
\|
abla f_\mu(x) - \nabla f(x)\| \leq \frac{\mu}{2} L (n+3)^2,
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}_v \left[ \left| \frac{f(x + \mu v) - f(x)}{\mu} v \right|^2 \right] \leq 2(n+4) \|
abla f(x)\|^2 + \frac{\mu^2}{2} L^2 (n+6)^3.
$$

c) $f_\mu$ is also convex provided $f$ is convex.
Proof. TBD

It immediately follows from (6.1.52) that
\[ \|\nabla f_\mu(x)\|^2 \leq 2\|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + \frac{\mu^2}{2}L^2(n+3)^3, \] (6.1.54)
\[ \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 \leq 2\|\nabla f_\mu(x)\|^2 + \frac{\mu^2}{2}L^2(n+3)^3. \] (6.1.55)

Moreover, denoting
\[ f^*_\mu := \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f_\mu(x), \] (6.1.56)
we conclude from (6.1.57) that
\[ |f^*_\mu - f^*_\mu| \leq \mu^2 L n/2 \] and hence that
\[ -\mu^2 L n \leq [f_\mu(x) - f^*_\mu] - [f(x) - f^*_\mu] \leq \mu^2 L n. \] (6.1.57)

Below we modify the RSGD method in subsection (6.1.1.1) to use stochastic zeroth-order rather than first-order information for solving problem (6.1.47).

A randomized stochastic gradient free (RSGF) method

**Input:** Initial point \( x_1 \), iteration limit \( N \), stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\}_{k \geq 1} \), probability mass function \( P_R(\cdot) \) supported on \( \{1, \ldots, N\} \).

**Step 0.** Let \( R \) be a random variable with probability mass function \( P_R(\cdot) \).

**Step \( k = 1, \ldots, R \).** Generate \( u_k \) by Gaussian random vector generator and call the stochastic zeroth-order oracle for computing \( G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k, u_k) \) given by
\[ G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k, u_k) = F(x_k + \mu u_k, \xi_k) - F(x_k, \xi_k)\mu u_k. \] (6.1.58)

Set
\[ x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma_k G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k, u_k). \] (6.1.59)

**Output** \( x_R \).

Note that \( G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k, u_k) \) is an unbiased estimator of \( \nabla f_\mu(x_k) \). Indeed, by (6.1.50) and Assumption 15, we have
\[ \mathbb{E}_{\xi, u}[G_\mu(x, \xi, u)] = \mathbb{E}_u[\mathbb{E}_{\xi}[G_\mu(x, \xi, u)|u]] = \nabla f_\mu(x). \] (6.1.60)
Hence, if the variance \( \sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}_{\xi, u}[||G_\mu(x, \xi, u) - \nabla f_\mu(x)||^2] \) is bounded, we can directly apply the convergence results in Theorem 6.1 to the above RSGF method. However, there still exist a few problems in this approach. Firstly, we do not know an explicit expression of the bound \( \sigma^2 \). Secondly, this approach does not provide any information regarding how to appropriately specify the smoothing parameter \( \mu \). The latter issue is critical for the implementation of the RSGF method.

By applying the approximation results in Lemma 6.2 to the functions \( F(\cdot, \xi_k), \) \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), and using a slightly different convergence analysis than the one in
Then, under Assumptions 13 and 15, we obtain
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{P}_R(k) := \text{Prob}(R = k) = \frac{\gamma_k - 2L(n+4)^2}{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\gamma_k - 2L(n+4)^2)}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N.
\end{equation}

Then, under Assumptions 13 and 15,
\begin{enumerate}
\item for any \(N \geq 1\), we have
\begin{equation}
\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(x_R)\|^2] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k - 2L(n+4)^2 \right] \left[ D_k^2 + 2\mu^2(n+4) \right] \\
(1 + L(n+4)^2) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{\gamma_k}{L} + L \gamma_k^2 \right) + 2(n+4) \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2,
\end{equation}
where the expectation is taken with respect to \(R\), \(\xi_{[n]}\) and \(u_{[n]}\), and \(D_f\) is defined in (6.1.13);
\item if, in addition, problem (6.1.47) is convex with an optimal solution \(x^*\), then, for any \(N \geq 1\),
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{E}[f(x_R) - f^*] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k - 2L(n+4)^2 \right] \left[ D_k^2 + 2\mu^2L(n+4) \right] \\
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ \gamma_k + L(n+4)^2 \gamma_k^2 \right] + 2(n+4) \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2,
\end{equation}
where the expectation is taken with respect to \(R\), \(\xi_{[n]}\) and \(u_{[n]}\), and \(D_X\) is defined in (6.1.15).
\end{enumerate}

\textbf{Proof.} Let \(\xi_k \equiv (\xi_k, u_k), k \geq 1, \xi_{[n]} := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n)\), and \(\mathbb{E}_{\xi_{[n]}}\) denote the expectation w.r.t. \(\xi_{[n]}\). Also denote \(\Delta_k := G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k, u_k) = \nabla f_\mu(x_k) - \nabla f_\mu(x_k)\), \(k \geq 1\). Using the fact that \(f \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)\), Lemma 6.2.a), (6.1.2) and (6.1.59), we have, for any \(k = 1, \ldots, N\),
\begin{equation}
f_\mu(x_{k+1}) \leq f_\mu(x_k) - \gamma_k \langle \nabla f_\mu(x_k), G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k) \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \|G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k)\|^2 \\
= f_\mu(x_k) - \gamma_k \|\nabla f_\mu(x_k)\|^2 - \gamma_k \langle \nabla f_\mu(x_k), \Delta_k \rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \gamma_k^2 \|G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k)\|^2.
\end{equation}

Summing up these inequalities, re-arranging the terms and noting that \(f'_{\mu} \leq f_\mu(x_{N+1})\), we obtain
\begin{equation}
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \|\nabla f_\mu(x_k)\|^2 \leq f_\mu(x_1) - f'_{\mu} - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \langle \nabla f_\mu(x_k), \Delta_k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \|G_\mu(x_k, \xi_k)\|^2.
\end{equation}

Now, observe that by (6.1.60),
\begin{equation}
\mathbb{E}[\nabla f_\mu(x_k), \Delta_k \langle \xi_{[k-1]} \rangle] = 0.
\end{equation}

and that by the assumption \(F(\cdot, \xi_k) \in C^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)\), (6.1.53) (with \(f = F(\cdot, \xi_k)\)), and (6.1.58).
where the second inequality follows from Assumption 13. Taking expectations with respect to \( \zeta_{[N]} \) on both sides of (6.1.65) and using the above two observations, we obtain

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] \leq \frac{2(n+4)}{\sigma^2} \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] + \frac{\mu^2}{2} L^2 (n+6)^3,
\]

(6.1.67)

The above conclusion together with (6.1.54) and (6.1.57) then imply that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] \leq 2 \left( f(x_1) - f^* \right) + 2 \mu^2 L n + 2L(n+4) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] + 2L(n+4) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] + \frac{2L(n+4) \sigma^2 + \mu^2}{2} L^3 (n+6)^3.
\]

By re-arranging the terms and simplifying the constants, we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left\{ [\gamma_k - 2L(n+4) \gamma_k^2] \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right]\right\} \\
\leq 2 \left( f(x_1) - f^* \right) + 2L(n+4) \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 + 2 \mu^2 L n + 2L(n+4) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] + 2L(n+4) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] + \frac{2L(n+4) \sigma^2 + \mu^2}{2} L^3 (n+6)^3.
\]

(6.1.69)

Dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left\{ [\gamma_k - 2L(n+4) \gamma_k^2] \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right]\right\} \) and noting that

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] = \mathbb{E}_{R, \zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right] = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left\{ [\gamma_k - 2L(n+4) \gamma_k^2] \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_k) \|^2 \right]\right\}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} [\gamma_k - 2L(n+4) \gamma_k^2]},
\]

we obtain (6.1.62).

We now show part b). Denote \( v_k := \| x_k - x^* \| \). First observe that, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \),

\[
v_{k+1}^2 = \| x_k - \gamma_k G(x_k, \zeta_k) - x^* \|^2 = v_k^2 + 2\gamma_k \langle \nabla f(x_k), \Delta_k, x_k - x^* \rangle + \gamma_k^2 \| G(x_k, \zeta_k) \|^2.
\]

and hence that

\[
v_{k+1}^2 = v_k^2 - 2\sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_k - x^* \rangle - 2\sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \langle \Delta_k, x_k - x^* \rangle + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2 \| G(x_k, \zeta_k) \|^2.
\]

Taking expectation w.r.t. \( \zeta_{[N]} \) on both sides of the above equality, using relation (6.1.67) and noting that by (6.1.60), \( \mathbb{E} \langle \Delta_k, x_k - x^* \rangle \vert \zeta_{[k-1]} \rangle = 0 \), we obtain
where the second inequality follows from (6.1.20) and the convexity of $f_{x^*}$, and the last inequality follows from (6.1.57). Re-arranging the terms in the above inequality, using the facts that $v_k^2 \geq 0$ and $f(x_k) \geq f^*$, and simplifying the constants, we have

$$2\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma_k - 2(n+4)L\gamma_k^2 \right] E_{x_k}[f(x_k) - f^*]$$

$$\leq 2\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma_k - (n+4)L\gamma_k^2 \right] E_{x_k}[f(x_k) - f^*]$$

$$\leq v_0^2 + 2\mu^2L(n+4)\sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k + 2(n+4) \left[ L^2\mu^2(n+4)^2 + \sigma^2 \right] \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k^2.$$
which, in view of (6.1.71), then implies that (6.1.73), respectively, reduce to (6.1.72) and (6.1.73), an optimal selection of \( \tilde{D} \) for the nonconvex and convex case. With such selections, the bounds in (6.1.72) and (6.1.73), respectively, reduce to

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_k) - f^*] \leq \frac{5L(n+4)D^2_k}{N} + \frac{2\sigma \sqrt{n+4}}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \tilde{D} + \frac{D^2_k}{D} \right).
\] (6.1.73)

**Proof.** We prove (6.1.72) only since relation (6.1.73) can be shown by using similar arguments. First note that by (6.1.70), we have

\[
\gamma_k \leq \frac{1}{4(n+4)L}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N,
\] (6.1.74)

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma_k - 2L(n+4)\gamma_k^2 \right] = N\gamma_1 \left[ 1 - 2L(n+4)\gamma_1 \right] \geq \frac{N\gamma_1}{2}.
\] (6.1.75)

Therefore, using the above inequalities and (6.1.62), we obtain

\[
\frac{1}{L}\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2] \leq \frac{2D^2_f + 4\mu^2(n+4)}{N\gamma} + \mu^2L(n+4)^3 + 4(n+4) \left[ \mu^2L^2(n+4)^2 + \sigma^2 \right] \gamma
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2D^2_f + 4\mu^2(n+4)}{N} \max \left\{ 4L(n+4), \frac{\sigma \sqrt{(n+4)} \gamma}{D} \right\}
\]

\[
+ \mu^2L(n+4)^2 \left[ (n+4) + 1 \right] + \frac{4\sqrt{n+4}D\sigma}{\sqrt{N}},
\]

which, in view of (6.1.71), then implies that

\[
\frac{1}{L}\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2] \leq \frac{2D^2_f}{N} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{(n+4)N} \right] \left[ 4L(n+4) + \frac{\sigma \sqrt{(n+4)} \gamma}{D} \right]
\]

\[
+ \frac{LD^2_f}{2N} \left[ (n+4) + 1 \right] + \frac{4\sqrt{n+4}D\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}
\]

\[
= \frac{LD^2_f}{N} \left[ \frac{12(n+4)}{2} + \frac{8}{N} + \frac{1}{2} \right] + \frac{2\sigma \sqrt{n+4}}{\sqrt{N}} \left[ \frac{D^2_f}{D} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{(n+4)N} \right) + 2D \right]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{12L(n+4)D^2_f}{N} + \frac{4\sigma \sqrt{n+4}}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \tilde{D} + \frac{D^2_f}{D} \right).
\]

A few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 6.1 are in order. Firstly, similar to the RSGD method, we use the same selection of stepizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) and probability mass function \( P_R(\cdot) \) in RSGF method for both convex and nonconvex SP problems. In particular, in view of (6.1.72), the iteration complexity of the RSGF method for finding an \( \epsilon \)-solution of problem (6.1.47) can be bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(n/\epsilon^2) \). Moreover, in view of (6.1.73), if the problem is convex, a solution \( \bar{x} \) satisfying \( \mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}) - f^*] \leq \varepsilon \) can also be found in \( \mathcal{O}(n/\epsilon^2) \) iterations.

Secondly, we need to specify \( \tilde{D} \) for the stepsize policy in (6.1.70). According to (6.1.72) and (6.1.73), an optimal selection of \( \tilde{D} \) would be \( D_f \) and \( D_x \), respectively, for the nonconvex and convex case. With such selections, the bounds in (6.1.72) and (6.1.73), respectively, reduce to
\[ \frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \nabla f(x_R) \|^2 \right] \leq \frac{12(n+4)LD_1^2}{N} + \frac{8 \sqrt{n+4}D_1 \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}, \quad (6.1.76) \]

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ f(x_R) - f^* \right] \leq \frac{5L(n+4)D_2^2}{N} + \frac{4 \sqrt{n+4}D_2 \sigma}{\sqrt{N}}, \quad (6.1.77) \]

Similarly to the RSGD method, we can establish the complexity of the RSGF method for finding an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.47) for some \(\varepsilon > 0\) and \(\Lambda \in (0, 1)\). More specifically, by using (6.1.72) and Markov’s inequality, we have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \| \nabla f(x_R) \|^2 \geq \lambda L \bar{B}_N \right\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0, \quad (6.1.78) \]

which implies that the total number of calls to the SZO performed by the RSGF method for finding an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (6.1.47) can be bounded by

\[ \Theta \left\{ \frac{n\varepsilon^2 D_2^2}{N} + \frac{n\varepsilon^2}{\lambda^2} \left( \tilde{F} + \frac{D_1^2}{\tilde{F}} \right) \right\}. \quad (6.1.79) \]

We will investigate a possible approach to improve the above complexity bound in next subsection.

### 6.1.2.2 A two-phase randomized stochastic gradient free method

In this section, we modify the 2-RSGD method to improve the complexity bound in (6.1.79) for finding an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.47).

#### A two-phase RSGF (2-RSGF) method

**Input:** Initial point \(x_1\), number of runs \(S\), iteration limit \(N\), and sample size \(T\).

**Optimization phase:**

For \(s = 1, \ldots, S\)

Call the RSGF method with input \(x_1\), iteration limit \(N\), stepsizes \(\{\gamma_k\}\) in (6.1.70), probability mass function \(P_R\) in (6.1.61), and the smoothing parameter \(\mu\) satisfying (6.1.71). Let \(\bar{x}_s\) be the output of this procedure.

**Post-optimization phase:**

Choose a solution \(\bar{x}^*\) from the candidate list \(\{\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_S\}\) such that

\[ \| g_\mu(\bar{x}^*) \| = \min_{s=1, \ldots, S} \| g_\mu(\bar{x}_s) \|, \quad g_\mu(\bar{x}_s) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=1}^{T} G_\mu(\bar{x}_s, \xi_k, u_k), \quad (6.1.80) \]

where \(G_\mu(x, \xi, u)\) is defined in (6.1.58).

The main convergence properties of the 2-RSGF method are summarized in Theorem 6.4. More specifically, Theorem 6.4.a) establishes the rate of convergence of the 2-RSGF method with a given set of parameters \((S, N, T)\), while Theorem 6.4.b)
shows the complexity of this method for finding an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.47).

**Theorem 6.4.** Under Assumptions 13 and 15, the following statements hold for the 2-RSGF method applied to problem (6.1.47).

a) Let \(\tilde{B}_N\) be defined in (6.1.72). We have

\[
\text{Prob}\left\{ \|\nabla f(x')\|^2 \geq 8L\tilde{B}_N + \frac{3(n+4)L^2D_2^2}{2N} + \frac{24(n+4)\lambda}{T} \left[ L\tilde{B}_N + \frac{(n+4)L^2D_2^2}{N} + \sigma^2 \right] \right\} \leq \frac{S+1}{\lambda} + 2^{-S}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0;
\]

(6.1.81)

b) Let \(\epsilon > 0\) and \(\Lambda \in (0,1)\) be given. If \(S\) is set to \(S(\Lambda)\) as in (6.1.32), and the iteration limit \(N\) and sample size \(T\), respectively, are set to

\[
N = \hat{N}(\epsilon) := \max \left\{ \frac{12(n+4)(6LD_2)^2}{\epsilon}, \left[ 72L\sqrt{\Lambda} + 4 \left( \tilde{B} + \frac{D^2}{D} \right) \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right]^2 \right\};
\]

(6.1.82)

\[
T = \hat{T}(\epsilon, \Lambda) := \frac{24(n+4)(5+1)}{\Lambda} \max \left\{ 1, \frac{6\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right\},
\]

(6.1.83)

then the 2-RSGF method can compute an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem (6.1.47) after taking at most

\[
2S(\Lambda) \left[ \hat{N}(\epsilon) + \hat{T}(\epsilon, \Lambda) \right]
\]

(6.1.84)
calls to the SZO.

**Proof.** First, observe that by (6.1.52), (6.1.71) and (6.1.72), we have

\[
\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x')\|^2 \leq \frac{N^2}{T} L^2 (n+3)^3 \leq \frac{(n+4)L^2D_2^2}{8N}.
\]

(6.1.85)

Using this observation and the definition of \(\tilde{x}^*\) in (6.1.80), we obtain

\[
\|g_\mu(\tilde{x}^*)\|^2 = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_\mu(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\nabla f(\tilde{x}_s) + g_\mu(\tilde{x}_s) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2
\]

\[
\leq \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \left\{ 2 \left[ \|\nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + \|g_\mu(\tilde{x}_s) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \right] \right\}
\]

\[
\leq \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \left\{ 2 \left[ \|\nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|g_\mu(\tilde{x}_s) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|\nabla f(\tilde{x}_s) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \right] \right\}
\]

\[
\leq 2 \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 4 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_\mu(\tilde{x}_s) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 = \frac{(n+4)L^2D_2^2}{2N},
\]

which implies that
\[ \| \nabla f(\bar{x}) \|^2 \leq 2 \| g_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 + 2 \| \nabla f(\bar{\mu}) - g_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 \]
\[ \leq 2 \| g_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 + 4 \| \nabla f_\mu(\bar{x}) - g_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 + 4 \| \nabla f(\bar{x}) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 \]
\[ \leq 4 \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \| \nabla f(\bar{s}) \|^2 + 8 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \[ \| g_\mu(\bar{s}) - \nabla f(\bar{s}) \| + \frac{(n+4)L^2D^2}{N} \]
\[ + 4 \| \nabla f_\mu(\bar{x}) - g_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 + \frac{3(n+4)L^2D^2}{2N}, \] (6.1.86)

where the last inequality also follows from (6.1.85). We now provide certain probabilistic bounds on the individual terms in the right hand side of the above inequality. Using (6.1.78) (with \( \lambda = 2 \)), we obtain

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \| \nabla f(\bar{s}) \|^2 \geq 2L\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_N \right\} = \prod_{s=1}^S \text{Prob} \{ \| \nabla f(\bar{s}) \|^2 \geq 2L\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_N \} \leq 2^{-S}. \] (6.1.87)

Moreover, denote \( \Delta_{s,k} = G_\mu(\bar{s}, \xi_k, u_k) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{s}), k = 1, \ldots, T \). Note that, similar to (6.1.67), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| G_\mu(\bar{s}, \xi_k, u_k) \|^2] \leq 2(n+4) [\mathbb{E}[\| G(\bar{s}, \xi) \|^2] + \frac{\mu^2}{T}L^2(n+6)^3 \]
\[ \leq 2(n+4) [\mathbb{E}[\| \nabla f(\bar{s}) \|^2] + \sigma^2] + 2\mu^2L^2(n+4)^3. \]

It then follows from the previous inequality, (6.1.71) and (6.1.72) that

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| \Delta_{s,k} \|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\| G_\mu(\bar{s}, \xi_k, u_k) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{s}) \|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\| G_\mu(\bar{s}, \xi_k, u_k) \|^2] \]
\[ \leq 2(n+4) \left[ L\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_N + \sigma^2 \right] + 2\mu^2L^2(n+4)^3 \]
\[ \leq 2(n+4) \left[ L\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_N + \sigma^2 + \frac{L^2D^2}{2N} \right] =: \mathcal{D}_N. \] (6.1.88)

Noting that \( g_\mu(\bar{s}) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{s}) = \sum_{k=1}^T \Delta_{s,k} / T \), we conclude from (6.1.88), Assumption 13 and Lemma 6.1.a) that, for any \( s = 1, \ldots, S \),

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \| g_\mu(\bar{s}) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{s}) \|^2 \geq \frac{\lambda \mathcal{D}_N}{T} \right\} = \text{Prob} \{ \| \sum_{k=1}^T \Delta_{s,k} \|^2 \geq \lambda T \mathcal{D}_N \} \leq \frac{\lambda}{N}, \forall \lambda > 0, \]

which implies that

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \| g_\mu(\bar{s}) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{s}) \|^2 \geq \frac{\lambda \mathcal{D}_N}{T} \right\} \leq \frac{\lambda}{N}, \forall \lambda > 0. \] (6.1.89)

and that

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \| g_\mu(\bar{x}) - \nabla f_\mu(\bar{x}) \|^2 \geq \frac{\lambda \mathcal{D}_N}{T} \right\} \leq \frac{\lambda}{N}, \forall \lambda > 0. \] (6.1.90)
The result then follows by combining relations \((6.1.86), (6.1.87), (6.1.88), (6.1.89)\) and \((6.1.90)\).

We now show part b) holds. Clearly, the total number of calls to SZO in the 2-RSGF method is bounded by \(2s(\hat{N}(\varepsilon) + \hat{T}(\varepsilon))\). It then suffices to show that \(\bar{x}^*\) is an \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of problem \((6.1.47)\). Noting that by the definitions of \(\hat{B}(N)\) and \(\hat{N}(\varepsilon)\), respectively, in \((6.1.72)\) and \((6.1.82)\), we have

\[
\hat{B}(\varepsilon) \leq \frac{12(n+4)L^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{4\sigma^2_D}{\varepsilon N(\varepsilon)} \left( \frac{\bar{D}}{D} + \frac{D^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right) \leq \frac{12L^2}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{4\sigma^2_D}{\varepsilon^2} = \frac{12}{\varepsilon^2}.
\]

Hence, we have

\[
8L\hat{B}(\varepsilon) + \frac{24(n+4)nL^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon^2} \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{\varepsilon} + \frac{8\varepsilon}{288} \leq \frac{2\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}.
\]

Moreover, by setting \(\lambda = \frac{2(\varepsilon + 1)}{\Lambda}\) and using \((6.1.82)\) and \((6.1.83)\), we obtain

\[
\frac{24(n+4)}{\lambda} \left[ L\hat{B}(\varepsilon) + \frac{(n+4)nL^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon^2} + \sigma^2 \right] \leq \frac{24(n+4)}{\lambda} \left( \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2} + \sigma^2 \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{6} \leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{24}.
\]

Using these two observations and relation \((6.1.81)\) with \(\lambda = \frac{2(\varepsilon + 1)}{\Lambda}\), we conclude that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \| \nabla f(\bar{x}^*) \|_2 \geq \varepsilon \right\} \leq \text{Prob} \left\{ \| \nabla f(\bar{x}^*) \|_2 \geq 8L\hat{B}(\varepsilon) + \frac{3(n+4)nL^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon^2} \hat{N}(\varepsilon)ight.
\]

\[
+ \frac{24(n+4)}{\lambda} \left[ L\hat{B}(\varepsilon) + \frac{(n+4)nL^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon^2} + \sigma^2 \right] \}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{6} \leq \frac{\varepsilon^2}{24}.
\]

Observe that in the view of \((6.1.32), (6.1.82)\) and \((6.1.83)\), the total number of calls to SZO performed by the 2-RSGF method can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \frac{nL^2D^2_f}{\varepsilon} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + \varepsilon L^2 \left( D + \frac{D^2}{\varepsilon} \right) \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} + nL^2 \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right) \right).
\]

The above bound is considerably smaller than the one in \((6.1.79)\), up to a factor of \(O\left( \frac{1}{\Lambda^2 \log(1/\Lambda)} \right)\), when the second terms are the dominating ones in both bounds.

### 6.2 Nonconvex stochastic composite optimization

In this section, we consider the following problem
\[ \Psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x) \}, \quad (6.2.1) \]

where \( X \) is a closed convex set in Euclidean space \( \mathbb{R}^n \), \( f : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is continuously differentiable, but possibly nonconvex, and \( h \) is a simple convex function with known structure, but possibly nonsmooth (e.g. \( h(x) = \|x\|_1 \) or \( h(x) \equiv 0 \)). We also assume that the gradient of \( f \) is \( L \)-Lipschitz continuous for some \( L > 0 \), i.e.,

\[ \| \nabla f(y) - \nabla f(x) \| \leq L \| y - x \|, \quad \text{for any } x, y \in X, \quad (6.2.2) \]

or equivalently,

\[ |f(y) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle| \leq \frac{L}{2} \| y - x \|^2, \quad \text{for any } x, y \in X, \quad (6.2.3) \]

and \( \Psi \) is bounded below over \( X \), i.e. \( \Psi^* \) is finite. Although \( f \) is Lipschitz continuously differentiable, we assume that only the noisy gradient of \( f \) is available via subsequent calls to a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO) as discussed in the previous section. Specifically, at the \( k \)-th call, \( k \geq 1 \), for the input \( x_k \in X \), SFO would output a stochastic gradient \( G(x_k, \xi_k) \), where \( \xi_k \) is a random variable whose distribution is supported on \( \Xi_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \). Throughout the section, we assume the same assumption 13 as in the previous section about the Borel functions \( G(x_k, \xi_k) \).

In last section, we presented a randomized stochastic gradient (RSGD) method, for solving the unconstrained nonconvex SP problem, i.e., problem (6.2.1) with \( h \equiv 0 \) and \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \). While the RSGD algorithm and its variants can handle the unconstrained nonconvex SP problems, their convergence cannot be guaranteed for stochastic composite optimization problems in (6.2.1) where \( X \neq \mathbb{R}^n \) and/or \( h(\cdot) \) is non-differentiable.

Our goal in this section mainly consists of developing variants of the RSGD algorithm by taking a mini-batch of samples at each iteration of our algorithm to deal with the constrained composite problems while preserving the complexity results. More specifically, we first modify the scheme of the RSGD algorithm to propose a randomized stochastic mirror descent (RSMD) algorithm to solve constrained nonconvex stochastic composite problems. Unlike the RSGD algorithm, at each iteration of the RSMD algorithm, we take multiple samples such that the total number of calls to the SFO to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( \mathbb{E}[\|g^x(\bar{x})\|^2] \leq \epsilon \), is still \( O(\sigma^2/\epsilon^2) \), where \( g^x(\bar{x}) \) is a generalized projected gradient of \( \Psi \) at \( \bar{x} \) over \( X \). In addition, our RSMD algorithm is in a more general setting depending on a general distance function rather than Euclidean distance. This would be particularly useful for special structured constrained set (e.g., \( X \) being a standard simplex). Secondly, we present a two-phase randomized stochastic mirror descent (2-RSMD) algorithm, the RSMD algorithm with a post-optimization phase, to improve the large-deviation results of the RSMD algorithm. We show that the complexity of this approach can be further improved under a light-tail assumption about the SFO. Thirdly, under the assumption that the gradient of \( f \) is also bounded on \( X \), we specialize the RSMD algorithm to give a randomized stochastic gradient free mirror descent (RSMDF) algorithm, which only uses the stochastic zeroth-order information.
The remaining part of this section is organized as follows. We first describe some properties of the projection based on a general distance function in Subsection 6.2.1. In Subsection 6.2.2, a deterministic first-order method for problem (6.2.1) is proposed, which mainly provides a basis for our stochastic algorithms developed in later sections. Then, by incorporating a randomized scheme, we present the RSMD and 2-RSMD algorithms for solving the SP problem (6.2.1) in Subsection 6.2.3. In Subsection 6.2.4, we discuss how to generalize the RSMD algorithm to the case when only zeroth-order information is available.

### 6.2.1 Some properties of prox-mapping

As shown in the previous chapters for the convex setting, a general distance generating function, instead of the usual Euclidean distance function, help us to design algorithms that can adjust to the geometry of the feasible set. Moreover, sometimes non-Euclidean prox-mapping can be easier to compute. Our goal in this section is to generalize such constructions for the nonconvex setting.

Recall a function \( \nu : X \to \mathbb{R} \) is said to be a distance generating function with modulus 1 with respect to \( \| \cdot \| \), if \( \nu \) is continuously differentiable and strongly convex satisfying

\[
\langle x - z, \nabla \nu(x) - \nabla \nu(z) \rangle \geq \|x - z\|^2, \quad \forall x, z \in X. \quad (6.2.4)
\]

Then, the prox-function associated with \( \nu \) is defined as

\[
V(z, x) = \nu(x) - [\nu(z) + \langle \nabla \nu(z), x - z \rangle]. \quad (6.2.5)
\]

In this section, we assume that the prox-function \( V \) is chosen such that the generalized projection problem given by

\[
x^+ = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle g, u \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(x, u) + h(u) \right\} \quad (6.2.6)
\]

is easily solvable for any \( \gamma > 0 \), \( g \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( x \in X \). Apparently, different choices of \( \nu \) can be used in the definition of prox-function.

In order to discuss some important properties of the generalized projection defined in (6.2.6), let us first define

\[
\mathcal{P}_X(x, g, \gamma) = \frac{1}{\gamma}(x - x^+), \quad (6.2.7)
\]

where \( x^+ \) is given in (6.2.6). We can see that \( \mathcal{P}_X(x, \nabla f(x), \gamma) \) (see also (3.8.18)) can be viewed as a generalized projected gradient (or gradient mapping) of \( \Psi \) at \( x \). Indeed, if \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( h \) vanishes, we would have \( \mathcal{P}_X(x, \nabla f(x), \gamma) = \nabla f(x) = \nabla \Psi(x) \). For more general \( h \), the following result shows that as the size of \( \mathcal{P}_X(x, \nabla f(x), \gamma) \) vanishes, \( x^+ \) approaches to a stationary point of problem (6.2.1).

**Lemma 6.3.** Let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be given and denote \( g \equiv \nabla f(x) \). Assume that the distance generating function \( \nu \) has \( L_{\nu} \)-Lipschitz gradients. If \( \| \mathcal{P}_X(x, g, \gamma) \| \leq \varepsilon \) for some \( \gamma > 0 \),
then
\[-\nabla f(x^+) \in \partial h(x^+) + N_X(x^+) + B(\varepsilon(\gamma L + L_\nu)),\]
where \(\partial h(\cdot)\) denotes the subdifferential of \(h(\cdot)\). \(N_X\) denotes the normal cone given by
\[N_X(x) := \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle d, x - \bar{x} \rangle \leq 0 \forall x \in X\}\]  
(6.2.8)
and \(B(r) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x|| \leq r\} \).

**Proof.** By the optimality condition of (6.4.41), we have
\[-\nabla f(x) - \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x^+) - \nabla v(x)) \in \partial h(x^+) + N_X(x^+),\]
which implies that
\[-\nabla f(x^+) + \left[\nabla f(x^+) - \nabla f(x) - \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x^+) - \nabla v(x))\right] \in \partial h(x^+) + N_X(x^+).\]  
(6.2.9)
Our conclusion immediately follows from the above relation and the simple fact that
\[
\|\nabla f(x^+) - \nabla f(x) - \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x^+) - \nabla v(x))\| \leq L\|x^+ - x\| + \frac{L_\nu}{\gamma}\|x^+ - x\| \\
\leq L\|x^+ - x\| + \frac{L_\nu}{\gamma}\|x^+ - x\| \\
= (\gamma L + L_\nu)|P_X(x, g, \gamma)|. 
\]

The following lemma provides a bound for the size of \(P_X(x, g, \gamma)\).

**Lemma 6.4.** Let \(x^+\) be given in (6.2.6). Then, for any \(x \in X\), \(g \in \mathbb{R}^n\) and \(\gamma > 0\), we have
\[\langle g, P_X(x, g, \gamma) \rangle \geq \|P_X(x, g, \gamma)\|^2 + \frac{1}{\gamma} [h(x^+) - h(x)].\]  
(6.2.10)

**Proof.** By the optimality condition of (6.2.6) and the definition of prox-function in (6.2.5), there exists a \(p \in \partial h(x^+)\) such that
\[\langle g + \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x^+) - \nabla v(x)) + p, u - x^+ \rangle \geq 0, \quad \text{for any } u \in X.\]

Letting \(u = x\) in the above inequality, by the convexity of \(h\) and (6.2.4), we obtain
\[\langle g, x - x^+ \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\gamma} [\nabla v(x^+) - \nabla v(x), x^+ - x] + \langle p, x^+ - x \rangle \\
\geq \frac{1}{\gamma} \|x^+ - x\|^2 + [h(x^+) - h(x)],\]
which in the view of (6.2.7) and \(\gamma > 0\) clearly imply (6.2.10). \[\square\]

It is well-known that the Euclidean projection is Lipschitz continuous. Below, we show that this property also holds for the general prox-mapping.

**Lemma 6.5.** Let \(x_1^+\) and \(x_2^+\) be given in (6.2.6) with \(g\) replaced by \(g_1\) and \(g_2\) respectively. Then,
\[\|x_2^+ - x_1^+\| \leq \gamma\|g_2 - g_1\|.\]  
(6.2.11)

**Proof.** By the optimality condition of (6.2.6), for any \(u \in X\), there exist \(p_1 \in \partial h(x_1^+)\) and \(p_2 \in \partial h(x_2^+)\) such that
(\langle g_1 + \frac{1}{\gamma} [\nabla v(x_1^+) - \nabla v(x)] + p_1, u - x_1^+ \rangle \geq 0, \tag{6.2.12})

and

(\langle g_2 + \frac{1}{\gamma} [\nabla v(x_2^+) - \nabla v(x)] + p_2, u - x_2^+ \rangle \geq 0. \tag{6.2.13})

Letting \( u = x_2^+ \) in (6.2.12), by the convexity of \( h \), we have

\[
\langle g_1, x_2^+ - x_1^+ \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x) - \nabla v(x_1^+), x_2^+ - x_1^+) + \langle p_1, x_1^+ - x_2^+ \rangle \\
\geq \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x_2^+) - \nabla v(x_1^+), x_2^+ - x_1^+) + \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x) - \nabla v(x_2^+), x_2^+ - x_1^+) \\
+ h(x_2^+) - h(x_1^+). \tag{6.2.14}
\]

Similarly, letting \( u = x_1^+ \) in (6.2.13), we have

\[
\langle g_2, x_1^+ - x_2^+ \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x) - \nabla v(x_2^+), x_1^+ - x_2^+) + \langle p_2, x_2^+ - x_1^+ \rangle \\
\geq \frac{1}{\gamma}(\nabla v(x_1^+) - \nabla v(x_2^+), x_1^+ - x_2^+) + h(x_1^+) - h(x_2^+). \tag{6.2.15}
\]

Summing up (6.2.14) and (6.2.15), by the strong convexity (6.2.4) of \( v \), we obtain

\[
\|g_1 - g_2\| \|x_2^+ - x_1^+\| \geq \langle g_1 - g_2, x_2^+ - x_1^+ \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\gamma}\|x_2^+ - x_1^+\|^2,
\]

which gives (6.2.11).

As a consequence of the above lemma, we have \( P_X(x, \cdot, \gamma) \) is Lipschitz continuous.

**Proposition 6.1.** Let \( P_X(x, g, \gamma) \) be defined in (6.2.7). Then, for any \( g_1 \) and \( g_2 \) in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), we have

\[
\|P_X(x, g_1, \gamma) - P_X(x, g_2, \gamma)\| \leq \|g_1 - g_2\|. \tag{6.2.16}
\]

**Proof.** Noticing (6.2.7), (6.2.12) and (6.2.13), we have

\[
\|P_X(x, g_1, \gamma) - P_X(x, g_2, \gamma)\| = \|\frac{1}{\gamma}(x - x_1^+) - \frac{1}{\gamma}(x - x_2^+)\| = \frac{1}{\gamma}\|x_2^+ - x_1^+\| \leq \|g_1 - g_2\|
\]

where the last inequality follows from (6.2.11).

The following lemma characterizes the solution of the generalized projection and its proof follows as a special case of Lemma 3.5.

**Lemma 6.6.** Let \( x^+ \) be given in (6.2.6). Then, for any \( u \in X \), we have

\[
\langle g, x^+ \rangle + h(x^+) + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(x, x^+) \leq \langle g, u \rangle + h(u) + \frac{1}{\gamma} [V(x, u) - V(x^+, u)]. \tag{6.2.17}
\]
6.2 Nonconvex stochastic composite optimization

6.2.2 Nonconvex mirror descent methods

In this subsection, we consider the problem (6.2.1) with \( f \in C^1_1(X) \), and for each input \( x_k \in X \), we assume that the exact gradient \( \nabla f(x_k) \) is available. Using the exact gradient information, we give a deterministic nonconvex mirror descent (MD) algorithm for solving (6.2.1), which provides a basis for us to develop the stochastic first-order algorithms in the next subsection.

A nonconvex mirror descent (MD) algorithm

**Input:** initial point \( x_1 \in X \), total number of iterations \( N \), and the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) with \( \gamma_k > 0, k \geq 1 \).

**Step** \( k = 1, \ldots, N \). Compute

\[
x_{k+1} = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle \nabla f(x_k), u \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma_k} V(x_k, u) + h(u) \right\}.
\]  
(6.2.18)

**Output:** \( x_R \in \{x_1, \ldots, x_N\} \) such that

\[
R = \arg\min_{k \in \{1, \ldots, N\}} \| g_{X,k} \|, \quad (6.2.19)
\]

where the \( g_{X,k} \) is given by

\[
g_{X,k} = P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma_k). \quad (6.2.20)
\]

We can see that the above algorithm outputs the iterate with the minimum norm of the generalized projected gradients. In practice, one may choose the solution with the minimum function value as the output of the algorithm. However, since \( f \) may not be a convex function, we cannot provide theoretical performance guarantee for such a selection of the output solution. In the above algorithm, we have not specified the selection of the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \). We will return to this issue after establishing the following convergence results.

**Theorem 6.5.** Suppose that the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the nonconvex MD algorithm are chosen such that \( 0 < \gamma_k \leq 2/L \) with \( \gamma_k < 2/L \) for at least one \( k \). Then, we have

\[
\| g_{X,R} \|^2 \leq \frac{LD\Psi}{\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L\gamma_k^2/2)}, \quad (6.2.21)
\]

where

\[
g_{X,R} = P_X(x_R, \nabla f(x_R), \gamma_R) \quad \text{and} \quad D\Psi := \left[ \frac{(\Psi(x_k) - \Psi^*)}{L} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (6.2.22)
\]

**Proof.** Since \( f \in C^1_1(X) \), it follows from (6.2.3), (6.2.7), (6.2.18) and (6.2.20) that for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), we have

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2
\]
\[
= f(x_k) - \gamma_k \langle \nabla f(x_k), g_{X,k} \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \gamma^2_k \| g_{X,k} \|^2. \quad (6.2.23)
\]
Then, by Lemma 6.4 with $x = x_k$, $\gamma = \gamma_k$ and $g = \nabla f(x_k)$, we obtain

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) - \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \| g_{x_k} \|^2 + h(x_{k+1}) - h(x_k),
\]

which implies

\[
\Psi(x_{k+1}) \leq \Psi(x_k) - \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \| g_{x_k} \|^2. \tag{6.2.24}
\]

Summing up the above inequalities for $k = 1, \ldots, N$, by (6.2.19) and $\gamma_k \leq 2/L$, we have

\[
\| g_{x_R} \|^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) \| g_{x_k} \|^2 \leq \Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x_{k+1}) \leq \Psi(x_1) - \Psi^* + \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) \| g_{x_k} \|^2. \tag{6.2.25}
\]

By our assumption, $\sum_{k=1}^N \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) > 0$. Hence, dividing both sides of the above inequality by $\sum_{k=1}^N \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right)$, we obtain (6.2.21).

The following corollary shows a specialized complexity result for the nonconvex MD algorithm with one proper constant stepsize policy.

**Corollary 6.4.** Suppose that in the nonconvex MD algorithm the stepsizes $\gamma_k = 1/L$ for all $k = 1, \ldots, N$. Then, we have

\[
\| g_{x_R} \|^2 \leq \frac{2L^2D^2}{N}. \tag{6.2.26}
\]

**Proof.** With the constant stepsizes $\gamma_k = 1/L$ for all $k = 1, \ldots, N$, we have

\[
\frac{L^2D^2}{\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L/2 \gamma_k^2)} = \frac{2L^2D^2}{N}, \tag{6.2.27}
\]

which together with (6.2.21), clearly imply (6.2.26).

### 6.2.3 Nonconvex stochastic mirror descent methods

In this subsection, we consider problem (6.2.1), but the exact gradient of $f$ is not available. We assume that only noisy first-order information of $f$ is available via subsequent calls to the stochastic first-order oracle SFO. In particular, given the $k$-th iteration $x_k \in X$ of our algorithm, the SFO will output the stochastic gradient $G(x_k, \xi_k)$, where $\xi_k$ is a random vector whose distribution is supported on $\Xi_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$.

We assume the stochastic gradient $G(x_k, \xi_k)$ satisfies Assumption 13.

This subsection proceeds as follows. In Subsection 6.2.3.1, we present a stochastic variant of the nonconvex MD algorithm incorporated with a randomized stopping criterion, called the RSMD algorithm. Then, in Subsection 6.2.3.2, we describe a two phase RSMD algorithm, called the 2-RSMD algorithm, which can significantly reduce the large-deviations resulted from the RSMD algorithm. We assume throughout this section that the norm $\| \cdot \|$ is associated with the inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$. 
6.2.3.1 A randomized stochastic mirror descent method

Convexity of the objective function often plays an important role on establishing the convergence results for the current SGD algorithms. Similar to the RSGD method, in this subsection we give an SGD-type algorithm which does not require the convexity of the objective function. Moreover, this weaker requirement enables the algorithm to deal with the case in which the random noises \( \{\xi_k\}, k \geq 1 \) could depend on the iterates \( \{x_k\} \).

A randomized stochastic mirror descent (RSMD) algorithm

**Input:** initial point \( x_1 \in X \), iteration limit \( N \), the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) with \( \gamma_k > 0 \), \( k \geq 1 \), the batch sizes \( \{m_k\} \) with \( m_k > 0 \), \( k \geq 1 \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) supported on \( \{1, \ldots, N\} \).

**Step 0.** Let \( R \) be a random variable with probability mass function \( P_R \).

**Step \( k = 1, \ldots, R - 1 \).** Call the SFO \( m_k \) times to obtain \( G(x_k, \xi_{k,i}), i = 1, \ldots, m_k \), set

\[
G_k = \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} G(x_k, \xi_{k,i}), \tag{6.2.28}
\]

and compute

\[
x_{k+1} = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle G_k, u \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma_k} V(x_k, u) + h(u) \right\}. \tag{6.2.29}
\]

**Output:** \( x_R \).

We use a randomized iteration count to terminate the RSMD algorithm. In this algorithm, we also need to specify the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \), the batch sizes \( \{m_k\} \) and probability mass function \( P_R \). We will again address these issues after presenting some convergence results of the RSMD algorithm.

**Theorem 6.6.** Suppose that the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the RSMD algorithm are chosen such that \( 0 < \gamma_k \leq 1/L \) with \( \gamma_k < 1/L \) for at least one \( k \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) are chosen such that for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \),

\[
P_R(k) := \text{Prob}\{R = k\} = \frac{\gamma_k - L \gamma_k^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (\gamma_i - L \gamma_i^2)} \tag{6.2.30}.
\]

Then, under Assumption 13,

(a) for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{LD^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (\gamma_i/m_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^N (\gamma_i - L \gamma_i^2)}, \tag{6.2.31}
\]

where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R \) and \( \xi_{[N]} := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N) \), \( D \) is defined in (6.2.22), and the stochastic projected gradient

\[
\tilde{g}_{X,k} := P_X(x_k, G_k, \gamma_k), \tag{6.2.32}
\]
with \( P_x \) defined in (6.2.7);

(b) if, in addition, \( f \) in problem (6.2.1) is convex with an optimal solution \( x^* \), and the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are non-decreasing, i.e.,

\[
0 \leq \gamma_1 \leq \gamma_2 \leq \ldots \leq \gamma_N \leq \frac{1}{L},
\]

we have

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{(1-L\gamma_1)\mathbb{V}(x_1,x^*) + (\sigma^2/2)\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k^2/m_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L\gamma_k^2)},
\]

where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R \) and \( \xi_{[N]} \). Similarly, if the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are non-increasing, i.e.,

\[
\frac{1}{L} \geq \gamma_1 \geq \gamma_2 \geq \ldots \geq \gamma_N \geq 0,
\]

we have

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{(1-L\gamma_1)\mathbb{V}(x_1,x^*) + (\sigma^2/2)\sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2/m_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L\gamma_k^2)},
\]

where \( \mathbb{V}(x^*) := \max_{u \in X} \mathbb{V}(u,x^*) \).

**Proof.** Let \( \delta_k = G_k - \nabla f(x_k) \), \( k \geq 1 \). Since \( f \) is smooth, it follows from (6.2.3), (6.2.7), (6.2.29) and (6.2.32) that, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), we have

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2 \\
= f(x_k) - \gamma_k \langle \nabla f(x_k), \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 \\
= f(x_k) - \gamma_k \langle G_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle.
\]

So, by Lemma 6.4 with \( x = x_k \), \( \gamma = \gamma_k \) and \( g = G_k \), we obtain

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) - \left[ \gamma_k \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 + h(x_{k+1}) - h(x_k) \right] + \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 \\
+ \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} - g_{x,k} \rangle,
\]

where the projected gradient \( g_{x,k} \) is defined in (6.2.20). Then, from the above inequality, (6.2.20) and (6.2.32), we obtain

\[
\Psi(x_{k+1}) \leq \Psi(x_k) - \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle + \gamma_k \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} - g_{x,k} \| \\
\leq \Psi(x_k) - \left( \gamma_k - \frac{L}{2} \gamma_k^2 \right) \| \tilde{g}_{x,k} \|^2 + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, \tilde{g}_{x,k} \rangle + \gamma_k \| \delta_k \|^2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from Proposition 6.1 with \( x = x_k, \gamma = \gamma_k, g_1 = G_k \) and \( g_2 = \nabla f(x_k) \). Summing up the above inequalities for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) and noticing that \( \gamma_k \leq 1/L \), we obtain
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L_k^2) \| \bar{g}_{x,k} \|^2 \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - \frac{1}{2} L_k^2) \| \bar{g}_{x,k} \|^2 \leq \Psi(x_1) - \Psi(x_{k+1}) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left\{ \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, g_{x,k} \rangle + \gamma_k \| \delta_k \|^2 \right\} \leq \Psi(x_1) - \Psi^* + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left\{ \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, g_{x,k} \rangle + \gamma_k \| \delta_k \|^2 \right\}. \tag{6.2.39} \]

Notice that the iterate \( x_k \) is a function of the history \( \xi_{[k]} \) of the generated random process and hence is random. By part a) of Assumption 13, we have \( \mathbb{E}[\langle \delta_k, g_{x,k} \rangle | \xi_{[k-1]}] = 0 \). In addition, denoting \( \delta_{k,i} = G(x_k, x_{k,i}) - V f(x_k), i = 1, \ldots, m_k, k = 1, \ldots, N, \)

\[ S_j = \sum_{i=1}^{j} \delta_{k,i}, j = 1, \ldots, m_k, \text{ and } S_0 = 0, \text{ and noting that } \mathbb{E}[\langle S_{i-1}, \delta_{k,i} \rangle | S_{i-1}] = 0 \]

for all \( i = 1, \ldots, m_k \), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| S_{m_k} \|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\| S_{m_k - 1} \|^2 + 2 \langle S_{m_k - 1}, \delta_{k,m_k} \rangle + \| \delta_{k,m_k} \|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\| S_{m_k - 1} \|^2] + \mathbb{E}[\| \delta_{k,m_k} \|^2] = \ldots = \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} \mathbb{E}[\| \delta_{k,i} \|^2], \tag{6.2.28} \]

which, in view of (6.2.28) and Assumption 13.b), then implies that

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| \delta_k \|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}\left[ \left\| \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} \delta_{k,i} \right\|^2 \right] = \frac{1}{m_k^2} \mathbb{E}[\| S_{m_k} \|^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{m_k^2}. \tag{6.2.40} \]

With these observations, now taking expectations with respect to \( \xi_{[N]} \) on both sides of (6.2.39), we get

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( \gamma_k - L_k^2 \right) \mathbb{E}[\| \bar{g}_{x,k} \|^2] \leq \Psi(x_1) - \Psi^* + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k / m_k). \]

Then, since \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L_k^2) > 0 \) by our assumption, dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L_k^2) \) and noticing that

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| \bar{g}_{x,k} \|^2] = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L_k^2) \mathbb{E}[\| \bar{g}_{x,k} \|^2]}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L_k^2)}, \]

we have (6.2.31) holds.

We now show part (b) of the theorem. By Lemma 6.6 with \( x = x_k, y = \gamma_k, g = G_k \) and \( u = x^* \), we have

\[ \langle G_k, x_{k+1} \rangle + h(x_{k+1}) + \frac{1}{L_k} V(x_k, x_{k+1}) \leq \langle G_k, x^* \rangle + h(x^*) + \frac{1}{L_k} [V(x_k, x^*) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*)], \]

which together with (6.2.3) and definition of \( \delta_k \) give

\[ f(x_{k+1}) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), \bar{g}_{x,k+1} \rangle + h(x_{k+1}) + \frac{1}{L_k} V(x_k, x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2 + \langle \nabla f(x_k), \bar{g}_{x,k} \rangle + h(x^*) + \frac{1}{L_k} [V(x_k, x^*) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*)]. \]

Simplifying the above inequality, we have
Then, it follows from the convexity of $f$, (6.2.4) and (6.2.5) that

$$
\Psi(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x^*) + h(x^*) + \langle \delta_k, x^* - x_k \rangle + \left( \frac{L}{2} - \frac{1}{2R} \right) \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2
$$

$$+
\frac{1}{R} [V(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x_{k+1})] = \Psi(x^*) + \langle \delta_k, x^* - x_k \rangle + \langle \delta_k, x_k - x_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{L_R - 1}{2R} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2
$$

$$+
\frac{1}{R} [V(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x_{k+1})] \leq \Psi(x^*) + \langle \delta_k, x^* - x_k \rangle + \|\delta_k\| \|x_k - x_{k+1}\| - \frac{L}{2R} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2
$$

$$+
\frac{1}{R} [V(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x_{k+1})] \leq \Psi(x^*) + \langle \delta_k, x^* - x_k \rangle + \frac{R}{2(1-L_R)} \|\delta_k\|^2 + \frac{1}{R} [V(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x_{k+1})],
$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that $a^2 - bx^2/2 \leq a^2/(2b)$. Noticing $\gamma_k \leq 1/L$, multiplying both sides of the above inequality by $(\gamma_k - L_R^2)$ and summing them up for $k = 1, \ldots, N$, we obtain

$$
\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L_R^2) [\Psi(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L_R^2) \langle \delta_k, x^* - x_k \rangle + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{R}{2} \|\delta_k\|^2
$$

$$+
\sum_{k=1}^N (1 - L_R) [V(x_{k+1}) - V(x_{k+1})].
$$

(6.2.41)

Now, if the increasing stepsize condition (6.2.33) is satisfied, we have from $V(x_{N+1}, x^*) \geq 0$ that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^N (1 - L_R) [V(x_{k+1}) - V(x_{k+1})]
$$

$$= (1 - L_R) V(x_{1}, x^*) + \sum_{k=2}^N (1 - L_R) V(x_k, x^*) = \sum_{k=1}^N (1 - L_R) [V(x_{k+1}) - V(x_k, x^*)]
$$

$$\leq (1 - L_R) V(x_{1}, x^*) + \sum_{k=2}^N (1 - L_R) V(x_k, x^*) = \sum_{k=1}^N (1 - L_R) [V(x_{k+1}) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*)]
$$

$$\leq (1 - L_R) V(x_{1}, x^*).$$

Taking expectation on both sides of (6.2.41) with respect to $\xi_{[N]}$, again using the observations that $\mathbb{E}[\|\xi^2\|] \leq \sigma^2/m_k$ and $\mathbb{E}[\langle \delta_k, g_{\xi_{[k]}} \rangle | \xi_{[k-1]}] = 0$, then it follows from the above inequality that

$$
\sum_{k=1}^N (\gamma_k - L_R^2) \mathbb{E}_{\xi_{[N]}} [\Psi(x_{k+1}) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq (1 - L_R) V(x_{1}, x^*) + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^N \gamma_k^2 / m_k.
$$

(6.2.34)

Finally, (6.2.34) follows from the above inequality and the arguments similar to the proof in part (a). Now, if the decreasing stepsize condition (6.2.35) is satisfied, we have from the definition $\mathbb{V}(x^*) := \max_{u \in X} V(u, x^*) \geq 0$ and $V(x_{N+1}, x^*) \geq 0$ that
Then, under Assumption 13, we have
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( 1 - L\gamma_k \right) \left[ V(x_k, x^*) - V(x_{k+1}, x^*) \right]
\]
\[
= (1 - L\gamma_1) V(x_1, x^*) + L \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} (\gamma_k - \gamma_{k+1}) V(x_{k+1}, x^*) - (1 - L\gamma_N) V(x_{N+1}, x^*)
\]
\[
\leq (1 - L\gamma_1) V(x^*) + L \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} (\gamma_k - \gamma_{k+1}) V(x^*) - (1 - L\gamma_N) V(x_{N+1}, x^*)
\]
\[
\leq (1 - L\gamma_N) V(x^*),
\]
which together with (6.2.41) and similar arguments used above would give (6.2.36).

A few remarks about Theorem 6.6 are in place. Firstly, if \( f \) is convex and the batch sizes \( m_k = 1 \), then by properly choosing the stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) (e.g., \( \gamma_k = \sigma (1/\sqrt{k}) \) for \( k \) large), we can still guarantee a nearly optimal rate of convergence for the RSMD algorithm (see (6.2.34) or (6.2.36)). However, if \( f \) is possibly nonconvex and \( m_k = 1 \), then the right hand side of (6.2.31) is bounded from below by
\[
\frac{LD^2_{\gamma} + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k}{\gamma_k - L^2_{\gamma}} \geq \sigma^2,
\]
which can not guarantee the convergence of the RSMD algorithm, no matter how the stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are specified. This is exactly the reason why we consider taking multiple samples \( G(\gamma_k, \xi_k), i = 1, \ldots, m_k \), for some \( m_k > 1 \) at each iteration of the RSMD method.

Secondly, we need to estimate \( L \) to ensure the condition on the stepsize \( \gamma_k \). However, we do not need a very accurate estimation for \( L \) (see the discussion after Corollary 6.1 for more details in the similar case).

Thirdly, from (6.2.39) in the proof of Theorem 6.6, we see that the stepsize policies can be further relaxed to get a similar result as (6.2.31). More specifically, we can have the following corollary.

**Corollary 6.5.** Suppose that the stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) in the RSMD algorithm are chosen such that \( 0 < \gamma_k \leq 2/L \) with \( \gamma_k < 2/L \) for at least one \( k \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) are chosen such that for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N, \)
\[
P_R(k) := \text{Prob}\{ R = k \} = \frac{\gamma_k - L^2_{\gamma}/2}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L^2_{\gamma}/2)}, \tag{6.2.42}
\]
Then, under Assumption 13, we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \tilde{E}_{k,x} \|^2] \leq \frac{LD^2_{\gamma} + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k / m_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} (\gamma_k - L^2_{\gamma}/2)}, \tag{6.2.43}
\]
where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R \) and \( \tilde{\xi}_{[N]} := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N) \).

Based on Theorem 6.6, we can establish the following complexity results of the RSMD algorithm with proper selection of stepsizes \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) and batch sizes \( \{ m_k \} \) at each iteration.

**Corollary 6.6.** Suppose that in the RSMD algorithm the stepsizes \( \gamma_k = 1/(2L) \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) are chosen as (6.2.30). Also
assume that the batch sizes \( m_k = m, k = 1, \ldots, N \), for some \( m \geq 1 \). Then under Assumption 13, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{8L^2\Psi^2}{N} + \frac{6\sigma^2}{m} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{4L^2\Psi^2}{N} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{m},
\]

where \( g_{X,R} \) and \( \tilde{g}_{X,R} \) are defined in (6.2.20) and (6.2.32), respectively. If, in addition, \( f \) in the problem (6.2.1) is convex with an optimal solution \( x^* \), then

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{2LV(x_1, x^*)}{N} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2Lm}.
\]

**Proof.** By (6.2.31), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] \leq LD^2\Psi + \sigma^2 \gamma_k \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k
\]

which together with \( \gamma_k = 1/(2L) \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) imply that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] = \frac{LD^2\Psi + \frac{\sigma^2 N}{2L}}{N} = \frac{4L^2\Psi^2}{N} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{m}.
\]

Then, by Proposition 6.1 with \( x = x_R, \gamma = \gamma_k, g_1 = \nabla f(x_R), g_2 = G_k \), we have from the above inequality and (6.2.40) that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] \leq 2\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2] + 2\mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,R} - \tilde{g}_{X,R}\|^2]
\]

\[
\leq 2 \left( \frac{4L^2\Psi^2}{N} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{m} \right) + 2\mathbb{E} [\|G_k - \nabla f(x_R)\|^2]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{8L^2\Psi^2}{N} + \frac{6\sigma^2}{m}.
\]

Moreover, since \( \gamma_k = 1/(2L) \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), the stepsize conditions (6.2.33) are satisfied. Hence, if the problem is convex, (6.2.45) can be derived in a similar way as (6.2.34).

Note that all the bounds in the above corollary depend on \( m \). Indeed, if \( m \) is set to some fixed positive integer constant, then the second terms in the above results will always majorize the first terms when \( N \) is sufficiently large. Hence, the appropriate choice of \( m \) should be balanced with the number of iterations \( N \), which would eventually depend on the total computational budget given by the user. The following corollary shows an appropriate choice of \( m \) depending on the total number of calls to the SFO.

**Corollary 6.7.** Suppose that all the conditions in Corollary 6.6 are satisfied. Given a fixed total number of calls \( \bar{N} \) to the SFO, if the number of calls to the SFO (number of samples) at each iteration of the RSMD algorithm is

\[
m = \left\lfloor \min \left\{ \max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sigma \sqrt{\bar{N}}}{4L} \right\}, \bar{N} \right\} \right\rfloor,
\]

(6.2.46)
for some $\bar{D} > 0$, then we have $1/L \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,k}\|^2] \leq \mathcal{B}_N$, where
\[
\mathcal{B}_N := \frac{16L^2D_p^2}{N} + \frac{4\sqrt{\sigma}}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \frac{D_p^2}{D} \max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{\sigma}}{4LD\sqrt{N}} \right\} \right).
\tag{6.2.47}
\]

If, in addition, $f$ in problem (6.2.1) is convex, then $\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_k) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \mathcal{C}_N$, where $x^*$ is an optimal solution and
\[
\mathcal{C}_N := \frac{4LV(x_1,x^*)}{N} + \frac{\sqrt{\sigma}}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \frac{V(x_1,x^*)}{D} + \bar{D} \max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{\sigma}}{4LD\sqrt{N}} \right\} \right).
\tag{6.2.48}
\]

Proof. Given the total number of calls to the stochastic first-order oracle $\bar{N}$ and the number $m$ of calls to the SFO at each iteration, the RSMD algorithm can perform at most $N = \lceil \bar{N}/m \rceil$ iterations. Obviously, $N \geq \bar{N}/(2m)$. With this observation and (6.2.44), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,k}\|^2] \leq \frac{16mL^2D_p^2}{N} + \frac{6\sigma^2}{m}
\leq \frac{16L^2D_p^2}{N} \left( 1 + \frac{\sigma\sqrt{\bar{N}}}{4LD} \right) \max \left\{ \frac{4\sqrt{\sigma}D\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}, \frac{6\sigma^2}{N} \right\}
= \frac{16L^2D_p^2}{N} + \frac{4\sqrt{\bar{N}}}{{\sqrt{N}}} \left( \frac{D_p^2}{D} + \bar{D} \max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{\sigma}}{4LD\sqrt{N}} \right\} \right),
\tag{6.2.49}
\]
which gives (6.2.47). The bound (6.2.48) can be obtained in a similar way. $\blacksquare$

We now would like add a few remarks about the above results in Corollary 6.7. Firstly, although we use the constant value for $m_k = m$ at each iteration, one can also choose it adaptively during the execution of the RSMD algorithm while monitoring the convergence. For example, in practice $m_k$ could adaptively depend on $\sigma_k^2 := \mathbb{E} \left[ \|G(x_k, \xi_k) - \nabla f(x_k)\|^2 \right]$. Another example is to choose growing batch sizes where one uses a smaller number of samples in the beginning of the algorithm. In particular, by setting
\[
m_k = \left\lfloor \min \left\{ \frac{\sigma(x_k^2)}{4D}, \bar{N} \right\} \right\rfloor,
\]
we can easily see that the RSMD algorithm still achieves the same rates of convergence as those obtained by using constant bath sizes in Corollary 6.7. Secondly, we need to specify the parameter $\bar{D}$ in (6.2.46). It can be seen from (6.2.47) and (6.2.48) that when $\bar{N}$ is relatively large such that
\[
\max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{\sigma}}{4LD\sqrt{N}} \right\} = 1, \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad \bar{N} \geq \frac{3\sigma^2}{(8L^2\bar{D}^2)},
\tag{6.2.50}
\]
an optimal choice of $\bar{D}$ would be $D_p$ and $\sqrt{3V(x_1,x^*)}$ for solving nonconvex and convex SP problems, respectively. With this selection of $\bar{D}$, the bounds in (6.2.47) and (6.2.48), respectively, reduce to
\[
\frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,k}\|^2] \leq \frac{16L^2D_p^2}{N} + \frac{8\sqrt{\sigma}D_p\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}
\tag{6.2.51}
\]
and
\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x^*) - \Psi(x_1)] \leq \frac{4LV(x_1,x^*)}{N} + \frac{2\sqrt{2V(x_1,x^*)}\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}. \] (6.2.52)

Thirdly, the stepsize policy in Corollary 6.6 and the probability mass function (6.2.30) together with the number of samples (6.2.46) at each iteration of the RSMD algorithm provide a unified strategy for solving both convex and nonconvex SP problems. In particular, the RSMD algorithm exhibits a nearly optimal rate of convergence for solving smooth convex SP problems, since the second term in (6.2.52) is unimprovable, while the first term in (6.2.52) can be considerably improved.

### 6.2.3.2 A two-phase randomized stochastic mirror descent method

In the previous subsection, we present the expected complexity results over many runs of the RSMD algorithm. Indeed, we are also interested in the performance of a single run of RSMD. In particular, we intend to establish the complexity results for finding an \((\varepsilon,\Lambda)\)-solution of the problem (6.2.1), i.e., a point \(x \in X\) satisfying
\[ \text{Prob}\{\|g_X(x)\|^2 \leq \varepsilon\} \geq 1 - \Lambda, \]
for some \(\varepsilon > 0\) and \(\Lambda \in (0, 1)\). Noticing that by the Markov’s inequality and (6.2.47), we can directly show that
\[ \text{Prob}\{\|g_{X,R}\|^2 \geq \gamma \Lambda L \bar{N}\} \leq \frac{1}{\Lambda}, \quad \text{for any } \lambda > 0. \] (6.2.53)

This implies that the total number of calls to the SFO performed by the RSMD algorithm for finding an \((\varepsilon,\Lambda)\)-solution, after disregarding a few constant factors, can be bounded by
\[ O\left\{\frac{1}{\Lambda\varepsilon} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\Lambda^2\varepsilon^2}\right\}. \] (6.2.54)

In this subsection, we present an approach to improve the dependence of the above bound on \(\Lambda\). More specifically, we propose a variant of the RSMD algorithm which has two phases: an optimization phase and a post-optimization phase. The optimization phase consists of independent single runs of the RSMD algorithm to generate a list of candidate solutions, and in the post-optimization phase, we choose a solution \(x^*\) from these candidate solutions generated by the optimization phase. For the sake of simplicity, we assume throughout this subsection that the norm \(\|\cdot\|\) in \(\mathbb{R}^n\) is the standard Euclidean norm.

**A two phase RSMD (2-RSMD) algorithm**

**Input:** Given initial point \(x_1 \in X\), number of runs \(S\), total \(\bar{N}\) of calls to the SFO in each run of the RSMD algorithm, and sample size \(T\) in the post-optimization phase.

**Optimization phase:**
- For \(s = 1, \ldots, S\)
  - Call the RSMD algorithm with initial point \(x_1\), iteration limit \(N = \lceil \bar{N}/m \rceil\) with \(m\) given by (6.2.46), stepsizes \(\gamma_k = 1/(2L)\) for \(k = 1, \ldots, N\), batch sizes \(m_k = m\), and probability mass function \(P_\mathcal{R}\) in (6.2.30).
Let $\bar{x}_s = x_{R_s}$, $s = 1, \ldots, S$, be the outputs of this phase.

Post-optimization phase:
Choose a solution $\bar{x}^*$ from the candidate list $\{\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_S\}$ such that

$$
\|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}^*)\| = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s)\|, \quad \bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s) := P_x(\bar{x}_s, \bar{G}(\bar{x}_s), \gamma_{R_s}),
$$

(6.2.55)

where $\bar{G}(x) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=1}^{T} G(x, \xi_k)$ and $P_x(x, g, \gamma)$ is defined in (6.2.7).

Output: $\bar{x}^*$.

In the 2-RSMD algorithm, the total number of calls of SFO in the optimization phase and post-optimization phase is bounded by $S \times \bar{N}$ and $S \times T$, respectively. In the next theorem, we provide certain bounds of $S$, $\bar{N}$ and $T$ for finding an $(\epsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (6.2.1).

We are now ready to state the main convergence properties for the 2-RSMD algorithm.

**Theorem 6.7.** Under Assumption 13, the following statements hold for the 2-RSMD algorithm applied to problem (6.2.1).

(a) Let $\mathcal{B}_\bar{N}$ be defined in (6.2.47). Then, for all $\lambda > 0$

$$
\text{Prob} \left\{ \|g_x(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 \geq 2 \left( 4L \mathcal{B}_{\bar{N}} + \frac{3\lambda \sigma^2}{4} \right) \right\} \leq \frac{\gamma}{\lambda} + 2^{-S},
$$

(6.2.56)

(b) Let $\epsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$ be given. If the parameters $(S, \bar{N}, T)$ are set to

$$
S(\Lambda) := \left\lfloor \log_2 (2/\Lambda) \right\rfloor,
$$

(6.2.57)

$$
\bar{N}(\epsilon) := \max \left\{ \frac{512L^2 D_T^2}{\epsilon}, \left( \sqrt{D + \frac{D_T^2}{\epsilon}} \right)^2 \left( \frac{128 \sqrt{3} L \sigma}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \right\},
$$

(6.2.58)

$$
T(\epsilon, \Lambda) := \left\lfloor \frac{24N(\Lambda) \sigma^2}{\lambda \epsilon^2} \right\rfloor,
$$

(6.2.59)

then the 2-RSMD algorithm computes an $(\epsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of the problem (6.2.1) after taking at most

$$
S(\Lambda) [\bar{N}(\epsilon) + T(\epsilon, \Lambda)]
$$

(6.2.60)

calls of the stochastic first order oracle.

**Proof.** We first show part (a). Let $g_x(\bar{x}_s) = P_x(\bar{x}_s, \nabla f(\bar{x}_s), \gamma_{R_s})$. Then, it follows from the definition of $\bar{x}^*$ in (6.2.55) that

$$
\|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_x(\bar{x}_s) + \bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s) - g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2
$$

$$
\leq \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \left\{ 2\|g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s) - g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \right\}
$$

$$
\leq 2 \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 + 2 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\bar{g}_x(\bar{x}_s) - g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2,
$$

which implies that
\[ \|g_x(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 \leq 2\|\tilde{g}_x(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 + 2\|g_x(\bar{x}^*) - \tilde{g}_x(\bar{x}^*)\|^2 \]
\[ \leq 4 \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 4 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\tilde{g}_x (\tilde{x}_s) - g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 2\|g_x (\bar{x}^*) - \tilde{g}_x (\bar{x}^*)\|^2 \]
\[ \leq 4 \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 + 6 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\tilde{g}_x (\tilde{x}_s) - g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2. \quad (6.2.61) \]

We now provide certain probabilistic bounds to the two terms in the right hand side of the above inequality. Firstly, from the fact that \( \tilde{x}_s, 1 \leq s \leq S \), are independent and (6.2.53) (with \( \lambda = 2 \)), we have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \min_{s \in \{1, \ldots, S\}} \|g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L \mathcal{R}_N \right\} = \prod_{s=1}^{S} \text{Prob} \left\{ \|g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L \mathcal{R}_N \right\} \leq 2^{-S}. \]

(6.2.62)

Moreover, denoting \( \tilde{\sigma}_{s,k} = G(\tilde{x}_s, \tilde{x}_k) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_k), k = 1, \ldots, T \), by Proposition 6.1 with \( x = \tilde{x}_s, y = \gamma_{1T}, g_1 = \tilde{G}_T(\tilde{x}_s), g_2 = \nabla f(\tilde{x}_s) \), we have

\[ \|\tilde{g}_x (\tilde{x}_s) - g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\| \leq \|\sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{\sigma}_{s,k}/T\|. \]

(6.2.63)

From the above inequality, Assumption 13 and Lemma 6.1.a), for any \( \lambda > 0 \) and any \( s = 1, \ldots, S \), we have

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \|\tilde{g}_x (\tilde{x}_s) - g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \geq \frac{\lambda \sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq \text{Prob} \left\{ \|\sum_{t=1}^{T} \tilde{\sigma}_{s,k}\|^2 \geq \lambda T \sigma^2 \right\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda}, \]

which implies

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|g_x (\tilde{x}_s) - g_x (\tilde{x}_s)\|^2 \geq \frac{\lambda \sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq \frac{S}{\lambda}. \]

(6.2.64)

Then, the conclusion (6.2.56) follows from (6.2.61), (6.2.62) and (6.2.64).

We now show part (b). With the settings in part (b), it is easy to count the total number of calls of the SFO in the 2-RSMD algorithm is bounded up by (6.2.60). Hence, we only need to show that the \( \bar{x}^* \) returned by the 2-RSMD algorithm is indeed an \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of the problem (6.2.1). With the choice of \( \bar{N}(\epsilon) \) in (6.2.58), we can see that (6.2.50) holds. So, we have from (6.2.47) and (6.2.58) that

\[ \mathcal{R}_{\bar{N}(\epsilon)} = \frac{16L \mathcal{D}^2}{N(\epsilon)} + \frac{4\sqrt{3} \sigma^2}{\sqrt{N(\epsilon)}} \left( \tilde{D} + \frac{D^2}{D} \right) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}}. \]

By the above inequality and (6.2.59), setting \( \lambda = 2S/\Lambda \) in (6.2.56), we have

\[ 8L \mathcal{R}_{\bar{N}(\epsilon)} + \frac{6\lambda \sigma^2}{T(\epsilon, \lambda)} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{\lambda \epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} = \epsilon, \]

which together with (6.2.56), (6.2.57) and \( \lambda = 2S/\Lambda \) imply

\[ \text{Prob} \left\{ \|g_x (\tilde{x}^*)\|^2 \geq \epsilon \right\} \leq \frac{1}{2} + 2^{-S} \leq \Lambda. \]
Hence, $\bar{x}^*$ is an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of the problem (6.2.1).

Now, it is interesting to compare the complexity bound in (6.2.60) with the one in (6.2.54). In view of (6.2.57), (6.2.58) and (6.2.59), the complexity bound in (6.2.60) for finding an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution, after discarding a few constant factors, is equivalent to

$$O\left\{ \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \log_2 \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \log_2 \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \log_2 \frac{1}{\Lambda} \right\}. \quad (6.2.65)$$

When the second terms are the dominating terms in both bounds, the above bound (6.2.65) can be considerably smaller than the one in (6.2.54) up to a factor of $1/\left[ \Lambda^2 \log_2 (1/\Lambda) \right]$.

The following theorem shows that under the “light-tail” assumption 14, the bound (6.2.60) in Theorem 6.7 can be further improved.

**Corollary 6.8.** Under Assumptions 13 and 14, the following statements hold for the 2-RSMD algorithm applied to problem (6.2.1).

(a) Let $\bar{B}$ is defined in (6.2.47). Then, for all $\lambda > 0$

$$\text{Prob}\left\{ \|g_X(\bar{x})\|^2 \geq 8L\bar{B} + \frac{12(1 + \lambda)^2 \sigma^2}{T} \right\} \leq S \exp\left( -\frac{\lambda^2}{3} \right) + 2^{-S}; \quad (6.2.66)$$

(b) Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$ be given. If $S$ and $\bar{N}$ are set to $S(\Lambda)$ and $\bar{N}(\varepsilon)$ as in (6.2.57) and (6.2.58), respectively, and the sample size $T$ is set to

$$T'(\varepsilon, \Lambda) := \frac{24\sigma^2}{\varepsilon} \left[ 1 + \left( 3 \log_2 \frac{2S(\Lambda)}{\Lambda} \right)^2 \right]^2, \quad (6.2.67)$$

then the 2-RSMD algorithm can compute an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of the problem (6.2.1) after taking at most

$$S(\Lambda) \left[ \bar{N}(\varepsilon) + T'(\varepsilon, \Lambda) \right] \quad (6.2.68)$$

calls to the stochastic first-order oracle.

**Proof.** We only give a sketch of the proof for part (a). The proof of part (b) follows from part (a) and similar arguments for proving (b) part of Theorem 6.7. Now, denoting $\delta_{k,i} = G(\bar{x}_i, \xi_k) - \nabla f(\bar{x}_i), k = 1, \ldots, T$, again by Proposition 6.1, we have (6.2.63) holds. Then, by Assumption 14 and Lemma 6.1.b), for any $\lambda > 0$ and any $s = 1, \ldots, S$, we have

$$\text{Prob}\left\{ \|\bar{g}_X(\bar{x}_s) - g_X(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq (1 + \lambda)^2 2\sigma^2 \right\} \leq \text{Prob}\left\{ \|\sum_{k=1}^{T} \delta_{k,i}\| \geq \sqrt{2T}(1 + \lambda)\sigma \right\} \leq \exp\left( -\frac{\lambda^2}{T} \right),$$

which implies that for any $\lambda > 0$

$$\text{Prob}\left\{ \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} \|\bar{g}_X(\bar{x}_s) - g_X(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq (1 + \lambda)^2 2\sigma^2 \right\} \leq \exp\left( -\frac{\lambda^2}{T} \right), \quad (6.2.69)$$
Then, the conclusion (6.2.66) follows from (6.2.61), (6.2.62) and (6.2.69).

In view of (6.2.57), (6.2.58) and (6.2.67), the bound in (6.2.68), after discarding a few constant factors, is equivalent to

$$O\left\{ \epsilon \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon^2} \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \log^2 \frac{1}{\Lambda} \right\},$$

(6.2.70)

Clearly, the third term of the above bound is smaller than the third term in (6.2.65) by a factor of $1/\Lambda$.

In the remaining part of this section, we briefly discuss another variant of the 2-RSMD algorithm, namely, 2-RSMD-V algorithm which can possibly improve the practical performance of the 2-RSMD algorithm. Similarly to the 2-RSMD algorithm, this variant also consists of two phases. The only difference exists in that the $S$ runs of the RSMD algorithm in the optimization phase are not independent of each other and the output of each run is used as the initial point of the next run, although the post-optimization phase of the 2-RSMD-V algorithm is the same as that of the 2-RSMD algorithm. We now formally state the optimization phase of the 2-RSMD-V algorithm as follows.

**Optimization phase of 2-RSMD-V algorithm:**

For $s = 1, \ldots, S$

Call the RSMD algorithm with initial point $\bar{x}_{s-1}$ where $\bar{x}_0 = x_1$ and $\bar{x}_s = x_{k_s}$, $s = 1, \ldots, S$, are the outputs of the $s$-th run of the RSMD algorithm, iteration limit $N = \lfloor \bar{N}/m \rfloor$ with $m$ given by (6.2.46), stepsizes $\gamma_k = 1/(2L)$ for $k = 1, \ldots, N$, batch sizes $m_k = m$, and probability mass function $P_R$ in (6.2.30).

As mentioned above, in the 2-RSMD-V algorithm, unlike the 2-RSMD algorithm, the $S$ candidate solutions are not independent and hence the analysis of Theorem 6.7 cannot be directly applied. However, by slightly modifying the proof of Theorem 3, we can show that the above 2-RSMD-V algorithm exhibits similar convergence behavior as the 2-RSMD algorithm under certain more restrictive conditions.

**Corollary 6.9.** Suppose that the feasible set $X$ is bounded and Assumption 13 holds. Then, the complexity of the 2-RSMD-V algorithm to find an $(\epsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (6.2.1) is bounded by (6.2.65). If in addition, Assumption 14 holds, then this complexity bound improves to (6.2.70).

**Proof.** Denote $\Psi = \max_{x \in X} \Psi(x)$ and let $E_s$ be the event that $\|g_x(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_N$ where

$$\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_N := \frac{16(\Psi - \Psi^* N)}{\sqrt{N}} + 4\sqrt{\sigma\gamma} \left( \frac{\Psi - \Psi^*}{LD} + \hat{D} \max \left\{ 1, \frac{\sqrt{\sigma\gamma}}{4LD\sqrt{N}} \right\} \right).$$

Now note that due to the boundeness of $X$ and continuity of $f$, $\Psi$ is finite and therefore the bound $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_N$ is valid. Also observe that by (6.2.53) (with $\lambda = 2$) together with the fact that $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_N \geq \tilde{\mathcal{B}}_N$, we have

$$\text{Prob} \left\{ \bigcap_{j=1}^{s-1} E_j \big| E_s \right\} \leq \frac{1}{2}, \ s = 1, 2, \ldots, S,$$
which consequently implies that
\[
\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \min_{s \in \{1, 2, \ldots, S\}} \|g_X(\bar{x}_s)\|^2 \geq 2L\hat{B}\bar{N} \right\}
= \operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \bigcap_{s=1}^{S} E_s \right\} = \prod_{s=1}^{S} \operatorname{Prob}\left\{ E_s \mid \bigcap_{j=1}^{s-1} E_j \right\} \leq 2^{-S}.
\]
Observing that the above inequality is similar to (6.2.62), the rest of proof is almost identical to those of Theorem 6.7 and Corollary 6.8 and hence we skip the details.

### 6.2.4 Stochastic zeroth-order methods for composite problems

In this section, we discuss how to specialize the RSMD algorithm to deal with the situations where only noisy function values of the problem (6.2.1) are available. More specifically, we assume that we can only access the noisy zeroth-order information of \( f \) by a stochastic zeroth-order oracle (SZO). For any input \( x_k \) and \( \xi_k \), the SZO would output a quantity \( F(x_k, \xi_k) \), where \( x_k \) is the \( k \)-th iterate of our algorithm and \( \xi_k \) is a random variable whose distribution is supported on \( \Xi \in \mathbb{R}^d \) (noting that \( \Xi \) does not depend on \( x_k \)). Throughout this section, we assume \( F(x_k, \xi_k) \) is an unbiased estimator of \( f(x_k) \) that satisfies Assumption 15.

We are going to apply the randomized smoothing techniques to explore the zeroth-order information of \( f \). Hence, throughout this section, we also assume \( F(\cdot, \xi_k) \) is smooth, i.e., it is differentiable and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L \), almost surely with respect to \( \xi_k \in \Xi \), which together with Assumption 15 imply \( f \) is smooth and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L \). Also, throughout this section, we assume that \( \| \cdot \| \) is the standard Euclidean norm.

Similar to Subsection 6.1.2.1, let us define the approximated stochastic gradient of \( f \) at \( x_k \) as in (6.1.58) and define \( G(x_k, \xi_k) = \nabla f(x_k, \xi_k) \). We assume the Assumption 1 holds for \( G(x_k, \xi_k) \). Then, by the Assumption 15 and Lemma 6.2.a), we directly get
\[
\mathbb{E}_{v, \xi_k}[G(\mu(x_k, \xi_k), v)] = \nabla f(\mu(x_k)),
\]   \hspace{1cm} (6.2.71)
where the expectation is taken with respect to \( v \) and \( \xi_k \).

Now based on the RSMD algorithm, we state an algorithm which only uses zeroth-order information to solve problem (6.2.1).

#### A randomized stochastic gradient free mirror descent (RSMDF) algorithm

**Input:** Given initial point \( x_1 \in X \), iteration limit \( N \), the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) with \( \gamma_k > 0 \), \( k \geq 1 \), the batch sizes \( \{m_k\} \) with \( m_k > 0 \), \( k \geq 1 \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) supported on \( \{1, \ldots, N\} \).

**Step 0.** Let \( R \) be a random variable with probability mass function \( P_R \).

**Step \( k = 1, \ldots, R - 1 \).** Call the SZO \( m_k \) times to obtain \( G_{\mu}(x_k, \xi_k, v_k, i), i = 1, \ldots, m_k \), set
\[ G_{\mu,k} = \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} G_{\mu}(x_k, \xi_{k,i}, v_{k,i}) \]  

(6.2.72)

and compute

\[ x_{k+1} = \arg \min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle G_{\mu,k}, u \rangle + \frac{1}{\mu} V(x_k, u) + h(u) \right\}. \]  

(6.2.73)

**Output:** \( x_R \).

Compared with RSMD algorithm, we can see at the \( k \)-th iteration, the RSMDF algorithm simply replaces the stochastic gradient \( G_k \) by the approximated stochastic gradient \( G_{\mu,k} \). By (6.2.71), \( G_{\mu,k} \) can be simply viewed as an unbiased stochastic gradient of the smoothed function \( f_{\mu} \). However, to apply the results developed in the previous section, we still need an estimation of the bound on the variations of the stochastic gradient \( G_{\mu,k} \). In addition, the role that the smoothing parameter \( \mu \) plays and the proper selection of \( \mu \) in the RSMDF algorithm are still not clear now. We answer these questions in the following series of theorems and their corollaries.

**Theorem 6.8.** Suppose that the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the RSMDF algorithm are chosen such that \( 0 < \gamma_k \leq 1/L \) with \( \gamma_k < 1/L \) for at least one \( k \), and the probability mass function \( P_R \) are chosen as (6.2.30). If \( \|\nabla f(x)\| \leq M \) for all \( x \in X \), then under Assumptions 13 and 15,

(a) for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[ E[\|\bar{g}_{\mu,X,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{L\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)\mu^2+\mu^2\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)\ln n+\tilde{\sigma}^2\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)}{\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)}, \]  

(6.2.74)

where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R, \xi_{[N]} \) and \( v_{[N]} := (v_1, \ldots, v_N) \), \( D_{\Psi} \) is defined in (6.2.22),

\[ \tilde{\sigma}^2 = 2(n+4)[M^2 + \sigma^2 + \mu^2L^2(n+4)^2], \]  

(6.2.75)

and

\[ \bar{g}_{\mu,X,k} = P_X(x_k, G_{\mu,k}, \gamma_k), \]  

(6.2.76)

with \( P_X \) defined in(6.2.7); (b) if, in addition, \( f \) in problem (6.2.1) is convex with an optimal solution \( x^* \), and the stepsizes \( \{\gamma_k\} \) are non-decreasing as (6.2.33), we have

\[ E[\psi(x_R) - \psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{1-Ln[\psi(x_1, x^*)]+(\tilde{\sigma}^2/2)\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)+\mu^2\ln n}{\sum^{N}_{k=1}(\gamma_k/L^2)}, \]  

(6.2.77)

where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R, \xi_{[N]} \) and \( v_{[N]} \).

**Proof.** By our assumption that \( F(\cdot, \xi_k) \) is smooth almost surely and (6.1.53) (applying \( f = F(\cdot, \xi_k) \)), we have

\[ G_{\mu,k} = \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} G_{\mu}(x_k, \xi_{k,i}, v_{k,i}) \]
Again by (6.2.79), we have
\[ D \]
where the last inequality follows from Assumption 1 with (6.2.77) holds. Then, by this inequality and the convexity of Theorem 6.6 we can directly get
\[ D \]
and (6.2.78), viewing \( \Psi \) are Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L \) By Lemma (6.2).a), we have
\[ D \]
Theorem 6.6 we can directly get
\[ D \]
Now let \( \Psi_\mu(x) = f_\mu(x) + h(x) \) and \( \Psi_\mu^\ast = \min_{x \in X} \Psi_\mu(x) \). We have from (6.1.57) that
\[ D \]
By Lemma (6.2).a), we have \( L_2 \leq L \) and therefore \( f_\mu \) is smooth and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L \). With this observation, noticing (6.2.71) and (6.2.78), viewing \( G_\mu(x, \xi_k, v_k) \) as a stochastic gradient of \( f_\mu \), then by part (a) of Theorem 6.6 we can directly get
\[ D \]
where \( D_\Psi = [|\Psi_\mu(x_1) - \Psi_\mu^\ast|/L]^{1/2} \) and the expectation is taken with respect to \( R, \xi_{(N)} \) and \( v_{(N)} \). Then, the conclusion (6.2.74) follows the above inequality and (6.2.79).

We now show part (b). Since \( f \) is convex, by Lemma (6.2).c), \( f_\mu \) is also convex. Again by (6.2.79), we have
\[ D \]
Then, by this inequality and the convexity of \( f_\mu \), it follows from part (b) of Theorem 6.6 and similar arguments in showing the part (a) of this theorem, the conclusion (6.2.77) holds.

Using the previous Theorem 6.8, similar to the Corollary 6.6, we can give the following corollary on the RSMDF algorithm with a certain constant stepsize and batch size at each iteration.

**Corollary 6.10.** Suppose that in the RSMDF algorithm the stepsizes \( \gamma_k = 1/(2L) \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), the batch sizes \( m_k = m \) for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), and the probability mass function \( P_k \) is set to (6.2.30). Then under Assumptions 13 and 15, we have
Then, it follows from (6.2.83), (6.2.84) and (6.2.80) that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{4L^2D^2_\mu + 4\mu^2 L^2_n}{N} + \frac{2\sigma^2}{m}, \tag{6.2.80}
\]

and

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{\mu^2 L^2(n+3)^2}{2} + \frac{16L^2D_\mu^2 + 16\mu^2 L^2_n}{N} + \frac{12\sigma^2}{m}, \tag{6.2.81}
\]

where the expectation is taken with respect to \(R\), \(\xi_{[N]}\) and \(\nu_{[M]}\), and \(\tilde{g}_{\mu,x,R}\) and \(g_{x,R}\) are defined in (6.2.75), (6.2.76) and (6.2.20), respectively.

If, in addition, \(f\) in the problem (6.2.1) is convex with an optimal solution \(x^*\), then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{2\Psi(x^*)}{N} + \frac{\bar{\sigma}^2}{2N} + \mu^2 L^2 \ln m. \tag{6.2.82}
\]

**Proof.** (6.2.80) immediately follows from (6.2.74) with \(\gamma_k = 1/(2L)\) and \(m_k = m\) for all \(k = 1, \ldots, N\). Now let \(g_{\mu,x,R} = F(x_R, \nabla f_\mu(x_R), \gamma_k)\), we have from (6.1.52) and Proposition 6.1 with \(x = x_R\), \(\gamma = \gamma_k\), \(g_1 = \nabla f(x_R)\) and \(g_2 = \nabla f_\mu(x_R)\) that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R} - g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{\mu^2 L^2(n+3)^2}{4}. \tag{6.2.83}
\]

Similarly, by Proposition 6.1 with \(x = x_R\), \(\gamma = \gamma_k\), \(g_1 = \tilde{G}_{\mu,k}\) and \(g_2 = \nabla f_\mu(x_R)\), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{\mu,x,R} - g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{\bar{\sigma}^2}{m}. \tag{6.2.84}
\]

Then, it follows from (6.2.83), (6.2.84) and (6.2.80) that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R}\|^2] \leq 2\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R} - g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] + 2\mathbb{E}[\|g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] \\
\leq \frac{\mu^2 L^2(n+3)^2}{2} + 4\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R} - g_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] + 4\mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{\mu,x,R}\|^2] \\
\leq \frac{\mu^2 L^2(n+3)^2}{2} + \frac{12\sigma^2}{m} + \frac{16L^2D_\mu^2 + 16\mu^2 L^2_n}{N}.
\]

Moreover, if \(f\) is convex, then (6.2.82) immediately follows from (6.2.77), and the constant stepsizes \(\gamma_k = 1/(2L)\) for all \(k = 1, \ldots, N\).

Similar to the Corollary 6.6 for the RSMD algorithm, the above results also depend on the number of samples \(m\) at each iteration. In addition, the above results depend on the smoothing parameter \(\mu\) as well. The following corollary, analogous to the Corollary 6.7, shows how to choose \(m\) and \(\mu\) appropriately.

**Corollary 6.11.** Suppose that all the conditions in Corollary 6.10 are satisfied. Given a fixed total number of calls to the SZO \(\bar{N}\), if the smoothing parameter satisfies

\[
\mu \leq \frac{D_\mu}{\sqrt{(n+4)\bar{N}}}, \tag{6.2.85}
\]

and the number of calls to the SZO at each iteration of the RSMDF method is

\[
m = \left\lceil \min \left\{ \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)\bar{N}}{LD}}, n+4 \right\}, \bar{N} \right\} \right\rceil, \tag{6.2.86}
\]

for some \(\bar{D} > 0\), then we have \(1/L \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R}\|^2] \leq \bar{\mathcal{B}}_{\bar{N}}\), where
which after integrating the terms give (6.2.87). The conclusion (6.2.90) follows
then
\[ E \]

the problem dimension
the complexity in Corollary 6.11 also depends on the size of the gradient
of stochastic oracle \( \bar{\omega} \) method in Corollary 6.7 in terms of their dependence on the total number
lary 6.11. Firstly, the above complexity bounds are similar to those of the first-order
by (6.2.81), (6.2.85) and (6.2.91), we have
N
iterations. Obviously,
the SZO at each iteration, the RSMDF algorithm can perform at most
Given the total number of calls to the SZO \( \bar{\omega} \) at each iteration, the RSMDF algorithm can perform at most \( \bar{N} = [\bar{N}/m] \)
iterations. Obviously, \( \bar{N} \geq \bar{N}/(2m) \). With this observation \( \bar{N} \geq m \), \( \theta_1 \geq 1 \) and \( \theta_2 \geq 1 \),
by (6.2.81), (6.2.85) and (6.2.91), we have
\[ m = \left\lfloor \max \left\{ \frac{\sqrt{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)/D}}{\bar{\theta}_1}, \frac{n+4}{\bar{\theta}_2} \right\} \right\rfloor. \] (6.2.91)

Given the total number of calls to the SZO \( \bar{\omega} \) and the the number \( m \) of calls to
the SZO at each iteration, the RSMDF algorithm can perform at most \( \bar{N} = [\bar{N}/m] \)
itations. Obviously, \( \bar{N} \geq \bar{N}/(2m) \). With this observation \( \bar{N} \geq m \), \( \theta_1 \geq 1 \) and \( \theta_2 \geq 1 \),
by (6.2.81), (6.2.85) and (6.2.91), we have
\[ E[\|g_{x_{\bar{\omega}}}\|^2] \leq \frac{L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+3)}{2N} + \frac{24(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)}{mN} + \frac{24L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)^2}{mN} + \frac{32L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2m}{N} (1 + \frac{1}{N}) \]
\[ \leq \frac{L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)}{2N} + \frac{24\bar{\theta}_1LD\sqrt{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)}}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{24\bar{\theta}_1L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)}{N} \]
\[ + \frac{32L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2}{N} \left( \frac{\sqrt{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)/D}}{\bar{\theta}_1}, \frac{n+4}{\bar{\theta}_2} \right) + \frac{32L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2}{N} \]
\[ \leq \frac{L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)}{2N} + \frac{24\bar{\theta}_1LD\sqrt{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)}}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{24\bar{\theta}_1L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)}{N} \]
\[ + \frac{32LD_{\bar{\omega}}^2\sqrt{(n+4)(M^2+\sigma^2)}}{D\sqrt{N}} + \frac{32L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2(n+4)}{N} + \frac{32L^2D_{\bar{\omega}}^2}{N}, \]
which after integrating the terms give (6.2.87). The conclusion (6.2.90) follows
similarly by (6.2.89) and (6.2.82).

We now would like to add a few remarks about the above the results in Corol-
arity 6.11. Firstly, the above complexity bounds are similar to those of the first-order
RSMD method in Corollary 6.7 in terms of their dependence on the total number
of stochastic oracle \( \bar{\omega} \) called by the algorithm. However, for the zeroth-order case,
the complexity in Corollary 6.11 also depends on the size of the gradient \( M \)
and the problem dimension \( n \). Secondly, the value of \( \bar{D} \) has not been specified. It can be
easily seen from (6.2.87) and (6.2.90) that when \( \bar{N} \) is relatively large such that \( \theta_1 = 1 \) and \( \theta_2 = 1 \), i.e.,
\[
\bar{N} \geq \max \left\{ \frac{(\pi + 4)^2(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{L^2 D^2}, n + 4 \right\},
\]
the optimal choice of \( \bar{D} \) would be \( \bar{D}_i \) and \( 2 \sqrt{V(x_1, x^*)} \) for solving nonconvex and convex SP problems, respectively. With this selection of \( \bar{D} \), the bounds in (6.2.87) and (6.2.90), respectively, reduce to
\[
\frac{1}{L} \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x, \bar{R}}\|^2] \leq \frac{65LD^2 \Psi(n + 4)\bar{N} + 64\sqrt{V(x_1, x^*)}(n + 4)}{\bar{N}},
\]
and
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{\bar{R}}) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{6DV(x_1, x^*)(n + 4)}{\bar{N}} + \frac{4\sqrt{V(x_1, x^*)}(n + 4)(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\bar{N}}.
\]
Thirdly, the complexity result in (6.2.90) implies that when \( \Psi \) is convex, if \( \varepsilon \) sufficiently small, then the number of calls to the SZO to find a solution \( \bar{x} \) such that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \varepsilon
\]
can be bounded by \( O(n/\varepsilon^2) \), which only linearly depends on the dimension \( n \).

### 6.3 Nonconvex stochastic block mirror descent

In this section, we consider a special class of stochastic composite optimization problems given by
\[
\phi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \phi(x) := f(x) + \mathcal{X}(x) \}.
\]
Here, \( f(\cdot) \) is smooth (but not necessarily convex) and its gradients \( \nabla f(\cdot) \) satisfy
\[
\|\nabla f_i(x + U_i \rho_i) - \nabla f_i(x)\|_{i_*} \leq L_i \|\rho_i\|_{i_*} \quad \forall \rho_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, \ i = 1, 2, \ldots, b.
\]
It then follows that
\[
f(x + U_i \rho_i) \leq f(x) + \langle \nabla f_i(x), \rho_i \rangle + \frac{L_i}{2} \|\rho_i\|^2_{i_*} \quad \forall \rho_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, x \in X.
\]
Moreover, the nonsmooth component \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) is still convex and separable, i.e.
\[
\mathcal{X}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \mathcal{X}_i(x(i)) \quad \forall x \in X
\]
where \( \mathcal{X}_i : \mathbb{R}^{n_i} \to \mathbb{R} \) are closed and convex. In addition, we assume that \( X \) has a block structure, i.e.,
\[
X = X_1 \times X_2 \times \cdots \times X_b,
\]
where \( X_i \subset \mathbb{R}^{n_i}, \ i = 1, \ldots, b, \) are closed convex sets with \( n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_b = n \). Our goal is to generalize the stochastic block mirror descent method introduced
in Section 4.6 for solving the above nonconvex stochastic composite optimization problem.

Similar to Section 4.6, we use $\mathbb{R}^n$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, to denote Euclidean spaces equipped with inner product $\langle \cdot , \cdot \rangle$ and norm $\| \cdot \|_i$ ($\| \cdot \|_{i, x}$ be the conjugate) such that $\sum_{i=1}^b n_i = n$. Let $I_n$ be the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $U_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, b$, be the set of matrices satisfying $(U_1, U_2, \ldots, U_b) = I_n$. For a given $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we denote its $i$-th block by $x^{(i)} = U_i^T x$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$. Note that $x = U_1 x^{(1)} + \ldots + U_b x^{(b)}$.

Moreover, we define $\| x \|_i^2 = \| x^{(1)} \|_1^2 + \ldots + \| x^{(b)} \|_b^2$ and denote its conjugate by $\| y \|_i^2 = \| y^{(1)} \|_1^2 + \ldots + \| y^{(b)} \|_b^2$.

Let $\gamma : X_i \to \mathbb{R}$ be the distance generating function with modulus 1 with respect to $\| \cdot \|_i$, and $V_i$ be the associated prox-function. For a given $x \in X_i$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define the prox-mapping as

$$\text{argmin}_{z \in X_i} \langle y, z - x \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma} V_i(x, z) + \mathcal{F}_i(z). \quad (6.3.6)$$

We need to assume that the prox-functions $V_i(\cdot, \cdot)$, $i = 1, \ldots, b$, satisfy a quadratic growth condition:

$$V_i(x^{(i)}, z^{(i)}) \leq \frac{Q}{2} \| z^{(i)} - x^{(i)} \|_i^2 \quad \forall z^{(i)}, x^{(i)} \in X_i, \quad (6.3.7)$$

for some $Q > 0$.

In order to discuss the convergence of the SBMD algorithm for solving nonconvex composite problems, we need to first define an appropriate termination criterion. Note that if $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\mathcal{F}(x) = 0$, then a natural way to evaluate the quality of a candidate solution $x$ will be $\| \nabla f(x) \|$. For more general nonconvex composite problems, we introduce the notion of composite projected gradient so as to evaluate the quality of a candidate solution. More specifically, for a given $x \in X$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a constant $\gamma > 0$, we define $P_X(x, y, \gamma) \equiv (P_{x_1}(x, y, \gamma), \ldots, P_{x_b}(x, y, \gamma))$ by

$$P_{x_i}(x, y, \gamma) := \frac{1}{\gamma} [x_i - x_i^+] \quad i = 1, \ldots, b, \quad (6.3.8)$$

where

$$x_i^+ := \text{argmin}_{z \in X_i} \langle y, z - x_i \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma} V_i(z) + \mathcal{F}_i(z). \quad \text{In particular, if } y = \nabla f(x), \text{ then we call } P_X(x, \nabla f(x), \gamma) \text{ the composite projected gradient of } x \text{ w.r.t. } \gamma. \text{ It can be easily seen that } P_X(x, \nabla f(x), \gamma) = \nabla f(x) \text{ when } X = \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } \mathcal{F}(x) = 0. \text{ Proposition 6.2 below relates the composite projected gradient to the first-order optimality condition of the composite problem under a more general setting. }

**Proposition 6.2.** Let $x \in X$ be given and $P_X(x, y, \gamma)$ be defined as in (6.3.8) for some $\gamma > 0$. Also let us denote $x^+ := x - \gamma P_X(x, g(x), \gamma)$. Then there exists $p_i \in \partial \mathcal{F}_i(U_i^T x^+)$ s.t.

$$U_i^T g(x^+) + p_i \in -N_{X_i}(U_i^T x^+) + B_i((I_i \gamma + Q)\| P_X(x, g(x), \gamma) \|_i), \quad i = 1, \ldots, b, \quad (6.3.9)$$
where \( B_i(\varepsilon) := \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : \| v \|_{i,*} \leq \varepsilon \} \) and \( N_{X_i}(U_i^T x^+) \) denotes the normal cone of \( X_i \) at \( U_i^T x^+ \).

**Proof.** By the definition of \( x^+ \), (6.3.6), and (6.3.8), we have \( U_i^T x^+ = P_{X_i}(U_i^T x, U_i^T g(x), \gamma) \). Using the above relation and the optimality condition of (6.3.6), we conclude that there exists \( p_i \in \partial X_i(U_i^T x^+) \) s.t.

\[
(U_i^T g(x) + \frac{1}{2} [\nabla v_i(U_i^T x^+) - \nabla v_i(U_i^T x)] + p_i, u - U_i^T x^+) \geq 0, \quad \forall u \in X_i.
\]

Now, denoting \( \zeta = U_i^T [g(x) - g(x^+) + \frac{1}{2} [\nabla v_i(U_i^T x^+) - \nabla v_i(U_i^T x)] \), we conclude from the above relation that \( \| U_i^T [g(x^+) - g(x)] \|_{i,*} \leq L_i \| U_i^T (x^+ - x) \|_{i,*} \) and \( \| \nabla v_i(U_i^T x^+) - \nabla v_i(U_i^T x) \|_{i,*} \leq Q \| U_i^T (x^+ - x) \|_{i,*} \).

Relation (6.3.9) then immediately follows from the above two relations.

A common practice in the gradient descent methods for solving nonconvex problems (for the simple case when \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( X(x) = 0 \)) is to choose the output solution \( \bar{x} \) so that

\[
\| g(\bar{x}) \|_* = \min_{k = 1, \ldots, N} \| g(x_k) \|_*,
\]

subject to \( x_k \) being the trajectory generated by the gradient descent method. However, such a procedure requires the computation of the whole vector \( g(x_k) \) at each iteration and hence can be expensive if \( n \) is large. In this section, we address this problem by introducing a randomization scheme into the SBMD algorithm as follows. Instead of taking the best solution from the trajectory as in (6.3.10), we randomly select \( \bar{x} \) from \( x_1, \ldots, x_N \) according to a certain probability distribution. The basic scheme of this algorithm is described as follows.
Algorithm 6.1 The Nonconvex SBMD Algorithm

Let \( x_1 \in X \), stepsizes \( \{ \eta_k \}_{k \geq 1} \) s.t. \( \eta_k < 2/L, \) \( i = 1, \ldots, b, \) and probabilities \( p_i \in [0,1], \) \( i = 1, \ldots, b, \) s.t. \( \sum_{i=1}^{b}\eta_i = 1 \) be given.

**for** \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) **do**

1. Generate a random variable \( i_k \) according to

\[
\text{Prob}\{i_k = i\} = p_i, \quad i = 1, \ldots, b. \tag{6.3.11}
\]

2. Compute the \( i_k \)-th block of the (stochastic) gradient \( G_{i_k} \) of \( f(\cdot) \) at \( x_k \) satisfying

\[
\mathbb{E}[G_{i_k}] = U_k^T g(x_k) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}||G_{i_k} - U_k^T g(x_k)||_{i_k,*}^2 \leq \tilde{\sigma}_k^2, \tag{6.3.12}
\]

and update \( x_k \) by

\[
x_k^{(i)} = \begin{cases} \beta_0^{p_i} (x_k^{(i)}, G_{i_k}(x_k^{(i)}, \xi_{i_k}), \eta_i) & i = i_k, \\ x_k^{(i)} & i \neq i_k. \end{cases} \tag{6.3.13}
\]

**end for**

Set \( \tilde{x}_N = x_R \) randomly according to

\[
\text{Prob}(R = k) = \frac{\eta_k \min_{i=1,\ldots,p} \rho_i \left(1 - \frac{k - 1}{T_p} \right)}{\sum_{i=1}^{T_p} \eta_i \min_{i=1,\ldots,p} \rho_i \left(1 - \frac{k - 1}{T_p} \right)}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N. \tag{6.3.14}
\]

We add a few remarks about the above nonconvex SBMD algorithm. Firstly, observe that we have not yet specified how the gradient \( G_{i_k} \) is computed. If the problem is deterministic, then we can simply set \( G_{i_k} = U_k^T g(x_k) \) and \( \bar{G}_k = 0. \) However, if the problem is stochastic, then the computation of \( G_{i_k} \) is a little complicated and we cannot simply set \( G_{i_k} = U_k^T \nabla f(x_k, \xi_k) \) (see Corollary 6.13). Secondly, the probability of choosing \( x_R, R = 1, \ldots, N, \) as the output solution is given by (6.3.14). Such a randomization scheme was shown to be critical to establish the complexity for nonconvex stochastic optimization as shown earlier in this chapter.

Before establishing the convergence properties of the above nonconvex SBMD algorithm, we will first present a technical result which summarizes some important properties about the composite prox-mapping and projected gradient. Note that this result generalizes a few results in Section 6.2.1.

**Lemma 6.7.** Let \( x_{k+1} \) be defined in (6.3.13), and denote \( g_k \equiv P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma_k) \) and \( \tilde{g}_k \equiv P_{X_k}(x_k, U_k G_k, \gamma_k) \). We have

\[
\langle G_k, \tilde{g}_k \rangle \geq \|\tilde{g}_k\|^2 + \frac{1}{\eta_k} \{ \mathcal{S}^*(x_{k+1}) - \mathcal{S}^*(x_k) \}, \tag{6.3.15}
\]

\[
\|\tilde{g}_k - U_k^T g_k\|_{i_k,*} \leq \|G_k - U_k^T \nabla f(x_k)\|_{i_k,*}. \tag{6.3.16}
\]

**Proof.** By the optimality condition of (6.3.6) and the definition of \( x_{k+1} \) in (6.3.13), there exists \( p \in \partial \mathcal{S}_{i_k}(x_{k+1}) \) such that

\[
\langle G_k + \frac{1}{\eta_k} \{ \nabla V_{i_k}(U_k^T x_{k+1}) - \nabla V_{i_k}(U_k^T x_k) \}, p, \frac{1}{\eta_k} (u - U_k^T x_{k+1}) \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall u \in X_k.
\]

(6.3.17)
Letting $u = U_i^T x_k$ in the above inequality and re-arranging terms, we obtain

\[
\langle G_i, \frac{1}{\kappa} U_i^T (x_k - x_{k+1}) \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \langle \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) \rangle + \langle p, \frac{1}{\kappa} U_i^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) \rangle \\
\geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \langle \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) \rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{\kappa} \left[ \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}) - \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_k) \right] \\
\geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) \|^2 + \frac{1}{\kappa} \left[ \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}) - \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_k) \right] \\
= \frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) \|^2 + \frac{1}{\kappa} [\mathcal{X} (x_{k+1}) - \mathcal{X} (x_k)],
\]

(6.3.18)

where the second and third inequalities, respectively, follow from the convexity of $\mathcal{X}_i$ and the strong convexity of $\mathcal{X}$, and the last identity follows from the definition of $x_{k+1}$ and the separability assumption about $\mathcal{X}$ in (6.3.4). The above inequality, in view of the fact that $\gamma_k g_k = U_i^T (x_k - x_{k+1})$ due to (6.3.8) and (6.3.13), then implies (6.3.15).

Now we show that (6.3.16) holds. Let us denote $x_{k+1}^+ = x_k - \gamma_k g_k$. By the optimality condition of (6.3.6) and the definition of $g_k$, we have, for some $q \in \partial \mathcal{X}_i (x_{k+1}^+)$,

\[
\langle U_i^T \nabla (x_k) + \frac{1}{\kappa} \left[ \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k) \right] + q, \frac{1}{\kappa} (u - U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall u \in X_k.
\]

(6.3.19)

Letting $u = U_i^T x_{k+1}$ in (6.3.17) and using an argument similar to (6.3.18), we have

\[
\langle G_i, \frac{1}{\kappa} U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \langle \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{\kappa} \left[ \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) \right].
\]

Similarly, letting $u = U_i^T x_{k+1}$ in (6.3.19), we have

\[
\langle U_i^T \nabla (x_k), \frac{1}{\kappa} U_i^T (x_{k-1} - x_{k+1}^+) \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \langle \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \rangle \\
+ \frac{1}{\kappa} \left[ \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \mathcal{X}_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) \right].
\]

Summing up the above two inequalities, we obtain

\[
\langle G_i - U_i^T \nabla (x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \langle \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_{k+1}^+) - \nabla V_i (U_i^T x_k), U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \rangle \geq \frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \|^2
\]

which, in view of the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, then implies that

\[
\frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \|^2 \leq \| G_i - U_i^T \nabla (x_k) \|_{i,k,s}.
\]

Using the above relation and (6.3.8), we have

\[
\| \tilde{g}_k - U_i^T g_k \|_i = \frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_k - x_{k+1}) - \frac{1}{\kappa} U_i^T (x_k - x_{k+1}) \|_i \\
= \frac{1}{\kappa} \| U_i^T (x_{k+1}^+ - x_{k+1}) \|_i \leq \| G_k - U_i^T \nabla (x_k) \|_{i,k,s}.
\]
We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of the nonconvex SBMD algorithm.

**Theorem 6.9.** Let \( \bar{x}_N = x_R \) be the output of the nonconvex SBMD algorithm. We have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_{x_R}(x_R, g(x_R), y_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{\phi(x_1) - \phi^* + 2\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^N \sigma_k^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^N p_i (1 - \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma)}
\]

(6.3.20)

for any \( N \geq 1 \), where the expectation is taken w.r.t. \( i_k, G_{i_k}, \) and \( R \).

*Proof.* Denote \( \delta_k \equiv G_{i_k} - U_{i_k}^T \nabla f(x_k), g_k \equiv P_{x_k}(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), y_k) \) and \( \bar{g}_k \equiv P_{x_{i_k}}(x_k, U_{i_k} G_{i_k}, y_k) \) for any \( k \geq 1 \). Note that by (6.3.13) and (6.3.8), we have \( x_{k+1} - x_k = -\gamma U_{i_k} \bar{g}_k \). Using this observation and (6.3.3), we have, for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \),

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{L_k}{2} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2
\]

\[
= f(x_k) - \gamma \langle \nabla f(x_k), U_{i_k} \bar{g}_k \rangle + \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma^2 \|\bar{g}_k\|^2
\]

\[
= f(x_k) - \gamma \langle G_{i_k}, \bar{g}_k \rangle + \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma^2 \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \gamma \langle \delta_k, \bar{g}_k \rangle.
\]

Using the above inequality and Lemma 6.7, we obtain

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) - [\gamma \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + X^*(x_{k+1}) - X^*(x_k)] + \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma^2 \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \gamma \langle \delta_k, \bar{g}_k \rangle,
\]

which, in view of the fact that \( \phi(x) = f(x) + X(x) \), then implies that

\[
\phi(x_{k+1}) \leq \phi(x_k) - \gamma \left(1 - \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma \right) \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \gamma \langle \delta_k, \bar{g}_k \rangle.
\]

(6.3.21)

Also observe that by (6.3.16), the definition \( \bar{g}_k \), and the fact \( U_{i_k}^T g_k = P_{x_{i_k}}(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), y_k) \),

\[
\|\bar{g}_k - U_{i_k}^T g_k\|_{i_k} \leq \|G_{i_k} - U_{i_k}^T \nabla f(x_k)\|_{i_k, *} = \|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *},
\]

and hence that

\[
\|U_{i_k}^T g_k\|_{i_k}^2 = \|\bar{g}_k + U_{i_k}^T g_k - \bar{g}_k\|_{i_k}^2 \leq 2\|\bar{g}_k\|_{i_k}^2 + 2\|U_{i_k}^T g_k - \bar{g}_k\|_{i_k}^2
\]

\[
\leq 2\|\bar{g}_k\|_{i_k}^2 + 2\|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *},
\]

\[
\langle \delta_k, \bar{g}_k \rangle = \langle \delta_k, U_{i_k}^T g_k \rangle + \langle \delta_k, \bar{g}_k - U_{i_k}^T g_k \rangle \leq \langle \delta_k, U_{i_k}^T g_k \rangle + \|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *} \|\bar{g}_k - U_{i_k}^T g_k\|_{i_k}
\]

\[
\leq \langle \delta_k, U_{i_k}^T g_k \rangle + \|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *},
\]

By using the above two bounds and (6.3.21), we obtain

\[
\phi(x_{k+1}) \leq \phi(x_k) - \gamma \left(1 - \frac{L_k}{2} \gamma \right) \left(\frac{1}{2} \|U_{i_k}^T g_k\|_{i_k}^2 - \|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *}^2\right) + \gamma \langle \delta_k, U_{i_k}^T g_k \rangle + \gamma \|\delta_k\|_{i_k, *^2},
\]

for any \( k = 1, \ldots, N \). Summing up the above inequalities and re-arranging the terms, we obtain
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{L_k}{L} \gamma_k \right) \|U_k^T g_k\|^2 \leq \phi(x_1) - \phi(x_{b+1}) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma_i \langle \delta_i, U_i^T g_k \rangle + \gamma_i \|\delta_i\|^2 \right] \\
+ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \left( 1 - \frac{L_k}{L} \gamma_k \right) \|\delta_k\|^2, \\
\leq \phi(x_1) - \phi^* + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ \gamma_i \langle \delta_i, U_i^T g_k \rangle + 2\gamma_i \|\delta_i\|^2 \right],
\]

where the last inequality follows from the facts that \(\phi(x_{k+1}) \geq \phi^*\) and \(L_k \gamma_k^2 \|\delta_k\|^2 \geq 0\). Now denoting \(\zeta_k = G_{i_k}, \zeta_{[k]} = \{\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_k\}\) and \(i_{[k]} = \{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}\), taking expectation on both sides of the above inequality w.r.t. \(\zeta_{[N]}\) and \(i_{[N]}\), and noting that by (6.3.11) and (6.3.12),

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\zeta_k} \left[ \langle \delta_k, U_k^T g_k \rangle \right| i_{[k]}, \zeta_{[k-1]}] = \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}, i_{[N]}} \left[ \|\delta_k\|^2 \right| i_{[k]}, \zeta_{[k-1]}] = 0, \\
\mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}, i_{[N]}} \left[ \|\delta_k\|^2 \right| i_{[k]}, \zeta_{[k-1]}] \leq \sigma_k^2,
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}, i_{[N]}} \left[ \|g_k\|^2 \right| i_{[k]}, \zeta_{[k-1]}] = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \min_{p_i} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right) \|U_i^T g_k\|^2 \\
\geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^{b} \|U_i^T g_k\|^2 \right) \min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right) \\
= \|g_k\|^2 \min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right),
\]

we conclude that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N} \gamma_i \min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right) \mathbb{E}_{\zeta_{[N]}, i_{[N]}} \left[ \|g_k\|^2 \right] \leq \phi(x_1) - \phi^* + 2\sum_{k=1}^{N} \gamma_k \sigma_k^2.
\]

Dividing both sides of the above inequality by \(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \gamma_i \min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right)\), and using the probability distribution of \(R\) given in (6.3.14), we obtain (6.3.20).

We now discuss some consequences for Theorem 6.9. More specifically, we discuss the rate of convergence of the nonconvex SBMD algorithm for solving deterministic and stochastic problems, respectively, in Corollaries 6.12 and 6.13.

**Corollary 6.12.** Consider the deterministic case when \(\sigma_k = 0, k = 1, \ldots, N\), in (6.3.12). Suppose that the random variable \(\{i_k\}\) are uniformly distributed, i.e.,

\[
p_1 = p_2 = \ldots = p_b = \frac{1}{b}, \quad (6.3.22)
\]

If \(\{\gamma_k\}\) are set to

\[
\gamma_k = \frac{1}{L}, k = 1, \ldots, N, \quad (6.3.23)
\]

where \(L := \max_{i=1, \ldots, b} L_i\), then we have, for any \(N \geq 1\),

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \|P(x_R, \nabla f(x_R), \gamma_R)\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{3b L (\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N}. \quad (6.3.24)
\]

**Proof.** By our assumptions about \(p_i\) and (6.3.23), we have

\[
\min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right) = \frac{1}{b} \min_{i=1, \ldots, b} \left( 1 - \frac{L_i}{L} \gamma_i \right) \geq \frac{1}{2b}, \quad (6.3.25)
\]
which, in view of (6.3.20) and the fact that \( \overline{\sigma}_k = 0 \), then implies that, for any \( N \geq 1 \),
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_X(x_R, \nabla f(x_R), y_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{2bL(\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N} \frac{1}{\tilde{L}} = \frac{2bL(\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N}.
\]

Now, let us consider the stochastic case when \( f(\cdot) \) is given in the form of expectation (see (4.6.1)). Suppose that the norms \( \| \cdot \|_i \) are inner product norms in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) and that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|U_i \nabla F(x, \xi) - g_i(x)\|] \leq \sigma \quad \forall x \in X
\]
for any \( i = 1, \ldots, b \). Also assume that \( G_{t_k} \) is computed by using a mini-batch approach with size \( T_k \), i.e.,
\[
G_{t_k} = \frac{1}{T_k} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} U_i \nabla F(x_k, \xi_{t,k}),
\]
for some \( T_k \geq 1 \), where \( \xi_{t,k}, \ldots, \xi_{t_k, T_k} \) are i.i.d. samples of \( \xi \).

**Corollary 6.13.** Assume that the random variables \( \{i_k\} \) are uniformly distributed (i.e., (6.3.22) holds). Also assume that \( G_{t_k} \) is computed by (6.3.27) for \( T_k = T \) and that \( \{y_k\} \) are set to (6.3.23). Then we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_X(x_R, \nabla f(x_R), y_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{2bL(\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N} + \frac{4b\sigma^2}{T}
\]
for any \( N \geq 1 \), where \( \tilde{L} := \max_{i=1,\ldots,b} L_i \).

**Proof.** Denote \( \delta_{t,k} = U_i [\nabla F(x_k, \xi_{t,k}) - \nabla f(x_k)] \) and \( S_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \delta_{i,k} \). Noting that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\langle S_{t-1}, \delta_{t,k} \rangle | S_{t-1}] = 0 \quad \text{for all } t = 1, \ldots, T_k,
\]
we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|S_{T_k}\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\|S_{T_k-1}\|^2 + 2 \langle S_{T_k-1}, \delta_{T_k} \rangle + \|\delta_{T_k}\|^2]
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E}[\|S_{T_k-1}\|^2] + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{T_k}\|^2] = \ldots = \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \|\delta_{t,k}\|^2,
\]
which together with (6.3.27) then imply that the conditions in (6.3.12) hold with \( \overline{\sigma}_k^2 = \sigma^2/T_k \). It then follows from the previous observation and (6.3.20) that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_X(x_R, \nabla f(x_R), y_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{2bL(\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N} + \frac{4b\sigma^2}{T}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{2bL(\phi(x_1) - \phi^*)}{N} + \frac{4b\sigma^2}{T_k}.
\]

In view of Corollary 6.13, in order to find an \( \varepsilon \) solution of problem (6.3.1), we need to have
\[
N = O\left( \frac{bL}{\varepsilon} [\phi(x_1) - \phi^*] \right) \quad \text{and} \quad T = O\left( \frac{b\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right),
\]
which implies that the total number of samples of \( \xi \) required can be bounded by
\[
O\left( \frac{b^2L\sigma^2}{\varepsilon} [\phi(x_1) - \phi^*/\varepsilon^2] \right).
\]
6.4 Nonconvex stochastic accelerated gradient descent

In this section we aim to generalize the accelerated gradient descent (AGD) method, originally designed for smooth convex optimization, to solve more general nonlinear programming (NLP) (possibly nonconvex and stochastic) problems, and thus to present a unified treatment and analysis for convex, nonconvex and stochastic optimization.

Our study has also been motivated by the following more practical considerations in solving nonlinear programming problems, in addition to the theoretical development of the AGD method. First, many general nonlinear objective functions are locally convex. A unified treatment for both convex and nonconvex problems will help us to make use of such local convex properties. In particular, we intend to understand whether one can apply the well-known aggressive stepsize policy in the AGD method under a more general setting to benefit from such local convexity. Second, many nonlinear objective functions arising from sparse optimization and machine learning consist of both convex and nonconvex components, corresponding to the data fidelity and sparsity regularization terms respectively. One interesting question is whether one can design more efficient algorithms for solving these nonconvex composite problems by utilizing their convexity structure. Third, the convexity of some objective functions represented by a black-box procedure is usually unknown, e.g., in simulation-based optimization. A unified treatment and analysis can thus help us to deal with such structural ambiguity. Fourth, in some cases, the objective functions are nonconvex with respect to (w.r.t.) a few decision variables jointly, but convex w.r.t. each one of them separately. Many machine learning/imaging processing problems are given in this form. Current practice is to first run an NLP solver to find a stationary point, and then a CP solver after one variable is fixed. A more powerful, unified treatment for both convex and nonconvex problems is desirable to better handle these types of problems.

In this section, we first consider the classic NLP problem given in the form of

$$
\Psi^* = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x), \quad (6.4.1)
$$

where $\Psi(\cdot)$ is a smooth (possibly nonconvex) function with Lipschitz continuous gradients, i.e., $\exists L_\Psi > 0$ such that (s.t.)

$$
\| \nabla \Psi(y) - \nabla \Psi(x) \| \leq L_\Psi \| y - x \| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (6.4.2)
$$

In addition, we assume that $\Psi(\cdot)$ is bounded from below. We demonstrate that the AGD method, when employed with a certain stepsize policy, can find an $\epsilon$-solution of (6.4.1), i.e., a point $\tilde{x}$ such that $\| \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}) \| \leq \epsilon$, in at most $O(1/\epsilon)$ iterations, which is the best-known complexity bound possessed by first-order methods to solve general NLP problems. Note that if $\Psi$ is convex and a more aggressive stepsize policy is applied in the AGD method, then the aforementioned complexity bound can be improved to $O(1/\epsilon^{1/3})$. In fact, by incorporating a certain regularization technique
this bound can be improved to $O([1/\varepsilon^{1/4}] \ln 1/\varepsilon)$ which is optimal, up to a logarithmic factor, for convex programming.

We then consider a class of composite problems given by

$$
\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \Psi(x) + \mathcal{R}(x), \quad \Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x),
$$

(6.4.3)

where $f$ is smooth, but possibly nonconvex, and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant $L_f$, $h$ is smooth, convex, and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant $L_h$, and $\mathcal{R}$ is a simple convex (possibly non-smooth) function with bounded domain (e.g., $\mathcal{R}(x) = I_X(x)$ with $I_X(\cdot)$ being the indicator function of a convex compact set $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$). Clearly, we have $\Psi$ is smooth and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant $L_\Psi = L_f + L_h$. Since $\mathcal{R}$ is possibly non-differentiable, we need to employ a different termination criterion based on the generalized projected gradient (or gradient mapping) $P_{\mathcal{R}}(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot)$ (see (6.3.8) and more precisely (6.4.42)) to analyze the complexity of the AGD method. We will show that the complexity bound associated with the AGD method improves the one established in Section 6.2.2 for the nonconvex mirror descent method applied to problem (6.4.3) in terms of their dependence on the Lipschitz constant $L_h$. In addition, it is significantly better than the latter bound when $L_f$ is small enough (see Subsection 6.4.1.2 for more details).

Finally, we consider stochastic NLP problems in the form of (6.4.1) or (6.4.3), where only noisy first-order information about $\Psi$ is available via subsequent calls to a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO). More specifically, at the $k$-th call, $x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ being the input, the SFO outputs a stochastic gradient $G(x_k, \xi_k)$, where $\{\xi_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ are random vectors whose distributions $P_k$ are supported on $\Xi_k \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$. The following assumptions are also made for the stochastic gradient $G(x_k, \xi_k)$.

**Assumption 16** For any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $k \geq 1$, we have

$$
a) \quad \mathbb{E}[G(x, \xi_k)] = \nabla \Psi(x),
$$

$$
b) \quad \mathbb{E} \left[ \|G(x, \xi_k) - \nabla \Psi(x)\|^2 \right] \leq \sigma^2.
$$

As shown in the previous two sections, the randomized stochastic gradient (RSGD) methods can be applied to solve these problems. However, the RSGD method and its variants are only nearly optimal for solving convex SP problems. Based on the AGD method, we present a randomized stochastic AGD (RSAGD) method for solving general stochastic NLP problems and show that if $\Psi(\cdot)$ is nonconvex, then the RSAGD method can find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (6.4.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x}$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}) \|^2] \leq \varepsilon$ in at most

$$
O \left( \frac{L_f}{\varepsilon} + \frac{L_h \sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right)
$$

(6.4.6)

calls to the SFO. Moreover, if $\Psi(\cdot)$ is convex, then the RSAGD exhibits an optimal rate of convergence in terms of functional optimality gap, similarly to the accelerated SGD method. In this case, the complexity bound in (6.4.6) in terms of the residual of gradients can be improved to
6 Nonconvex Stochastic Optimization

$$O\left(\frac{L_\Psi^{2/3}}{\epsilon^{1/3}} + \frac{L_\Psi^{2/3} \sigma^2}{\epsilon^{4/3}}\right).$$

We also generalize these complexity analyses to a class of nonconvex stochastic composite optimization problems by introducing a mini-batch approach into the RSAGD method and improve a few complexity results presented in Section 6.2 for solving these stochastic composite optimization problems.

### 6.4.1 Nonconvex accelerated gradient descent

Our goal in this section is to show that the AGD method, which is originally designed for smooth convex optimization, also converges for solving nonconvex optimization problems after incorporating some proper modification. More specifically, we first present an AGD method for solving a general class of nonlinear optimization problems in Subsection 6.4.1.1 and then describe the AGD method for solving a special class of nonconvex composite optimization problems in Subsection 6.4.1.2.

#### 6.4.1.1 Minimization of smooth functions

In this subsection, we assume that $\Psi(\cdot)$ is a differentiable nonconvex function, bounded from below and its gradient satisfies in (6.4.2). It then follows that

\[ |\Psi(y) - \Psi(x) - \langle \nabla \Psi(x), y - x \rangle| \leq \frac{L_\Psi}{2} \| y - x \|^2 \enspace \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (6.4.7) \]

While the gradient descent method converges for solving the above class of nonconvex optimization problems, it does not achieve the optimal rate of convergence, in terms of the functional optimality gap, when $\Psi(\cdot)$ is convex. On the other hand, the original AGD method is optimal for solving convex optimization problems, but does not necessarily converge for solving nonconvex optimization problems. Below, we present a modified AGD method and show that by properly specifying the stepsize policy, it not only achieves the optimal rate of convergence for convex optimization, but also exhibits the best-known rate of convergence for solving general smooth NLP problems by using first-order methods.
Algorithm 6.2 The accelerated gradient descent (AGD) algorithm

Input: $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\{\alpha_k\}$ s.t. $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\alpha_k \in (0, 1)$ for any $k \geq 2$, $\{\beta_k > 0\}$, and $\{\lambda_k > 0\}$.
0. Set the initial points $\bar{x}_0 = x_0$ and $k = 1$.
1. Set
   \[ x_k = (1 - \alpha_k)\bar{x}_{k-1} + \alpha_kx_{k-1}. \]  
   \[(6.4.8)\]
2. Compute $\nabla \Psi(x_k)$ and set
   \[ x_k = x_{k-1} - \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k), \]  
   \[ x_k = x_k - \beta_k \nabla \Psi(x_k). \]  
   \[(6.4.9)\] \[(6.4.10)\]
3. Set $k \leftarrow k + 1$ and go to step 1.

Note that, if $\beta_k = \alpha_k \lambda_k$, $\forall k \geq 1$, then we have $\bar{x}_k = \alpha_kx_k + (1 - \alpha_k)\bar{x}_{k-1}$. In this case, the above AGD method is equivalent to one of the simplest variants of the well-known Nesterov’s method. On the other hand, if $\beta_k = \lambda_k$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$, then it can be shown by induction that $x_k = x_{k-1}$ and $\bar{x}_k = x_k$. In this case, Algorithm 6.2 reduces to the gradient descent method. We will show in this subsection that the above AGD method actually converges for different selections of $\{\alpha_k\}, \{\beta_k\}$, and $\{\lambda_k\}$ in both convex and nonconvex case.

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of the AGD method.

**Theorem 6.10.** Let $\{x_k, \bar{x}_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ be computed by Algorithm 6.2 and $\Gamma_k$ be defined in (8.1.32).

a) If $\{\alpha_k\}, \{\beta_k\}$, and $\{\lambda_k\}$ are chosen such that
   \[ C_k := 1 - L\Psi \lambda_k - \frac{L\Psi(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{2\alpha_k\beta_k} \left( \sum_{\tau=1}^{N} \Gamma_{\tau} \right) > 0 \quad 1 \leq k \leq N, \]  
   \[(6.4.11)\]
   then for any $N \geq 1$, we have
   \[ \min_{k=1,\ldots,N} \frac{\|\nabla \Psi(x_k)\|^2}{\Psi(x_k) - \Psi^*} \leq \frac{\Psi(x_0) - \Psi^*}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k}. \]  
   \[(6.4.12)\]

b) Suppose that $\Psi(\cdot)$ is convex and that an optimal solution $x^*$ exists for problem (6.4.1). If $\{\alpha_k\}, \{\beta_k\}$, and $\{\lambda_k\}$ are chosen such that
   \[ \alpha_k \lambda_k \leq \beta_k < \frac{1}{L\Psi}, \]  
   \[(6.4.13)\]
   \[ \frac{\alpha_1}{\lambda_1\Gamma_1} \geq \frac{\alpha_2}{\lambda_2\Gamma_2} \geq \ldots, \]  
   \[(6.4.14)\]
   then for any $N \geq 1$, we have
   \[ \min_{k=1,\ldots,N} \frac{\|\nabla \Psi(x_k)\|^2}{\Psi(x_k) - \Psi^*} \leq \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{\lambda_1 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_{k} \beta_k (1 - L\Psi \beta_k)}, \]  
   \[(6.4.15)\]
   \[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{\Gamma_N \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{2\lambda_1}. \]  
   \[(6.4.16)\]
\textbf{Proof.} We first show part a). Denote \( \Delta_k := \nabla \Psi(x_k) - \nabla \Psi(x_k) \). By (6.4.2) and (6.4.8), we have
\[
\| \Delta_k \| = \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) - \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \leq L \| x_k - x_k \| = L \Psi(1 - \alpha_k) \| x_k - x_k \|. \tag{6.4.17}
\]
Also by (6.4.7) and (6.4.9), we have
\[
\Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_k) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L \Psi \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + L \Psi(1 - \alpha_k) \lambda_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \cdot \| x_k - x_k \| \tag{6.4.18}
\]
where the last inequality follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Combining the previous two inequalities, we obtain
\[
\Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_k) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L \Psi \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + L \Psi(1 - \alpha_k) \lambda_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \cdot \| x_k - x_k \| \]
\[
\leq \Psi(x_k) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L \Psi \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + L \Psi(1 - \alpha_k) \lambda_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \cdot \| x_k - x_k \| \]
\[
= \Psi(x_k) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L \Psi \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + L \Psi(1 - \alpha_k) \lambda_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \cdot \| x_k - x_k \| \tag{6.4.19}
\]
where the second inequality follows from the fact that \( ab \leq (a^2 + b^2)/2 \). Now, by (6.4.8), (6.4.9), and (6.4.10), we have
\[
\bar{x}_k - x_k = (1 - \alpha_k) \bar{x}_k - x_k + \alpha_k x_k - x_k - \beta_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) - [x_k - \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k)] \]
\[
= (1 - \alpha_k) (\bar{x}_k - x_k) + (\lambda_k - \beta_k) \nabla \Psi(x_k).
\]
Dividing both sides of the above equality by \( \Gamma_k \), summing them up and noting (8.1.32), we obtain
\[
\bar{x}_k - x_k = \Gamma_k \Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{\tau} \right) \nabla \Psi(x_k).
\]
Using the above identity, the Jensen’s inequality for \( \| \cdot \|^2 \), and the fact that
\[
\Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \frac{\alpha_k}{\tau} = \Sigma_{\tau=2}^k 1 - \frac{1}{\tau - 1} + \frac{1}{\tau} = \frac{1}{\tau} + \Sigma_{\tau=2}^k 1 - \frac{1}{\tau - 1} = \frac{1}{\tau_k}, \tag{6.4.20}
\]
we have
\[
\| \bar{x}_k - x_k \|^2 = \| \Gamma_k \Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{\tau} \right) \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 = \| \Gamma_k \Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \frac{\alpha_k}{\tau} \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{\tau} \right) \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 \]
\[
\leq \| \Gamma_k \Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \frac{\alpha_k}{\tau} \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{\tau} \right) \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 \leq \| \Gamma_k \Sigma_{\tau=1}^k \frac{\alpha_k}{\tau} \left( \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{\tau} \right) \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| \tag{6.4.21}
\]
Replacing the above bound in (6.4.19), we obtain
\[ \Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k (1 - L \Psi \lambda_k) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \sum_{\tau=1}^{k-1} \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\Gamma_{\tau} \Gamma_k} \| \nabla \Psi(x_{\tau}) \|^2 \]
\[ \leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k (1 - L \Psi \lambda_k) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \sum_{\tau=1}^{k-1} \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\Gamma_{\tau} \Gamma_k} \| \nabla \Psi(x_{\tau}) \|^2 \]
(6.4.22)

for any \( k \geq 1 \), where the last inequality follows from the definition of \( \Gamma_k \) in (8.1.32) and the fact that \( \alpha_k \in (0, 1) \) for all \( k \geq 1 \). Summing up the above inequalities and using the definition of \( C_k \) in (6.4.11), we have

\[ \Psi(x_N) \leq \Psi(x_0) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k (1 - L \Psi \lambda_k) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\Gamma_{k-1} \Gamma_k} \| \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) \|^2 \]
\[ = \Psi(x_0) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k (1 - L \Psi \lambda_k) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\Gamma_{k-1} \Gamma_k} \| \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) \|^2 \]
\[ = \Psi(x_0) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2. \]
(6.4.23)

Re-arranging the terms in the above inequality and noting that \( \Psi(x_N) \geq \Psi^* \), we obtain

\[ \min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 \| \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 \leq \Psi(x_0) - \Psi^* \]

which, in view of the assumption that \( C_k > 0 \), clearly implies (6.4.12).

We now show part b). First, note that by (6.4.10), we have

\[ \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \leq \Psi(x_k) + \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \bar{x}_k - x_k \rangle + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \| \bar{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \]
\[ = \Psi(x_k) - \beta_k \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L \Psi \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \| \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) \|^2. \]
(6.4.24)

Also by the convexity of \( \Psi(\cdot) \) and (6.4.8),

\[ \Psi(x_k) - \langle [1 - \alpha_k] \Psi(x_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Psi(x) \rangle = \alpha_k \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \Psi(x) + (1 - \alpha_k) \Psi(x) \]
\[ \leq \alpha_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}), x_k - x \rangle + (1 - \alpha_k) \langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}), x_k - x \rangle \]
\[ = \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \alpha_k (x_{k-1} - x) + (1 - \alpha_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) \rangle \]
\[ = \alpha_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), x_{k-1} - x \rangle. \]
(6.4.25)

It also follows from (6.4.9) that

\[ \| x_{k-1} - x \|^2 - 2 \lambda_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), x_{k-1} - x \rangle + \lambda_k^2 \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 \]
\[ = \| x_{k-1} - \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) - x \|^2 = \| x_k - x \|^2, \]
and hence that

\[ \alpha_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), x_{k-1} - x \rangle = \frac{\alpha_k}{2 \lambda_k} \| x_{k-1} - x \|^2 - \| x_k - x \|^2 + \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k}{2} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2. \]
(6.4.26)

Combining (6.4.24), (6.4.25), and (6.4.26), we obtain
where the last inequality follows from the assumption in (6.4.13). Subtracting \(\Psi(x)\) from both sides of the above inequality and using Lemma 3.17 and the fact that \(\alpha_1 = 1\), we conclude that

\[
\frac{\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x)}{2N} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\alpha_k}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{2\lambda_k} (1 - L\psi\beta_k) \|\nabla\psi(x_k)\|^2 \\
\leq \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{2\lambda_k} (1 - L\psi\beta_k) \|\nabla\psi(x_k)\|^2}{\lambda_1} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \tag{6.4.28}
\]

where the second inequality follows from the simple relation that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\alpha_k}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{\alpha_1 \|x_0 - x\|^2}{\lambda_1} = \frac{\|x_0 - x\|^2}{\lambda_1}, \tag{6.4.29}
\]

due to (6.4.14) and the fact that \(\alpha_1 = \Gamma_1 = 1\). Hence, (6.4.16) immediately follows from the above inequality and the assumption in (6.4.13). Moreover, fixing \(x = x^*\), re-arranging the terms in (6.4.28), and noting the fact that \(\Psi(\bar{x}_N) \geq \Psi(x^*)\), we obtain

\[
\min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \|\nabla\psi(x_k)\|^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{2\lambda_k} (1 - L\psi\beta_k) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{2\lambda_k} (1 - L\psi\beta_k) \|\nabla\psi(x_k)\|^2 \\
\leq \frac{\|x^*-x_0\|^2}{2\lambda_1},
\]

which together with (6.4.13), clearly imply (6.4.15).

We add a few observations about Theorem 6.10. First, in view of (6.4.27), it is possible to use a different assumption than the one in (6.4.13) on the stepsize policies for the convex case. In particular, we only need

\[
2 - L\psi\beta_k - \frac{\alpha_k \beta_k}{\beta_k} > 0 \tag{6.4.30}
\]

to show the convergence of the AGD method for minimizing smooth convex problems. However, since the condition given by (6.4.13) is required for minimizing composite problems in Subsections 6.4.1.2 and 6.4.2.2, we state this assumption for the sake of simplicity. Second, there are various options for selecting \(\{\alpha_k\}\), \(\{\beta_k\}\), and \(\{\lambda_k\}\) to guarantee the convergence of the AGD algorithm. Below we provide some of these selections for solving both convex and nonconvex problems.

**Corollary 6.14.** Suppose that \(\{\alpha_k\}\) and \(\{\beta_k\}\) in the AGD method are set to

\[
\alpha_k = \frac{2}{k+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_k = \frac{1}{2L\psi}. \tag{6.4.31}
\]

a) If \(\{\lambda_k\}\) satisfies


\[ \lambda_k \in [\beta_k, (1 + \frac{\alpha_k}{4}) \beta_k] \quad \forall k \geq 1, \quad (6.4.32) \]

then for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have
\[
\min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|_2 \leq \frac{6L_{\Psi}[\Psi(x_0) - \Psi^*]}{N}. \quad (6.4.33)
\]

b) Assume that \( \Psi(\cdot) \) is convex and that an optimal solution \( x^* \) exists for problem (6.4.1). If \( \{\lambda_k\} \) satisfies
\[
\lambda_k = \frac{k \beta_k}{2} \quad \forall k \geq 1, \quad (6.4.34)
\]
then for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have
\[
\min_{k=1, \ldots, N} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|_2 \leq \frac{96L_{\Psi}}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \left\| x_0 - x^* \right\|_2. \quad (6.4.35)
\]

\[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{4L_{\Psi} \| x_0 - x^* \|_2}{N(N+1)}. \quad (6.4.36) \]

**Proof.** We first show part a). Note that by (8.1.32) and (6.4.31), we have
\[
\Gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)}, \quad (6.4.37)
\]
which implies that
\[
\sum_{\tau=k}^N \Gamma_\tau = \sum_{\tau=k}^N \frac{2}{\tau(\tau+1)} = 2 \sum_{\tau=k}^N \left( \frac{1}{\tau} - \frac{1}{\tau+1} \right) \leq \frac{2}{k}. \quad (6.4.38)
\]

It can also be easily seen from (6.4.32) that \( 0 \leq \lambda_k - \beta_k \leq \alpha_k \beta_k/4 \). Using these observations, (6.4.31), and (6.4.32), we have
\[
C_k = 1 - L_{\Psi} \left( \lambda_k + \frac{\lambda_k - \beta_k}{2L_{\Psi} \lambda_k} \left( \sum_{\tau=k}^N \Gamma_\tau \right) \right) \\
\geq 1 - L_{\Psi} \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_k}{4} \right) \beta_k + \frac{\alpha_k^2 \beta_k^2}{16} \frac{1}{\sum_{\tau=k}^N \Gamma_\tau} \\
= 1 - \beta_k L_{\Psi} \left( 1 + \frac{\alpha_k}{4} + \frac{1}{16} \right) \\
\geq 1 - \beta_k L_{\Psi} \frac{21}{16} = \frac{11}{32}, \quad (6.4.39)
\]

\[ \lambda_k C_k \geq \frac{11 \beta_k}{32} = \frac{11 L_{\Psi}}{64 L_{\Psi}} \geq \frac{1}{64 L_{\Psi}}. \]

Combining the above relation with (6.4.12), we obtain (6.4.33).

We now show part b). Observe that by (6.4.31) and (6.4.34), we have
\[
\alpha_k \lambda_k = \frac{k \beta_k}{k+1} \beta_k < \beta_k, \quad \frac{\alpha_k}{\lambda_k} = \frac{\alpha_k}{k/2} = \ldots = 4L_{\Psi},
\]
which implies that conditions (6.4.13) and (6.4.14) hold. Moreover, we have
\[
\sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma_k^{-1} \beta_k (1 - L_{\Psi} \beta_k) = \frac{1}{64 L_{\Psi}} \sum_{k=1}^N \Gamma_k^{-1} = \frac{1}{64 L_{\Psi}} \sum_{k=1}^N (k + k^2) = \frac{N(N+1)(N+2)}{24 L_{\Psi}}. \quad (6.4.40)
\]
Using (6.4.37) and the above bounds in (6.4.15) and (6.4.16), we obtain (6.4.35) and (6.4.36).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 6.14. First, the rate of convergence in (6.4.33) for the AGD method is in the same order of magnitude as that for the gradient descent method. It is also worth noting that by choosing \( \lambda_k = \beta_k \) in (6.4.32), the rate of convergence for the AGD method just changes up to a constant factor. However, in this case, the AGD method is reduced to the gradient descent method as mentioned earlier in this subsection. Second, if the problem is convex, by choosing more aggressive stepsize \( \{ \lambda_k \} \) in (6.4.34), the AGD method exhibits the optimal rate of convergence in (6.4.36). Moreover, with such a selection of \( \{ \lambda_k \} \), the AGD method can find a solution \( \bar{x} \) such that \( \| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}) \|_2 \leq \varepsilon \) in at most \( O(1/\varepsilon^3) \) iterations according to (6.4.35).

Observe that \( \{ \lambda_k \} \) in (6.4.32) for general nonconvex problems is in the order of \( O(1/L\Psi) \), while the one in (6.4.34) for convex problems are more aggressive (in \( O(k/L\Psi) \)). An interesting question is whether we can apply the same stepsize policy in (6.4.34) for solving general NLP problems no matter whether they are convex or not. We will discuss such a uniform treatment for both convex and nonconvex optimization for solve a certain class of composite problems in next subsection.

### 6.4.1.2 Minimization of nonconvex composite functions

In this subsection, we consider a special class of NLP problems given in the form of (6.4.3). Our goal in this subsection is to show that we can employ a more aggressive stepsize policy in the AGD method, similar to the one used in the convex case (see Theorem 6.10.b) and Corollary 6.14.b)), to solve these composite problems, even if \( \Psi(\cdot) \) is possibly nonconvex.

Throughout this subsection, we make the following assumption about the convex (possibly non-differentiable) component \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) in (6.4.3).

**Assumption 17** There exists a constant \( M \) such that \( \| x^+(y,c) \| \leq M \) for any \( c \in (0,+\infty) \) and \( x,y \in \mathbb{R}^n \), where

\[
x^+(y,c) := \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \langle y, u \rangle + \frac{1}{2c} \| u - x \|^2 + \mathcal{X}(u) \right\}.
\]

(6.4.41)

Next result shows certain situations which assure that Assumption 17 is satisfied. Note that we skip its proof since it is simple.

**Lemma 6.8.** Assumption 17 is satisfied if any one of the following statements holds.

a) \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) is a proper closed convex function with bounded domain.

b) There exists a constant \( M \) such that \( \| x^+(y) \| \leq M \) for any \( x,y \in \mathbb{R}^n \), where

\[
x^+(y) \equiv x^+(y, +\infty) := \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \langle y, u \rangle + \mathcal{X}(u) \right\}.
\]
Based on the above result, we can give the following examples. Let \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) be a given convex compact set. It can be easily seen that Assumption 17 holds if \( \mathcal{X}(x) = I_X(x) \). Here \( I_X \) is the indicator function of \( X \) given by

\[
I_X(x) = \begin{cases} 
0 & x \in X, \\
\infty & x \notin X.
\end{cases}
\]

Another important example is given by \( \mathcal{X}(x) = I_X(x) + \|x\|_1 \), where \( \| \cdot \|_1 \) denotes the \( l_1 \) norm.

Observe that \( x^+(y,c) \) in (6.4.41) also gives rise to an important quantity that will be used frequently in our convergence analysis, i.e.,

\[
P_X(x,y,c) := \frac{1}{c}[x - x^+(y,c)].
\]

In particular, if \( y = \nabla \Psi(x) \), then \( P_X(x,y,c) \) is called the gradient mapping at \( x \), which has been used as a termination criterion for solving constrained or composite NLP problems. It can be easily seen that \( P_X(x,\nabla \Psi(x),c) = \nabla \Psi(x) \) for any \( c > 0 \) when \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) = 0 \). For more general \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \), the following result shows that as the size of \( P_X(x,\nabla \Psi(x),c) \) vanishes, \( x^+(\nabla \Psi(x),c) \) approaches to a stationary point of problem (6.4.3). Indeed, it follows directly from Lemma 6.3 that Let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \) be given and denote \( g \equiv \nabla \Psi(x) \). If \( \|P_X(x,g,c)\| \leq \varepsilon \) for some \( c > 0 \), then by Lemma 6.3

\[
- \nabla \Psi(x^+(g,c)) \in \partial \mathcal{X}(x^+(g,c)) + B(\varepsilon(cL\Psi + 1)),
\]

where \( \partial \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) denotes the subdifferential of \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) and \( B(r) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq r\} \). Moreover, it follows from Lemma 6.1 that For any \( y_1,y_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n \), we have

\[
\|P_X(x,y_1,c) - P_X(x,y_2,c)\| \leq \|y_1 - y_2\|.
\]

We are now ready to describe the AGD algorithm for solving problem (6.4.3), which differs from Algorithm 6.2 only in Step 2.

**Algorithm 6.3** The AGD method for composite optimization

Replace (6.4.9) and (6.4.10) in Step 2 of the Algorithm 1, respectively, by

\[
x_k = \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \nabla \Psi(x_k)_0, u \right\} + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon_k} \|u - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \mathcal{X}(u),
\]

\[
\tilde{x}_k = \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \nabla \Psi(x_k)_0, u \right\} + \frac{1}{2\varepsilon_k} \|u - x_k\|^2 + \mathcal{X}(u).
\]

A few remarks about Algorithm 6.3 are in place. First, observe that the subproblems (6.4.45) and (6.4.46) are given in the form of (6.4.41) and hence that under Assumption 17, the search points \( x_k \) and \( x_k \) \( \forall k \geq 1 \) will stay in a bounded set. Second, we need to assume that \( \mathcal{X}(\cdot) \) is simple enough so that the subproblems (6.4.45)
Algorithm 6.3 are chosen such that (6.4.13) and (6.4.14) hold. Also assume that an optimal solution $x^*$ exists for problem (6.4.3). Then for any $N \geq 1$, we have
\[
P_X(x_k, \nabla \Psi(x_k), \beta_k) = \frac{1}{\beta_k} (x_k - \bar{x}_k). \tag{6.4.47}
\]
We will use $\|P_X(x_k, \nabla \Psi(x_k), \beta_k)\|$ as a termination criterion in the above AGD method for composite optimization.

Before establishing the convergence of the above AGD method, we first state a technical result which shows that the relation in (6.4.7) can be enhanced for composite functions.

**Lemma 6.9.** Let $\Psi(\cdot)$ be defined in (6.4.3). For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have
\[
-L_f \|y - x\|^2 \leq \Psi(y) - \Psi(x) - \langle \nabla \Psi(x), y - x \rangle \leq \frac{L_f}{2} \|y - x\|^2. \tag{6.4.48}
\]

**Proof.** We only need to show the first relation since the second one follows from (6.4.7).

\[
\Psi(y) - \Psi(x) = \int_0^1 \langle \nabla \Psi(x + t(y - x)), y - x \rangle dt
\]
\[
= \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x + t(y - x)), y - x \rangle dt + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla h(x + t(y - x)), y - x \rangle dt
\]
\[
= \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle dt
\]
\[
+ \langle \nabla h(x), y - x \rangle + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla h(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla h(x), y - x \rangle dt
\]
\[
\geq \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle dt + \langle \nabla h(x), y - x \rangle
\]
\[
\geq \langle \nabla \Psi(x), y - x \rangle - \frac{L_f}{2} \|y - x\|^2 \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n,
\]
where the first inequality follows from the fact that $\langle \nabla h(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla h(x), y - x \rangle \geq 0$ due to the convexity of $h$, and the last inequality follows from the fact that
\[
\langle \nabla f(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle \geq -\|f(x + t(y - x)) - \nabla f(x)\| \|y - x\| \geq -L_f t \|y - x\|^2.
\]

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of Algorithm 2 for solving problem (6.4.3).

**Theorem 6.11.** Suppose that Assumption 17 holds and that $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\beta_k\}$, and $\{\lambda_k\}$ in Algorithm 6.3 are chosen such that (6.4.13) and (6.4.14) hold. Also assume that an optimal solution $x^*$ exists for problem (6.4.3). Then for any $N \geq 1$, we have
\[
\min_{k=1,\ldots,N} \left\| P_X(x_k, \nabla \Psi(x_k), \beta_k) \right\|^2 \leq 2 \left[ \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{\Gamma_k} \beta_k (1 - L_f \beta_k) \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{2\lambda_1} + \frac{L_f}{\Gamma_0} (\|x^*\|^2 + M^2) \right], \tag{6.4.49}
\]
where \( P_x (\cdot, \cdot) \) is defined in (6.4.42). If, in addition, \( L_f = 0 \), then we have

\[
\Phi (\tilde{x}_k) - \Phi (x^*) \leq \frac{\lambda_k \|x_k - x^*\|^2}{2\lambda_k}, \quad (6.4.50)
\]

where \( \Phi (x) = \Psi (x) + \mathscr{R} (x) \).

**Proof.** By the assumption that \( \Psi \) is smooth, we have

\[
\Psi (\tilde{x}_k) \leq \Psi (x_k) + \langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), \tilde{x}_k - x_k \rangle + \frac{L_f}{2} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2. \quad (6.4.51)
\]

Also by Lemma 6.9, we have

\[
\Psi (x_k) - [(1 - \alpha_k) \Psi (\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Psi (x)] \\
\leq \alpha_k \left[ \nabla \Psi (x_k), x_k - x \right] + \frac{L_f}{2} \| x_k - x \|^2 \\
+ (1 - \alpha_k) \left[ \nabla \Psi (x_k), \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \right] + \frac{L_f}{2} \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \\
= \langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), x_k - \alpha_k x - (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1} \rangle \\
+ \frac{L_f \alpha_k}{2} \| x_k - x \|^2 + \frac{L_f (1 - \alpha_k)}{2} \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \\
\leq \langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), x_k - \alpha_k x - (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1} \rangle \\
+ \frac{L_f \alpha_k}{2} \| x_k - x \|^2 + \frac{L_f (1 - \alpha_k)}{2} \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2, \quad (6.4.52)
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( x_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} = \alpha_k (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1}) \) due to (6.4.8). Now, using the optimality condition of subproblem (6.4.45) and letting \( p \in \partial \mathscr{R} (x_k) \), we have, for any \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \),

\[
\frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \| x_k - x \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - x \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \right] = \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \langle x - x_k, x_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \rangle \geq \langle \nabla \Psi (x_k) + p, x_k - x \rangle,
\]

which together with the convexity of \( \mathscr{R} (\cdot) \) then imply that

\[
\langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), x_k - x \rangle + \mathscr{R} (x_k) \leq \mathscr{R} (x) + \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \| x_{k-1} - x \|^2 - \| x_k - x \|^2 - \| x_k - x_{k-1} \|^2 \right] \quad (6.4.53)
\]

for any \( x \in \mathbb{R}^n \). Similarly, we obtain

\[
\langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), \tilde{x}_k - x \rangle + \mathscr{R} (\tilde{x}_k) \leq \mathscr{R} (x) + \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \| x_k - x \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - x \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \right]. \quad (6.4.54)
\]

Letting \( x = \alpha_k x_k + (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1} \) in (6.4.54), we have

\[
\langle \nabla \Psi (x_k), \tilde{x}_k - \alpha_k x_k - (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1} \rangle + \mathscr{R} (\tilde{x}_k) \\
\leq \mathscr{R} (\alpha_k x_k + (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \| x_k - \alpha_k x_k - (1 - \alpha_k) \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \right] \\
\leq \alpha_k \mathscr{R} (x_k) + (1 - \alpha_k) \mathscr{R} (\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \left[ \alpha_k^2 \| x_k - x_{k-1} \|^2 - \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 \right],
\]

where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( \mathscr{R} \) and (6.4.8). Summing up the above inequality with (6.4.53) (with both sides multiplied by \( \alpha_k \)), we obtain
where the last inequality follows from the assumption that \( \alpha_k \lambda_k \leq \beta_k \). Combining \((6.4.51)\), \((6.4.52)\), and \((6.4.55)\), and using the definition \( \Phi(x) \equiv \Psi(x) + \mathcal{X}(x) \), we have

\[
\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) \leq (1 - \alpha_k) \Phi(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Phi(x) - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\beta_k} - L_P \right) \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k - \beta_k}{2 \beta_k} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \frac{L_f \alpha_k}{2} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \frac{L_f \alpha_k^2 (1 - \alpha_k)}{2} \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2.
\]

Subtracting \( \Phi(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, re-arranging the terms, and using Lemma 3.17 and relation \((6.4.29)\), we obtain

\[
\frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Phi(x)}{L_N} + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1 - L_P \beta_k}{2 \beta_k} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \leq \| x_k - x^* \|^2 + \| x_k - x_k \|^2 + \alpha_k (1 - \alpha_k) \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2.
\]

Now letting \( x = x^* \) in the above inequality, and observing that by Assumption 17 and \((6.4.8)\),

\[
| \| x_k - x^* \|^2 + \alpha_k (1 - \alpha_k) \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2 \|
\leq 2 \| x^* \|^2 + \| x_k \|^2 + \alpha_k (1 - \alpha_k) \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2
\]

\[
= 2 \| x^* \|^2 + (1 - \alpha_k) \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 + \alpha_k \| x_{k-1} \|^2 + \alpha_k (1 - \alpha_k) (\| \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 + \| x_{k-1} \|^2)
\]

\[
= 2 \| x^* \|^2 + (1 - \alpha_k) \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2 + \alpha_k \| x_{k-1} \|^2 \leq 2 \| x^* \|^2 + M^2,
\]

we obtain

\[
\frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Phi(x^*)}{L_N} + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1 - L_P \beta_k}{2 \beta_k} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \leq \frac{\| x_k - x^* \|^2 + \alpha_k \| x_{k-1} \|^2}{L_N} + L_f \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\alpha_k}{L_N} \left( \| x^* \|^2 + M^2 \right)
\]

\[
= \frac{\| x_k - x^* \|^2}{L_N} + \frac{L_f}{L_N} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2),
\]

where the last inequality follows from \((6.4.20)\). The above relation, in view of \((6.4.13)\) and the assumption \( L_f = 0 \), then clearly implies \((6.4.50)\). Moreover, it follows from the above relation, \((6.4.47)\), and the fact \( \Phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Phi(x^*) \geq 0 \) that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^N \frac{L_P \beta_k}{2 \beta_k} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1 - L_P \beta_k}{2 \beta_k} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \leq \frac{\| x_k - x^* \|^2}{L_N} + \frac{L_f}{L_N} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2),
\]
which, in view of (6.4.13), then clearly implies (6.4.49).

As shown in Theorem 6.11, we can have a uniform treatment for both convex and nonconvex composite problems. More specifically, we allow the same stepsize policies in Theorem 6.10.b) to be used for both convex and nonconvex composite optimization. In the next result, we specialize the results obtained in Theorem 6.11 for a particular selection of \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \beta_k \}, \) and \( \{ \lambda_k \} \).

**Corollary 6.15.** Suppose that Assumption 17 holds and that \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \beta_k \}, \) and \( \{ \lambda_k \} \) in Algorithm 6.3 are set to (6.4.31) and (6.4.34). Also assume that an optimal solution \( x^* \) exists for problem (6.4.3). Then for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[
\min_{k=1,\ldots,N} \| P_{X_k}(\nabla x_k, \nabla \Psi(\nabla x_k), \beta_k) \|_{\nabla X}^2 \leq 24L\Psi \left[ \frac{A_{\Psi \| x_0-x^* \|}}{N(N+1)} + \frac{L_f}{N} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2) \right].
\]

(6.4.59)

If, in addition, \( L_f = 0 \), then we have

\[
\Phi(\hat{x}_N) - \Phi(x^*) \leq \frac{4L_{\Psi \| x_0-x^* \|^2}}{N(N+1)}.
\]

(6.4.60)

**Proof.** The results directly follow by plugging the value of \( \Pi_k \) in (6.4.37), the value of \( \lambda_1 \) in (6.4.34), and the bound (6.4.40) into (6.4.49) and (6.4.50), respectively.

Clearly, it follows from (6.4.59) that after running the AGD method for at most

\[
N = O\left( L_{\Psi \| x_0-x^* \|^2} + L_f / \epsilon \right)
\]

iterations, we have \(-\nabla \Psi(\hat{x}_N) \in \partial \nabla \Phi(\hat{x}_N) + B(\sqrt{\epsilon})\). Using the fact that \( L_{\Psi} = L_f + L_h \), we can easily see that if either the smooth convex term \( h(\cdot) \) or the nonconvex term \( f(\cdot) \) becomes zero, then the previous complexity bound reduces to \( O(\sqrt{\epsilon}) \) or \( O\left( L_{\Omega \| x_0-x^* \|^2} / \epsilon \right) \), respectively.

It is interesting to compare the rate of convergence obtained in (6.4.59) with the one obtained for the nonconvex mirror descent method applied to problem (6.4.3). More specifically, let \( \{ p_k \} \) and \( \{ v_k \} \), respectively, denote the iterates and stepsizes in the nonconvex mirror descent method. Also assume that the component \( \nabla \Phi(\cdot) \) in (6.4.3) is Lipschitz continuous with Lipschitz constant \( L_{\nabla \Phi} \). Then, by (6.2.26), we have

\[
\min_{k=1,\ldots,N} \left[ \| P_{X_k}(p_k, \nabla \Psi(p_k), v_k) \|_{\nabla X}^2 \leq \frac{L_{\Psi \| x_0-x^* \|^2}}{N(N+1)} \right]
\]

(6.4.61)

where the last inequality follows from

\[
\Phi(p_0) - \Phi(x^*) = \Psi(p_0) - \Psi(x^*) + \nabla \Phi(p_0) - \nabla \Phi(x^*)
\]

\[
\leq \langle \nabla \Psi(x^*), p_0 - x^* \rangle + \frac{L_{\Psi}}{2} \| p_0 - x^* \|^2 + L_{\nabla \Phi} \| p_0 - x^* \|,
\]

\[
\leq (\| \nabla \Psi(x^*) \| + L_{\nabla \Phi}) \| p_0 - x^* \| + \frac{L_{\Psi}}{2} \| p_0 - x^* \|^2
\]

\[
\leq (\| \nabla \Psi(x^*) \| + L_{\nabla \Phi}) (\| x^* \| + \| p_0 \|) + L_{\Psi} (\| x^* \|^2 + \| p_0 \|^2).
\]
Comparing (6.4.59) with (6.4.61), we can make the following observations. First, the bound in (6.4.59) does not depend on $L_X$ while the one in (6.4.61) may depend on $L_X$. Second, if the second terms in both (6.4.59) and (6.4.61) are the dominating ones, then the rate of convergence of the AGD method is bounded by $O(L_ΨL_f/N)$, which is better than the $O(L_Ψ^2/N)$ rate of convergence possessed by the projected gradient method, in terms of their dependence on the Lipschitz constant $L_h$. Third, consider the case when $L_f = O(L_h/N^2)$. By (6.4.59), we have

$$\min_{k=1,...,N} \| P_X(\tilde{y}_k, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{y}_k), \beta_k) \|^2 \leq \frac{96L^2_Ψ||x_0-x^*||^2}{N^3} \left(1 + \frac{L_fN^2(||x^*||^2+M^2)}{4(L_f+L_h)||x_0-x^*||^2}\right),$$

which implies that the rate of convergence of the AGD method is bounded by

$$O\left(\frac{L^2_Ψ}{N^2} \left[||x_0-x^*||^2 + ||x^*||^2 + M^2\right]\right).$$

The previous bound is significantly better than the $O(L^2_Ψ/N)$ rate of convergence possessed by the mirror descent method for this particular case. Finally, it should be noted, however, that the nonconvex mirror descent method in Section 6.2.2 can be used to solve more general problems as it does not require the domain of $X$ to be bounded. Instead, it only requires the objective function $Φ(x)$ to be bounded from below.

### 6.4.2 Stochastic accelerated gradient descent method

Our goal in this section is to present a stochastic counterpart of the AGD algorithm for solving stochastic optimization problems. More specifically, we discuss the convergence of this algorithm for solving general smooth (possibly nonconvex) SP problems in Subsection 6.4.2.1, and for a special class of composite SP problems in Subsection 6.4.2.2.

#### 6.4.2.1 Minimization of stochastic smooth functions

In this subsection, we consider problem (6.4.1), where $Ψ$ is differentiable, bounded from below, and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with constant $L_Ψ$. Moreover, we assume that the first-order information of $Ψ(\cdot)$ is obtained by the SFO, which satisfies Assumption 16. It should also be mentioned that in the standard setting for SP, the random vectors $ξ_k$, $k = 1,2,...$, are independent of each other. However, our assumption here is slightly weaker, since we do not need to require $ξ_k$, $k = 1,2,...$, to be independent.

While Nesterov’s original accelerated gradient descent method has been generalized in Section 4.2 to achieve the optimal rate of convergence for solving both smooth and nonsmooth convex SP problem, it is unclear whether it converges for non-
convex SP problems. On the other hand, although the randomized stochastic gradient (RSGD) method converges for nonconvex SP problems, it cannot achieve the optimal rate of convergence when applied to convex SP problems. Below, we present a new SGD-type algorithm, namely, the randomized stochastic AGD (RSAGD) method which not only converges for nonconvex SP problems, but also achieves an optimal rate of convergence when applied to convex SP problems by properly specifying the stepsize policies.

The RSAGD method is obtained by replacing the exact gradients in Algorithm 6.2 with the stochastic ones and incorporating a randomized termination criterion for nonconvex SP as in the RSGD method. This algorithm is formally described as follows.

**Algorithm 6.4** The randomized stochastic AGD (RSAGD) algorithm

- **Input:** $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\{\alpha_k\}$ s.t. $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\alpha_k \in (0, 1)$ for any $k \geq 2$, $\{\beta_k > 0\}$ and $\{\lambda_k > 0\}$, iteration limit $N \geq 1$, and probability mass function $P_R(\cdot)$ s.t.
  \[
  \text{Prob}\{R = k\} = p_k, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N.
  \] (6.4.62)

1. Set $\bar{x}_0 = x_0$ and $k = 1$. Let $R$ be a random variable with probability mass function $P_R$.
2. Call the SFO for computing $G(x_k, \xi_k)$ and set
   \[
   x_k = x_{k-1} - \lambda_k G(x_k, \xi_k),
   \] (6.4.63)
   \[
   \bar{x}_k = x_k - \beta_k G(x_k, \xi_k).
   \] (6.4.64)
3. If $k = R$, terminate the algorithm. Otherwise, set $k = k + 1$ and go to step 1.

We now add a few remarks about the above RSAGD algorithm. First, similar to our discussion in the previous section, if $\alpha_k = 1$, $\beta_k = \lambda_k \forall k \geq 1$, then the above algorithm reduces to the classical SGD algorithm. Moreover, if $\beta_k = \lambda_k \forall k \geq 1$, the above algorithm reduces to the accelerated SGD method in [52]. Second, we have used a random number $R$ to terminate the above RSAGD method for solving general (not necessarily convex) NLP problems. Equivalently, one can run the RSAGD method for $N$ iterations and then randomly select the search points $(x_R, \bar{x}_R)$ as the output of Algorithm 6.4 from the trajectory $(x_k, \bar{x}_k), k = 1, \ldots, N$. Note, however, that the remaining $N - R$ iterations will be surplus.

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of the RSAGD algorithm applied to problem (6.4.1) under the stochastic setting.

**Theorem 6.12.** Let $\{x_k, \bar{x}_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ be computed by Algorithm 6.4 and $\Gamma_k$ be defined in (8.1.32). Also suppose that Assumption 16 holds.

a) If $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\lambda_k\}$, and $\{p_k\}$ are chosen such that (6.4.11) holds and
   \[
   p_k = \frac{\lambda_k C_k}{\sum_{\tau=1}^{\infty} \lambda_{\tau} C_{\tau}}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N,
   \] (6.4.65)
where \( C_k \) is defined in (6.4.11), then for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have
\[
E\left[ \| \nabla \Psi(x_R) \|^2 \right] \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \lambda_i C_i} \left[ \Psi(x_0) - \Psi^* + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}}\sigma^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k^2 \left( 1 + \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\alpha_k \lambda_k} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i \right) \right],
\]
where the expectation is taken with respect to \( R \) and \( \xi_{[N]} := (\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N) \).

b) Suppose that \( \Psi(\cdot) \) is convex and that an optimal solution \( x^* \) exists for problem (6.4.1). If \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \lambda_k \}, \) and \( \{ p_k \} \) are chosen such that (6.4.14) holds,
\[
\alpha_k \lambda_k \leq L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k, \quad \beta_k < 1/L_{\frac{r}{2}},
\]
and
\[
p_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{r} (1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k) (1 - \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)})}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)}}.
\]

for all \( k = 1, \ldots, N \), then for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have
\[
E[\| \nabla \Psi(x_R) \|^2] \leq \frac{(2\lambda_k)^{-1} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 + L_{\frac{r}{2}} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)}}{\sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)}},
\]
\[
E[\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)} \left( (2\lambda_k)^{-1} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 + L_{\frac{r}{2}} \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^{r} \beta_i^{(1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \beta_k)} \right).
\]

**Proof.** We first show part a). Denote \( \delta_k := G(x_k, \xi_k) - \nabla \Psi(x_k) \) and \( \Delta_k := \nabla \Psi(x_k) - \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \). By (6.4.7) and (6.4.63), we have
\[
\Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) + \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), x_k - x_{k-1} \rangle + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}}}{2} \| x_k - x_{k-1} \|^2
\]
\[
= \Psi(x_{k-1}) + (\Delta_k + \nabla \Psi(x_k), -\lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k) + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k^2}{2} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k \|^2
\]
\[
= \Psi(x_{k-1}) + (\Delta_k + \nabla \Psi(x_k), -\lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k)) - \lambda_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}), \delta_k \rangle + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k^2}{2} \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k \|^2
\]
\[
\leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \lambda_k \| \Delta_k \| \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k^2}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2
\]
\[
- \lambda_k (\langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) \rangle, \delta_k),
\]
which, in view of (6.4.17) and the fact that \( ab \leq (a^2 + b^2)/2 \), then implies that
\[
\Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k \left( 1 - \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k}{2} \right) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \lambda_k L_{\frac{r}{2}} (1 - \alpha_k) \| \bar{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \| \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \| + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k^2}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2 - \lambda_k (\langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) \rangle, \delta_k)
\]
\[
\leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k (1 - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k) \| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2 + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} (1 - \alpha_k)^2}{2} \| \bar{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2 + \frac{L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k^2}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2
\]
\[
- \lambda_k (\langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L_{\frac{r}{2}} \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) \rangle, \delta_k).
\]

Noting that similarly to (6.4.21), we have
\[
\| \bar{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2 \leq \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(\lambda_i - \beta_i)^2}{\beta_i} \| \nabla \Psi(x_i) \| + \beta_i \| \delta_i \|^2
\]
\[
= \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(\lambda_i - \beta_i)^2}{\beta_i} \left[ \| \nabla \Psi(x_i) \|^2 + \| \delta_i \|^2 + 2 \langle \nabla \Psi(x_i), \delta_i \rangle \right].
\]
Similarly to (6.4.26), we have
\[
\Psi(x_k) \leq \Psi(x_{k-1}) - \lambda_k (1 - L\Psi \lambda_k) ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 + \frac{L\Psi \lambda_k^2}{2} ||\delta_k||^2 - \lambda_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L\Psi \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k), \delta_k \rangle \\
+ \frac{L\Psi \lambda_k^2}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{(\lambda_t - \beta_t)\tau_t^2}{\alpha_t} \left[ ||\nabla \Psi(x_{t})||^2 + ||\delta_t||^2 + 2\langle \nabla \Psi(x_{t}), \delta_t \rangle \right].
\]

Summing up the above inequalities, we obtain
\[
\Psi(x_N) \leq \Psi(x_0) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k (1 - L\Psi \lambda_k)||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L\Psi \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k), \delta_k \rangle \\
+ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{L\Psi \lambda_k^2}{2} ||\delta_k||^2 + \frac{L\Psi}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{(\lambda_t - \beta_t)\tau_t^2}{\alpha_t} \left[ ||\nabla \Psi(x_{t})||^2 + ||\delta_t||^2 + 2\langle \nabla \Psi(x_{t}), \delta_t \rangle \right] \\
= \Psi(x_0) - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 + \frac{L\Psi}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k^2 \left( 1 + \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\alpha_k \lambda_k^2} \sum_{t=k}^{N} \Gamma_t \right) ||\delta_k||^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} b_k,
\]
where \( b_k = \langle v_k, \delta_k \rangle \) and \( v_k = \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_{k-1}) - L\Psi \lambda_k \nabla \Psi(x_k) \).

Taking expectation w.r.t. \( \xi[k] \) on both sides of the above inequality and noting that under Assumption 16, \( \mathbb{E}[||\delta_k||^2] \leq \sigma^2 \) and \( \{b_k\} \) is a martingale difference since \( v_k \) only depends on \( \xi_{[k-1]} \) and hence \( \mathbb{E}[b_k|\xi_{[k-1]}] = \mathbb{E}[b_k|\xi_{[k-1]}] = \mathbb{E}[v_k|\xi_{[k-1]}] = \langle v_k, E[\delta_k|\xi_{[k-1]}] \rangle = 0 \), we have
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k \mathbb{E}[\xi_{[k]} ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2] \leq \Psi(x_0) - \mathbb{E}[\xi_{[N]} \Psi(x_N)] + \frac{L\Psi \lambda_k^2}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k^2 \left( 1 + \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\alpha_k \lambda_k^2} \sum_{t=k}^{N} \Gamma_t \right).\]

Dividing both sides of the above relation by \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k \), and using the facts that \( \Psi(x_N) \geq \Psi^* \) and
\[
\mathbb{E}[||\nabla \Psi(x_R)||^2] = \mathbb{E}_{R, \xi_{[N]}}[||\nabla \Psi(x_R)||^2] = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k \mathbb{E}[\xi_{[k]} ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2]}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} \lambda_k C_k},
\]
we obtain (6.4.66).

We now show part b). By (6.4.7), (6.4.64), and (6.4.25), we have
\[
\Psi(\tilde{x}_k) \leq \Psi(x_k) + \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \tilde{x}_k - x_k \rangle + \frac{L\Psi}{2} ||\tilde{x}_k - x_k||^2 \\
= \Psi(x_k) - \beta_k ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 + \beta_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \delta_k \rangle + \frac{L\Psi \beta_k^2}{2} ||\nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k||^2 \\
\leq (1 - \alpha_k) \Psi(x_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Psi(x_k) + \alpha_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), x_{k-1} - x \rangle \\
- \beta_k ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 + \beta_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \delta_k \rangle + \frac{L\Psi \beta_k^2}{2} ||\nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k||^2.
\]  
(6.4.71)

Similarly to (6.4.26), we have
\[
\alpha_k \langle \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k, x_{k-1} - x \rangle = \frac{\alpha_k}{\lambda_k} \left[ ||x_{k-1} - x||^2 - ||x_k - x||^2 \right] + \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k}{2} ||\nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k||^2.
\]
Combining the above two inequalities and using the fact that
\[
||\nabla \Psi(x_k) + \delta_k||^2 = ||\nabla \Psi(x_k)||^2 + ||\delta_k||^2 + 2\langle \nabla \Psi(x_k), \delta_k \rangle,
\]
we obtain
\[
\Psi(\bar{x}_k) \leq (1 - \alpha_k)\Psi(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Psi(x) + \frac{\alpha_k}{T_k} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] \\
- \beta_k \left( 1 - \frac{L_P \beta_k}{2} - \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k}{2T_k} \right) \left\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \right\|^2 + \left( \frac{L_P \beta_k^2 + \alpha_k \lambda_k}{2T_k} \right) \|\delta_k\|^2 \\
+ \langle \delta_k, (\beta_k + L_P \beta_k^2 + \alpha_k \lambda_k) \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) + \alpha_k(x - x_{k-1}) \rangle.
\]
Subtracting $\Psi(x)$ from both sides of the above inequality, and using Lemma 3.17 and (6.4.29), we have
\[
\frac{\Psi(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi(x)}{T_k} \leq \left\| \frac{\bar{x}_k - x}{2} \right\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{T_k} \left( 1 - L_P \beta_k \right) \left\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \right\|^2 \\
+ \frac{1}{T_k} \left( \beta_k - \frac{L_P \beta_k^2}{2T_k} \right) \left\| \delta_k \right\|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} b_k' \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n,
\]
where $b_k' = I_k^{-1} \langle \delta_k, (\beta_k + L_P \beta_k^2 + \alpha_k \lambda_k) \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) + \alpha_k(x - x_{k-1}) \rangle$. The above inequality together with the first relation in (6.4.67) then imply that
\[
\frac{\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x)}{I_N} \leq \left\| \frac{x_0 - x}{2} \right\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{I_k} \left( 1 - L_P \beta_k \right) \left\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \right\|^2 \\
+ \frac{1}{I_k} \left( \beta_k^* - \frac{L_P \beta_k^2}{I_k} \right) \left\| \delta_k \right\|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} b_k^* \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.
\]
Taking expectation (with respect to $\bar{x}(N)$) on both sides of the above relation, and noting that under Assumption 16, $E[\|\delta_k\|^2] \leq \sigma^2$ and $\{b_k^*\}$ is a martingale difference by the similar reasoning for $\{b_k\}$ in part a), we obtain, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,
\[
\frac{1}{I_N} E_{\bar{x}(N)} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x) \right] \leq \left\| \frac{x_0 - x}{2} \right\|^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{I_k} \left( 1 - L_P \beta_k \right) E_{\bar{x}(N)} \left[ \left\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \right\|^2 \right] + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{L_P \beta_k^2}{I_k}.
\]
Now, fixing $x = x^*$ and noting that $\Psi(\bar{x}_N) \geq \Psi(x^*)$, we have
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{I_k} \left( 1 - L_P \beta_k \right) E_{\bar{x}(N)} \left[ \left\| \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k) \right\|^2 \right] \leq \left\| \frac{x_0 - x^*}{2} \right\|^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{L_P \beta_k^2}{I_k},
\]
which, in view of the definition of $\bar{x}_N$, then implies (6.4.69). It also follows from (6.4.72) and (6.4.67) that, for any $N \geq 1$,
\[
E_{\bar{x}(N)} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \right] \leq I_N \left( \left\| \frac{x_0 - x}{2} \right\|^2 + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{L_P \beta_k^2}{I_k} \right),
\]
which, in view of the definition of $\bar{x}_N$, then implies that
\[
E[\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} I_k^{-1} \beta_k (1 - L_P \beta_k) \left[ E_{\bar{x}(N)} \left[ \Psi(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi(x^*) \right] \right] \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{I_k^{-1} \beta_k (1 - L_P \beta_k)}{2} \left[ \left\| x_0 - x \right\|^2 + L_P \sigma^2 \sum_{j=1}^{k} I_j^{-1} \beta_j \right] \\
\sum_{k=1}^{N} I_k^{-1} \beta_k (1 - L_P \beta_k).
\]
We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 6.12. First, note that similar to the deterministic case, we can use the assumption in (6.4.30) instead of the one in (6.4.67). Second, the expectations in (6.4.66), (6.4.69), and (6.4.70) are taken with respect to one more random variable $R$ in addition to $\xi$ coming from the SFO. Specifically, the output of the Algorithm 3 is chosen randomly from the generated trajectory \(\{(x_1, \tilde{x}_1), \ldots, (x_N, \tilde{x}_N)\}\) according to (6.4.62), as mentioned earlier in this subsection. Third, the probabilities \(\{p_k\}\) depend on the choice of \(\{\alpha_k\}\), \(\{\beta_k\}\), and \(\{\lambda_k\}\).

Below, we specialize the results obtained in Theorem 6.12 for some particular selections of \(\{\alpha_k\}\), \(\{\beta_k\}\), and \(\{\lambda_k\}\).

**Corollary 6.16.** The following statements hold for Algorithm 6.4 when applied to problem (6.4.1) under Assumption 16.

a) If \(\{\alpha_k\}\) and \(\{\lambda_k\}\) in the RSAGD method are set to (6.4.31) and (6.4.32), respectively, \(\{p_k\}\) is set to (6.4.65), \(\{\beta_k\}\) is set to

\[
\beta_k = \min \left\{ \frac{8}{21L_\Psi}, \frac{\tilde{D}}{\sigma \sqrt{N}} \right\}, \quad k \geq 1
\]

(6.4.73)

for some \(\tilde{D} > 0\), and an iteration limit \(N \geq 1\) is given, then we have

\[
E[\|\nabla \Psi(x_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{2L_\Psi}{4N} \left( \frac{\Psi(x_0) - \Psi^*}{\tilde{D}} + L_\Psi \tilde{D} \right) =: \mathcal{U}_N.
\]

(6.4.74)

b) Assume that \(\Psi(\cdot)\) is convex and that an optimal solution \(x^*\) exists for problem (6.4.1). If \(\{\alpha_k\}\) is set to (6.4.31), \(\{p_k\}\) is set to (6.4.68), \(\{\beta_k\}\) and \(\{\lambda_k\}\) are set to

\[
\beta_k = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{2L_\Psi}, \left( \frac{D^2}{L_\Psi^2 \sigma^2 N^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right\}
\]

(6.4.75)

and

\[
\lambda_k = \frac{k L_\Psi B_k^2}{2}, \quad k \geq 1,
\]

(6.4.76)

for some \(\tilde{D} > 0\), and an iteration limit \(N \geq 1\) is given, then we have

\[
E[\|\nabla \Psi(x_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{96L_\Psi^2 \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{2L_\Psi^3 \sigma}{N^2} \left( \frac{6 \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{D^2} + \tilde{D}^2 \right),
\]

(6.4.77)

\[
E[\Psi(x_R) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{48L_\Psi^2 \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)} + \frac{2 \sigma}{\sqrt{N}} \left( \frac{6 \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{D^2} + \tilde{D} \right).
\]

(6.4.78)

**Proof.** We first show part a). It follows from (6.4.32), (6.4.39), and (6.4.73) that

\[
C_k \geq 1 - \frac{21}{16} L_\Psi \beta_k \geq \frac{1}{2} > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_k C_k \geq \frac{\beta_k}{2}.
\]

Also by (6.4.32), (6.4.37), (6.4.38), and (6.4.73), we have
\[
\lambda_k^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{(\lambda_k - \beta_k)^2}{\alpha_k \lambda_k^4} \left( \sum_{t=1}^{N} \Gamma_t \right) \right] \leq \lambda_k^2 \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{\alpha_k \lambda_k^2} \left( \frac{\alpha_k \beta_k}{4} \right)^2 \frac{1}{k} \right] = \lambda_k^2 + \frac{\beta_k^2}{8}
\]
for any \( k \geq 1 \). These observations together with (6.4.66) then imply that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_k \left( 1 - L \Psi \beta_k \right) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_k^{-1} \beta_k = \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} 1 \Gamma_k^{-1}
\]
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_k^{-1} = \frac{N(N+1)(N+2)}{6}.
\]
Using these observations, (6.4.37), (6.4.69), (6.4.75), and (6.4.76), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2] \leq \frac{2}{\beta \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_k^{-1}} \left( \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2L \Psi \beta_1^2} + \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{6} \right) + 2L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1 \leq \frac{12\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{L \Psi N(N+1)(N+2)} \beta_1 + 2L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1
\]
\[
\leq \frac{6L \Psi \sigma^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \left( \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{D} + \tilde{D} \right).
\]
Also observe that by (6.4.75), we have \( 1 - L \Psi \beta_k \leq 1 \) for any \( k \geq 1 \). Using this observation, (6.4.70), (6.4.75), (6.4.79), and (6.4.80), we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_k) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \Gamma_k^{-1} \left[ N(2L \lambda_1)^{-1} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 + L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} 1 \Gamma_k^{-1} \right]
\]
\[
\leq \frac{12\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{N(N+1)} \beta_1 + \frac{12L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{6}
\]
\[
= \frac{12\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{N(N+1)L \Psi \beta_1^2(N+3)} + \frac{L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1^2}{N(N+1)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{6}
\]
\[
\leq \frac{48L \Psi \sigma^2 \beta_1^2}{N(N+1)} \left( \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{D} + \tilde{D} \right),
\]
where the equality follows from the fact that \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} k(k+1)(k+2) = N(N+1)(N+2)(N+3)/4 \).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 6.16. First, note that, the stepsizes \( \{ \beta_k \} \) in the above corollary depend on the parameter \( \tilde{D} \). While the RSAGD method converges for any \( \tilde{D} > 0 \), by minimizing the RHS of (6.4.74) and
(6.4.78), the optimal choices of $\hat{D}$ would be \( \sqrt{[\Psi(x_0) - \Psi(x^*)] / L\Psi} \) and $\sqrt{\|x_0 - x^*\|}$, respectively, for solving nonconvex and convex smooth SP problems. With such selections for $\hat{D}$, the bounds in (6.4.74), (6.4.77), and (6.4.78), respectively, reduce to

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla \Psi(x_\mathcal{R})\|^2] \leq \frac{21L\Psi[\Psi(x_0) - \Psi(x^*)]}{4N} + \frac{4\sigma[L\Psi(x_0) - \Psi(x^*)]^2}{\sqrt{N}},
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla \Psi(x_\mathcal{R})\|^2] \leq \frac{96L^2\Psi\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N^3} + \frac{4(\sqrt{6}L\Psi\|x_0 - x^*\|)\|x_0 - x^*\|}{N^2} \sigma^2,
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_\mathcal{R}) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{48L\Psi\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N^2} + \frac{4\sqrt{6}L\Psi\|x_0 - x^*\|}{\sqrt{N}} \sigma^2.
\]

It should be noted, however, that such optimal choices of $\hat{D}$ are usually not available, and that one needs to replace $\Psi(x_0) - \Psi(x^*)$ or $\|x_0 - x^*\|$ in the aforementioned optimal selections of $\hat{D}$ with their respective upper bounds in practice. Second, the rate of convergence of the RSAGD algorithm in (6.4.74) for general nonconvex problems is the same as that of the RSGD method for smooth nonconvex SP problems (see Section 6.1). However, if the problem is convex, then the complexity of the RSAGD algorithm will be significantly better than the latter algorithm. More specifically, in view of (6.4.83), the RSAGD is an optimal method for smooth stochastic optimization, while the rate of convergence of the RSGD method is only nearly optimal.

Moreover, in view of (6.4.77), if $\Psi(\cdot)$ is convex, then the number of iterations performed by the RSAGD algorithm to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (6.4.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x}$ such that $\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla \Psi(\bar{x})\|^2] \leq \varepsilon$, can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon^3} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\varepsilon^5}\right) \left(L\Psi\|x_0 - x^*\|\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}\right\}.
\]

In addition to the aforementioned expected complexity results of the RSAGD method, we can establish their associated large deviation properties. For example, by Markov’s inequality and (6.4.74), we have

\[
\text{Prob}\left\{\|\nabla \Psi(x_\mathcal{R})\|^2 \geq \lambda \mathcal{U}_N\right\} \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} \forall \lambda > 0,
\]

which implies that the total number of calls to the $\mathcal{O}$ performed by the RSAGD method for finding an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (6.4.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x}$ satisfying $\text{Prob}\{\|\nabla \Psi(\bar{x})\|^2 \leq \varepsilon\} \geq 1 - \Lambda$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$, after disregarding a few constant factors, can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{\frac{1}{M^2} + \frac{\sigma^2}{\Lambda M^2}\right\}.
\]

To improve the dependence of the above bound on the confidence level $\Lambda$, we can design a variant of the RSAGD method which has two phases: optimization and post-optimization phase. The optimization phase consists of independent runs of the RSAGD method to generate a list of candidate solutions and the post-optimization
phase then selects a solution from the generated candidate solutions in the optimization phase (see Section 6.1 for more details).

### 6.4.2.2 Minimization of nonconvex stochastic composite functions

In this subsection, we consider the stochastic composite problem (6.4.3), which satisfies both Assumptions 16 and 17. Our goal is to show that under the above assumptions, we can choose the same aggressive stepsize policy in the RSAGD method no matter if the objective function \( \Psi(x, \xi) \) in (6.4.3) is convex or not.

We will modify the RSAGD method in Algorithm 6.4 by replacing the stochastic gradient \( \nabla \Psi(x_k, \xi_k) \) with

\[
\bar{G}_k = \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} G(x_k, \xi_k, i)
\]

for some \( m_k \geq 1 \), where \( G(x_k, \xi_k, i), i = 1, \ldots, m_k \) are the stochastic gradients returned by the \( i \)-th call to the SFO at iteration \( k \). The modified RSAGD algorithm is formally described as follows.

**Algorithm 6.5** The RSAGD algorithm for stochastic composite optimization

Replace (6.4.63) and (6.4.64), respectively, in Step 2 of Algorithm 6.4 by

\[
x_k = \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \langle \bar{G}_k, u \rangle + \frac{1}{2\lambda_k} \| u - x_{k-1} \|^2 + \mathcal{X}(u) \right\}, \quad (6.4.87)
\]

\[
\bar{x}_k = \arg\min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \langle \bar{G}_k, u \rangle + \frac{1}{2\beta_k} \| u - x_k \|^2 + \mathcal{X}(u) \right\}, \quad (6.4.88)
\]

where \( \bar{G}_k \) is defined in (6.4.86) for some \( m_k \geq 1 \).

A few remarks about the above RSAGD algorithm are in place. First, note that by calling the SFO multiple times at each iteration, we can obtain a better estimator for \( \nabla \Psi(x_k) \) than the one obtained by using one call to the SFO as in Algorithm 6.4. More specifically, under Assumption 16, we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\bar{G}_k] = \frac{1}{m_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} \mathbb{E}[G(x_k, \xi_k, i)] = \nabla \Psi(x_k),
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \bar{G}_k - \nabla \Psi(x_k) \|^2] = \frac{1}{m_k} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} [G(x_k, \xi_k, i) - \nabla \Psi(x_k)] \|^2 \right] \leq \sigma^2/m_k, \quad (6.4.89)
\]

where the last inequality follows from (6.2.40). Thus, by increasing \( m_k \), we can decrease the error existing in the estimation of \( \nabla \Psi(x_k) \). We will discuss the appropriate choice of \( m_k \) later in this subsection. Second, since we do not have access to \( \nabla \Psi(x_k) \), we cannot compute the exact gradient mapping, i.e., \( P_X(x_k, \nabla \Psi(x_k), \beta_k) \) as the one used in Subsection 6.4.1.2 for composite optimization. However, by (6.4.42) and (6.4.87), we can compute an approximate stochastic gradient mapping given by \( P_X(x_k, \bar{G}_k, \beta_k) \). Indeed, by (6.4.44) and (6.4.89), we have
Finally, it is worth mentioning that although several SGD-type algorithms have been developed for convex programming with $m_k = 1$, the mini-batch SGD method in Algorithm 6.5 (i.e., $m_k > 1$) is more attractive when computing the projection subproblems (6.4.87) and (6.4.88) is more expensive than calling the stochastic first-order oracle.

We are ready to describe the main convergence properties of Algorithm 6.5 for solving nonconvex stochastic composite problems.

**Theorem 6.13.** Suppose that $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\lambda_k\}$, and $\{p_k\}$ in Algorithm 6.5 satisfy (6.4.13), (6.4.14), and (6.4.68). Then under Assumptions 16 and 17, we have

$$
\mathbb{E}[\|P_X(\bar{x}_k, \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k), \beta_k) - P_X(x_k, G_k, \beta_k)\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{G}_k - \nabla \Psi(x_k)\|^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\bar{m}_k} 
$$

(6.4.90)

where the expectation is taken with respect to $R$ and $\xi_{k,i}$, $k = 1, \ldots, N$, $i = 1, \ldots, m_k$. If, in addition, $L_f = 0$, then we have

$$
\mathbb{E}[\Phi(\bar{x}_k) - \Phi(x^*)] \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{1 - \lambda_k} \beta_k (1 - L_f \beta_k) \left[ \frac{\|x_k - x^*\|^2}{2 \lambda_k} + \sigma^2 \sum_{j=k}^k \frac{1}{4 (1 - L_f \beta_j)^2} \right], 
$$

(6.4.91)

where $\Phi(x) \equiv \Psi(x) + \mathcal{X}(x)$.

**Proof.** Denoting $\bar{\delta}_k \equiv \bar{G}_k - \nabla \Psi(x_k)$ and $\delta_{[k]} \equiv \{\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_k\}$ for any $k \geq 1$, similar to (6.4.53) and (6.4.54), we have

$$
\langle \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \bar{\delta}_k, x_k - x \rangle + \mathcal{X}(x_k) \leq \mathcal{X}(x) + \frac{1}{2 \lambda_k} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 \right], 
$$

(6.4.93)

$$
\langle \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \bar{\delta}_k, \bar{x}_k - x \rangle + \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}_k) \leq \mathcal{X}(x) + \frac{1}{2 \lambda_k} \left[ \|x_k - x\|^2 - \|\bar{x}_k - x\|^2 - \|\bar{x}_k - x_k\|^2 \right] 
$$

(6.4.94)

for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. By using the above relations and similar arguments used to obtain (6.4.55) in the proof of Theorem 6.11, we obtain

$$
\langle \nabla \Psi(x_k) + \bar{\delta}_k, \bar{x}_k - x_k - (1 - \alpha_k) \bar{x}_{k-1} \rangle + \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}_k) \leq (1 - \alpha_k) \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \mathcal{X}(x) + \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k \bar{\delta}_k}{2 \lambda_k \bar{m}_k} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \lambda_k} \|\bar{x}_k - x_k\|^2 
$$

$$
\leq (1 - \alpha_k) \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \mathcal{X}(x) + \frac{\alpha_k \lambda_k \bar{\delta}_k}{2 \lambda_k} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \lambda_k} \|\bar{x}_k - x_k\|^2, 
$$

(6.4.95)

where the last inequality follows from the assumption that $\alpha_k \lambda_k \leq \beta_k$. Combining the above relation with (6.4.51) and (6.4.52), and using the definition $\Phi(x) \equiv \Psi(x) + \mathcal{X}(x)$, we have

$$
\mathbb{E}[\|P_X(\bar{x}_k, \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_k), \beta_k) - P_X(x_k, G_k, \beta_k)\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{G}_k - \nabla \Psi(x_k)\|^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{\bar{m}_k} 
$$

(6.4.90)
\( X(x) \), we have

\[
\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) \leq (1 - \alpha_k) \Phi(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Phi(x) - \frac{1}{\beta_k} \left( \frac{1}{\beta_k} - L\Phi \right) \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \langle \tilde{g}_k, \alpha_k (x - x_{k-1}) + x_k - \tilde{x}_k \rangle \\
+ \frac{\alpha_k}{\beta_k} \left( \| x_{k-1} - x \|^2 - \| x_k - x \|^2 \right) + \frac{L_f \alpha_k}{\beta_k} \| x_k - x \|^2 + \frac{L_f \alpha_k^2 (1 - \alpha_k)}{2} \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2 \\
\leq (1 - \alpha_k) \Phi(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \Phi(x) + \langle \tilde{g}_k, \alpha_k (x - x_{k-1}) \rangle - \frac{1}{\beta_k} \left( \frac{1}{\beta_k} - L\Phi \right) \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \frac{\beta_k \| \tilde{x}_k \|^2}{\beta_k} \\
+ \frac{\alpha_k}{\beta_k} \left( \| x_{k-1} - x \|^2 - \| x_k - x \|^2 \right) + \frac{L_f \alpha_k}{\beta_k} \| x_k - x \|^2 + \frac{L_f \alpha_k^2 (1 - \alpha_k)}{2} \| \tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_{k-1} \|^2,
\]

where the last inequality follows from the Young’s inequality. Subtracting \( \Phi(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, re-arranging the terms, and using Lemma 3.17 and (6.4.29), we obtain

\[
\frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Phi(x)}{I_{N_k}} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - L_f \beta_k}{4\beta_k I_{N_k}} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \leq \frac{\| x_0 - x \|^2}{2\alpha_k} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \langle \tilde{g}_k, x - x_{k-1} \rangle \\
+ \frac{L_f}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 + \alpha_k (1 - \alpha_k) \| x_{k-1} - x_k - 1 \|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_k \| \tilde{x}_k \|^2 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.
\]

Letting \( x = x^* \) in the above inequality, and using (6.4.20) and (6.4.57), we have

\[
\frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \Phi(x^*)}{I_{N_k}} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - L_f \beta_k}{4\beta_k I_{N_k}} \| \tilde{x}_k - x_k \|^2 \leq \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2\alpha_k} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \langle \tilde{g}_k, x^* - x_{k-1} \rangle \\
+ \frac{L_f}{2} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_k \| \tilde{x}_k \|^2.
\]

Taking expectation from both sides of the above inequality, noting that under Assumption 16, \( \mathbb{E}[\langle \tilde{g}_k, x^* - x_{k-1} \rangle] = 0 \), and using (6.4.89) and the definition of the gradient mapping in (6.4.42), we conclude

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} \left[ \frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Phi(x^*)}{I_{N_k}} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - L_f \beta_k}{4\beta_k I_{N_k}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{g}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \tilde{g}_N) \|^2] \right] \\
\leq \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2\alpha_k} + \frac{L_f}{2} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2) + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{1 - L_f \beta_k} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] / 2 - \sigma^2 / \mu_k \quad \text{due to (6.4.90), then imply that}
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} \left[ \frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Phi(x)}{I_{N_k}} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - L_f \beta_k}{4\beta_k I_{N_k}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{g}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] \right] \\
\leq \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2\alpha_k} + \frac{L_f}{2} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2) + \sigma^2 \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{1 - L_f \beta_k} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] \right) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{1 - L_f \beta_k} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] / 2 - \sigma^2 / \mu_k \quad \text{due to (6.4.90), then imply that}
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} \left[ \frac{\Phi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Phi(x)}{I_{N_k}} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{1 - L_f \beta_k}{4\beta_k I_{N_k}} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{g}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] \right] \\
\leq \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2\alpha_k} + \frac{L_f}{2} (\| x^* \|^2 + M^2) + \sigma^2 \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{1 - L_f \beta_k} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2] \right) + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k}{1 - L_f \beta_k} \mathbb{E}_{\tilde{x}_N} [\| PX(\tilde{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\tilde{x}_N), \beta_k) \|^2]. \quad (6.4.96)
\]
Since the above relation is similar to the relation (6.4.72), the rest of proof is also similar to the last part of the proof for Theorem 6.12 and hence the details are skipped.

Theorem 6.13 shows that by using the RSAGD method in Algorithm 4, we can have a unified treatment and analysis for stochastic composite problem (6.4.3), no matter it is convex or not. In the next result, we specialize the results obtained in Theorem 6.13 for some particular selections of \{α_k\}, \{β_k\}, and \{λ_k\}.

**Corollary 6.17.** Suppose that the stepsizes \{α_k\}, \{β_k\}, and \{λ_k\} in Algorithm 4 are set to (6.4.31) and (6.4.34), respectively, and \{p_k\} is set to (6.4.68). Also assume that an optimal solution \(x^*\) exists for problem (6.4.3). Then under Assumptions 16 and 17, for any \(N \geq 1\), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_N(\bar{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_N), \beta_R)\|^2] \leq 96L_P \left[ \frac{4L_P \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{L_f}{N} (\|x^*\|^2 + M^2) + \frac{2\sigma^2}{18L_P(N+1)(N+2)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} k(k+1) \right].
\] (6.4.97)

If, in addition, \(L_f = 0\), then for any \(N \geq 1\), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Phi(x_N) - \Phi(x^*)] \leq \frac{12L_P \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{L_P N(N+1)(N+2)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} j \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{j(j+1)}{m_j}.
\] (6.4.98)

**Proof.** Similar to Corollary 6.14.b), we can easily show that (6.4.13) and (6.4.14) hold. By (6.4.91), (6.4.31), (6.4.34), (6.4.37), and (6.4.40), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|P_N(\bar{x}_N, \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}_N), \beta_R)\|^2] \leq \frac{192L_P \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \left[ 2L_P \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{N(N+1)L_f}{2} (\|x^*\|^2 + M^2) + \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} 17k(k+1) \right],
\]

which clearly implies (6.4.97). By (6.4.92), (6.4.31), (6.4.34), (6.4.37), and (6.4.40), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Phi(x_N) - \Phi(x^*)] \leq \frac{24L_P \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \left[ \frac{N}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{4L_P} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \frac{17j(j+1)}{m_j} \right],
\]

which implies (6.4.98).

Note that all the bounds in the above corollary depend on \(\{m_k\}\) and they may not converge to zero for all values of \(\{m_k\}\). In particular, if \(\{m_k\}\) is set to a positive integer constant, then the last terms in (6.4.97) and (6.4.98), unlike the other terms, will not vanish as the algorithm advances. On the other hand, if \(\{m_k\}\) is very big, then each iteration of Algorithm 4 will be expensive due to the computation of stochastic gradients. Next result provides an appropriate selection of \(\{m_k\}\).

**Corollary 6.18.** Suppose that the stepsizes \{α_k\}, \{β_k\}, and \{λ_k\} in Algorithm 4 are set to (6.4.31) and (6.4.34), respectively, and \{p_k\} is set to (6.4.68). Also assume that an optimal solution \(x^*\) exists for problem (6.4.3), an iteration limit \(N \geq 1\) is given, and

\[
m_k = \left\lfloor \frac{\sigma^2}{4L_P\|x_0 - x^*\|^2} \min\left\{ \frac{k(k+1)}{L_f N}, \frac{k(k+1)N}{18L_P m_k} \right\} \right\rfloor, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, N
\] (6.4.99)
for some parameter \( \tilde{D} \). Then under Assumptions 16 and 17, we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \| P_X(\bar{x}_R, \nabla\Psi(\bar{x}_R), \beta_R) \|_2^2 \right] \leq 96L\Psi \left[ \frac{4L\Psi(\|x_0-x^*\|^2+\tilde{D}^2)}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{L_f(\|x^*\|^2+M^2+2\tilde{D}^2)}{N} \right].
\]

(6.4.100)

If, in addition, \( L_f = 0 \), then

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Phi(\bar{x}_R) - \Phi(x^*)] \leq 2L\Psi N \left( N + 1 \right) \left( 6\|x_0-x^*\|^2 + \tilde{D}^2 \right).
\]

(6.4.101)

Proof. By (6.4.99), we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k(k+1)}{m_k} \leq \tilde{D}^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} k(k+1) \max \left\{ \frac{L_f}{k}, \frac{L\Psi}{k(k+1)}N \right\} \leq \tilde{D}^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} k(k+1) \left\{ \frac{L_f}{k} + \frac{L\Psi}{k(k+1)N} \right\}
\]

\[
\leq \tilde{D}^2 \left[ \frac{L_f N(N+3)}{2} + L\Psi \right],
\]

which together with (6.4.97) imply (6.4.100). If \( L_f = 0 \), then due to (6.4.99), we have

\[
m_k = \left\lceil \frac{\sigma^2 k(k+1)N}{L_f D^2} \right\rceil, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, N.
\]

(6.4.102)

Using this observation, we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{j(j+1)}{m_j} \leq \frac{L\Psi D^2(N+1)}{2},
\]

which, in view of (6.4.98), then implies (6.4.101).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Corollary 6.18. First, we conclude from (6.4.100) and (6.4.43) that by running Algorithm 4 for at most

\[
\mathcal{O} \left\{ \left[ \frac{L\Psi(\|x_0-x^*\|^2+\tilde{D}^2)}{\epsilon} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{L_f L\Psi (M^2+\|x^*\|^2+\tilde{D}^2)}{\epsilon} \right\}
\]

iterations, we have \(-\nabla\Psi(\bar{x}_R) \in \partial \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}_R) + B(\sqrt{\epsilon})\). Also at the \( k \)-th iteration of this algorithm, the SFO is called \( m_k \) times and hence the total number of calls to the SFO equals to \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} m_k \). Now, observe that by (6.4.99), we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} m_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( 1 + \frac{k \sigma^2 D^2}{L_f L\Psi D^2} \right) \leq N + \frac{\sigma^2 N^2}{L_f L\Psi D^2}.
\]

(6.4.103)

Using these two observations, we conclude that the total number of calls to the SFO performed by Algorithm 4 to find an \( \epsilon \)-stationary point of problem (6.4.3) i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \) satisfying \(-\nabla\Psi(\bar{x}) \in \partial \mathcal{X}(\bar{x}) + B(\sqrt{\epsilon})\) for some \( \epsilon > 0 \), can be bounded by
While Algorithm 4 converges for any $\hat{D}$ in the definition of $m_k$, for solving composite nonconvex SP problems, if the last term in (6.4.104) is the dominating one. Third, due to (6.4.101) and (6.4.102), it can be easily shown that when $L_f = 0$, Algorithm 4 possesses an optimal complexity for solving convex SP problems which is similar to the one obtained in the Subsection 6.4.2.1 for smooth problems. Fourth, note that the definition of $\{m_k\}$ in Corollary 6.18 depends on the iteration limit $N$. In particular, due to (6.4.99), we may call the SFO many times (depending on $N$) even at the beginning of Algorithm 4. In the next result, we specify a different choice for $\{m_k\}$ which is independent of $N$. However, the following result is slightly weaker than the one in (6.4.100) when $L_f = 0$.

**Corollary 6.19.** Suppose that the stepsizes $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\beta_k\}$, and $\{\lambda_k\}$ in Algorithm 4 are set to (6.4.31) and (6.4.34), respectively, and $\{p_k\}$ is set to (6.4.68). Also assume that an optimal solution $x^*$ exists for problem (6.4.3), and

$$ m_k = \left[ \frac{\sigma^2_k}{L_f \hat{D}^2} \right], \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots $$

for some parameter $\hat{D}$. Then under Assumptions 16 and 17, for any $N \geq 1$, we have

$$ \mathbb{E}[^{X_R, \nabla \Psi(X_R), \beta_R}_{P_X}] \leq 96L_f \left[ \frac{4L_f \|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{L_f (\|x^*\|^2 + M^2 + 2\bar{D}^2)}{N} \right]. $$

(6.4.106)

**Proof.** Observe that by (6.4.105), we have

$$ \sigma^2_k \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{k(k+1)}{m_k} \leq \hat{D}^2 \sum_{k=1}^N (k+1) \leq \frac{\hat{D}^2 N(N+1)}{2}. $$

Using this observation and (6.4.97), we obtain (6.4.106).

Using Markov’s inequality, (6.4.103), (6.4.105), and (6.4.106), we conclude that the total number of calls to the SFO performed by Algorithm 4 for finding an $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (6.4.3), i.e., a point $\bar{x}$ satisfying $\mathbb{P} \{ \|P_X(\bar{x}, \nabla \Psi(\bar{x}), c)\|^2 \leq \varepsilon \} \geq 1 - \Lambda$ for any $c > 0$, some $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$, can be bounded by (6.4.85) after disregarding a few constant factors. We can also design a two-phase method for improving the dependence of this bound on the confidence level $\Lambda$.

Note that in this section, we focus on the Euclidean setting by assuming that $\| \cdot \|$ is the Euclidean norm. It should be noted that if the problem is deterministic,
we can easily extend our results to the non-Euclidean setting by modifying (6.4.26) and (6.4.53) and using some existing results on prox-mapping discussed in Subsection 6.2.1. Similar extensions to the non-Euclidean setting for stochastic problems, however, are more complicated, mainly because the variance reduction inequality in (6.4.89) requires an inner product norm. One can possibly obtain a similar relation as in (6.4.89) if the associated norm is given by $\| \cdot \|_p$ for $p \geq 2$. However, such a relation does not necessarily hold when $p < 2$. Another possibility is to derive complexity results by noting that all the norms in $\mathbb{R}^n$ are equivalent. However, such complexity results will have more complicated dependence on the dimension of the problem in general.

### 6.5 Nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent

In this section, we consider the following nonconvex finite-sum problem

$$\Psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x) \},$$

(6.5.1)

where $X$ is a closed convex set in Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^n$, $f$ is the average of $m$ smooth but possibly nonconvex component functions $f_i$, i.e., $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x)/m$, and $h$ is a simple convex function with known structure, but possibly nonsmooth (e.g. $h(x) = \|x\|_1$ or $h(x) \equiv 0$). We assume that for $\forall i=1,2,...,m$, $\exists L_i > 0$, s.t.

$$\|\nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(y)\|_\ast \leq L_i \|x - y\|, \ \forall x, y \in X.$$

Clearly, $f$ has Lipschitz continuous gradients with constant

$$L_f \leq L \equiv \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L_i.$$

(6.5.2)

Throughout this section, we assume that $\Psi$ is bounded below over $X$, i.e. $\Psi^*$ is finite. Observe that the problem set up is similar to (6.5.1), the difference is that $f_i$ are possibly nonconvex.

Our goal in this section is to adapt the variance reduction techniques in Section 5.3 into the nonconvex mirror descent method in Section 6.2.2 and demonstrate that the resulting algorithm can significantly save the number of gradient evaluations of $f_i$ for solving nonconvex finite-sum optimization problems. We will modify the basic scheme of this algorithm to solve an important class stochastic optimization problems where $f$ is given by an expectation function.

### 6.5.1 Basic scheme for deterministic problems

We first focus on the basic case when the number of terms $m$ is fixed. Similar to the variance-reduced mirror descent method in Section 5.3, the nonconvex variance-
reduced mirror descent method (see Algorithm 7.13) will compute a full gradient for every $T$ iterations. However, different from the variance-reduced mirror descent for solving convex finite-sum problems, the full gradient $\nabla f(\bar{x})$ will not directly participate in the computation of the gradient estimator $G_k$. Instead the gradient estimator $G_k$ will be computed in a recursive manner based on $G_{k-1}$. Another difference from the variance-reduced mirror descent method exist in that a mini-batch of sample of size $b$ is used to define $G_k$. It should be noted, however, that the original algorithmic scheme of the variance-reduced mirror descent method could still be applied to the nonconvex finite-sum problems, even though it would not exhibit the best possible rate of convergence in terms of the total number of required gradient evaluations.

Algorithm 6.6 A nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method

\begin{algorithm}
\textbf{Input:} $x_1, y, T, \{\theta_t\}$ and probability distribution $Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_m\}$ on $\{1, \ldots, m\}$. \\
\textbf{for} $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ \textbf{do} \\
\textbf{if} $k \not\in T \Rightarrow 1$ \textbf{then} \\
\hspace{1em} Set $G_k = \nabla f(x_k)$. \\
\textbf{else} \\
\hspace{1em} Generate i.i.d. samples $I_b$ of size $b$ according to $Q$. \\
\hspace{1em} Set $G_k = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} (\nabla f_i(x_k) - \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}))/\{q_m\} + G_{k-1}$. \\
\textbf{end if} \\
\hspace{1em} Set $x_{k+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \{y(G_k, x) + h(x) + V(x_k, x)\}$. \\
\textbf{end for} \\
Output $x_T$, where $R$ is uniformly distributed over $\{1, \ldots, N\}$.
\end{algorithm}

In order to facilitate the analysis of the algorithm, we will group the iteration indices $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ into different epochs given by

$$\{\{1, 2, \ldots, T\}, \{T+1, T+2, \ldots, 2T\}, \ldots, \{sT+1, sT+2, \ldots, (s+1)T\}, \ldots\}.$$ 

In other words, except for the last epoch, each epoch $s, s \geq 0$, consists of $T$ iterations starting from $sT+1$ to $(s+1)T$, and the last epoch consist of the remaining iterations. For a given iteration index $k = sT+t$, we will always use the index $k$ and the pair $(s, t)$ interchangeably. For notational convenience, we also denote $(s, T+1) == (s+1, 1)$. Sometimes we will simply denote $(s, t)$ by $t$ if the epoch $s$ is clear from the context.

We will use the generalized projected gradient $P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma)$ defined in (6.2.7) to evaluate the solution quality at a given search point $x_k \in X$. Moreover, replacing $\nabla f(x_k)$ with its estimator $G_k$, we then obtain the stochastic generalized projected gradient $P_X(x_k, G_k, \gamma)$. For notation convenience, we simply denote

$$g_{X,k} \equiv P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma) \text{ and } \tilde{g}_{X,k} \equiv P_X(x_k, G_k, \gamma).$$

Let us denote $\delta_k \equiv G_k - \nabla f(x_k)$. Then by Corollary 6.1, we have

$$\|g_{X,k} - \tilde{g}_{X,k}\| \leq \|\delta_k\|. \quad (6.5.3)$$

We first provide a bound on the size of $\|\delta_k\|$.
Lemma 6.10. Let $L$ be defined in \eqref{5.2} and suppose that the probabilities $q_i$ are set to
\[ q_i = \frac{L_i}{mL}, \quad (6.5.4) \]
for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. If the iteration index $k$ (or equivalently $(s,t)$ represents the $t$-th iteration at the $s$-epoch, then
\[ \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_k\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(s,t)}\|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \mathbb{E}[\|x_{(s,t)} - x_{(s,t-1)}\|^2]. \quad (6.5.5) \]

Proof. Consider the $s$-th epoch. For simplicity let us denote $\delta_i = \delta_{(s,t)}$ and $x_t = x_{(s,t)}$. It is easy to see that for the first iteration in epoch $s$, we have $\delta_1 = 0$. Note that by the definition of $\delta_i$, we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_i\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\|\frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} [\nabla f_i(x_t) - \nabla f_i(x_{t-1})]/(q, m) + G_{t-1} - \nabla f(x_t)]^2] \]
\[ = \mathbb{E}[\|\frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} [\nabla f_i(x_t) - \nabla f_i(x_{t-1})]/(q, m) - [\nabla f(x_t) - \nabla f(x_{t-1})] + \delta_{t-1}]^2]. \]

Let us denote $\zeta_i = [\nabla f_i(x_t) - \nabla f_i(x_{t-1})]/(q, m)$. By taking the conditional expectation w.r.t. $i \in I_b$, we have $\mathbb{E}[\zeta_i] = \nabla f(x_t) - \nabla f(x_{t-1})$, which together with the above identity then imply that
\[ \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_i\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\|\frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} [\nabla f(x_t) - \nabla f(x_{t-1})]\|^2 + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{t-1}\|^2] \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} \mathbb{E}[\|\zeta_i\|^2] + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{t-1}\|^2] \]
\[ = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{m^2 q_i} \|\nabla f_i(x_t) - \nabla f_i(x_{t-1})\|^2] + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{t-1}\|^2] \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{b} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{L^2}{m^2 q_j} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{t-1}\|^2] \]
\[ = \frac{L^2}{b} \|x_t - x_{t-1}\|^2 + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{t-1}\|^2]. \quad (6.5.6) \]

The result then follows by applying the above inequality inductively. \qed

Now we are ready to prove the main convergence properties of the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method.

Theorem 6.14. Assume that the probabilities $q_i$ are set to \eqref{5.4} and that
\[ \gamma = 1/L \quad \text{and} \quad b = 17T. \quad (6.5.7) \]

Then for any $k \geq 1$,
\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{k+1})] + \frac{1}{b} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,j}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_1)], \quad \forall k \geq 1. \quad (6.5.8) \]

As a consequence,
\[ \mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,R}\|^2] \leq \frac{8L}{b} [\Psi(x_1) - \Psi^*]. \quad (6.5.9) \]

Proof. Using the smoothness of $f$ and Lemma 6.4, we have for any $k \geq 1$,
We now show possible progress made by each epoch of the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method. Using (7.4.4) and the fact that
\[ f(x_k) = \gamma(G_k, \tilde{g}_{X,k}) + \frac{L^2}{2} \|\tilde{g}_{X,k}\|^2 + \gamma(\delta_k, \tilde{g}_{X,k}) \]
for any \( k \). Rearranging the terms in the above inequality and applying the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality, we obtain
\[
\Psi(x_{k+1}) \leq \Psi(x_k) - \gamma\left(1 - \frac{L\gamma}{2} - \frac{q}{2}\right) \|\tilde{g}_{X,k}\|^2 + \frac{L^2}{2} \|\delta_k\|^2 \quad (6.5.10)
\]
for any \( q > 0 \). Observe that by (6.5.3),
\[
\|g_{X,k}\|^2 = \|g_{X,k} - \tilde{g}_{X,k} + \tilde{g}_{X,k}\|^2 \leq 2\|\delta_k\|^2 + 2\|\tilde{g}_{X,k}\|^2.
\]
Multiplying the above inequality for any \( p > 0 \) and adding it to (6.5.10), we have
\[
\Psi(x_{k+1}) + p\|g_{X,k}\|^2 \leq \Psi(x_k) - \left[\gamma\left(1 - \frac{L\gamma}{2} - \frac{q}{2}\right) - 2p\right] \|\tilde{g}_{X,k}\|^2 + \left(\frac{L^2}{2} + 2p\right) \|\delta_k\|^2.
\]
We now show possible progress made by each epoch of the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror-descent method. Using (7.4.4) and the fact that \( x_{s,t} - x_{s,t-1} = -\gamma \tilde{g}_{X,t} \), \( t = 1, \ldots, T + 1 \) (here we use the notation that \( (s,T+1) = (s + 1,1) \)), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(x,t)}\|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{j=2}^T \|x_{s,t} - x_{s,t-1}\|^2 = \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{j=2}^T \|\tilde{g}_{X,(t)}\|^2.
\]
Combining the above two inequalities, we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{s,t+1})] + p\mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,(s,t)}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{s,t})] - \left[\gamma\left(1 - \frac{L\gamma}{2} - \frac{q}{2}\right) - 2p\right] \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,(t)}\|^2]
+ \left(\frac{L^2}{2} + 2p\right) \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{j=2}^T \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,(t)}\|^2]. \quad (6.5.11)
\]
Taking the telescope sum of the above inequalities, we have for any \( t = 1, \ldots, T \)
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{s,t+1})] + p \sum_{j=1}^t \mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,(s,j)}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{s,1})] - \left[\gamma\left(1 - \frac{L\gamma}{2} - \frac{q}{2}\right) - 2p\right] \sum_{j=1}^t \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,(s,j)}\|^2]
+ \left(\frac{L^2}{2} + 2p\right) \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{j=2}^t \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,(s,j)}\|^2]
\leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x_{s,1})] - \left[\gamma\left(1 - \frac{L\gamma}{2} - \frac{q}{2}\right) - 2p - \left(\frac{L^2}{2} + 2p\right) \frac{L^2}{b} (t-1)\right] \sum_{j=1}^t \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X,(s,j)}\|^2], \quad (6.5.12)
\]
for any \( p > 0 \) and \( q > 0 \). Fixing \( p = 1/(8L) \) and \( q = 1/8 \) in the above inequality, and using the facts that \( \gamma = 1/L, b = 21T, \) and \( 1 \leq t \leq T, \) we observe

\[
\gamma \left( 1 - \frac{L}{2} \right) - 2p - (\frac{X}{2q} + 2p) \frac{\gamma^2 (t-1)}{b} = \frac{1}{4L} - \frac{17(T-1)}{4Lb} > 0.
\]

Then for any epochs \( s \geq 0 \) and \( 1 \leq t \leq T \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(x(s,t+1))] + \frac{1}{8L} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,s,i}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\Psi(x(s,1))]. \tag{6.5.13}
\]

Therefore, (6.5.8) easily follows by summing up the first \( k \) inequalities in the above form. In addition, (6.5.9) follows from (6.5.8) (with \( k = N \)) due to the definition of the random variable \( R \) and the fact that \( \Psi(x_{N+1}) \geq \Psi^* \).

We are now ready to provide a bound on the total number of gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method.

**Corollary 6.20.** Assume that the probabilities \( q_i \) are set to (6.5.4) and that \( \gamma \) and \( b \) are set to (6.5.7). In addition if \( T = \sqrt{m} \), then the total number of gradient evaluations required by the nonconconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[\|P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma)\|^2] \leq \epsilon \) can be bounded by

\[
O(m + \sqrt{mL[\Psi(x_1) - \Psi^*]}). \tag{6.5.14}
\]

**Proof.** Clearly, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by

\[
(m + bT) \left[ \frac{N}{T} \right] = (m + 17T^2) \left[ \frac{N}{T} \right]
\]

By (6.5.9), the total number of iterations performed by this method will be bounded by \( N = \frac{mL}{\epsilon} [\Psi(x_1) - \Psi^*] \). Our result then follows from these observations and the assumption that \( T = \sqrt{m} \).

### 6.5.2 Generalization for stochastic optimization problems

In this section, we still consider problem (6.5.1), but with \( f \) given by

\[
f(x) = \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)], \tag{6.5.15}
\]

where \( \xi \) is a random vector supported on \( \Xi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \) for some \( d \geq 1 \). We make the following assumptions throughout this subsection.

- \( F(x, \xi) \) is a smooth function with Lipschitz constant \( L \) for any \( \xi \in \Xi \) almost surely.
- It is possible to generate a realization \( \xi \in \Xi \), and to compute \( \nabla F(x, \xi) \) and \( \nabla F(y, \xi) \) for any given two point \( x, y \in X \).
- For any \( x \), we have \( \mathbb{E}[\|
abla F(x, \xi)\|] = \nabla f(x) \) and

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|
abla F(x, \xi) - \nabla f(x)\|^2] \leq \sigma^2. \tag{6.5.15}
\]
We observe that the above assumptions are much stronger than the those required for the RSGD and RSMD methods.

Algorithm 6.7 A nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method

Input: $x_1, y, T, \{b_i\}$, sample sizes $b$ and $m$, and epoch index $s = 0$.

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ do

if $k \% T == 1$ then

Generate an i.i.d. sample $H_t = \{\xi_1^t, \ldots, \xi_{b_t}^t\}$ for the random variable $\xi$.

Set $G_k = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^m \nabla F(x_t, \xi_t)$.

Set $s \leftarrow s + 1$.
else

Generate an i.i.d. sample $I_t = \{\xi_1^t, \ldots, \xi_{b_t}^t\}$ for the random variable $\xi$.

Set $G_k = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b (\nabla F(x_k, \xi_i^t) - \nabla F(x_{k-1}, \xi_i^t)) + G_{k-1}$.
end if

Set $x_{k+1} = \arg\min_{x \in X} \{g_t^*(G_t, x) + b(x) + V(x_t, x)\}$.

end for

Output $x_R$, where $R$ is uniformly distributed over $\{1, \ldots, N\}$.

Similar to the previous section, we will first need to provide a bound on the size of $\delta_k = G_k - \nabla f(x_k)$.

Lemma 6.11. If the iteration index $k$ (or equivalently $(s,t)$) represents the $t$-th iteration at the $s$-epoch, then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_t\|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(s,t)}\|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{b} \sum_{i=1}^b \mathbb{E}[\|x_{(s,t)} - x_{(s,t-1)}\|^2] + \frac{\sigma^2}{m}. \tag{6.5.16}
\]

Proof. Similar to (6.5.6), we can show that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(s,t)}\|^2] = \frac{L^2}{b} \|x_{(s,t)} - x_{(s,t-1)}\|^2 + \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(s,t-1)}\|^2].
\]

Moreover, it can be easily shown that $\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{(s,0)}\|^2] \leq \sigma^2/m$. Combining these two inequalities, we obtain the result.

Theorem 6.15. Assume that $\gamma$ and $b$ are set to (6.5.7). We have

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\psi(x_{k+1})\|] + \frac{1}{b} \sum_{j=1}^k \mathbb{E}[\|g_{X_j}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|\psi(x_1)\|] + \frac{1 + k\sigma^2}{4\delta^2}, \forall k \geq 1,
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|g_{X,k}\|^2] \leq \frac{4\sigma^2}{\delta^2} [\psi(x_1) - \psi^*] + \frac{21\sigma^2}{4\delta^2}.
\]

Proof. Using (6.5.16) and an argument similar to the one used in the proof of (6.5.11), we can show that

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\psi(x_{s,t+1})\|] + p \mathbb{E}[\|g_{X_{s,t}}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\|\psi(x_{s,t})\|] - \left[\gamma(1 - \frac{L^2}{b}) - 2p\right] \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X_{s,t}}\|^2] + \left(\frac{L^2}{b} + 2p\right) \left[\frac{21\sigma^2}{4\delta^2} - \sum_{t=2}^b \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_{X_{s,t}}\|^2] + \frac{\sigma^2}{m}\right]. \tag{6.5.17}
\]

Therefore, similarly to (6.5.12),
Applying these inequalities inductively, we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_{s+1}) \right] + \rho \sum_{j=1}^{s} \mathbb{E} \left[ \|g_{X,(s,j)}\|^2 \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_1) \right]
\]
\[
- \left[ \gamma \left( 1 - \frac{L\rho}{2} \right) - 2p - \left( \frac{m}{2} + 2p + \frac{2L^2(t-1)}{b} \right) \sum_{j=1}^{t-1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \|g_{X,j}\|^2 \right] + t \left( \frac{m}{2} + 2p \right) \frac{\sigma^2}{m} \right],
\]
for any \( p > 0 \) and \( q > 0 \). Fixing \( p = 1/(8L) \) and \( q = 1/8 \) in the above inequality, and using the facts that \( \gamma = 1/L, b = 17T, \) and \( 1 \leq t \leq T \), we observe
\[
\gamma \left( 1 - \frac{L\rho}{2} \right) - 2p - \left( \frac{m}{2} + 2p + \frac{2L^2(t-1)}{b} \right) \mathbb{E} \left[ \|g_{X,j}\|^2 \right] + t \left( \frac{m}{2} + 2p \right) \frac{\sigma^2}{m} = \frac{1}{4L} - \frac{17(T-1)}{4L}\rho > 0.
\]
Then for any epochs \( s \geq 0 \) and \( 1 \leq t \leq T \), we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_{(s,t+1)}) \right] + \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{s} \|g_{X,(s,j)}\|^2 \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_{(s,1)}) \right] + \frac{17\sigma^2}{4Lm}.
\]
Applying these inequalities inductively, we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_{k+1}) \right] + \frac{1}{6L} \sum_{j=1}^{s} \mathbb{E} \left[ \|g_{X,j}\|^2 \right] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_1) \right] + \frac{17\sigma^2}{4Lm} \left( \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{T}{m} + \frac{1}{m} \right)
\]
\[
= \mathbb{E} \left[ \Psi(x_1) \right] + \frac{17\sigma^2}{4Lm}.
\]

We are now ready to provide a bound on the total number of gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method for solving stochastic optimization problems.

**Corollary 6.21.** Assume that \( \gamma \) and \( b \) are set to (6.5.7). For a given accuracy \( \epsilon > 0 \), if \( m = \sigma^2/\epsilon^2 \) and \( T = \sqrt{m} \), then the total number of gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E} \left[ \|P_X(x_k, \nabla f(x_k), \gamma)\|^2 \right] \leq \epsilon \) can be bounded by
\[
O \left( \frac{(\bar{\sigma} \Psi(x_1) - \Psi^*)}{\epsilon^{1/2}} \right), \tag{6.5.19}
\]

**Proof.** It follows from Theorem 6.15 that the total number of iterations \( N \) and the sample size \( m \) should be bounded by \( O \left( \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \right) \) and \( O \left( \sigma^2/\epsilon \right) \), respectively. Clearly, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by
\[
(m + bT) \left( \frac{N}{T} \right) = (m + 17T^2) \left( \frac{N}{T} \right) = O(\sqrt{mN}),
\]
which implies the bound in (6.5.19).

We observe that the above complexity bound is much better than the one obtained RSMD method (see Section 6.2) due to the special structure information we assumed for the problem. In particular, we need to assume that the function \( F(x, \xi) \) is smooth for every \( \xi \) almost sure. On the other hand, the RSMD only requires \( f \) to be smooth. Therefore, one can apply the randomized smoothing discussed earlier to transform a nonsmooth problem into a smooth one. The second assumption that we rely on is the possibility to fix a random variable \( \xi \) when computing gradients at different search points. This assumption is satisfied in many applications in machine learning, but not necessarily
6.6 Randomized accelerated proximal-point methods

In this section, we discuss a different class of acceleration methods based on proximal point methods for solving nonconvex optimization problems. In these methods, we first transfer the original nonconvex optimization problem into a series of strongly convex optimization problems, and then apply acceleration methods for solving them.

We consider two classes of nonconvex optimization problems that are widely used in machine learning. The first class of problems intends to minimize the summation of many terms:

\[
\min_{x \in X} \left\{ f(x) := \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x) \right\},
\]  

(6.6.1)

where \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a closed convex set, and \( f_i : X \to \mathbb{R}, \ i = 1, \ldots, m \), are nonconvex smooth functions with \( L \)-Lipschitz continuous gradients over \( X \), i.e., for some \( L \geq 0 \),

\[
\| \nabla f_i(x_1) - \nabla f_i(x_2) \| \leq L \| x_1 - x_2 \|, \ \forall x_1, x_2 \in X.
\]

(6.6.2)

Moreover, we assume that there exists \( 0 < \mu \leq L \) such that (s.t.)

\[
f_i(x_1) - f_i(x_2) - \langle \nabla f_i(x_2), x_1 - x_2 \rangle \geq -\frac{\mu}{2} \| x_1 - x_2 \|^2, \ \forall x_1, x_2 \in X.
\]

(6.6.3)

Clearly, (6.6.2) implies (6.6.3) (with \( \mu = L \)). While in the classical nonlinear programming setting one only assumes (6.6.2), by using both conditions (6.6.2) and (6.6.3) we can explore more structural information for the design of solution methods of problem (6.6.1). This class of problems cover, for example, the nonconvex composite problem we discussed in Section 6.4 as a special case. In this section, we intend to develop more efficient algorithms to solve problems where the condition number \( L/\mu \) associated with problem (6.6.1) is large. Some applications of these problems can be found in variable selection in statistics with

\[
f(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i(x) + \rho p(x),
\]

where \( h_i \)'s are smooth convex functions, \( p \) is a nonconvex function, and \( \rho > 0 \) is a relatively small penalty parameter. Note that some examples of the nonconvex penalties are given by minimax concave penalty (MCP) or smoothly clipped absolute deviation (SCAD). It can be shown that the condition number for these problems is usually larger than \( m \).

In addition to (6.6.1), we consider an important class of nonconvex multi-block optimization problems with linearly coupled constraints, i.e.,

\[
\min_{x_i \in X_i} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i)
\]

s.t. \( \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i x_i = b \).

(6.6.4)
Here $X_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$ are closed convex sets, $A_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n \times d_i}$, $b \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $f_i : X_i \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfy, for some $\mu \geq 0$,

$$f_i(x) - f_i(y) - \langle \nabla f_i(y), x - y \rangle \geq -\frac{\mu}{2} \|x - y\|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X_i,$$

and $f_m : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ has $L$-Lipschitz continuous gradients, i.e., \( \exists L \geq 0 \) s.t.

$$\|\nabla f_m(x) - \nabla f_m(y)\| \leq L\|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$ (6.6.6)

Moreover, we assume that $X_m = \mathbb{R}^n$ and $A_m$ is invertible. In other words, we make the structural assumption that one of the blocks equals the dimension of the variable in order to guarantee the strong concavity of the Lagrangian dual of the subproblem. Moreover, we assume that it is relatively easy to compute $A_m^{-1}$ (e.g., $A_m$ is the identity matrix, sparse or symmetric diagonally dominant) to simplify the statement and analysis of the algorithm (see Remark 6.1 for more discussions). Problem of this type arises naturally in compressed sensing and distributed optimization. For instance, consider the compressed sensing problem via nonconvex shrinkage penalties: \( \min_{x \in X_1} \left\{ p(x) : Ax = b \right\} \), where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ is a big sensing matrix with $d \gg n$, and $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i(x_i)$ is a nonconvex and separable penalty function. Since it is easy to find an invertible submatrix in $A$, w.l.o.g, we assume that the last $n$ columns of $A$ forms an invertible matrix. We can then view this problem as a special case of (6.6.4) by grouping the last $n$ components of $x$ into block $x_m$, and dividing the remaining $d - n$ components into another $m - 1$ blocks.

### 6.6.1 Nonconvex finite-sum problems

In this section, we develop a randomized accelerated proximal gradient (RapGrad) method for solving the nonconvex finite-sum optimization problem in (6.6.1) and demonstrate that it can significantly improve the existing rates of convergence for solving these problems, especially when their objective functions have large condition numbers. We will describe this algorithm and establish its convergence in Subsections 6.6.1.1 and 6.6.1.2, respectively.

#### 6.6.1.1 The RapGrad Algorithm

The basic idea of RapGrad is to solve problem (6.6.1) iteratively by using the proximal-point type method. More specifically, given a current search point $\bar{x}^{l-1}$ at the $l$-th iteration, we will employ a randomized accelerated gradient (RaGrad) obtained by properly modifying the randomized primal-dual gradient method in Section 5.1, to approximately solve

$$\min_{x \in X} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x) + \frac{3\mu}{2} \|x - \bar{x}^{l-1}\|^2$$ (6.6.7)
to compute a new search point $\bar{x}^\ell$.

The algorithmic schemes for RapGrad and RaGrad are described in Algorithm 6.8 and Algorithm 6.9, respectively. While it seems that we can directly apply the randomized primal-dual gradient method (or other fast randomized incremental gradient method) to solve (6.6.7) since it is strongly convex due to (6.6.3), a direct application of these methods would require us to compute the full gradient from time to time whenever a new subproblem needs to be solved. Moreover, a direct application of these existing first-order methods to solve (6.6.7) would result in some extra logarithmic factor ($\log(1/\varepsilon)$) in the final complexity bound. Therefore, we employed the RaGrad method to solve (6.6.7), which differs from the original randomized primal-dual gradient method in the following several aspects. Firstly, different from the randomized primal-dual gradient method, the design and analysis of RaGrad does not involve the conjugate functions of $f_i$'s, but only first-order information (function values and gradients). Such an analysis enables us to build a relation between successive search points $\bar{x}^\ell$, as well as the convergence of the sequences $\bar{y}_i^\ell$ where the gradients $\bar{y}_i^\ell$ are computed. With these relations at hand, we can determine the number of iterations $s$ required by Algorithm 6.9 to ensure the overall RapGrad Algorithm to achieve an accelerated rate of convergence.

Second, the original randomized primal-dual gradient method requires the computation of only one randomly selected gradient at each iteration, and does not require the computation of full gradients from time to time. However, it is unclear whether a full pass of all component functions is required whenever we solve a new proximal subproblem (i.e., $\bar{x}^{\ell-1}$ changes at each iteration). It turns out that by properly initializing a few intertwined primal and gradient sequences in RaGrad using information obtained from previous subproblems, we will compute full gradient only once for the very first time when this method is called, and do not need to compute full gradients any more when solving all other subproblems throughout the RapGrad method. Indeed, the output $y_i^\ell$ of RaGrad (Algorithm 6.9) represent the gradients of $\psi_i$ at the search points $\bar{x}_i^\ell$. By using the strong convexity of the objective functions, we will be able to show that all the search points $\bar{x}_i^\ell$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, will converge, similarly to the search point $x^\ell$, to the optimal solution of the subproblem in (6.6.8) (see Lemma 6.13 below). Therefore, we can use $y_i^\ell$ to approximate $\nabla \psi_i(x^\ell)$ and thus remove the necessity of computing the full gradient of $x^\ell$ when solving the next subproblem.
Algorithm 6.8 RapGrad for nonconvex finite-sum optimization

Let \( \hat{x}_0 \in X \), and set \( x^0, y^0_i = \nabla f_i(x^0), i = 1, \ldots, m \).
for \( \ell = 1, \ldots, k \) do
    Set \( x^{-1} = x^0, \bar{x}^0 = \bar{y}^{c-1} \), and \( y^0_i = \bar{y}^{c-1}_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \).
    Run RaGrad (c.f., Algorithm 6.9) with input \( x^{-1}, \bar{x}^0, y^0_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), and \( s \) to solve the following subproblem
    \[
    \min_{x \in X} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \psi_i(x) + \varphi(x)
    \]
    to obtain output \( x^0, \bar{x}_0^0, y^0_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), where \( \psi_i(x) = f_i(x) + \mu \|x - \bar{x}^{c-1}\|^2, i = 1, \ldots, m \), and \( \varphi(x) = \varphi^0(x) := \frac{\kappa}{2} \|x - \bar{x}^{c-1}\|^2 \).
    Set \( \bar{x} = x^0, \bar{y} = y^0 \) and \( y^0_i = y^{c+1}_i = 2 \mu (\bar{x}^{c-1} - \bar{x}) \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \) (note \( \bar{y} = \nabla \psi^{c+1} (\bar{y}) \) always holds).
end for
return \( \bar{x} \) for some random \( \ell \in [k] \).

Algorithm 6.9 RaGrad for iteratively solving subproblem (6.6.8)

Input \( x^{-1} = x^0 \in X, \bar{x}^0 \in X, y^0_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), number of iterations \( s \). Assume nonnegative parameters \( \{\alpha_i\}, \{\tau_i\}, \{\eta_i\} \) are given.
for \( t = 1, \ldots, s \) do
    1. Generate a random variable \( i_t \) uniformly distributed over \( [m] \).
    2. Update \( x^t \) and \( y^t_i \) according to
        \[
        x^t = \alpha_i(x^{t-1} - x^{t-2}) + x^{t-1}, \quad \text{(6.6.9)}
        \]
        \[
        y^t_i = \begin{cases} 
        (1 + \tau_i)^{-1}(\bar{x} + \tau_i x^{t-1}), & i = i_t, \\
        x^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. 
        \end{cases} \quad \text{(6.6.10)}
        \]
        \[
        y^t_i = \nabla \psi_i(x^t), \quad i = i_t, \\
        y^{t-1}_i, \quad i \neq i_t, \quad \text{(6.6.11)}
        \]
        \[
        y^t_i = m(y^t_i - y^{t-1}_i) + y^{t-1}_i, \quad \forall i = 1, \ldots, m \quad \text{(6.6.12)}
        \]
        \[
        x^t = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \varphi(x) + \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^t_i, x \right) + \eta_t \varphi(x, x^{t-1}). \quad \text{(6.6.13)}
        \]
end for
return \( x^t, y^t_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \).

Before establishing the convergence of the RapGrad method, we first need to define an approximate stationary point for problem (6.6.1) suitable for the analysis of proximal-point type methods. A point \( x \in X \) is called an approximate stationary point if it sits within a small neighborhood of a point \( \hat{x} \in X \) which approximately satisfies the first-order optimality condition.

Definition 6.1. A point \( x \in X \) is called an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution of (6.6.1) if there exists some \( \hat{x} \in X \) such that
\[
[d (\nabla f(\hat{x}), -N_X(\hat{x}))]^2 \leq \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \|x - \hat{x}\|^2 \leq \delta.
\]
A stochastic \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution of (6.6.1) is one such that
Then we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[d \left( \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}), -N_X(\hat{x}) \right)]^2 \leq \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\|x - \hat{x}\|]^2 \leq \delta. \]

Here, \( d(x, Z) := \inf_{z \in Z} \|x - z\| \) denotes the distance from \( x \) to set \( Z \), and \( N_X(\hat{x}) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \langle x, y - \hat{x} \rangle \leq 0 \text{ for all } y \in X\} \) denotes the normal cone of \( X \) at \( \hat{x} \).

To have a better understanding of the above definition, let us consider the unconstrained problem (6.6.1), i.e., \( X = \mathbb{R}^n \). Suppose that \( x \in X \) is an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution with \( \delta = \varepsilon/2L^2 \). Then there exists \( \hat{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \|\nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 \leq \varepsilon \) and \( \|x - \hat{x}\|^2 \leq \varepsilon/L^2 \), which implies that
\[
\|\nabla f(x)\|^2 = \|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 \leq 2\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 + 2\|\nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 \\
\leq 2L^2\|x - \hat{x}\|^2 + 2\|\nabla f(\hat{x})\|^2 \leq 4\varepsilon. \tag{6.6.14}
\]

Moreover, if \( X \) is a compact set and \( x \in X \) is an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution, we can bound the so-called Wolfe gap (see also Section 7.1.1) as follows:
\[
gap(x) := \max_{z \in X} \langle \nabla f(x), x - z \rangle \leq L\sqrt{D_X} + \sqrt{\delta}\|\nabla f(\hat{x})\| + \sqrt{\delta}D_X, \tag{6.6.15}
\]
where \( D_X := \max_{x_1, x_2 \in X} \|x_1 - x_2\| \). In comparison with the two well-known criterions in (6.6.14) and (6.6.15), the criterion given in Definition 6.1 seems to be applicable to a wider class of problems and is particularly suitable for proximal-point type methods.

We are now ready to state the main convergence properties for RapGrad. The proof of this result is more involved and hence is put into Subsection 6.6.1.2 separately.

**Theorem 6.16.** Let the iterates \( x_{\ell}^t, \ell = 1, \ldots, k, \) be generated by Algorithm 6.8 and \( \hat{\ell} \) be randomly selected from \([k]\). Suppose that in Algorithm 6.9, the number of iterations \( s = \lfloor -\log \tilde{M}/\log \alpha \rfloor \) with
\[
\tilde{M} := 6 \left( 5 + \frac{2L}{\tilde{p}} \right) \max \left\{ \frac{6}{5}, \frac{L^2}{\tilde{p}^2} \right\}, \quad \alpha = 1 - \frac{2}{m(\sqrt{1 + 16c/m} + 1)}, \quad c = 2 + \frac{L}{\tilde{p}}, \tag{6.6.16}
\]
and other parameters are set to
\[
\alpha_t = \alpha, \quad \gamma_t = \alpha^{-t}, \quad \tau_t = \frac{1}{m(1 - \alpha)} - 1, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_t = \frac{\alpha_t}{1 - \alpha_t}, \quad \forall t = 1, \ldots, s. \tag{6.6.17}
\]

Then we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ d \left( \nabla f(x_{\ell}^t), -N_X(x_{\ell}^t) \right) \right]^2 \leq \frac{36\mu}{L} \left( f(x^0) - f(x^*) \right),
\]
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ \|\hat{x} - x_{\ell}^t\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{4\mu}{L^2} \left( f(x^0) - f(x^*) \right),
\]
where \( x^* \) and \( x_{\ell}^t \) denote the optimal solutions to problem (6.6.1) and the \( \ell \)-th subproblem (6.6.7), respectively.
Theorem 6.16 guarantees, in expectation, the existence of an approximate stationary point $\hat{x}^\ell$, which is the optimal solution to the $\hat{x}^\ell$-th subproblem. Though $x^\ell$ is unknown to us, we can output the computable solution $\tilde{x}^\ell$ since it is close enough to $x^\ell$. Moreover, its quality can be directly measured by (6.6.14) and (6.6.15) under certain important circumstances.

In view of Theorem 6.16, we can bound the total number of gradient evaluations required by RapGrad to yield a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-solution of (6.6.1). Indeed, observe that the full gradient is computed only once in the first outer loop, and that for each subproblem (6.6.1), we only need to compute $s$ gradients with
\[
s = \left\lceil -\frac{\log M}{\log \alpha} \right\rceil \sim \mathcal{O} \left( \left( m + \sqrt{m \frac{L}{\mu}} \right) \log \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \right) \right).
\]
Hence, the total number of gradient evaluations performed by RapGrad can be bounded by
\[
N(\varepsilon, \delta) := \mathcal{O} \left( m + \mu \left( m + \sqrt{m \frac{L}{\mu}} \right) \log \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \right) \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{1}{\delta L^2}, \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right\} D^0 \right),
\]
where $D^0 := f(\hat{x}^0) - f(x^*)$. As a comparison, the batch version of this algorithm, obtained by viewing $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x)$ as a single component, would update all the $\hat{x}^i$ and $y^i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, in (6.6.10) and (6.6.11) at each iteration, and hence would require
\[
\hat{N}(\varepsilon, \delta) := \mathcal{O} \left( m \sqrt{L \mu} \log \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \right) \cdot \max \left\{ \frac{1}{\delta L^2}, \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right\} D^0 \right)
\]
gradient evaluations to compute an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-solution of (6.6.1). For problems with $L/\mu \geq m$, RapGrad can potentially save the total number of gradient computations up to a factor of $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m})$ gradient evaluations than its batch counterpart as well as other deterministic batch methods. It is also interesting to compare RapGrad with those variance-reduced stochastic algorithms (see Section 7.4). For simplicity, consider for the case when $\delta = \varepsilon/L^2$ and $X = \mathbb{R}^n$. In this case, the complexity bound of RapGrad, given by $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{mL\mu}/\varepsilon)$, is smaller than the complexity bound $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{mL}/\varepsilon)$ by a factor of $\mathcal{O}(L^2/\mu^2)$, which must be greater than $\mathcal{O}(m^2)$ due to $L/\mu \geq m$.

Theorem 6.16 only shows the convergence of RapGrad in expectation. Similarly to the nonconvex stochastic gradient descent methods, we can establish and then further improve the convergence of RapGrad with overwhelming probability by using a two-phase procedure, where one computes a short list of candidate solutions in the optimization phase by either taking a few independent runs of RapGrad or randomly selecting a few solutions from the trajectory of RapGrad, and then chooses the best solution, e.g., in terms of either (6.6.14) and (6.6.15), in the post-optimization phase.
6.6.1.2 Convergence analysis for RapGrad

In this section, we will first develop the convergence results for Algorithm 6.9 applied to the convex finite-sum subproblem (6.6.8), and then using them to establish the convergence of RapGrad. Observe that the component functions \( \psi_i \) and \( \phi \) in (6.6.8) satisfy:

1. \( \frac{\mu}{2} \| x - y \|^2 \leq \psi_i(x) - \psi_i(y) - \langle \nabla \psi_i(y), x - y \rangle \leq \frac{\mu}{2} \| x - y \|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X, \quad i = 1, \ldots, m, \)
2. \( \phi(x) - \phi(y) - \langle \nabla \phi(y), x - y \rangle \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \| x - y \|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X, \)

where \( L = L + 2\mu. \)

We first state some simple relations about the iterations generated by Algorithm 6.9.

**Lemma 6.12.** Let \( \hat{x}_i^t = (1 + \tau_i)^{-1}(\hat{x}_i^t + \tau_i \hat{x}_i^{t-1}), \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, m, \ t = 1, \ldots, s. \)

\[
\mathbb{E}_i[\psi(\hat{x}_i^t)] = m\psi(\hat{x}_i^t) - (m - 1)\psi(\hat{x}_i^{t-1}), \quad (6.6.18)
\]

\[
\mathbb{E}_i[\nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^t)] = m\nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^t) - (m - 1)\nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^{t-1}) = \mathbb{E}_i[\psi_i(\hat{x}_i^t)]. \quad (6.6.19)
\]

**Proof.** By the definition of \( \hat{x}_i^t, \) it is easy to see that \( \mathbb{E}_i[\psi(\hat{x}_i^t)] = \frac{1}{m} \psi + \frac{m - 1}{m} \psi(\hat{x}_i^{t-1}), \) thus \( \mathbb{E}_i[\psi(\hat{x}_i^t)] = \frac{1}{m} \psi(\hat{x}_i^t) + \frac{m - 1}{m} \psi(\hat{x}_i^{t-1}), \) and \( \mathbb{E}_i[\nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^t)] = \frac{1}{m} \nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^t) + \frac{m - 1}{m} \nabla \psi(\hat{x}_i^{t-1}), \) which combined with the fact \( \hat{x}_i^t = m(\hat{y}_i^t - \hat{y}_{i-1}^t) + \hat{y}_{i-1}^t, \) gives us the desired relations.

Lemma 6.13 below describes an important result about Algorithm 6.9, which improves Proposition 5.1 by showing the convergence of \( \hat{x}_i^t. \)

**Lemma 6.13.** Let the iterates \( x^t \) and \( y^t, \) for \( t = 1, \ldots, s, \) be generated by Algorithm 6.9 and \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (6.6.8). If the parameters in Algorithm 6.9 satisfy for all \( t = 1, \ldots, s - 1, \)

\[
\alpha_{t+1} \gamma_{t+1} = \gamma_t, \quad (6.6.20)
\]

\[
\gamma_{t+1} [m(1 + \tau_{t+1}) - 1] \leq m \gamma_t (1 + \tau_t), \quad (6.6.21)
\]

\[
\gamma_{t+1} \eta_t + 1 \leq \gamma_t (1 + \eta_t), \quad (6.6.22)
\]

\[
\frac{\eta_t \mu}{4} \geq \frac{(m - 1)^2L}{m^2 \tau_{t+1}}, \quad (6.6.23)
\]

\[
\frac{\eta_t \mu}{2} \geq \frac{\alpha_{t+1} L}{\tau_{t+1}} + \frac{(m - 1)^2L}{m^2 \tau_{t+1}}, \quad (6.6.24)
\]

\[
\frac{\eta_t \mu}{4} \geq \frac{L}{m(1 + \tau_t)}, \quad (6.6.25)
\]

then we have

\[
\mathbb{E}_s \bigg[ \gamma(1 + \eta_t) V_\phi(x^t, x^t) + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\mu \gamma(1 + \tau_i)}{4} \| \hat{x}_i^s - x^t \|^2 \bigg] \leq \gamma_1 \eta_1 \mathbb{E}_s V_\phi(x^s, x^0) + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\gamma_i(1 + \tau_i - 1)}{2} \mathbb{E}_s \| x_i^s - x^t \|^2,
\]

where \( \mathbb{E}_s[X] \) denotes the expectation of a random variable \( X \) on \( i_1, \ldots, i_s. \)
**Proof.** By convexity of $\psi$ and optimality of $x^*$, we have
\[
Q_t := \varphi(x^t) + \psi(x^t) + \langle \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle
- \left[ \varphi(x^t) + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \psi_i(x^t) + \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^*_i \rangle \right]
\geq \varphi(x^t) + \psi(x^t) + \langle \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle - \left[ \varphi(x^t) + \psi(x^t) \right]
= \varphi(x^t) - \varphi(x^t) + \langle \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle
\geq \langle \nabla \varphi(x^t) + \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle \geq 0.
\tag{6.6.26}
\]

For notation convenience, let $\Psi(x, z) := \psi(x) - \psi(z) - \langle \nabla \psi(z), x - z \rangle$.
\[
Q_t = \varphi(x^t) - \varphi(x^t) + \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \psi_i(x^t) - \varphi(x^t) + \psi(x^t) \right)
+ \left\{ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ \psi_i(x^t) - \psi(x^t) \right]
+ \langle \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle \right\}
= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ \psi_i(x^t) - \psi(x^t) \right]
- \langle \nabla \psi(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle
\tag{6.6.28}
\]

In view of (6.6.19), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}_t \delta^t \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t) - \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle
+ \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle + \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t \rangle \right]
\tag{6.6.30}
\]

Multiplying each $Q_t$ by a non-negative $\gamma$ and summing them up, we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}_t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma Q_t \right] \leq \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma \left[ \gamma_t V_\phi(x^t, x^{t-1}) - (1 + \gamma_t) V_\phi(x^t, x^t) - \gamma_t V_\phi(x^t, x^{t-1}) \right] \right]
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma \left[ \gamma_t (1 + \tau_t - \frac{1}{m}) \psi_i(x^t, x^t) - \gamma_t (1 + \tau_t) \psi_i(x^t, x^t) \right] \right]
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma \left[ \gamma_t \left( \frac{1}{m} \psi_i(x^t, x^t) - \psi_i(x^t, x^t) \right) \right] \right]
\leq \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \gamma_t \gamma_t V_\phi(x^t, x^t) - (1 + \gamma_t) V_\phi(x^t, x^t) \right]
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma \left[ \gamma_t (1 + \tau_t - \frac{1}{m}) \psi_i(x^t, x^t) \right] \right]
\tag{6.6.31}
\]

where
\[
\delta := \gamma_t V_\phi(x^t, x^t) - \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ \frac{1}{m} \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle - \tau_t \psi_i(x^{t-1}, x^t) \right]
\geq \gamma_t V_\phi(x^t, x^t) - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^{t-1} - x^* \rangle \right]
\tag{6.6.32}
\]

the first inequality follows from (6.6.28), (6.6.29), (6.6.45), (6.6.30) and Lemma 6.12, and the second inequality is implied by (6.6.21) and (6.6.22).

By the definition of $\hat{x}$ in (6.6.9), we have
\[
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^t - x^* \rangle
\geq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^{t-1} - x^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle \nabla \psi_i(x^t), x^{t-2} - x^{t-1} \rangle \right]
\]
where (a) follows from the definition. Now we are ready to bound the last term in (6.6.31) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} &\left[ \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle y_t^{f-1} - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left[ \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle y_t^{f-1} - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left[ \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle - \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*), x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1}) \right] \\
&= \left( 1 - \frac{1}{m} \right) \alpha_t \langle \nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-2}) - \nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-1}), x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle. \tag{6.6.33}
\end{align*}
\]

From the relation (6.6.24) and the fact \( x_t^{-1} = x^0 \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \sum_{t=1}^{m} &\left[ \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle y_t^{f-1} - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left[ \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle - \alpha_t \langle y_t^{f-1} - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left[ \langle \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*), x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{m} (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \langle \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^* \rangle \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \left[ \langle \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*), x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^{m} (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \langle \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-1} - x_t^* \rangle \right]. \tag{6.6.34}
\end{align*}
\]

Now we are ready to bound the last term in (6.6.31) as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \delta_t &\geq \left( a \right) \sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \left[ \eta_t \langle \nabla \psi_t(x^*, x_t^f - x_t^*) \rangle - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{t=1}^{m} \langle y_t^f - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^f - x_t^* \rangle + \tau_t \Psi(\xi_{t-1}^{f-1}, \xi_{t-1}^f) \right] \\
&= \left( b \right) \sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \left[ \eta_t \langle \nabla \psi_t(x^*, x_t^f - x_t^*) \rangle + \alpha_t \langle \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \rangle \right. \\
&\left. \quad + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-2}) - \nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-1}) - x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} + \tau_t \Psi(\xi_{t-1}^{f-1}, \xi_{t-1}^f) \right] \\
&= \left( c \right) \sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{m} \| x_t^f - x_t^* \|^2 + \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \right. \\
&\left. \quad + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-2}) - \nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-1}) - x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \right) \\
&\left. \quad + \frac{\alpha_t}{m} \| \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) \|^2 \right] \\
&\geq \sum_{t=1}^{s} \eta^t \left[ \frac{\alpha_t}{m} \| x_t^f - x_t^* \|^2 + \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) , x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \right. \\
&\left. \quad + (1 - \frac{1}{m}) \alpha_t (\nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-2}) - \nabla \psi_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{f-1}) - x_t^{f-2} - x_t^{f-1} \right) \\
&\left. \quad + \frac{\alpha_t}{m} \| \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) \|^2 \right] \\
&\geq \frac{\alpha_t}{2m} \| \nabla \psi_t(y_t^f) - \nabla \psi_t(x^*) \|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

By properly regrouping the terms on the right hand side of (6.6.35), we have
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{\gamma} \delta \]

\[ \geq \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} ||x^* - x_i^{-1}||^2 - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle \nabla \psi_i(x_i^*) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1}) \rangle \right] + \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} ||x^* - x_i^{-1}||^2 - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-2}) \rangle \right] + \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} \frac{\delta}{\mu \rho} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^*)||^2 \right]

\[ + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \gamma \left[ (1 - \frac{\gamma}{m}) \frac{\rho}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \left[ \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-2})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||x_i^{*-1} - x_i^{*-2}||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \left[ \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-2})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||x_i^{*-1} - x_i^{*-2}||^2 \right],

where (a) follows from the simple relation that \( b(u, v) - a||v||^2 / 2 \leq b^2 ||u||^2 / (2a), \forall a > 0 \) and (b) follows from (6.6.20), (6.6.23) and (6.6.24). By using the above inequality, (6.6.26) and (6.6.31), we obtain

\[ 0 \leq \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} ||x^* - x_i^{-1}||^2 - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle \nabla \psi_i(x_i^*) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1}) \rangle \right] + \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} ||x^* - x_i^{-1}||^2 - \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-2}) \rangle \right] + \gamma \left[ \frac{n^2}{4} \frac{\delta}{\mu \rho} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^*)||^2 \right] \]

\[ + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \gamma \left[ (1 - \frac{\gamma}{m}) \frac{\rho}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \left[ \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-2})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||x_i^{*-1} - x_i^{*-2}||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \left[ \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||\nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-1}) - \nabla \psi_i(x_i^{*-2})||^2 \right] + \sum_{i=2}^{\gamma} \frac{\gamma - \gamma^2}{\alpha} ||x_i^{*-1} - x_i^{*-2}||^2 \right],

where (a) follows from the simple relation that \( b(u, v) - a||v||^2 / 2 \leq b^2 ||u||^2 / (2a), \forall a > 0 \) and (c) follows from (6.6.25), strong convexity of \( \psi \) and Lipschitz continuity of \( \nabla \psi \). This completes the proof.
With the help of Lemma 6.13, we now establish the main convergence properties of Algorithm 6.9.

**Theorem 6.17.** Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (6.6.8), and suppose that the parameters $\{\alpha_t\}, \{\tau_t\}, \{\eta_t\}$ and $\{\gamma_t\}$ are set as in (6.6.16) and (6.6.17). If $\phi(x) = \frac{\mu}{2}||x-z||^2$, for some $z \in X$, then, for any $s \geq 1$, we have

$$
E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq \alpha^s (1 + 2 \frac{L}{M}) E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \frac{L}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right],
$$

$$
E_s \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_i^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq 6\alpha^s (1 + 2 \frac{L}{M}) E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right].
$$

**Proof.** It is easy to check that (6.6.16) and (6.6.17) satisfy conditions (6.6.20), (6.6.21), (6.6.22) (6.6.23), and (6.6.24). Then by Lemma 6.13, we have

$$
E_s \left[ V_{\phi}(x^s, x^s) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\mu}{2m} \|x_{i}^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq \alpha^s E_s \left[ V_{\phi}(x^s, x^0) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\mu}{2m} \|x_0^s - x^s\|^2 \right].
$$

(6.6.37)

Since $\phi(x) = \frac{\mu}{2}||x-z||^2$, we have $V_{\phi}(x^s, x^s) = \frac{\mu}{2}||x^s - x^s||^2$, and $V_{\phi}(x^0, x^s) = \frac{\mu}{2}||x^s - x^s||^2$. Plugging into (6.6.37), we obtain the following two relations:

$$
E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq \alpha^s E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{L}{M} \|x_0^s - x^s\|^2 \right]
$$

$$
\leq \alpha^s E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{L}{M} \left( 2 \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 + 2 \|x^0 - x^s\|^2 \right) \right]
$$

$$
= \alpha^s E_s \left[ (1 + 2 \frac{L}{M}) \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{2}{M} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right],
$$

$$
E_s \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_{i}^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq 2\alpha^s E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{L}{M} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right]
$$

$$
\leq 2\alpha^s (1 + 2 \frac{L}{M}) E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right].
$$

In view of the above two relations, we have

$$
E_s \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_{i}^s - x^s\|^2 \right] \leq E_s \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( 2 \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \|x^s - x^s\|^2 \right) \right]
$$

$$
= 2E_s \left[ \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_{i}^s - x^s\|^2 \right] + 2E_s \|x^s - x^0\|^2
$$

$$
\leq 6\alpha^s (1 + 2 \frac{L}{M}) E_s \left[ \|x^s - x^0\|^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|x_0^s - x^0\|^2 \right].
$$

In view of Theorem 6.17, Algorithm 6.9 applied to subproblem (6.6.8) exhibits a fast linear rate of convergence. Actually, as shown below we do not need to solve the subproblem too accurately, and a constant number of iteration of Algorithm 6.9 for each subproblem is enough to guarantee the convergence of Algorithm 6.8.

**Lemma 6.14.** Let the number of inner iterations $s \geq \lceil -\log(\ell M/6)/\log \alpha \rceil$ with $M := 6(5 + 2L/\mu)$ be given. Also let the iterates $x_{\ell}^s$, $\ell = 1, \ldots, k$, be generated by Algorithm 6.8, and $\ell$ be randomly selected from $[k]$. Then
\[
\mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 \leq \frac{4(1-M\alpha^\ell)}{\xi(6-M\alpha^\ell)}[f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*)],
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 \leq \frac{2M\alpha^\ell}{(6-M\alpha^\ell)}[f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*)],
\]
where \(x^*\) and \(x^\ell\) are the optimal solutions to problem (6.6.1) and the \(\ell\)-th subproblem (6.6.7), respectively.

**Proof.** According to Theorem 6.17 (with \(\hat{L} = 2\mu + L\)), we have, for \(\ell \geq 1\),
\[
\mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 \leq \alpha^\ell(5 + \frac{2L}{\mu})\mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right\}
\leq \frac{M\alpha^\ell}{6} \mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right\}, \quad (6.6.38)
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right] \leq 4\alpha^\ell(5 + \frac{2L}{\mu})\mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right\}
\leq M\alpha^\ell \mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right\}. \quad (6.6.39)
\]

By induction on (6.6.39) and noting \(\bar{x}^0 = \bar{x}^0\), \(i = 1, \ldots, m\), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \|\bar{x}_i^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2\right] \leq \sum_{j=1}^{j=m}(M\alpha^\ell)^{j-1} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{j-1}\|^2.
\]
In view of the above relation and (6.6.38), for \(\ell \geq 2\), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2 \leq \frac{M\alpha^\ell}{6} \mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{j=m}(M\alpha^\ell)^{j-1} \|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{j-1}\|^2\right\}.
\]
Summing up both sides of the above inequality from \(\ell = 1\) to \(k\), we then obtain
\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^\ell\|^2
\leq \frac{M\alpha^k}{6} \mathbb{E}\left\{\|x^1 - \bar{x}^0\|^2 + \sum_{\ell=2}^{k} \left(\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{j=m}(M\alpha^\ell)^{j-1} \|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{j-1}\|^2\right)\right\}
\leq \frac{M\alpha^k}{6} \left[1 + \sum_{\ell=2}^{k} \frac{1}{(6-M\alpha^\ell)^{\ell-1}}\right] \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2. \quad (6.6.40)
\]
Using the fact that \(x^\ell\) is optimal to the \(\ell\)-th subproblem, and letting \(x^0 = \bar{x}^0\) (\(x^0\) is a free variable), we have
\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \left|\psi^\ell(x^\ell) + \phi^\ell(x^\ell)\right| \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \left|\psi^\ell(x^\ell - 1) + \phi^\ell(x^\ell - 1)\right|,
\]
which, in view of the definition of \(\psi^\ell\) and \(\phi^\ell\), then implies that
\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}[f(x^\ell) + \frac{3\mu}{2} \|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2] \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}[f(x^\ell - 1) + \frac{3\mu}{2} \|x^\ell - 1 - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2]. \quad (6.6.41)
\]
Combining (6.6.40) and (6.6.41), we obtain
\[
\frac{3\mu}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2
\leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\{f(x^{\ell-1}) - f(x^\ell)\} + \frac{3\mu}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - 1 - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2
\leq \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\{f(x^{\ell-1}) - f(x^\ell)\} + \frac{3\mu}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \mathbb{E}\|x^\ell - \bar{x}\|^2.
Using the above relation and Lemma 6.14, we have
\[ A \text{ matrix is easily computable. Hence, denoting } \] 
\[ \text{show the potential advantages in terms of the total number of block updates.} \]

In this section, we present a randomized accelerated proximal dual (RapDual) algorithm for solving the nonconvex multi-block optimization problem in (6.6.4) and show the potential advantages in terms of the total number of block updates.

Proof of Theorem 6.16. By the optimality condition of the \( \hat{\ell} \)-th subproblem (6.6.7),
\[ \nabla \psi^\ell(x^\ell) + \nabla \varphi^\ell(x^\ell) \in -N_X(x^\ell). \] (6.6.43)

From the definition of \( \psi^\ell \) and \( \varphi^\ell \), we have
\[ \nabla f(x^\ell) + 3\mu(x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}) \in -N_X(x^\ell). \] (6.6.44)

From the optimality condition of (6.6.13), we obtain
\[ \varphi(x^t) - \varphi(x^*) + \left( \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \tilde{y}_t^i, x^t - x^* \right) \]
\[ \leq \eta_T V_{\varphi}(x^*, x^{t-1}) - (1 + \eta_T) V_{\varphi}(x^*, x^t) - \eta_T V_{\varphi}(x^t, x^{t-1}). \] (6.6.45)

Using the above relation and Lemma 6.14, we have
\[ E \| \bar{x}^{\ell-1} - x^\ell \|^2 \leq \frac{4(1 - M\alpha^\ell)}{\mu(6 - 7M\alpha^\ell)} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^\ell) \| \leq \frac{4}{\mu} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*) \|, \]
\[ E \left[ d \left( \nabla f(x^\ell), -N_X(x^\ell) \right) \right]^2 \leq E \| 3\mu(x^{\ell-1} - x^\ell) \|^2 \leq \frac{36\mu}{\alpha^\ell} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*) \|, \]
\[ E \| \bar{x}^{\ell-1} - x^\ell \|^2 \leq \frac{2M\alpha^\ell}{3\mu(6 - 7M\alpha^\ell)} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*) \| \leq \frac{4M\alpha^\ell}{\mu} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*) \| \]
\[ \leq \frac{4\mu}{\epsilon^t} \| f(\bar{x}^0) - f(x^*) \|. \] ■

6.6.2 Nonconvex multi-block problems

In this section, we present a randomized accelerated proximal dual (RapDual) algorithm for solving the nonconvex multi-block optimization problem in (6.6.4) and show the potential advantages in terms of the total number of block updates.

As mentioned earlier, we assume the inverse of the last block of the constraint matrix is easily computable. Hence, denoting \( A_i = A_i^{-1}A_i, i = 1, \ldots, m - 1 \) and \( b = A_m^{-1} \), we can reformulate problem (6.6.4) as
\[ \min_{x \in X, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ f(x) + f_m(x_m), \]
\[ \text{s.t. } Ax + x_m = b, \tag{6.6.46} \]

where \( f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} f_i(x_i), X = X_1 \times \ldots \times X_{m-1}, \) \( A = [A_1, \ldots, A_{m-1}], \) and \( x = (x_1, \ldots, x_{m-1}). \) It should be noted that except for some special cases, the computation of \( A_m^{-1} \) requires up to \( O(n^3) \) arithmetic operations, which will be a one-time computational cost added on top of the overall computational cost of our algorithm (see Remark 6.1 below for more discussions).

One may also reformulate problem (6.6.46) in the form of (6.6.1) and directly apply Algorithm 6.8 to solve it. More specifically, substituting \( x_m \) with \( b - Ax \) in the objective function of (6.6.46), we obtain
\[ \min_{x \in X} \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} f_i(B_i x) + f_m(b - Ax), \tag{6.6.47} \]

where \( B_i = (0, \ldots, I, \ldots, 0) \) with the \( i \)-th block given a \( d_i \times d_i \) identity matrix and hence \( x_i = B_i x. \) However, this method will be inefficient since we enlarge the dimension of each \( f_i \) from \( d_i \) to \( \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} d_i \) and as a result, every block has to be updated in each iteration. One may also try to apply a nonconvex randomized block mirror descent method in Section 6.3 to solve the above reformulation. However, such methods do not apply to the case when \( f_i \) are both nonconvex and nonsmooth. This motivates us to design the new RapDual method which requires to update only a single block at a time, applies to the case when \( f_i \) is nonsmooth and achieves an accelerated rate of convergence when \( f_i \) is smooth.

### 6.6.2.1 The RapDual Algorithm

The main idea of RapDual is similar to the one used to design the RapGrad method introduced in Section 6.6.1.1. Given the proximal points \( \bar{x}^{\ell-1} \) and \( \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1} \) from the previous iteration, we define a new proximal subproblem as
\[ \min_{x \in X, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \psi(x) + \psi_m(x_m) \]
\[ \text{s.t. } Ax + x_m = b, \tag{6.6.48} \]

where \( \psi(x) := f(x) + \mu \| x - \bar{x}^{\ell-1} \|^2 \) and \( \psi_m(x_m) := f_m(x_m) + \mu \| x_m - \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1} \|^2. \) Obviously, RaGrad does not apply directly to this type of subproblem. In this subsection, we present a new randomized algorithm, named the randomized accelerated dual (RaDual) method to solve the subproblem in (6.6.48), which will be iteratively called by the RapDual method to solve problem (6.6.46).

RaDual (c.f. Algorithm 6.11) can be viewed as a randomized primal-dual type method. Indeed, by the method of multipliers and Fenchel conjugate duality, we have
\[ \min_{x \in X, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \psi(x) + \psi_m(x_m) + \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i x_i - b, y \right) \right\} \]
where \( h(y) := -\min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \psi_m(x_m) + \langle x_m, y \rangle \} = \psi_m^*(-y) \). Observe that the above saddle point problem is both strongly convex in \( x \) and strongly concave in \( y \). Indeed, \( \psi(x) \) is strongly convex due to the added proximal term. Moreover, since \( \psi_m \) has \( \hat{L} \)-Lipschitz continuous gradients, \( h(y) = \psi_m^*(-y) \) is \( 1/\hat{L} \)-strongly convex. Using the fact that \( h \) is strongly convex, we can see that (6.6.52)-(6.6.53) in Algorithm 6.11 is equivalent to a dual mirror-descent step with a properly chosen distance generating function \( V_h(y, y^{t-1}) \). Specifically,

\[
y^t = \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} h(y) + \langle -Ax + b, y \rangle + \tau_t V_h(y, y^{t-1})
\]

\[
= \arg\max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \langle (Ax - b + \tau_t \nabla h(y^{t-1}))/\tau_t, y \rangle - h(y)
\]

\[
= \nabla h^*\left((Ax - b + \tau_t \nabla h(y^{t-1}))/\tau_t \right).
\]

If we set \( g^0 = \nabla h(y^0) = -x_m^0 \), then it is easy to see by induction that \( g^t = (\tau_t g^{t-1} + Ax^t - b)/(1 + \tau_t) \), and \( y^t = \nabla h^*(g^t) \) for all \( t \geq 1 \). Moreover, \( h^*(g) = \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} (g, y) - \psi_m^*(-y) = \psi_m(-g) \), thus \( y^t = -\nabla \psi_m(-g^t) \) is the negative gradient of \( \psi_m \) at point \(-g^t\). Therefore, Algorithm 6.11 does not explicitly depend on the function \( h \), even though the above analysis does.

Each iteration of Algorithm 6.11 updates only a randomly selected block \( i_t \) in (6.6.54), making it especially favorable when the number of blocks \( m \) is large. However, similar difficulty as mentioned in Section 6.6.1.1 also appears when we integrate this algorithm with proximal-point type method to yield the final RapDual method in Algorithm 6.10. Firstly, Algorithm 6.11 also keeps a few intertwined primal and dual sequences, thus we need to carefully decide the input and output of Algorithm 6.11 so that information from previous iterations of RapDual is fully used. Secondly, the number of iterations performed by Algorithm 6.11 to solve each subproblem plays a vital role in the convergence rate of RapDual, which should be carefully predetermined.

Algorithm 6.10 describes the basic scheme of RapDual. At the beginning, all the blocks are initialized using the output from solving the previous subproblem. Note that \( x_m^0 \) is used to initialize \( g \), which further helps compute the dual variable \( y \) without using the conjugate function \( h \) of \( \psi_m \). We will derive the convergence result for Algorithm 6.11 in terms of primal variables and construct relations between successive search points \((x^t, y^t)\), which will be used to prove the final convergence of RapDual.
Algorithm 6.10 RapDual for nonconvex multi-block optimization

Compute $A_n^{-1}$ and reformulate problem (6.6.4) as (6.6.46).
Let $\mathbf{x}^0 \in X, x_m^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, such that $A \mathbf{x}^0 + x_m^0 = b$, and $y^0 = -\nabla f_m(x_m^0)$.
for $t = 1, \ldots, s$ do
    $x^{t} = x^{t-1} - \alpha_t (\mathbf{x}^{t-1} - \mathbf{x}^{t-2}) + \mathbf{x}^{t-1}$,
    $g^t = (\tau g^{t-1} + A \hat{x}^t - b)/(1 + \tau)$,
    $y^t = \arg\min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} h(y) + \langle \mathbf{-Ax}^t + b, y \rangle + \tau V_b(y; y^{t-1})$,
    $x_m^t = \arg\min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \psi_m(x_m) + \langle x_m, y^t \rangle$.
end for
return $(x^s, x_m^s)$.

Algorithm 6.11 RaDual for solving subproblem (6.6.48)

Let $x^{-1} = x^0 \in X, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$, number of iterations $s$ and nonnegative parameters $\{\alpha_t\}, \{\tau_t\}, \{\eta_t\}$ be given. Set $g^0 = -\nabla f_m(x_m)$. for $t = 1, \ldots, s$ do
1. Generate a random variable $i_t$ uniformly distributed over $[m-1]$.
2. Update $x^t$ and $y^t$ according to

\[
\mathbf{x}^t = \alpha_t (\mathbf{x}^{t-1} - \mathbf{x}^{t-2}) + \mathbf{x}^{t-1}, \quad (6.6.51)
\]

\[
g^t = (\tau_t g^{t-1} + A \mathbf{x}^t - b)/(1 + \tau_t), \quad (6.6.52)
\]

\[
y^t = \arg\min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} h(y) + \langle \mathbf{-Ax}^t + b, y \rangle + \tau_t V_b(y; y^{t-1}) - \nabla \psi_m(-g^t), \quad (6.6.53)
\]

\[
x_m^t = \begin{cases} \arg\min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \psi_m(x_m) + \langle A_x^t y^t, x_m \rangle + \frac{\eta_t}{2} \|x_m - x_m^{t-1}\|^2, & i = i_t, \\ x_m^{t-1}, & i \neq i_t. \end{cases} \quad (6.6.54)
\]

end for
Compute $x_m^s = \arg\min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\psi_m(x_m) + \langle x_m, y^s \rangle\}$.
return $(x^s, x_m^s)$.

We first define an approximate stationary point for problem (6.6.4) before establishing the convergence of RapDual.

**Definition 6.2.** A point $(\mathbf{x}, x_m) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an $(\varepsilon, \hat{x}, \sigma)$-solution of (6.6.4) if there exists some $\hat{x} \in X$, and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

\[
\left[ d(\nabla f(\hat{x}) + A^\top \lambda, -\nabla f_m(x_m)) \right]^2 \leq \varepsilon, \quad \|\nabla f_m(x_m) + \lambda\|^2 \leq \varepsilon, \quad \|x - \hat{x}\|^2 \leq \hat{x}, \quad \|Ax + x_m - b\|^2 \leq \sigma.
\]

A stochastic counterpart is one that satisfies
Then there exists some \( \hat{s} \) we only need to update \((6.6.4)\) in terms of block updates in \((6.6.54)\). Note that for each subproblem \((6.6.48)\),

\[
\text{can bound the complexity of RapDual to compute a stochastic (unknown approximate stationary point \((6.6.48)\) subproblem where }
\]

\[
\text{Let the iterates solution. Its proof is involved and will be postponed to Subsection 6.6.2.2.}
\]

Consider the unconstrained problem with \( X = \mathbb{R}^{m-1} d_i$. If \( (x, x_m) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^n \) is an \((\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma)\)-solution with \( \delta = \varepsilon / L^2 \), then exists some \( \hat{x} \in X \) such that \( \| \nabla f(\hat{x}) \|^2 \leq \varepsilon \) and \( \| x - \hat{x} \|^2 \leq \delta \). By similar argument in \((6.6.14)\), we obtain \( \| \nabla f(x) \|^2 \leq 4\varepsilon \). Besides, the definition of a \((\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma)\)-solution guarantees \( \| \nabla f_m(x_m) + \check{\lambda} \|^2 \leq \varepsilon \) and \( \| A x + x_m - b \|^2 \leq \sigma \), which altogether justify that \((x, x_m)\) is a reasonably good solution. The following result shows the convergence of RapDual to find such an approximate solution. Its proof is involved and will be postponed to Subsection 6.6.2.2.

**Theorem 6.18.** Let the iterates \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) for \( \ell = 1, \ldots, k \) be generated by Algorithm 6.10 and \( \check{\ell} \) be randomly selected from \([k]\). Suppose that in Algorithm 6.11, number of iterations \( s = \lceil - \log \hat{M} / \log \alpha \rceil \) with

\[
\hat{M} = (2 + \frac{L}{\mu}) \cdot \max \left\{ 2, \frac{L^2}{\mu^2} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha = 1 - \frac{2}{(m-1)(\sqrt{1 + 2\varepsilon} + 1)},
\]

where

\[
c = \frac{\alpha^2}{\mu^2} = \frac{(2\mu + L)^2}{\mu} \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{A} = \max_{i \in [m-1]} \| A_i \|,
\]

and that other parameters are set to

\[
\alpha = (m-1) \alpha, \quad \gamma = \alpha^{-1}, \quad \tau = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta = \frac{(\alpha - \frac{1}{m-1}) \mu}{\alpha - 1 - \alpha}, \forall \ell = 1, \ldots, s. \quad \text{(6.6.56)}
\]

Then there exists some \( \lambda^* \in \mathbb{R}^n \) such that

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ d(\nabla f(x^\ell) + A^\top \lambda^*, -N_X(x^\ell)) \right] \leq \frac{\eta}{\mu} \{ f(\hat{x}) + f_m(\hat{x}_m) - f(x^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) \};
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \| \nabla f_m(x_m^\ell) + \hat{\lambda} \|^2 \leq \frac{34\mu}{\mu} \{ f(\hat{x}) + f_m(\hat{x}_m) - f(x^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) \};
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \| x^\ell - x_m^\ell \|^2 \leq \frac{2\mu}{\mu} \{ f(\hat{x}) + f_m(\hat{x}_m) - f(x^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) \};
\]

\[
\mathbb{E} \| A x^\ell + x_m^\ell - b \|^2 \leq \frac{2\mu}{\mu} \{ f(\hat{x}) + f_m(\hat{x}_m) - f(x^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) \},
\]

where \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) and \((\hat{x}^\ell, \hat{x}_m^\ell)\) denote the optimal solutions to \((6.6.4)\) and the \(\ell\)-th subproblem \((6.6.48)\), respectively.

Theorem 6.18 ensures that our output solution \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) is close enough to an unknown approximate stationary point \((\hat{x}^\ell, \hat{x}_m^\ell)\). According to Theorem 6.18, we can bound the complexity of RapDual to compute a stochastic \((\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma)\)-solution of \((6.6.4)\) in terms of block updates in \((6.6.54)\). Note that for each subproblem \((6.6.48)\), we only need to update \(s\) primal blocks with

\[
s = \left\lceil - \log \hat{M} / \log \alpha \right\rceil \sim O \left( m \bar{A} \sqrt{\frac{1}{\mu}} \log \left( \frac{1}{\mu} \right) \right).
\]
Let $\mathcal{D}^0 := f(\mathbf{\bar{x}}^0) + f_m(\mathbf{\bar{x}}_m^0) - [f(\mathbf{x}^*) + f_m(\mathbf{x}_m^*)]$. It can be seen that the total number of primal block updates required to obtain a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma)$-solution can be bounded by

$$N(\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma) := O\left(\frac{m\bar{A}\sqrt{Tn}}{\mu} \log \left(\frac{L}{\mu}\right) \cdot \max \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{\delta L^2}, \frac{\|A\|^2}{\sigma L^2} \right\} \mathcal{D}^0 \right).$$  

(6.6.57)

As a comparison, the batch version of this algorithm would update all the $x_i'$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$, in (6.6.54), and thus would require

$$\tilde{N}(\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma) := O\left(\frac{m\|A\|\sqrt{Tn}}{\mu} \log \left(\frac{L}{\mu}\right) \cdot \max \left\{ 1, \frac{1}{\delta L^2}, \frac{\|A\|^2}{\sigma L^2} \right\} \mathcal{D}^0 \right).$$

primal block updates to obtain an $(\varepsilon, \delta, \sigma)$-solution of (6.6.4). Therefore, the benefit of randomization comes from the difference between $\|A\|$ and $\bar{A}$. Obviously we always have $\|A\| > \bar{A}$, and the relative gap between $\|A\|$ and $\bar{A}$ can be large when all the matrix blocks have close norms. In the case when all the blocks are identical, i.e. $A_1 = A_2 = \ldots = A_{m-1}$, we immediately have $\|A\| = \sqrt{m-1}\bar{A}$, which means that RapDual can potentially save the number of primal block updates by a factor of $O(\sqrt{m})$ than its batch counterpart.

It is also interesting to compare RapDual with the nonconvex randomized block mirror descent method in Section 6.3. To compare these methods, let us assume that $f_i$ is smooth with $L$-Lipschitz continuous gradient for some $\bar{L} \geq \mu$ for any $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Also let us assume that $\sigma > \|A\|^2L^2/\bar{L}^2$, $\bar{A} = \varepsilon/L^2$, and $X = \mathbb{R}^{m-1}$. Then, after disregarding some constant factors, the bound in (6.6.57) reduces to $O(m\bar{A}\sqrt{Tn}/\varepsilon)$, which is always smaller than the $O(m(\bar{L} + \bar{A}^2)\mathcal{D}^0/\varepsilon)$ complexity bound implied by Corollary 6.12.

Remark 6.1. In this section, we assume that $A_m^{-1}$ is easily computable. One natural question is whether we can avoid the computation of $A_m^{-1}$ by directly solving (6.6.4) instead of its reformulation (6.6.46). To do so, we can iteratively solve the following saddle-point subproblems in place of the ones in (6.6.49):

$$\min_{x \in X, x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \psi(x) + \psi_m(x_m) + \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{m} A_i x_i - b, y \right\} \right\}$$

$$= \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \psi(x) + \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ (Ax - b, y) + \min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \psi_m(x_m) + \langle A_m x_m, y \rangle \right\} \right\} \right\}$$

$$= \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \psi(x) + \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ (Ax - b, y) - \tilde{h}(y) \right\} \right\},$$

(6.6.58)

where $A := [A_1, \ldots, A_{m-1}]$ and $\tilde{h}(y) := \max_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ -\psi_m(x_m) - \langle A_m x_m, y \rangle \right\}$. Instead of keeping $\tilde{h}(y)$ in the projection subproblem (6.6.53) as we did for $h(y)$, we need to linearize it at each iteration by computing its gradients $\nabla \tilde{h}(y^{t-1}) = -A_m^T \tilde{x}_m(y^{t-1})$, where $\tilde{x}_m(y^{t-1}) = \arg\max_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ -\psi_m(x_m) - \langle A_m x_m, y^{t-1} \rangle \right\}$. Note that the latter optimization problem can be solved by using an efficient first-order method due to the smoothness and strong concavity of its objective function. As a result, we will be able to obtain a similar rate of convergence to RapDual without computing $A_m^{-1}$. 

However, the statement and analysis of the algorithm will be much more complicated than RapDual in its current form.

6.6.2.2 Convergence analysis for RapDual

In this section, we first show the convergence of Algorithm 6.11 for solving the convex multi-block subproblem (6.6.50) with

1. $\psi_i(x) - \psi_i(y) - \langle \nabla \psi_i(y), x - y \rangle \geq \frac{\eta}{2} \|x - y\|^2, \forall x, y \in X_i, i = 1, \ldots, m - 1,$

2. $\frac{\eta}{2} \|x - y\|^2 \leq \psi_m(x) - \psi_m(y) - \langle \nabla \psi_m(y), x - y \rangle \leq \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - y\|^2, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$

Some simple relations about the iterations generated by the Algorithm 6.11 are characterized in the following lemma, and the proof follows directly from the definition of $\hat{x}$ in (6.6.59), thus has been omitted.

Lemma 6.15. Let $x^0 = \hat{x}^0$ and $\hat{x}^t$ for $t = 1, \ldots, s$ be defined as follows:

$$\hat{x}^t = \arg\min_{x \in X} \psi(x) + \langle A^\top y^t, x \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x^{t-1}\|^2, \quad (6.6.59)$$

where $x^t$ and $y^t$ are obtained from (6.6.53)-(6.6.54), then we have

$$\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \|x - \hat{x}^t\|^2 \right\} = \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ (m - 1)\|x - x^t\|^2 - (m - 2)\|x - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right\}, \quad (6.6.60)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \|\hat{x}^t - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right\} = \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ (m - 1)\|x^t_t - x^{t-1}_t\|^2 \right\}. \quad (6.6.61)$$

The following lemma 6.16 builds some connections between the input and output of Algorithm 6.11 in terms of both primal and dual variables.

Lemma 6.16. Let the iterates $x^t$ and $y^t$ for $t = 1, \ldots, s$ be generated by Algorithm 6.11 and $(\hat{x}^t, y^t)$ be a saddle point of (6.6.49). Assume that the parameters in Algorithm 6.11 satisfy for all $t = 1, \ldots, s - 1$

$$\alpha_{t+1} = (m - 1)\tilde{\alpha}_{t+1}, \quad (6.6.62)$$
$$\gamma_t = \gamma_{t+1} \tilde{\alpha}_{t+1}, \quad (6.6.63)$$
$$\gamma_{t+1} ((m - 1)\eta_{t+1} + (m - 2)\mu) \leq (m - 1)\gamma_t (\eta_t + \mu), \quad (6.6.64)$$
$$\gamma_{t+1} \gamma_{t+1} \eta_{t+1} \leq (\eta_t + 1), \quad (6.6.65)$$
$$2(m - 1)\alpha_{t+1} \bar{A}^2 \leq \mu \eta_t \eta_{t+1}. \quad (6.6.66)$$

where $\bar{A} = \max_{i \in [m - 1]} \|A_i\|$. Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \frac{\gamma_t ((m - 1)\eta_{t+1} + (m - 2)\mu) \|x^t - x^{t-1}\|^2 - (m - 1)\gamma_t (m - 1)\eta_{t+1} \|x^t - x^{t-1}\|^2}{2} \right\} + \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \gamma_t \tau_1 V_h(y^t, y^0) - \frac{\gamma_t (m - 1)\mu}{2} V_h(y^t, y^t) \right\} \geq 0. \quad (6.6.67)$$

Proof. For any $t \geq 1$, since $(x^*, y^*)$ is a saddle point of (6.6.49), we have

$$\psi(\hat{x}^t) - \psi(x^*) + \langle A\hat{x}^t - b, y^t \rangle - \langle Ax^* - b, y^* \rangle + b(y^*) - b(y^t) \geq 0.$$
For nonnegative $\gamma$, we further obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \left[ \psi(\hat{x}') - \psi(x') + \langle A\hat{x}' - b, y' \rangle - \langle Ax' - b, y' \rangle + h(y') - h(y') \right] \right\} \geq 0.
\]  
(6.6.68)

According to optimality conditions of (6.6.59) and (6.6.53) respectively, and strongly convexity of $\psi$ and $h$ we obtain
\[
\psi(\hat{x}') - \psi(x') + \frac{\mu}{2} \| x' - \hat{x}' \|^2 + \langle A^\top y', \hat{x}' - x' \rangle \\
\leq \frac{\mu}{2} \left[ \| x' - x' - 1 \|^2 - \| x' - \hat{x}' \|^2 - \| \hat{x}' - x' - 1 \|^2 \right],
\]
\[
h(y') - h(y') + \langle -Ax' + b, y' - y' \rangle \\
\leq \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) - (\tau + 1) V_h(y', y') - \tau V_h(y', y' - 1).
\]

Combining the above two inequalities with relation (6.6.68), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \left[ \psi(\hat{x}') - \psi(x') + \langle A\hat{x}' - b, y' \rangle - \langle Ax' - b, y' \rangle + h(y') - h(y') \right] \right\} \\
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \left[ \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) - (\tau + 1) V_h(y', y') - \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) \right] \right\} \\
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \langle A(\hat{x}' - \hat{x}'), y' - y' \rangle \right\} \geq 0.
\]

Observe that for $t \geq 1$,
\[
\mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \langle A(\hat{x}' - \hat{x}'), y' \rangle \right\} = \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \langle A((m-1)x' - (m-2)x' - \hat{x}'), y' \rangle \right\}.
\]

Applying this and the results (6.6.60), (6.6.61) in Lemma 6.15, we further have
\[
0 \leq \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \left[ \frac{\gamma (m-1) \eta + (m-2) \mu}{2} \| x' - x' - 1 \|^2 - \frac{(m-1) \gamma (\eta + \mu)}{2} \| x' - \hat{x}' \|^2 \right] \right\} \\
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \left[ \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) - \gamma (\tau + 1) V_h(y', y') \right] \right\} + \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \delta_i \right\} \\
\leq \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \frac{\gamma (m-1) \eta + (m-2) \mu}{2} \| x' - \hat{x}' \|^2 - \frac{(m-1) \gamma (\eta + \mu)}{2} \| x' - x' - 1 \|^2 \right\} \\
+ \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \gamma \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) - \gamma (\tau + 1) V_h(y', y') \right\} + \mathbb{E}_t \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \delta_i \right\},
\]  
(6.6.69)

where
\[
\delta_i = \frac{(m-1) \gamma}{2} \| x' - \hat{x}' - 1 \|^2 - \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) \\
+ \langle A((m-1)x' - (m-2)x' - \hat{x}'), y' - y' \rangle.
\]

and the second inequality follows from (6.6.64) and (6.6.65).

By (6.6.62) and the definition of $\hat{x}'$ in (6.6.51) we have:
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma \delta_i = \sum_{i=1}^{t} \left[ \frac{(m-1) \gamma}{2} \| x' - \hat{x}' - 1 \|^2 - \gamma \tau V_h(y', y' - 1) \right] \\
+ \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma (m-1) \langle A(x' - \hat{x}' - 1), y' - y' \rangle \\
- \sum_{i=1}^{t} \gamma (m-1) \langle A(\hat{x}' - 1 - \hat{x}' - 2), y' - y' - 1 \rangle
\]  
(6.6.70)
where the second equality follows from (6.6.63) and the fact that \( x^0 = x^{-1} \). Since
\[
\langle A(x^{t-1} - x^{-2}), y^{t-1} - y^{t} \rangle = \langle A_{t-1}(x_{t-1}^{i-1} - x_{t-1}^{-2}), y^{t-1} - y^{t} \rangle \leq \|A_{t-1}\| \|x_{t-1}^{i-1} - x_{t-1}^{-2}\| \|y^{t-1} - y^{t}\|\]
and \( V_h(y^{t}, y^{t-1}) \geq \frac{\eta}{2} \|y^{t} - y^{t-1}\|^2 \), from (6.6.71) we have
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{s} y_i \delta_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^{s} \left[ -\frac{(m-1)\eta_1}{2} \|x_i^{t} - x_i^{t-1}\|^2 - \frac{\eta \sqrt{\beta}}{2} \|y^{t} - y^{t-1}\|^2 \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{s} y_i (m-1) \langle A(x^{t} - x^{t-1}), y^{t} - y^{t-1} \rangle \\
= \sum_{i=1}^{s} y_i (m-1) \langle A(x^{t} - x^{t-1}), y^{t} - y^{t-1} \rangle
\]
where (a) follows from regrouping the terms; (b) follows from the definition \( \bar{A} = \max_{i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}} \|A_i\| \) and the simple relation that \( b \langle u, v \rangle - a \|v\|^2 / 2 \leq b^2 \|u\|^2 / (2a), \forall a > 0 \); and (c) follows from (6.6.63) and (6.6.66).

By combining the relation above with (6.6.69), we obtain
\[
0 \leq \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{\gamma((m-1)\eta_1 + (m-2)\mu_1)}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{0}\|^2 - \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t}\|^2 \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{s} y_i \tau_i V_h(y^{s}, y^{0}) - \gamma_1 (\tau_{s+1})V_h(y^{s}, y^{s}) \\
+ \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \gamma_1 (m-1) \langle A(x^{s} - x^{t-1}), y^{s} - y^{t} \rangle - \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right] \\
= \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{\gamma((5s+1))}{2} V_h(y^{s}, y^{s}) - \gamma_1 (m-1) \langle A(x^{s} - x^{t-1}), y^{s} - y^{t} \rangle + \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right] \\
\geq \gamma_1 \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{(5s+1)\eta}{4} \|y^{s} - y^{t}\|^2 - (m-1)\bar{A} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\| \|y^{s} - y^{t}\| + \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right].
\]

Notice the fact that
\[
\mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{\gamma((5s+1))}{2} V_h(y^{s}, y^{s}) - \gamma_1 (m-1) \langle A(x^{s} - x^{t-1}), y^{s} - y^{t} \rangle + \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right] \\
= \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{\gamma((5s+1))}{2} V_h(y^{s}, y^{s}) - \gamma_1 (m-1) \langle A(x^{s} - x^{t-1}), y^{s} - y^{t} \rangle + \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right] \\
\geq \gamma_1 \mathbb{E}_s \left[ \frac{(5s+1)\eta}{4} \|y^{s} - y^{t}\|^2 - (m-1)\bar{A} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\| \|y^{s} - y^{t}\| + \frac{(m-1)\gamma_2 \eta_1}{2} \|x^{s} - x^{t-1}\|^2 \right].
\]
Then, for any $s \geq 1$, Algorithm 6.11 with a linear rate of convergence. In fact, we need not solve it too accurately. With a fixed and relatively small number of iterations $s$, Algorithm 6.11 can still converge, as shown by the following lemma.

**Lemma 6.17.** Let the inner iteration number $s \geq \lceil -\log M / \log \alpha \rceil$ with $M = 4 + 2L/\mu$ be given. Also the iterates $(x^\ell, x^\ell_m)$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, k$ be generated by Algorithm 6.10 and $\ell$ be randomly selected from $[k]$. Then

$$
\mathbb{E} \left( \| x^\ell - x^{\ell-1} \|^2 + \| x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m \|^2 \right)
$$

In view of (6.6.72) and (6.6.73), we complete the proof. ■

Now we present the main convergence result of Algorithm 6.11 in Theorem 6.19, which eliminates the dependence on dual variables and relates directly the successive searching points of RapDual.

**Theorem 6.19.** Let $(x^*, y^*)$ be a saddle point of (6.6.49), and suppose that the parameters $\{\alpha\}$, $\{\tau\}$, $\{\eta\}$ and $\{\gamma\}$ are set as in (6.6.55) and (6.6.56), and $\bar{\alpha} = \alpha$. Then, for any $s \geq 1$, we have

$$
\mathbb{E}_s \left\{ \| x^s - x^0 \|^2 + \| x^s_m - x^0_m \|^2 \right\} \leq \alpha^s M (\| x^0 - x^* \|^2 + \| x^0_m - x^0_m \|^2),
$$

where $x^s_m = \arg\min_{x_m \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \psi_m(x_m) + \langle x_m, y^* \rangle \}$ and $M = 2L/\mu$.

**Proof.** It is easy to check that (6.6.55) and (6.6.56) satisfy conditions (6.6.62), (6.6.63), (6.6.64) (6.6.65), and (6.6.66) when $\mu, \bar{\mu} > 0$. Then we have

$$
\mathbb{E}_s \left\{ \frac{(m-1)(\tau + \bar{\mu})}{2} \| x^s - x^0 \|^2 + \frac{\gamma (\tau + 1) \bar{\mu}}{2} V_h(x^s, y^*) \right\} 
\leq \gamma ((m-1)\tau + (m-2)\bar{\mu}) \| x^0 - x^* \|^2 + \gamma \tau V_h(y^0, y^*).
$$

Therefore, by plugging in those values in (6.6.55) and (6.6.56), we have

$$
\mathbb{E}_s \left[ \mu \| x^s - x^* \|^2 + V_h(y^s, y^*) \right] \leq \alpha^s \left[ \mu \| x^0 - x^* \|^2 + 2V_h(y^0, y^*) \right],
$$

Since $h(y)$ has $1/\mu$-Lipschitz continuous gradients and is $1/L$-strongly convex, we obtain

$$
V_h(y^s, y^*) \geq \frac{L}{4} \| \nabla h(y^s) - \nabla h(y^*) \|^2 = \frac{L}{4} \| x^s_m - x^0_m \|^2, \quad (6.6.75)
$$

$$
V_h(y^0, y^*) \leq \frac{L}{4} \| \nabla h(y^0) - \nabla h(y^*) \|^2 = \frac{L}{4} \| x^0_m - x^0_m \|^2. \quad (6.6.76)
$$

Combining (6.6.74), (6.6.75) and (6.6.76), we have

$$
\mathbb{E}_s \left\{ \| x^s - x^* \|^2 + \| x^s_m - x^0_m \|^2 \right\} \leq \alpha^s M (\| x^0 - x^* \|^2 + \| x^0_m - x^0_m \|^2).
$$

The above theorem shows that subproblem (6.6.50) can be solved efficiently by Algorithm 6.11 with a linear rate of convergence. In fact, we need not solve it too accurately. With a fixed and relatively small number of iterations $s$, Algorithm 6.11 can still converge, as shown by the following lemma.
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\mu(1-M\alpha)} \left\{ f(\bar{x}^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\},
\mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^\ell\|^2 \right) \\
\leq \frac{M\alpha}{\mu(1-M\alpha)} \left\{ f(\bar{x}^\ell) + f_m(x_m^\ell) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\},
\end{align*}
\]

where \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) and \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) are the optimal solutions to \((6.6.44)\) and the \(\ell\)-th subproblem \((6.6.48)\), respectively.

**Proof.** According to Theorem 6.19, we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \left( \|\bar{x}^\ell - x^\ell\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - x_m^\ell\|^2 \right) \leq \alpha^\ell M \left( \|\bar{x}^{\ell-1} - x^\ell\|^2 + \|\bar{x}_m^{\ell-1} - x_m^\ell\|^2 \right). \tag{6.6.77}
\]

Let us denote \((\bar{x}_0^\ell, x_m^\ell) = (\bar{x}^0, x_0^\ell)\) and by selection, it is feasible to subproblem \((6.6.48)\) when \(\ell = 1\). Since \((x^\ell, x_m^\ell)\) is optimal and \((x_1^{\ell-1}, x_m^{\ell-1})\) is feasible to the \(\ell\)-th subproblem, we have

\[
\psi^\ell(x^\ell_m) \leq \psi^\ell(x_1^{\ell-1}) + \psi^\ell(x_m^{\ell-1}).
\]

Plugging in the definition of \(\psi^\ell\) and \(\psi_m^\ell\) in the above inequality, and summing up from \(\ell = 1\) to \(k\), we have

\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^k \left\{ f(x^\ell_m) + f_m(x_m^\ell) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\} + \mu \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^\ell\|^2 \right) \\
\leq \sum_{\ell=1}^k \left\{ f(x_1^{\ell-1}) + f_m(x_m^{\ell-1}) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\} + \mu \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x_1^{\ell-1} - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^{\ell-1} - \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1}\|^2 \right). \tag{6.6.78}
\]

Combining \((6.6.77)\) and \((6.6.78)\) and noticing that \((x_0^\ell, x_0^\ell) = (\bar{x}^0, \bar{x}_0^0)\), we have

\[
\mu \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1}\|^2 \right) \leq \sum_{\ell=1}^k \left\{ f(x^\ell_m) + f_m(x_m^\ell) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\} + \mu \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^\ell\|^2 \right) \\
+ \mu \alpha^\ell M \sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x_1^{\ell-1} - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^{\ell-1} - \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1}\|^2 \right). \tag{6.6.79}
\]

In view of \((6.6.79)\) and \((6.6.78)\), we have

\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}^{\ell-1}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^{\ell-1}\|^2 \right) \\
\leq \frac{1}{\mu(1-M\alpha^2)} \left\{ f(\bar{x}^0) + f_m(x_m^0) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\},
\]

\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^k \mathbb{E} \left( \|x^\ell - \bar{x}\|^2 + \|x_m^\ell - \bar{x}_m^\ell\|^2 \right) \\
\leq \frac{M\alpha}{\mu(1-M\alpha^2)} \left\{ f(\bar{x}^0) + f_m(x_m^0) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x_m^*)] \right\},
\]

which, in view of the fact that \(\ell\) is chosen randomly in \([k]\), implies our results. \(\Box\)

Now we are ready to prove the results in Theorem 6.18 with all the results proved above.
Proof of Theorem 6.18. By the optimality condition of the \( \ell \)-th subproblem (6.6.48), there exists some \( \lambda^* \) such that
\[
\nabla \psi^\ell (x^\ell) + A^\top \lambda^* \in -N_X(x^\ell), \\
\nabla \psi^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) + \lambda^* = 0,
\]
\[
Ax^\ell + x^\ell_m = b. \tag{6.6.81}
\]
Plugging in the definition of \( \psi^\ell \) and \( \psi^\ell_m \), we have
\[
\nabla f^\ell(x^\ell) + 2\mu(x^\ell - x^{\ell-1}) + A^\top \lambda^* \in -N_X(x^\ell), \tag{6.6.82}
\]
\[
\nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) + 2\mu(x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}) + \lambda^* = 0. \tag{6.6.83}
\]
Now we are ready to evaluate the quality of the solution \((\hat{x}^\ell, \hat{x}^\ell_m)\). In view of (6.6.82) and Lemma 6.17, we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ d(\nabla f^\ell(x^\ell) + A^\top \lambda^*, -N_X(x^\ell)) \right]^2 \leq \mathbb{E} \|2\mu(x^\ell - x^{\ell-1})\|^2
\]
\[
\leq \frac{4\mu}{\alpha(1-M\alpha)} \left\{ f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m) - [f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m)] \right\}
\]
Similarly, due to (6.6.83) and Lemma 6.17, we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \|\nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) + \lambda^*\|^2 = \mathbb{E} \|\nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) - \nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) - 2\mu(x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m)\|^2
\]
\[
\leq 2\mathbb{E} \{\|\nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m) - \nabla f^\ell_m(x^\ell_m)\|^2 + 4\mu^2 \|x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m\|^2\}
\]
\[
\leq \mathbb{E} \left\{18 \mu^2 \|x^\ell_m - \hat{x}^\ell_m\|^2 + 8\mu^2 \|x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m\|^2\right\}
\]
\[
\leq \mu^2 \{f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m) - [f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m)]\}
\]
By Lemma 6.17 we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \|x^\ell - \hat{x}^\ell\|^2 \leq \frac{M\alpha\nu}{\alpha(1-M\alpha)} \left\{ f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m) - [f(\hat{x}^0) + f_m(\hat{x}^0_m)]\right\}
\]
Combining (6.6.81) and Lemma 6.17, we have
\[
\mathbb{E} \|Ax^\ell + \hat{x}^\ell_m - b\|^2 = \mathbb{E} \|A(x^\ell - \hat{x}^\ell) + x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m\|^2
\]
\[
\leq 2\mathbb{E} \{\|A\|^2 \|x^\ell - \hat{x}^\ell\|^2 + \|x^\ell_m - x^{\ell-1}_m\|^2\}
\[ \leq \frac{2(\|A\|^2 + 1)\mathbb{E}\{\|\bar{x}^k - x^k\|^2 + \|\bar{x}^m_m - x^m_m\|^2\}}{\frac{k\mu(1+M\alpha)}{k\mu(1+M\alpha)}} \{ f(\bar{x}^0) + f_m(x^0_m) - [f(x^*) + f_m(x^*_m)] \} \]

We observe that the main ideas of this RapDual, i.e., using proximal point method to transform the nonconvex multi-block problem into a series of convex subproblems, and using randomized dual method to them, can be applied for solving much more general multi-block optimization problems for which there does not exist an invertible block. In this more general case, the saddle-point subproblems will only be strongly convex in the primal space, but not in the dual space. Therefore, the complexity of solving the subproblem will only be sublinear, and as a consequence, the overall complexity will be much worse than \( O(1/\epsilon) \). It is also worth noting that the proposed RapGrad and RapDual implicitly assume that the parameter \( \mu \) is known, or a (tight) upper bound of it can be obtained.

6.7 Exercises and notes

1. Consider the problem of \( \min_{x \in X} f(x) \), where \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a closed convex set and \( f \) is a convex function. Assume that we apply either the gradient descent or accelerated gradient descent method for solving
   \[ \min_{x \in X} \left\{ f(x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_0\|^2 \right\}, \]
   for a given initial point \( x_0 \in X \) and a small enough \( \mu > 0 \). Please establish the best possible complexity bound for these methods to find a stationary point so that the size of the projected gradient is small.

2. Establish the convergence of the RSGF method if the random variable \( u \) in (6.1.49) is not a Gaussian random variable, but a uniform random variable over the standard Euclidean ball.

3. Develop a stochastic gradient-free mirror descent method similar to 2-RSMD-V for which only stochastic zeroth-order information is available and establish its complexity bounds. and large

**Notes.** The random stochastic gradient descent method for nonconvex optimization problems was first studied by Ghadimi and Lan in [33]. Ghadimi, Lan and Zhang generalized this method for solving nonconvex stochastic composite problems in [35]. Dang and Lan developed the randomized block coordinate descent method for solving nonconvex problems in [23]. The convergence of accelerated gradient descent method for solving nonconvex and stochastic optimization problems was first established by Ghadimi and Lan in [34]. The gradient estimator used in the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method was first introduced in [85] in
convex optimization and analyzed for nonconvex optimization in [27, 108, 108]. Section 7.4 further generalizes the analysis to nonconvex mirror descent setting. The RapGrad and RapDual methods for nonconvex finite-sum and multi-block optimization were first introduced by Lan and Yang in [59].
Chapter 7
Projection-free Methods

In this chapter, we present conditional gradient type methods that have attracted much attention in both machine learning and optimization community recently. These methods call a linear optimization (LO) oracle to minimize a series of linear functions over the feasible set. We will introduce the classic conditional gradient (a.k.a. Frank-Wolfe method) and a few of its variants. We will also discuss the conditional gradient sliding (CGS) algorithm which can skip the computation of gradients from time to time, and as a result, can achieve the optimal complexity bounds in terms of not only the number of calls to the LO oracle, but also the number of gradient evaluations.

7.1 Conditional gradient method

In this section, we study a new class of optimization algorithms, referred to as linear-optimization-based convex programming (LCP) methods, for solving large-scale convex programming (CP) problems. Specifically, consider the CP problem of

\[ f^* := \min_{x \in X} f(x), \tag{7.1.1} \]

where \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a convex compact set and \( f: X \to \mathbb{R} \) is a closed convex function. The LCP methods solve problem (7.1.1) by iteratively calling a linear optimization (LO) oracle, which, for a given input vector \( p \in \mathbb{R}^n \), computes the solution of subproblems given in the form of

\[ \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \langle p, x \rangle. \tag{7.1.2} \]

In particular, if \( p \) is computed based on first-order information, then we call these algorithms first-order LCP methods. Clearly, the difference between first-order LCP methods and the more general first-order methods exists in the restrictions on the format of subproblems. For example, in the subgradient (mirror) descent method, we solve the projection (or prox-mapping) subproblems given in the form of
argmin_{x \in X} \{ \langle p, x \rangle + d(x) \}. \quad (7.1.3)

Here $d : X \to \mathbb{R}$ is a certain strongly convex function (e.g., $d(x) = \|x\|^2/2$).

The development of LCP methods has recently regained some interests from both machine learning and optimization community mainly for the following reasons.

- **Low iteration cost.** In many cases, the solution of the linear subproblem (7.1.2) is much easier to solve than the nonlinear subproblem (7.1.3). For example, if $X$ is a spectrahedron given by $X = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : \text{Tr}(x) = 1, x \succeq 0 \}$, the solution of (7.1.2) can be much faster than that of (7.1.3).

- **Simplicity.** The CndG method is simple to implement since it does not require the selection of the distance function $d(x)$ in (7.1.3) and the fine-tuning of stepsizes, which are required in most other first-order methods (with exceptions to some extent for a few level-type first-order methods as discussed earlier in Section 3.9).

- **Structural properties for the generated solutions.** The output solutions of the CndG method may have certain desirable structural properties, e.g., sparsity and low rank, as they can often be written as the convex combination of a small number of extreme points of $X$.

In this section, we first establish the rate of convergence of the classic conditional gradient method and its variants, in terms of the number of calls to the LO oracle, for solving different classes of CP problems under an LO oracle as follows.

a) $f$ is a smooth convex function satisfying

$$\|f'(x) - f'(y)\|_* \leq L\|x - y\|, \forall x, y \in X. \quad (7.1.4)$$

b) $f$ is a special nonsmooth function with $f$ given by

$$f(x) = \max_{y \in Y} \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{f}(y) \}. \quad (7.1.5)$$

Here $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ is a convex compact set, $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ a linear operator and $\hat{f} : Y \to \mathbb{R}$ is a simple convex function.

c) $f$ is a general nonsmooth Lipschitz continuous convex function such that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq M\|x - y\|, \forall x, y \in X, \quad (7.1.6)$$

d) We also discuss the possibility to improve the complexity of the CndG method under strong convexity assumption about $f(\cdot)$ and with an enhanced LO oracle.

We then present a few new LCP methods, namely the primal averaging CndG (PA-CndG) and primal-dual averaging CndG (PDA-CndG) algorithms, for solving large-scale CP problems under an LO oracle. These methods are obtained by replacing the projection subproblems with linear optimization subproblems in the accelerated gradient descent method.

Finally, we show that to solve CP problems under an LO oracle is fundamentally more difficult than to solve CP problems without such restrictions, by establishing a series of lower complexity bounds for solving different classes of CP problems under
7.1 Conditional gradient method

an LO oracle. We then show that the number of calls to the LO oracle performed by
the aforementioned LCP methods do not seem to be improvable in general.

To fix notation, let \( X \in \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( Y \in \mathbb{R}^m \) be given convex compact sets. Also let \( \| \cdot \|_X \) and \( \| \cdot \|_Y \) be the norms (not necessarily associated with inner product) in \( \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \mathbb{R}^m \), respectively. For the sake of simplicity, we often skip the subscripts in the norms \( \| \cdot \|_X \) and \( \| \cdot \|_Y \). For a given norm \( \| \cdot \| \), we denote its conjugate by \( \| \cdot \|_* \) = \( \max_{\|x\| \leq 1} \langle s, x \rangle \). We use \( \| \cdot \|_1 \) and \( \| \cdot \|_2 \), respectively, to denote the regular \( l_1 \) and \( l_2 \) norms. Let \( A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \) be a given linear operator, we use \( \| A \| \) to denote its operator norm given by \( \| A \| = \max_{\|x\| \leq 1} \| Ax \| \). Let \( f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) be a convex function, we denote its linear approximation at \( x \) by

\[
I_f(x; y) := f(x) + \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle. \quad (7.1.7)
\]

Clearly, if \( f \) satisfies (7.1.4), then

\[
f(y) \leq I_f(x; y) + \frac{L}{2} \| y - x \|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (7.1.8)
\]

Notice that the constant \( L \) in (7.1.4) and (7.1.8) depends on \( \| \cdot \| \).

### 7.1.1 Classic conditional gradient

Our goal in this section is to establish the rate of convergence for the classic CndG method and its variants for solving different classes of CP problems in terms the number of calls to the LO oracle.

#### 7.1.1.1 Smooth convex problems under an LO oracle

The classic CndG method is one of the earliest iterative algorithms to solve problem (7.1.1). The basic scheme of this algorithm is stated as follows.

**Algorithm 7.1** The Classic Conditional Gradient (CndG) Method

1. Let \( x_0 \in X \) be given. Set \( y_0 = x_0 \).
2. for \( k = 1, \ldots \) do
   1. Call the LO oracle to compute \( x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \langle f'(y_{k-1}), x \rangle \).
   2. Set \( y_k = (1 - \alpha_k)y_{k-1} + \alpha_k x_k \) for some \( \alpha_k \in [0, 1] \).
3. end for

In order to guarantee the convergence of the classic CndG method, we need to properly specify the stepsizes \( \alpha_k \) used in the definition of \( y_k \). There are two popular options for selecting \( \alpha_k \): one is to set

\[
\alpha_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad (7.1.9)
\]
and the other is to compute \( \alpha_k \) by solving a one-dimensional minimization problem:

\[
\alpha_k = \operatorname{arg\,min}_{\alpha \in [0,1]} f((1 - \alpha)y_{k-1} + \alpha x_k), \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots \tag{7.1.10}
\]

We now formally describe the convergence properties of the above classic CndG method. Observe that we state explicitly in Theorem 7.1 how the rate of convergence associated with this algorithm depends on distance between the previous iterate \( y_{k-1} \) and the output of the LO oracle, i.e., \( \|x_k - y_{k-1}\| \). Also observe that, given a candidate solution \( \bar{x} \in X \), we use the functional optimality gap \( f(\bar{x}) - f^* \) as a termination criterion for the algorithm. In Section 7.2, we will show that the CndG method also exhibit the same rate of convergence in terms of a stronger termination criterion, i.e., the Wolfe gap given by \( \max_{\bar{x} \in X} \langle f'(\bar{x}), \bar{x} - x \rangle \). The following quantity will be used our convergence analysis.

\[
\Gamma_k := \begin{cases} 
1, & k = 1, \\
(1 - \gamma_k) \Gamma_{k-1}, & k \geq 2.
\end{cases} \tag{7.1.11}
\]

**Theorem 7.1.** Let \( \{x_k\} \) be the sequence generated by the classic CndG method applied to problem (7.1.1) with the stepsize policy in (7.1.9) or (7.1.10). If \( f(\cdot) \) satisfies (7.1.4), then for any \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \),

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{2L^2}{(k+1)\gamma_k} \sum_{l=1}^{k} \|y_l - y_{l-1}\|^2. \tag{7.1.12}
\]

**Proof.** Let \( \Gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.11) with

\[
\gamma_k := \frac{2}{k+1}. \tag{7.1.13}
\]

It is easy to check that

\[
\Gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\gamma_k^2}{\Gamma_k} \leq 2, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots \tag{7.1.14}
\]

Denoting \( \tilde{y}_k = (1 - \gamma_k)y_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_k \), we conclude from from (7.1.9) (or (7.1.10)) and the definition of \( y_k \) in Algorithm 7.1 that \( f(y_k) \leq f(\tilde{y}_k) \). It also follows from the definition of \( \tilde{y}_k \) that \( \tilde{y}_k - y_{k-1} = \gamma_k (x_k - y_{k-1}) \). Letting \( I_f(x; y) \) be defined in (7.1.7) and using these two observations, (7.1.8), the definition of \( x_k \) and the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \), we have

\[
f(y_k) \leq f(\tilde{y}_k) \leq I_f(y_{k-1}; \tilde{y}_k) + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 \leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k I_f(y_{k-1}; x_k) + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 \leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k I_f(y_{k-1}; x) + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2, \quad \forall x \in X. \tag{7.1.15}
\]

Subtracting \( f(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, we obtain

\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)(f(y_{k-1}) - f(x)) + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2, \quad \forall x \in X. \tag{7.1.16}
\]
which, in view of Lemma 3.17, then implies that
\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq I_1(1 - \gamma_1)|f(y_0) - f(x)| + \frac{L_k}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \gamma_i \|x_i - y_{i-1}\|^2 \\
\leq \frac{2L}{k(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i - y_{i-1}\|^2, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, (7.1.17)
\]
where the last inequality follows from the fact that \(\gamma_1 = 1\) and (7.1.14).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.1. Let us denote
\[
\bar{D}_X \equiv \bar{D}_X \|\cdot\| := \max_{x, y \in X} \|x - y\|. \quad (7.1.18)
\]
Firstly, note that by (7.1.12) and (7.1.18), we have, for any \(k = 1, \ldots, \)
\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{2L}{\epsilon} \bar{D}_X^2.
\]
Hence, the number of iterations required by the classic CndG method to find an \(\epsilon\)-solution of problem (7.1.1) is bounded by
\[
\mathcal{O}(1) \frac{LD_x^2}{\epsilon}. \quad (7.1.19)
\]
Secondly, although the CndG method does not require the selection of the norm \(\|\cdot\|\), the iteration complexity of this algorithm, as stated in (7.1.19), does depend on \(\|\cdot\|\) as the two constants, i.e., \(L \equiv L_\|\cdot\|\) and \(D_X \equiv D_X \|\cdot\|\), depend on \(\|\cdot\|\). However, since the result in (7.1.19) holds for an arbitrary \(\|\cdot\|\), the iteration complexity of the classic CndG method to solve problem (7.1.1) can actually be bounded by
\[
\mathcal{O}(1) \inf_{\|\cdot\|} \left\{ \frac{L_1 D_x^2 + 1}{\epsilon} \right\}. \quad (7.1.20)
\]
For example, if \(X\) is a simplex, a widely-accepted strategy to accelerate gradient type methods is to set \(\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_1\) and \(d(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \log x_i\) in (7.1.3), in order to obtain (nearly) dimension-independent complexity results, which only grow mildly with the increase of the dimension of the problem. On the other hand, the classic CndG method does automatically adjust to the geometry of the feasible set \(X\) in order to obtain such scalability to high-dimensional problems.

Thirdly, observe that the rate of convergence in (7.1.12) depends on \(\|x_k - y_{k-1}\|\) which usually does not vanish as \(k\) increases. For example, suppose \(\{y_k\} \to x^*\) (this is true if \(x^*\) is a unique optimal solution of (7.1.1)), the distance \(\|x_k - y_{k-1}\|\) does not necessarily converge to zero unless \(x^*\) is an extreme point of \(X\). In these cases, the summation \(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i - y_{i-1}\|^2\) increases linearly with respect \(k\). We will discuss some techniques in Section 7.1.2 that might help to improve this situation.
7.1.1.2 Bilinear saddle point problems under an LO oracle

In this subsection, we show that the CndG method, after incorporating some proper modification, can be used to solve the bilinear saddle point problem with the objective function $f$ given by (7.1.5).

Since $f$ given by (7.1.5) is nonsmooth in general, we cannot directly apply the CndG method. However, recall that the function $f(\cdot)$ in (7.1.5) can be closely approximated by a class of smooth convex functions. More specifically, for a given strongly convex function $v: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\omega(y) \geq \omega(x) + \langle \omega'(x), y-x \rangle + \frac{\sigma_v}{2} \|y-x\|^2, \forall x, y \in Y,$$

(7.1.21)

let us denote $c_{\omega} := \text{argmin}_{y \in Y} \omega(y), W(y) := \omega(y) - \omega(c_{\omega}) - \langle \nabla \omega(c_{\omega}), y-c_{\omega} \rangle$ and

$$D_Y \equiv D_{Y,\omega} := [\max_{y \in Y} W(y)]^{1/2}.$$

(7.1.22)

Then the function $f(\cdot)$ in (7.1.5) can be closely approximated by

$$f_{\eta}(x) := \max_{y} \left\{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - f(y) - \eta [V(y) - D^2_Y] : \ y \in Y \right\}.$$

(7.1.23)

Indeed, by definition we have $0 \leq V(y) \leq D^2_Y$ and hence, for any $\eta \geq 0$,

$$f(x) \leq f_{\eta}(x) \leq f(x) + \eta D^2_Y, \ \forall x \in X.$$

(7.1.24)

Moreover, it can be shown that $f_{\eta}(\cdot)$ is differentiable and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with the Lipschitz constant given by (see Lemma 3.7)

$$L_{\eta} := \frac{\|A\|^2}{\eta \sigma_v}.$$

(7.1.25)

In view of this result, we modify the CndG method by replacing the gradient $f'(y_k)$ in Algorithm 7.1 with the gradient $f'_{\eta_k}(y_k)$ for some $\eta_k > 0$. Observe that in the original smoothing scheme in Section 3.5, we first need to define the smooth approximation function $f_{\eta}$ in (7.1.23) by specifying in advance the smoothing parameter $\eta$ and then apply a smooth optimization method to solve the approximation problem. The specification of $\eta$ usually requires explicit knowledge of $D_X, D^2_Y$ and the target accuracy $\epsilon$ given a priori. However, by using a different analysis, we show that one can use variable smoothing parameters $\eta_k$ and thus does not need to know the target accuracy $\epsilon$ in advance. In addition, wrong estimation on $D_X$ and $D^2_Y$ only affects the rate of convergence of the modified CndG method by a constant factor. Our analysis relies on a slightly different construction of $f_{\eta}(\cdot)$ in (7.1.23) and the following simple observation.

**Lemma 7.1.** Let $f_{\eta}(\cdot)$ be defined in (7.1.23) and $\eta_1 \geq \eta_2 \geq 0$ be given. Then, we have $f_{\eta_1}(x) \geq f_{\eta_2}(x)$ for any $x \in X.$
7.1 Conditional gradient method

Proof. The result directly follows from the definition of \( f_\eta(\cdot) \) in (7.1.23) and the fact that \( V(y) - D_v^2 \leq 0 \).

We are now ready to describe the main convergence properties of this modified CndG method to solve the bilinear saddle point problems.

**Theorem 7.2.** Let \( \{x_k\} \) and \( \{y_k\} \) be the two sequences generated by the CndG method with \( f'(y_k) \) replaced by \( f_{\eta_k}(y_k) \), where \( f_\eta(\cdot) \) is defined in (7.1.5). If the stepsize \( \alpha_k, k = 1, 2, \ldots, \) are set to (7.1.9) or (7.1.10), and \( \eta_k \) satisfies

\[
\eta_1 \geq \eta_2 \geq \ldots, \tag{7.1.26}
\]

then we have, for any \( k = 1, 2, \ldots, \)

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{2 \sqrt{2} \|A\| D_v D_f \sqrt{\sigma}}{\alpha_k}, \tag{7.1.27}
\]

In particular, if

\[
\eta_k = \frac{\|A\| D_v}{D_f \sqrt{\sigma} \alpha_k}, \tag{7.1.28}
\]

then we have, for any \( k = 1, 2, \ldots, \)

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{2 \sqrt{2} \|A\| D_v D_f \sqrt{\sigma}}{\alpha_k}, \tag{7.1.29}
\]

where \( D_v \) and \( D_f \) are defined in (7.1.18) and (7.1.22), respectively.

Proof. Let \( \Gamma_k \) and \( \gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.11) and (7.1.13), respectively. Similarly to (7.1.16), we have, for any \( x \in X, \)

\[
f_{\eta_k}(y_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f_{\eta_k}(y_{k-1})] + \gamma_k f_{\eta_k}(x) + \frac{L_{\eta_k}^2}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f_{\eta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1})] + \gamma_k f_{\eta_k}(x) + \frac{L_{\eta_k}^2}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f_{\eta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1})] + \gamma_k \|f(x) + \eta_k D_f^2\| + \frac{L_{\eta_k}^2}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2,
\]

where the second inequality follows from (7.1.26) and Lemma 7.1, and the third inequality follows from (7.1.24). Now subtracting \( f(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, we obtain, \( \forall x \in X, \)

\[
f_{\eta_k}(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f_{\eta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \gamma_k \eta_k D_f^2 + \frac{L_{\eta_k}^2}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f_{\eta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \gamma_k \eta_k D_f^2 + \frac{\|A\|^2 \sqrt{\sigma}}{\alpha_k \eta_k} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2,
\]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17, (7.1.13) and (7.1.14), then implies that, \( \forall x \in X, \)

\[
f_{\eta_k}(y_k) - f(x) \leq \frac{2 \sqrt{2} \|A\| D_v D_f \sqrt{\sigma}}{\alpha_k}, \forall k \geq 1.
\]

Our result in (7.1.27) then immediately follows from (7.1.24) and the above inequality. Now it is easy to see that the selection of \( \eta_k \) in (7.1.28) satisfies (7.1.26). By (7.1.27)
and (7.1.28), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
  f(y_k) - f^* & \leq \frac{2}{k+1} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left( i \eta_i D^2_i + \frac{\|A\|^2}{\sigma_v} \bar{D}_X^2 \right) \right] \\
  & = \frac{4\|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y}{k+1} \sqrt{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_i}{\sqrt{\sigma_v}} \leq \frac{8\sqrt{2}\|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y}{3\sqrt{\sigma_v}k},
\end{align*}
\]

where the last inequality follows from the fact that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_i}{\sqrt{\sigma_v}} \leq \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{k+1}{k+1} \right)^{3/2} \leq \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}} (k+1) \sqrt{k}.
\]  (7.1.30)

A few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.2 are in order. First, observe that the specification of \( \eta_k \) in (7.1.28) requires the estimation of a few problem parameters, including \( \|A\|, \bar{D}_X, \bar{D}_Y \) and \( \sigma_v \). However, wrong estimation on these parameters will only result in the increase on the rate of convergence of the modified CndG method by a constant factor. For example, if \( \eta_k = 1/\sqrt{k} \) for any \( k \geq 1 \), then (7.1.27) reduces to

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{8\sqrt{2}}{3\sqrt{k}} \left( D^2 + \frac{\|A\|^2 \bar{D}_X^2}{\sigma_v} \right).
\]

It is worth noting that similar adaptive smoothing schemes can also be used when one applies the accelerated gradient descent method to solve the bilinear saddle point problems. Second, suppose that the norm \( \|\cdot\| \) in the dual space associated with \( Y \) is an inner product norm and \( v(y) = \|y\|^2/2 \). Also let us denote

\[
\bar{D}_Y = \bar{D}_Y_{\|\cdot\|} := \max_{x,y \in Y} \|x - y\|.
\]  (7.1.31)

In this case, by the definitions of \( \bar{D}_Y \) and \( D_Y \) in (7.1.31) and (7.1.22), we have \( D_Y \leq \bar{D}_Y \). Using this observation and (7.1.29), we conclude that the number of iterations required by the modified CndG method to solve \( \mathcal{F}_0^{\|\cdot\|}(X,Y) \) can be bounded by

\[
O(1) \left( \frac{\|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y}{k} \right)^2.
\]

7.1.1.3 General nonsmooth problems under an LO oracle

In this subsection, we present a randomized CndG method and establish its rate of convergence for solving general nonsmooth CP problems under an LO oracle.

The basic idea is to approximate the general nonsmooth CP problems by using the convolution-based smoothing. The intuition underlying such a approach is that convolving two functions yields a new function that is at least as smooth as the smoother one of the original two functions. In particular, let \( \mu \) denote the density of a random variable with respect to Lebesgue measure and consider the function \( f_\mu \) given by

\[
f_\mu(x) = \int f \mu(x-t) dt.
\]
Then, the following statements hold for the function $f$ where $Z$ is a random variable with density $\mu$. Since $\mu$ is a density with respect to Lebesgue measure, $f_\mu$ is differentiable. The above convolution-based smoothing technique has been extensively studied in stochastic optimization. For the sake of simplicity, we assume throughout this subsection that $\| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_2$ and $Z$ is uniformly distributed over a certain Euclidean ball.

**Lemma 7.2.** Let $\xi$ be uniformly distributed over the $l_2$-ball $B_2(0,1) := \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\|_2 \leq 1 \}$ and $u > 0$ is given. Suppose that (7.1.6) holds for any $x, y \in X + uB_2(0,1)$. Then, the following statements hold for the function $f_u(\cdot)$ given by

$$f_u(x) := \mathbb{E}[f(x + u\xi)].$$

(7.1.32)

a) $f(x) \leq f_u(x) \leq f(x) + Mu$;

b) $f_u(x)$ has $M\sqrt{n}/u$-Lipschitz continuous gradient with respect to $\| \cdot \|_2$;

c) $\mathbb{E}[f'(x + u\xi)] = f'_u(x)$ and $\mathbb{E}[\|f'(x + u\xi) - f'_u(x)\|^2] \leq M^2$;

d) If $u_1 \geq u_2 \geq 0$, then $f_{u_1}(x) \geq f_{u_2}(x)$ for any $x \in X$.

**Proof.** TBD

In view of the above result, we can apply the CndG method directly to $\min_{x \in X} f_u(x)$ for a properly chosen $\mu$ in order to solve the original problem (7.1.1). The only problem is that we cannot compute the gradient of $f_u(\cdot)$ exactly. To address this issue, we will generate an i.i.d. random sample $(\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_T)$ for some $T > 0$ and approximate the gradient $f'_\mu(x)$ by $\tilde{f}'_u(x) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} f'(x, u\xi_t)$. After incorporating the aforementioned randomized smoothing scheme, the CndG method exhibits the following convergence properties for solving general nonsmooth convex optimization problems.

**Theorem 7.3.** Let $\{x_k\}$ and $\{y_k\}$ be the two sequences generated by the classic CndG method with $f'(y_{k-1})$ replaced by the average of the sampled gradients, i.e.,

$$f'_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} f'(y_{k-1} + u_k \xi_t).$$

(7.1.33)

where $f_u$ is defined in (7.1.32) and $\{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_T\}$ is an i.i.d. sample of $\xi$. If the stepsizes $\alpha_k, k = 1, 2, \ldots$, are set to (7.1.9) or (7.1.10), and $\{u_k\}$ satisfies

$$u_1 \geq u_2 \geq \ldots,$$

(7.1.34)

then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[f(y_k)] - f(x) \leq \frac{2M}{k(x+1)} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{k} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} D_X + iu_t + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\alpha_t} D_X^2 \right) \right],$$

(7.1.35)

where $M$ is given by (7.1.6). In particular, if

$$T_k = k \quad \text{and} \quad u_k = \frac{\sqrt{T_k}}{\sqrt{T_k}},$$

(7.1.36)
then
\[
\mathbb{E}[f(y_k)] - f(x) \leq \frac{4(1+2\eta^{1/4})M\bar{D}_X}{3\sqrt{k}}, k = 1, 2, \ldots. \tag{7.1.37}
\]

**Proof.** Let \( y_k \) be defined in (7.1.13), similarly to (7.1.15), we have
\[
f_{u_k}(y_k) \leq (1 - \eta)f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \eta f_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}) + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_k} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2
\]
\[
\leq (1 - \eta)f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \eta l_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}) + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_k} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2, \tag{7.1.38}
\]
where the last inequality follows from the fact that \( f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) \geq f_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}) \) due to Lemma 7.2.d. Let us denote \( \delta_k := f'_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) - f'_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}) \). Noting that by definition of \( x_k \) and the convexity of \( f_{u_k}(\cdot) \),
\[
l_{u_k}(x_k; y_{k-1}) = f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \langle f'_{u_k}(y_{k-1}), x_k - y_{k-1} \rangle
\]
\[
= f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \langle f'_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}), x_k - y_{k-1} \rangle + \langle \delta_k, x_k - y_{k-1} \rangle
\]
\[
\leq f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \langle f'_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}), x - y_{k-1} \rangle + \langle \delta_k, x_k - x \rangle
\]
\[
= f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \langle f'_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1}), x - y_{k-1} \rangle + \langle \delta_k, x_k - x \rangle
\]
\[
\leq f_{u_k}(x) + \|\delta_k\|\bar{D}_X \leq f(x) + \|\delta_k\|\bar{D}_X + Mu_k, \quad \forall x \in X,
\]
where the last inequality follows from Lemma 7.2.a), we conclude from (7.1.38) that, \( \forall x \in X \),
\[
f_{u_k}(y_k) \leq (1 - \eta)f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) + \eta f(x) + \|\delta_k\|\bar{D}_X + Mu_k + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_k} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2,
\]
which implies that
\[
f_{u_k}(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \eta)[f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \eta \|\delta_k\|\bar{D}_X + Mu_k + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_k} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2,
\]
Noting that by Jensen’s inequality and Lemma 7.2.c),
\[
\left(\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_k\|]\right)^2 \leq \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_k\|^2] = \frac{1}{T_k} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \mathbb{E}[\|f'(y_k + u_k\xi_k) - f'_{u_k}(y_k; y_{k-1})\|^2] \leq \frac{M^2}{T_k}, \tag{7.1.39}
\]
we conclude from the previous inequality that
\[
\mathbb{E}[f_{u_k}(y_k) - f(x)] \leq (1 - \eta)\mathbb{E}[f_{u_k}(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{T_k}}MD_X + Mu_k + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_k} \|y_k - y_{k-1}\|^2,
\]
which, in view of Lemma 3.17, (7.1.13) and (7.1.14), then implies that, \( \forall x \in X \),
\[
\mathbb{E}[f_{u_k}(y_k) - f(x)] \leq \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left( \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{T_i}}MD_X + Mu_i + \frac{M\sqrt{\eta}}{2\nu_i} \bar{D}_X \right) \right]
\]
The result in (7.1.35) follows directly from Lemma 7.2.a) and the above inequality. Using (7.1.30), (7.1.35) and (7.1.36), we can easily verify that the bound in (7.1.37) holds.

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.3. Firstly, note that in order to obtain the result in (7.1.37), we need to set $T_k = k$. This implies that at the $k$-th iteration of the randomized CndG method in Theorem 7.3, we need to take an i.i.d. sample $\{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k\}$ of $\xi$ and compute the corresponding gradients $\{f'(y_{k-1}, \xi_1), \ldots, f'(y_{k-1}, \xi_k)\}$. Also note that from the proof of the above result, we can recycle the generated samples $\{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_k\}$ for usage in subsequent iterations.

Secondly, observe that we can apply the randomized CndG method to solve the bilinear saddle point problems with $f$ given by (7.1.5). In comparison with the smoothing CndG method in Subsection 7.1.1.2, we do not need to solve the subproblems given in the form of (7.1.23), but to solve the subproblems

$$\max_y \left\{ \langle A(x + \xi_i), y \rangle - \hat{f}(y) : y \in Y \right\},$$

in order to compute $f'(y_{k-1}, \xi_i), i = 1, \ldots, k$, at the $k$-th iteration. In particular, if $\hat{f}(y) = 0$, then we only need to solve linear optimization subproblems over the set $Y$. To the best of our knowledge, this is the only optimization algorithm that requires linear optimization in both primal and dual space.

Thirdly, in view of (7.1.37), the number of iterations (calls to the LO oracle) required by the randomized CndG method to find a solution $\bar{x}$ such that $E[f(\bar{x}) - f^*] \leq \epsilon$ can be bounded by

$$N_{\epsilon} := O\left(1 \frac{\sqrt{\text{LD}_X^2}}{\epsilon^2} \right),$$

and that the total number of subgradient evaluations can be bounded by

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N_{\epsilon}} T_k = \sum_{k=1}^{N_{\epsilon}} k = O(1)N_{\epsilon}^2.$$

7.1.1.4 Strongly convex problems under an enhanced LO oracle

In this subsection, we assume that the objective function $f(\cdot)$ in (7.1.1) is smooth and strongly convex, i.e., in addition to (7.1.4), it also satisfies

$$f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X.$$

It is known that the optimal complexity for the general first-order methods to solve this class of problems is given by

$$O\left(1 \sqrt{\frac{\text{LD}_X^2}{\mu}} \max \left\{ \log \frac{\mu D_X}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\} \right).$$

On the other hand, the number of calls to the LO oracle for the CndG method is given by $O\left(\text{LD}_X^2 / \epsilon \right)$. 
Our goal in this subsection is to show that, under certain stronger assumptions on the LO oracle, we can somehow “improve” the complexity of the CndG method for solving these strongly convex problems. More specifically, we assume throughout this subsection that we have access to an enhanced LO oracle, which can solve optimization problems given in the form of

$$\min \{ \langle p, x \rangle : x \in X, \|x - x_0\| \leq R \} \quad (7.1.42)$$

for some given $x_0 \in X$. For example, we can assume that the norm $\| \cdot \|$ is chosen such that problem (7.1.42) is relatively easy to solve. In particular, if $X$ is a polytope, we can set $\| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_\infty$ or $\| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_1$ and then the complexity to solve (7.1.42) will be comparable to the one to solve (7.1.2). Note however, that such a selection of $\| \cdot \|$ will possibly increase the value of the condition number given by $L / \mu$. Using similar technique in Section 4.2.3, we present a shrinking CndG method under the above assumption on the enhanced LO oracle.

Algorithm 7.2 The Shrinking Conditional Gradient (CndG) Method

Let $p_0 \in X$ be given. Set $R_0 = D_X$.

for $t = 1, \ldots$ do

Set $y_0 = p_{t-1}$.

for $k = 1, \ldots, 8L / \mu$ do

Call the enhanced LO oracle to compute $x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X_{t-1}} \langle f'(y_{k-1}), x \rangle$, where $X_{t-1} := \{ x \in X : \|x - p_{t-1}\| \leq R_{t-1} \}$.

Set $y_k = (1 - \alpha_k)y_{k-1} + \alpha_kx_k$ for some $\alpha_k \in [0, 1]$.

end for

Set $p_t = y_k$ and $R_t = R_{t-1}/\sqrt{2}$.

end for

Note that an outer (resp., inner) iteration of the above shrinking CndG method occurs whenever $t$ (resp., $k$) increases by 1. Observe also that the feasible set $X_t$ will be reduced at every outer iteration $t$. The following result summarizes the convergence properties for this algorithm.

**Theorem 7.4.** Suppose that conditions (7.1.4) and (7.1.41) hold. If the stepsizes $\{ \alpha_k \}$ in the shrinking CndG method are set to (7.1.9) or (7.1.10), then the number of calls to the enhanced LO oracle performed by this algorithm to find an $\epsilon$-solution of problem (7.1.1) can be bounded by

$$\frac{8L}{\mu} \left[ \max \left( \log \frac{\mu R_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right) \right]. \quad (7.1.43)$$

**Proof.** Denote $K = 8L / \mu$. We first claim that $x^* \in X_t$ for any $t \geq 0$. This relation is obviously true for $t = 0$ since $\|y_0 - x^*\| \leq R_0 = D_X$. Now suppose that $x^* \in X_{t-1}$ for some $t \geq 1$. Under this assumption, relation (7.1.17) holds with $x = x^*$ for inner iterations $k = 1, \ldots, K$ performed at the $t$-th outer iteration. Hence, we have

$$f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{2L}{k(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \|y_i - y_{i-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{2L}{k(k+1)} R_{t-1}^2, \quad k = 1, \ldots, K. \quad (7.1.44)$$
Letting \( k = K \) in the above relation, and using the facts that \( p_t = y_K \) and \( f(y_K) - f^* \geq \mu \|y_K - x^*\|^2 / 2 \), we conclude that
\[
\|p_t - x^*\|^2 \leq \frac{3}{\mu} [f(p_t) - f^*] = \frac{2}{\mu} [f(y_K) - f^*] \leq \frac{4L}{\mu(K+1)} R_{t-1}^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} R_{t-1}^2 = R_t^2,
\]
(7.1.45)
which implies that \( x^* \in X_t \). We now provide a bound on the total number of calls to the LO oracle (i.e., the total number of inner iterations) performed by the shrinking CndG method. It follows from (7.1.45) and the definition of \( R_t \) that
\[
f(p_t) - f^* \leq \frac{\mu}{2} R_t^2 = \frac{\mu}{2} R_0^2, \quad t = 1, 2, \ldots.
\]
Hence the total number of outer iterations performed by the shrinking CndG method for finding an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (7.1.1) is bounded by \( \lceil \max(\log \mu R_0 / \varepsilon, 1) \rceil \). This observation, in view of the fact that \( K \) inner iterations are performed at each outer iteration \( t \), then implies that the total number of inner iterations is bounded by (7.1.43).

### 7.1.2 New variants of conditional gradient

Our goal in this section is to present a few new LCP methods for CP, obtained by replacing the projection (prox-mapping) subproblems with linear optimization subproblems in the accelerated gradient descent method. We will demonstrate that these methods can exhibit faster rate of convergence under certain circumstances than the original CndG method. Throughout this section, we focus on smooth CP problems (i.e., (7.1.4) holds). However, the developed algorithms can be easily modified to solve saddle point problems, general nonsmooth CP problems and strongly convex problems, by using similar ideas to those described in Section 7.1.1.

#### 7.1.2.1 Primal averaging CndG method

In this subsection, we present a new LCP method, obtained by incorporating a primal averaging step into the CndG method. This algorithm is formally described as follows.

**Algorithm 7.3** The Primal Averaging Conditional Gradient (PA-CndG) Method

Let \( x_0 \in X \) be given. Set \( y_0 = x_0 \).

for \( k = 1, \ldots \) do

Set \( z_{k-1} = \frac{k-1}{k} y_{k-1} + \frac{2}{k+1} y_k \) and \( p_k = f'(z_{k-1}) \).

Call the LO oracle to compute \( x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \langle p_k, x \rangle \).

Set \( y_k = (1 - \alpha_k) y_{k-1} + \alpha_k x_k \) for some \( \alpha_k \in [0, 1] \).

end for
It can be easily seen that the PA-CndG method stated above differs from the classic CndG method in the way that the search direction \( p_k \) is defined. In particular, while \( p_k \) is set to \( f'(x_{k-1}) \) in the classic CndG algorithm, the search direction \( p_k \) in PA-CndG is given by \( f'(z_{k-1}) \) for some \( z_{k-1} \in \text{Conv}\{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_{k-1}\} \). In other words, we will need to “average” the primal sequence \( \{x_k\} \) before calling the LO oracle to update the iterates. It is worth noting that the PA-CndG method can be viewed as a variant of the accelerated gradient descent method, obtained by replacing the projection (or prox-mapping) subproblem with a simpler linear optimization subproblem.

By properly choosing the stepsize parameter \( \alpha_k \), we have the following convergence results for the PA-CndG method described above.

**Theorem 7.5.** Let \( \{x_k\} \) and \( \{y_k\} \) be the sequences generated by the PA-CndG method applied to problem (7.1.1) with the stepsize policy in (7.1.9) or (7.1.10). Then we have

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \frac{2L}{k(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^k \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{2L \gamma^2_{k+1} x_k}{k+1}, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad (7.1.46)
\]

where \( L \) is given by (7.1.8).

**Proof.** Let \( \gamma_k \) and \( \Gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.11) and (7.1.13), respectively. Denote \( \tilde{y}_k = (1 - \gamma_k)y_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_k \). It can be easily seen from (7.1.9) (or (7.1.10)) and the definition of \( y_k \) in Algorithm 7.3 that \( f(y_k) \leq f(\tilde{y}_k) \). Also by definition, we have \( z_{k-1} = (1 - \gamma_k)y_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_{k-1} \) and hence

\[
\tilde{y}_k - z_{k-1} = \gamma_k(x_k - x_{k-1}).
\]

Letting \( I_f(\cdot, \cdot) \) be defined in (7.1.7), and using the previous two observations, (7.1.8), the definition of \( x_k \) in Algorithm 7.3, and the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \), we obtain

\[
f(y_k) \leq f(\tilde{y}_k) \leq I_f(z_{k-1}; \tilde{y}_k) + \frac{L}{2}\|\tilde{y}_k - z_{k-1}\|^2 \\
= (1 - \gamma_k)I_f(z_{k-1}; y_{k-1}) + I_f(z_{k-1}; x_k) + \frac{L}{2}\|\tilde{y}_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 \\
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)f(y_{k-1}) + I_f(z_{k-1}; x) + \frac{L}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 \\
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(x) + \frac{L}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2. \quad (7.1.47)
\]

Subtracting \( f(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, we have

\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \frac{L}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2,
\]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17, (7.1.14) and the fact that \( \gamma_1 = 1 \), then implies that, \( \forall x \in X \),

\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq I_f(1 - \gamma_k)[f(y_0) - f(x)] + \frac{L}{2}\sum_{i=1}^k \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2 \\
\leq \frac{2L}{k(k+1)} \sum_{i=1}^k \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots.
\]
We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.5. Firstly, similarly to (7.1.19), we can easily see that the number of iterations required by the PA-CndG method to find an \( \epsilon \)-solution of problem (7.1.1) is bounded by \( \Theta(1)LD_X^2/\epsilon \). In addition, since the selection of \( \| \cdot \| \) is arbitrary, the iteration complexity of this method can also be bounded by (7.1.20).

Secondly, while the rate of convergence for the CndG method (cf. (7.1.12)) depends on \( \|x_k - y_{k-1}\| \), the one for the PA-CndG method depends on \( \|x_k - x_{k-1}\| \), i.e., the distance between the output of the LO oracle in two consecutive iterations. Clearly, the distance \( \|x_k - x_{k-1}\| \) will depend on the geometry of \( X \) and the difference between \( p_k \) and \( p_{k-1} \). Let \( \gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.13) and suppose that \( \alpha_k \) is set to (7.1.9) (i.e., \( \alpha_k = \gamma_k \)). Observe that by definitions of \( z_k \) and \( y_k \) in Algorithm 7.3, we have

\[
z_k - z_{k-1} = (y_k - y_{k-1}) + \gamma_{k+1}(x_k - y_k) - \gamma_k(x_{k-1} - y_{k-1})
= \alpha_k(x_k - y_{k-1}) + \gamma_{k+1}(x_k - y_k) - \gamma_k(x_{k-1} - y_{k-1})
= \gamma_k(x_k - y_{k-1}) + \gamma_{k+1}(x_k - y_k) - \gamma_k(x_{k-1} - y_{k-1}),
\]

which implies that \( \|z_k - z_{k-1}\| \leq 3\gamma_k D_X \). Using this observation, (7.1.4) and the definition of \( p_k \), we have

\[
\|p_k - p_{k-1}\| = \|f'(z_{k-1}) - f'(z_{k-2})\| \leq 3\gamma_{k-1} LD_X.
\] (7.1.48)

Hence, the difference between \( p_k \) and \( p_{k-1} \) vanishes as \( k \) increases. By exploiting this fact, we establish in Corollary 7.1 certain necessary conditions about the LO oracle, under which the rate of convergence of the PA-CndG algorithm can be improved.

**Corollary 7.1.** Let \( \{y_k\} \) be the sequence generated by the PA-CndG method applied to problem (7.1.1) with the stepsize policy in (7.1.9). Suppose that the LO oracle satisfies

\[
\|x_k - x_{k-1}\| \leq Q\|p_k - p_{k-1}\|^\rho, \quad k \geq 2,
\] (7.1.49)

for some \( \rho \in (0, 1) \) and \( Q > 0 \). Then we have, for any \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq \Theta(1) \begin{cases}
Q^2L^{2p+1}\bar{D}_X^{2p}/\left[(1-2\rho)k^{2p+1}\right], & \rho \in (0, 0.5), \\
Q^2L^2D_X \log(k+1)/k^2, & \rho = 0.5, \\
Q^2L^{2p+1}\bar{D}_X^{2p}/\left[(2\rho - 1)k^2\right], & \rho \in (0.5, 1).
\end{cases}
\] (7.1.50)

**Proof.** Let \( \gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.13). By (7.1.48) and (7.1.49), we have

\[
\|x_k - x_{k-1}\| \leq Q\|p_k - p_{k-1}\|^\rho \leq Q(3\gamma_k L\bar{D}_X)^\rho
\]

for any \( k \geq 2 \). The result follows by plugging the above bound into (7.1.46) and noting that
The bound obtained in (7.1.50) provides some interesting insights on the relation between first-order LCP methods and the general optimal first-order methods for CP. More specifically, if the LO oracle satisfies the Hölder’s continuity condition (7.1.49) for some $\rho \in (0, 0.5]$, then we can obtain an $O(1/k^2)$ rate of convergence for the PA-CndG method for solving smooth convex optimization problems.

While these assumptions on the LO oracle seem to quite strong, we provide some examples below for which the LO oracle satisfies (7.1.49).

Example 7.1. Suppose $X$ is given by $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|Bx\| \leq 1\}$ and $f = \|Ax - b\|^2_2$. Moreover, the system $Ax - b$ is overdetermined. Then it can be seen that condition (7.1.49) will be satisfied.

It is possible to generalize the above example for more general convex sets (e.g., strongly convex sets) and for more general convex functions satisfying certain growth conditions.

7.1.2.2 Primal-dual averaging CndG methods

Our goal in this subsection is to present another new LCP method, namely the primal-dual averaging CndG method, obtained by introducing a different acceleration scheme into the CndG method. This algorithm is formally described as follows.

**Algorithm 7.4** The Primal-Dual Averaging Conditional Gradient (PDA-CndG) Method

Let $x_0 \in X$ be given and set $y_0 = x_0$.

for $k = 1, \ldots$ do

Set $z_{k-1} = \frac{1}{k+1}y_{k-1} + \frac{2}{k+1}x_{k-1}$.

Set $p_k = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i} \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i f'(z_{i-1})$, where $\theta_i \geq 0$ are given and $\Theta_k = \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i$.

Call the LO oracle to compute $x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \langle p_k, x \rangle$.

Set $y_k = (1 - \alpha_k)y_{k-1} + \alpha_k x_k$ for some $\alpha_k \in [0, 1]$.

end for

While the input vector $p_k$ to the LO oracle is set to $f'(z_{k-1})$ in the PA-CndG method in the previous subsection, the vector $p_k$ in the PDA-CndG method is defined as a weighted average of $f'(z_{i-1})$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$, for some properly chosen weights $\theta_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$. This algorithm can also be viewed as the projection-free version of an $\infty$-memory variant of the accelerated gradient descent method.

Note that by convexity of $f$, the function $\Psi_k(x)$ given by
Then, we have

\[ \Psi_k(x) := \begin{cases} 
0, & k = 0, \\
\Theta_k^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i l_f(z_i-1;x), & k \geq 1,
\end{cases} \quad (7.1.51) \]

underestimates \( f(x) \) for any \( x \in X \). In particular, by the definition of \( x_k \) in Algorithm 7.4, we have

\[ \Psi_k(x_k) \leq \Psi_k(x) \leq f(x), \quad \forall x \in X, \quad (7.1.52) \]

and hence \( \Psi_k(x_k) \) provides a lower bound on the optimal value \( f^* \) of problem (7.1.1). In order to establish the convergence of the PDA-CndG method, we first need to show a simple technical result about \( \Psi_k(x_k) \).

**Lemma 7.3.** Let \( \{x_k\} \) and \( \{z_k\} \) be the two sequences computed by the PDA-CndG method. We have

\[ \theta_k l_f(z_k-1;x_k) \leq \Theta_k \Psi_k(x_k) - \Theta_{k-1} \Psi_k(x_{k-1}), \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad (7.1.53) \]

where \( l_f(\cdot; \cdot) \) and \( \Psi_k(\cdot) \) are defined in (7.1.7) and (7.1.51), respectively.

**Proof.** It can be easily seen from (7.1.51) and the definition of \( x_k \) in Algorithm 7.4 that \( x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \Psi_k(x) \) and hence that \( \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1}) \leq \Psi_k(x_k) \). Using the previous observation and (7.1.51), we obtain

\[
\Theta_k \Psi_k(x_k) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i l_f(z_i-1;x_k) = \theta_k l_f(z_k-1;x_k) + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \theta_i l_f(z_i-1;x_k) \\
= \theta_k l_f(z_k-1;x_k) + \Theta_{k-1} \Psi_{k-1}(x_k) \\
\geq \theta_k l_f(z_k-1;x_k) + \Theta_{k-1} \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1}).
\]

We are now ready to establish the main convergence properties of the PDA-CndG method.

**Theorem 7.6.** Let \( \{x_k\} \) and \( \{y_k\} \) be the two sequences generated by the PDA-CndG method applied to problem (7.1.1) with the stepsize policy in (7.1.9) or (7.1.10). Also let \( \gamma_k \) be defined in (7.1.13). If the parameters \( \theta_k \) are chosen such that

\[ \theta_k \Theta_k^{-1} = \gamma_k, \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad (7.1.54) \]

Then, we have

\[ f(y_k) - f^* \leq f(y_k) - \Psi_k(x_k) \leq \frac{2L}{k+1} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \|x_i - x_{i-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{2L \bar{f}^2}{k+1} \quad (7.1.55) \]

for any \( k = 1, 2, \ldots, \) where \( L \) is given by (7.1.8).

**Proof.** Denote \( \tilde{y}_k = (1 - \gamma_k) y_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_k \). It follows from (7.1.9) (or (7.1.10)) and the definition of \( \gamma_k \) that \( f(y_k) \leq f(\tilde{y}_k) \). Also noting that, by definition, we have

\[ z_{k-1} = (1 - \gamma_k) y_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_{k-1} \]

and hence

\[ \tilde{y}_k - z_{k-1} = \gamma_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \].
Using these two observations, (7.1.8), the definitions of \( x_\ell \) in Algorithm 7.4, the convexity of \( f \) and (7.1.53), we obtain

\[
f(y_k) \leq f(\bar{y}_k) \leq l_f(z_{k-1}; y_{k-1}) + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - z_{k-1} \|^2
\]

and

\[
(1 - \gamma_k) l_f(z_{k-1}; y_{k-1}) + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - y_{k-1} \|^2
\]

\[
\leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - y_{k-1} \|^2
\]

\[
\leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - z_{k-1} \|^2 + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - y_{k-1} \|^2
\]

Also, using (7.1.54) and the fact that \( \theta_{k-1} = \Theta_k - \theta_k \), we have

\[
g \theta_k^{-1} [\Theta_k \Psi_k(x_k) - \Theta_{k-1} \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1})] = \Psi_k(x_k) - \Theta_{k-1} \Theta_k^{-1} \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1})
\]

\[
= \Psi_k(x_k) - (1 - \theta_k \Theta_k^{-1}) \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1})
\]

\[
= \Psi_k(x_k) - (1 - \gamma_k) \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1}).
\]

Combining the above two relations and re-arranging the terms, we obtain

\[
f(y_k) - \Psi_k(x_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) [f(y_{k-1}) - \Psi_{k-1}(x_{k-1})] + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| x_k - y_{k-1} \|^2
\]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17, (7.1.13) and (7.1.14), then implies that

\[
f(y_k) - \Psi_k(x_k) \leq \frac{2L_{\ell+1} k}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k \| x_i - x_{i-1} \|^2.
\]

Our result then immediately follows from (7.1.52) and the above inequality.

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.6. Firstly, observe that we can simply set \( \theta_k = k, k = 1, 2, \ldots \) in order to satisfy (7.1.54). Secondly, in view of the discussion after Theorem 7.5, the rate of convergence for the PDA-CndG method is exactly the same as the one for the PA-CndG method. In addition, its rate of convergence is invariant of the selection of the norm \( \| \cdot \| \) (see (7.1.20)). Thirdly, according to (7.1.55), we can compute an online lower bound \( \Psi_k(x_k) \) on the optimal value \( f^* \), and terminate the PDA-CndG method based on the optimality gap \( f(y_k) - \Psi_k(x_k) \).

Similar to the PA-CndG method, the rate of convergence of the PDA-CndG method depends on \( x_k - x_{k-1} \), which in turn depends on the geometry of \( X \) and the input vectors \( p_k \) and \( p_{k-1} \) to the LO oracle. One can easily check the closeness between \( p_k \) and \( p_{k-1} \). Indeed, by the definition of \( p_k \), we have

\[
p_k = \Theta_k^{-1} (1 - \theta_k)p_{k-1} + \theta_k f_k'(z_{k-1})
\]

where the last inequality follows from (7.1.54). Noting that by (7.1.8), we have \( \| f'(x) \|_* \leq \| f'(x^*) \|_* + L \hat{D}_X \) for any \( x \in X \) and hence that \( \| p_k \|_* \leq \| f'(x^*) \|_* + L \hat{D}_X \) due to the definition of \( p_k \). Using these observations, we obtain

\[
\| p_k - p_{k-1} \|_* \leq 2\gamma_k \| f'(x^*) \|_* + L \hat{D}_X, \quad k \geq 1.
\]
Hence, under certain continuity assumptions on the LO oracle, we can obtain a result similar to Corollary 7.1. Note that both stepsize policies in (7.1.9) and (7.1.10) can be used in this result.

**Corollary 7.2.** Let \( \{y_k\} \) be the sequences generated by the PDA-CndG method applied to problem (7.1.1) with the stepsize policy in (7.1.9) or (7.1.10). Assume that (7.1.54) holds. Also suppose that the LO oracle satisfies (7.1.49) for some \( \rho \in (0, 1] \) and \( Q > 0 \). Then we have, for any \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
f(y_k) - f^* \leq O\left(1\right) \begin{cases} LQ^2 \left[ \|f'(x_*)\|_* + L \tilde{D}_X \right]^{2\rho} / \left[(1 - 2\rho) k^{2\rho + 1}\right], & \rho \in (0, 0.5), \\ LQ^2 \left[ \|f'(x_*)\|_* + L \tilde{D}_X \log(k + 1) / k^2, & \rho = 0.5, \\ LQ^2 \left[ \|f'(x_*)\|_* + L \tilde{D}_X \right]^{2\rho} / \left((2\rho - 1) k^2\right), & \rho \in (0.5, 1]. \end{cases}
\]

Similar to Corollary 7.1, Corollary 7.2 also helps to build some connections between LCP methods and the more general optimal first-order method.

### 7.1.3 Lower complexity bound

Our goal in this section is to establish a few lower complexity bounds for solving different classes of CP problems under an LO oracle. More specifically, we first introduce a generic LCP algorithm in Subsection 7.1.3.1 and then present a few lower complexity bounds for these types of algorithms to solve different smooth and nonsmooth CP problems in Subsections 7.1.3.2 and 7.1.3.3, respectively.

#### 7.1.3.1 A generic LCP algorithm

The LCP algorithms solve problem (7.1.1) iteratively. In particular, at the \( k \)-th iteration, these algorithms perform a call to the LO oracle in order to update the iterates by minimizing a given linear function \( \langle p_k, x \rangle \) over the feasible region \( X \). A generic framework for these types of algorithms is described as follows.

**Algorithm 7.5** A generic LCP algorithm

Let \( x_0 \in X \) be given.

for \( k = 1, 2, \ldots \) do

  Define the linear function \( \langle p_k, \cdot \rangle \).

  Call the LO oracle to compute \( x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X} \langle p_k, x \rangle \).

  Output \( y_k \in \text{Conv}\{x_0, \ldots, x_k\} \).

end for

Observe the above LCP algorithm can be quite general. Firstly, there are no restrictions regarding the definition of the linear function \( \langle p_k, \cdot \rangle \). For example, if
f is a smooth function, then \( p_k \) can be defined as the gradient computed at some feasible solution or a linear combination of some previously computed gradients. If \( f \) is nonsmooth, we can define \( p_k \) as the gradient computed for a certain approximation function of \( f \). We can also consider the situation when some random noise or second-order information is incorporated into the definition of \( p_k \). Secondly, the output solution \( y_k \) is written as a convex combination of \( x_0, \ldots, x_k \), and thus can be different from any points in \( \{ x_k \} \). We will show in Sections 7.1.1 and 7.1.2 that Algorithm 8.1 covers, as certain special cases, the classic CndG method and several new LCP methods to be studied in this paper.

It is interesting to observe the difference between the above LCP algorithm and the general first-order methods for CP. One one hand, the LCP algorithm can only solve linear, rather than nonlinear subproblems (e.g., projection or prox-mapping) to update iterates. On the other hand, the LCP algorithm allows more flexibility in the definitions of the search direction \( p_k \) and the output solution \( y_k \).

### 7.1.3.2 Lower complexity bounds for smooth minimization

In this subsection, we consider a class of smooth CP problems, which consist of any CP problems given in the form of (7.1.1) with \( f \) satisfying assumption (7.1.4). Our goal is to derive a lower bound on the number of calls to the LO oracle required by any LCP methods for solving this class of problems.

In the same vein as the classic complexity analysis for CP, we assume that the LO oracle used in the LCP algorithm is resisting, implying that: i) the LCP algorithm does not know how the solution of (7.1.2) is computed; and ii) in the worst case, the LO oracle provides the least amount of information for the LCP algorithm to solve problem (7.1.1). Using this assumption, we will construct a class of worst-case instances for smooth convex optimization and establish a lower bound on the number of iterations required by any LCP algorithms to solve these instances.

**Theorem 7.7.** Let \( \varepsilon > 0 \) be a given target accuracy. The number of iterations required by any LCP methods to solve smooth convex optimization problems, in the worst case, cannot be smaller than

\[
\left\lfloor \min \left\{ \frac{n}{2}, \frac{LD^2}{4\varepsilon} \right\} \right\rfloor - 1,
\]

(7.1.60)

where \( D_X \) is given by (7.1.18).

**Proof.** Consider the CP problem of

\[
f_0^* := \min_{x \in X_0} \left\{ f_0(x) := \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x^{(i)})^2 \right\},
\]

(7.1.61)

where \( X_0 := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^{n} x^{(i)} = D, x^{(i)} \geq 0 \right\} \) for some \( D > 0 \). It can be easily seen that the optimal solution \( x^* \) and the optimal value \( f_0^* \) for problem (7.1.61) are given by
where the second identity follows from the definition of $\mathbf{e}$ vectors.

For any $k$, we have

\[ f_0(x) = \frac{kD^2}{n}. \tag{7.1.62} \]

Clearly, this class of problems belong to $\mathcal{F}_{L,||\cdot||}(X)$ with $||\cdot|| = ||\cdot||_2$.

Without loss of generality, we assume that the initial point is given by $x_0 = De_1$, where $e_1 = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)$ is the unit vector. Otherwise, for an arbitrary $x_0 \in X_0$, we can consider a similar problem given by

\[
\begin{aligned}
\min_x & \quad \left( x^{(1)} \right)^2 + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left( x^{(i)} - x_0^{(i)} \right)^2 \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad x^{(1)} + \sum_{i=2}^{n} \left( x^{(i)} - x_0^{(i)} \right) = D \\
& \quad x^{(1)} \geq 0 \\
& \quad x^{(i)} - x_0^{(i)} \geq 0, i = 2, \ldots, n.
\end{aligned}
\]

and adapt our following argument to this problem without much modification.

Now suppose that problem (7.1.61) is to be solved by an LCP algorithm. At the $k$-th iteration, this algorithm will call the LO oracle to compute a new search point $x_k$ based on the input vector $p_k$, $k = 1, \ldots$. We assume that the LO oracle is resisting in the sense that it always outputs an extreme point $x_k \in \{De_1, De_2, \ldots, De_n\}$ such that $x_k \in \text{Argmin}_{x \in X_0} \langle p_k, x \rangle$.

Here $e_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, denotes the $i$-th unit vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$. In addition, whenever $x_k$ is not uniquely defined, it breaks the tie arbitrarily. Let us denote $x_k = De_{p_k}$ for some $1 \leq p_k \leq n$. By definition, we have $y_k \in D\text{Conv}\{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_k\}$ and hence

\[ y_k \in D\text{Conv}\{e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k}\}. \tag{7.1.63} \]

Suppose that totally $q$ unit vectors from the set $\{e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k}\}$ are linearly independent for some $1 \leq q \leq k + 1 \leq n$. Without loss of generality, assume that the vectors $e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_{q-1}}$ are linearly independent. Therefore, we have

\[
\begin{aligned}
\min_{x} f_0(x) & \geq \min \left\{ f_0(x) : x \in D\text{Conv}\{e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k}\} \right\} \\
& \geq \min \left\{ f_0(x) : x \in D\text{Conv}\{e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_{q-1}}\} \right\} \\
& \geq \frac{LD^2}{q} \geq \frac{LD^2}{k+1},
\end{aligned}
\]

where the second identity follows from the definition of $f_0$ in (7.1.61). The above inequality together with (7.1.62) then imply that

\[ f_0(y_k) - f_0' \geq \frac{LD^2}{k+1} - \frac{LD^2}{n} \tag{7.1.64} \]

for any $k = 1, \ldots, n - 1$. Let us denote

\[ \bar{K} := \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2}, \frac{LD^2_{\text{So}}}{4\epsilon} \right\rfloor - 1. \]
By the definition of $D_X$ and $X_0$, and the fact that $\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_2$, we can easily see that $\overline{D}_X = \sqrt{2}D$ and hence that

$$\overline{K} = \left[ \frac{1}{2} \min \left\{ n, \frac{LD^2}{\varepsilon} \right\} \right] - 1.$$  

Using (7.1.64) and the above identity, we conclude that, for any $1 \leq k \leq \overline{K}$,

$$f_0(y_k) - f_0^* \geq \frac{LD^2}{K} - \frac{LD^2}{n} \geq \min \left\{ \frac{2LD^2}{n, LD^2/\varepsilon} \right\} - \frac{LD^2}{n}$$

$$= \frac{LD^2}{\min \{ n, LD^2/\varepsilon \} } + \left( \frac{LD^2}{\min \{ n, LD^2/\varepsilon \} } - \frac{LD^2}{n} \right) \geq \frac{LD^2}{LD^2/\varepsilon} + \left( \frac{LD^2}{n} - \frac{LD^2}{n} \right) = \varepsilon.$$

Our result then immediately follows since (7.1.61) is a special class of problems in $\mathbb{F}_{L, \|\cdot\|}(X)$.

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 7.7. First, it can be easily seen from (7.1.60) that, if $n \geq LD^2_X/(2\varepsilon)$, then the number of calls to the LO oracle required by any LCP methods for solving smooth convex optimization problems, in the worst case, cannot be smaller than $\Theta(1)LD^2_X/\varepsilon$. Second, it is worth noting that the objective function $f_0$ in (7.1.61) is actually strongly convex. Hence, the performance of the LCP methods cannot be improved by assuming strong convexity when $n$ is sufficiently large (see Section 7.1.1.4 for more discussions). This is in sharp contrast to the general first-order methods whose complexity for solving strongly convex problems depends on $\log(1/\varepsilon)$.

Comparing (7.1.60) with a few complexity bounds we obtained for the CndG, PA-CndG and PDA-CndG methods, we conclude that these algorithms achieve an optimal bound on the number of calls to the LO oracle for solving smooth convex optimization if $n$ is sufficiently large. It should be noted, however, that the lower complexity bound in (7.1.60) was established for the number of calls to the LO oracles. It is possible that we can achieve better complexity than $\Theta(1)LD^2_X/\varepsilon$ in terms of the number of gradient computations for smooth convex optimization. We will discuss this issue in more details in Section 7.2.

### 7.1.3.3 Lower complexity bounds for nonsmooth minimization

In this subsection, we consider two classes of nonsmooth CP problems. The first one is a general class of nonsmooth CP problems which consist of any CP problems given in the form of (7.1.1) with $f$ satisfying (7.1.6). The second one is a special class of bilinear saddle-point problems, composed of all CP problems (7.1.1) with $f$ given by (7.1.5). Our goal in this subsection is to derive the lower complexity bounds for any LCP algorithms to solve these two classes of nonsmooth CP problems.

It can be seen that, if $f(\cdot)$ is given by (7.1.5), then

$$\|f'(x)\|_* \leq \|A\|\overline{D}_Y, \quad \forall x \in X,$$
where $\bar{D}_Y$ is given by (7.1.18). Hence, the saddle point problems with $f$ given by (7.1.5) are a special class of nonsmooth CP problems.

Theorem 7.8 below provides lower complexity bounds for solving these two classes of nonsmooth CP problems by using LCP algorithms.

**Theorem 7.8.** Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be a given target accuracy. Then, the number of iterations required by any LCP methods to solve the problem classes with $f$ satisfying (7.1.6) and with $f$ given by (7.1.5), respectively, cannot be smaller than

$$\frac{1}{4} \min \left\{ n, \frac{M^2 \bar{D}_X^2}{2\varepsilon^2} \right\} - 1 \quad (7.1.65)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{4} \min \left\{ n, \frac{\|A\|_2^2 \bar{D}_X^2 \bar{D}_Y^2}{2\varepsilon^2} \right\} - 1, \quad (7.1.66)$$

where $\bar{D}_X$ and $\bar{D}_Y$ are defined in (7.1.18) and (7.1.31), respectively.

**Proof.** We first show the bound in (7.1.65). Consider the CP problem of

$$\hat{f}_0^* := \min_{x \in X_0} \left\{ \hat{f}(x) := M \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2} \right\}, \quad (7.1.67)$$

where $X_0 := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = D, x_i \geq 0 \right\}$ for some $D > 0$. It can be easily seen that the optimal solution $x^*$ and the optimal value $\hat{f}_0^*$ for problem (7.1.67) are given by

$$x^* = \left( \frac{D}{n}, \ldots, \frac{D}{n} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_0^* = \frac{MD}{\sqrt{n}}. \quad (7.1.68)$$

Clearly, this class of problems satisfy (7.1.6) with $\| \cdot \| = \| \cdot \|_2$. Now suppose that problem (7.1.61) is to be solved by an arbitrary LCP method. Without loss of generality, we assume that the initial point is given by $x_0 = De_1$ where $e_1 = (1, 0, \ldots, 0)$ is the unit vector. Assume that the LO oracle is resisting in the sense that it always outputs an extreme point solution. By using an argument similar to the one used in the proof of (7.1.63), we can show that

$$y_k \in D \text{Conv} \{ e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k} \}$$

where $e_{p_i}, i = 1, \ldots, k$, are the unit vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Suppose that totally $q$ unit vectors in the set $\{ e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k} \}$ are linearly independent for some $1 \leq q \leq k + 1 \leq n$. We have

$$\hat{f}_0(y_k) \geq \min_x \left\{ \hat{f}_0(x) : x \in D \text{Conv} \{ e_1, e_{p_1}, e_{p_2}, \ldots, e_{p_k} \} \right\} = \frac{MD}{\sqrt{q}} \geq \frac{MD}{\sqrt{k+1}},$$

where the identity follows from the definition of $\hat{f}_0$ in (7.1.67). The above inequality together with (7.1.68) then imply that

$$\hat{f}_0(y_k) - \hat{f}_0^* \geq \frac{MD}{\sqrt{k+1}} - \frac{LD^2}{\sqrt{n}}. \quad (7.1.69)$$
for any $k = 1, \ldots, n-1$. Let us denote

$$\bar{K} := \frac{1}{4} \left\lceil \min \left\{ \frac{M^2 D x_0^2}{2 \epsilon^2}, n \right\} \right\rceil - 1.$$ 

Using the above definition, (7.1.69) and the fact that $D x_0 = \sqrt{2} D$, we conclude that

$$\hat{f}_0(y_k) - \hat{f}^*_0 \geq \frac{MD}{\sqrt{n}} - \frac{MD}{n} \geq \frac{2MD}{\sqrt{n} \sqrt{\epsilon}} - \frac{MD}{\sqrt{n}} \geq \epsilon$$

for any $1 \leq k \leq \bar{K}$. Our result in (7.1.65) then immediately follows since (7.1.67) is a special class of problems with $f$ satisfying (7.1.6).

In order to prove the lower complexity bound in (7.1.66), we consider a class of saddle point problems given in the form of

$$\min_{x \in X_0} \max_{\|y\| \leq D} \langle x, y \rangle. \tag{7.1.70}$$

Clearly, these problems belong to $\mathcal{S}_{\|A\|}(X, Y)$ with $A = MI$. Noting that problem (7.1.70) is equivalent to

$$\min_{x \in X_0} MD \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \right)^{1/2},$$

we can show the lower complexity bound in (7.1.66) by using an argument similar to the one used in the proof of bound (7.1.65).

Observe that while the lower complexity bound in (7.1.65) is in the same order of magnitude as the one for general first-order methods to solve these problems. However, the bound in (7.1.65) holds not only for first-order LCP methods, but also for any other LCP methods, including those based on higher-order information.

In view of Theorem 7.8 and the discussions after Theorem 7.2, the CndG method when coupled with smoothing technique, is optimal for solving bilinear saddle point problems with $f$ given by (7.1.5), when $n$ is sufficiently large.

In addition, from (7.1.65) and the discussion after Theorem 7.3, we conclude that the complexity bound in (7.1.40) on the number of calls to the LO oracle is nearly optimal for general nonsmooth convex optimization due to the following facts: i) the above result is in the the same order of magnitude as (7.1.65) with an additional factor of $\sqrt{n}$, and ii) the termination criterion is in terms of expectation.

### 7.2 Conditional gradient sliding method

In the previous section, we show that the number of calls to the LO oracle performed by LCP methods cannot be smaller than $O(1/\epsilon)$ for solving smooth convex optimization problems. Moreover, it has been shown that the CndG method and a few of its variants can find an $\epsilon$-solution of (7.1.1) (i.e., a point $\hat{x} \in X$ s.t. $f(\hat{x}) - f^* \leq \epsilon$) in
at most $O(1/\varepsilon)$ iterations. Note that each iteration of the CndG method requires one call to the LO oracle and one gradient evaluation. Therefore, the CndG method requires totally $O(1/\varepsilon)$ gradient evaluations. Since the aforementioned $O(1/\varepsilon)$ bound on gradient evaluations is significantly worse than the optimal $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ bound for smooth convex optimization, a natural question is whether one can further improve the $O(1/\varepsilon)$ complexity bound associated with the CndG method.

Our main goal in this section is to show that, although the number of calls to the LO oracle cannot be improved for the LCP methods in general, we can substantially improve their complexity bounds in terms of the number of gradient evaluations. To this end, we present a new LCP algorithm, referred to as the conditional gradient sliding (CGS) method, which can skip the computation for the gradient of $f$ from time to time while still maintaining the optimal bound on the number of calls to the LO oracle. Our development has been leveraged on the basic idea of applying the CndG method to the subproblems of the accelerated gradient descent method, rather than to the original CP problem in (7.1.1) itself. As a result, the same first-order information of $f$ will be used throughout a large number of CndG iterations. Moreover, the accuracy of the approximate solutions to these subproblems is measured by the first-order optimality condition (or Wolfe gap), which allows us to establish the convergence of an inexact version of the accelerated gradient descent method. It should be noted, however that one restriction associated with the CGS method is that we need to require the norm associated with the feasible region $X$ is an inner product norm.

This section proceeds as follows. Firstly, we show that if $f$ is a smooth convex function satisfying (7.1.4), then the number of calls to the FO and LO oracles, respectively, can be bounded by $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ and $O(1/\varepsilon)$. Moreover, if $f$ is smooth and strongly convex, then the number of calls to the FO oracle can be significantly reduced to $O(\log 1/\varepsilon)$ while the number of calls to the LO oracle remains the same. It should be noted that these improved complexity bounds were obtained without enforcing any stronger assumptions on the LO oracle or the feasible set $X$.

Secondly, we consider the stochastic case where one can only have access to a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO) of $f$, which upon requests, returns unbiased estimators for the gradient of $f$. By developing a stochastic counterpart of the CGS algorithm, we show that the number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles, respectively, can be optimally bounded by $O(1/\varepsilon)$ when $f$ is smooth. In addition, if $f$ is smooth and strongly convex, then the former bound can be significantly reduced to $O(1/\varepsilon)$. Thirdly, we generalize the CGS and SCGS algorithms to solve an important class of nonsmooth CP problems that can be closely approximated by a class of smooth functions. By incorporating an adaptive smoothing technique into the conditional gradient sliding algorithms, we show that the number of gradient evaluations and calls to the LO oracle can be bounded optimally by $O(1/\varepsilon)$ and $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$, respectively.
7.2.1 Deterministic conditional gradient sliding

Our goal in this subsection is to present a new LCP method, namely the conditional gradient sliding (CGS) method, which can skip the computation for the gradient of $f$ from time to time when performing linear optimization over the feasible region $X$. More specifically, we introduce the CGS method for smooth convex problems in Subsection 7.2.1.1 and generalize it for smooth and strongly convex problems in Subsection 7.2.1.2.

7.2.1.1 Smooth convex optimization

The basic scheme of the CGS method is obtained by applying the classic conditional gradient (CndG) method to solve the projection subproblems existing in the accelerated gradient descent (AGD) method approximately. By properly specifying the accuracy for solving these subproblems, we will show that the resulting CGS method can achieve the optimal bounds on the number of calls to the FO and LO oracles for solving problem (7.1.1).

The CGS method is formally described as follows.

Algorithm 7.6 The conditional gradient sliding (CGS) method

Input: Initial point $x_0 \in X$ and iteration limit $N$.
Let $\beta_k \in \mathbb{R}_+$, $\gamma_k \in [0, 1]$, and $\eta_k \in \mathbb{R}_+$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$, be given and set $y_0 = x_0$.

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ do

\[ z_k = (1 - \gamma_k)y_{k-1} + \gamma_x_{k-1}, \quad (7.2.1) \]

\[ x_k = \text{CndG}(f'(z_k), x_{k-1}, \beta_k, \eta_k), \quad (7.2.2) \]

\[ y_k = (1 - \gamma_k)y_{k-1} + \gamma_x_{k}. \quad (7.2.3) \]

end for

Output: $y_N$.

procedure $u^+$ = CndG($g$, $u$, $\beta$, $\eta$)

1. Set $u_1 = u$ and $t = 1$.
2. Let $v$ be an optimal solution for the subproblem of

\[ V_{g,u,\beta}(u) := \max_{x \in X} (g + \beta (u - u), u - x). \quad (7.2.4) \]

3. If $V_{g,u,\beta}(u) \leq \eta$, set $u^+ = u$ and terminate the procedure.
4. Set $u_{t+1} = (1 - \alpha_t)u + \alpha_tv$ with

\[ \alpha_t = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\beta(u - u) - g}{\beta(u - u)^2} \right\}. \quad (7.2.5) \]

5 Set $t \leftarrow t + 1$ and go to step 2.

end procedure
Clearly, the most crucial step of the CGS method is to update the search point \( x_k \) by calling the CndG procedure in (7.2.2). Denoting \( \phi(x) := \langle g, x \rangle + \beta \| x - u \|^2 / 2 \), the CndG procedure can be viewed as a specialized version of the classical conditional gradient method applied to \( \min_{x \in X} \phi(x) \). In particular, it can be easily seen that \( V_{\epsilon, u, \beta}(u_t) \) in (7.2.4) is equivalent to \( \max_{x \in X} \langle \phi'(u_t), u_t - x \rangle \), which is often called the Wolfe gap, and the CndG procedure terminates whenever \( V_{\epsilon, u, \beta}(u_t) \) is smaller than the pre-specified tolerance \( \eta \). In fact, this procedure is slightly simpler than the generic conditional gradient method in that the selection of \( \alpha_t \) in (7.2.5) explicitly solves

\[
\alpha_t = \arg\min_{\alpha \in [0,1]} \phi((1 - \alpha)u_t + \alpha v_t).
\]  

(7.2.6)

In view of the above discussion, we can easily see that \( x_k \) obtained in (7.2.2) is an approximate solution for the projection subproblem

\[
\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \phi_k(x) := \langle f'(z_k), x \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} \| x - x_{k-1} \|^2 \right\}
\]  

(7.2.7)

such that

\[
\langle \phi'_k(x_k), x_k - x \rangle = \langle f'(z_k) + \beta_k(x_k - x_{k-1}), x_k - x \rangle \leq \eta_k, \quad \forall x \in X,
\]  

(7.2.8)

for some \( \eta_k \geq 0 \).

Clearly, problem (7.5.6) is equivalent to \( \min_{x \in X} \beta_k / 2 \| x - x_{k-1} + f'(z_k) / \beta_k \|^2 \) after completing the square, and it admits explicit solutions in some special cases, e.g., when \( X \) is a standard Euclidean ball. However, we focus on the case where (7.5.6) is solved iteratively by calling the LO oracle.

We now add a few comments about the main CGS method. Firstly, similarly to the accelerated gradient method, the above CGS method maintains the updating of three intertwined sequences, namely \( \{x_k\}, \{y_k\}, \) and \( \{z_k\} \), in each iteration. The main difference between CGS and the original AGD exists in the computation of \( x_k \). More specifically, \( x_k \) in the original AGD method is set to the exact solution of (7.5.6) (i.e., \( \eta_k = 0 \) in (7.5.7)), while the subproblem in (7.5.6) is only solved approximately for the CGS method (i.e., \( \eta_k > 0 \) in (7.5.7)).

Secondly, we say that an inner iteration of the CGS method occurs whenever the index \( \ell \) in the CndG procedure increments by 1. Accordingly, an outer iteration of CGS occurs whenever \( k \) increases by 1. While we need to call the FO oracle to compute the gradient \( f'(z_k) \) in each outer iteration, the gradient \( \phi'(p_t) \) used in the CndG subroutine is given explicitly by \( f'(z_k) + \beta_k(p - x_{k-1}) \). Hence, the main cost per each inner iteration of the CGS method is to call the LO oracle to solve linear optimization problem in (7.2.4). As a result, the total number of outer and inner iterations performed by the CGS algorithm are equivalent to the total number of calls to the FO and LO oracles, respectively.

Thirdly, observe that the above CGS method is conceptual only since we have not specified a few parameters, including \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \) and \( \{ \eta_k \} \), used in this algorithm.
yet. We will come back to this issue after establishing some important convergence properties for the above generic CGS algorithm.

Theorem 7.9 describes the main convergence properties of the above CGS method. More specifically, both Theorem 7.9.a) and b) show the convergence of the AGD method when the projection subproblem is approximately solved according to (7.5.7), while Theorem 7.9.c) states the convergence of the CndG procedure by using the Wolfe gap as the termination criterion.

Observe that the following quantity will be used in the convergence analysis of the CGS algorithm:

\[
\Gamma_k := \begin{cases} 
  1 & k = 1 \\
  \Gamma_{k-1}(1 - \gamma_k) & k \geq 2.
\end{cases}
\]  

(7.2.9)

Theorem 7.9. Let \( \Gamma_k \) be defined in (7.2.9). Suppose that \( \{\beta_k\} \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the CGS algorithm satisfy

\( \gamma_1 = 1 \) and \( L\gamma_k \leq \beta_k, \ k \geq 1. \)  

(7.2.10)

a) If

\[
\frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{k} \geq \frac{\beta_{k-1} \gamma_{k-1}}{k-1}, \ k \geq 2,
\]  

then for any \( x \in X \) and \( k \geq 1, \)

\[
f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \tilde{D}^2 + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\eta \gamma_i \gamma_i}{k_i},
\]  

where \( x^* \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (7.1.1) and \( \tilde{D}^2 \) is defined in (7.1.18).

b) If

\[
\frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{k} \leq \frac{\beta_{k-1} \gamma_{k-1}}{k-1}, \ k \geq 2,
\]  

then for any \( x \in X \) and \( k \geq 1, \)

\[
f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\eta \gamma_i \gamma_i}{k_i}.
\]  

(7.2.13)

(7.2.14)

c) Under the assumptions in either part a) or b), the number of inner iterations performed at the \( k \)-th outer iteration can be bounded by

\[
T_k := \left\lceil \frac{6\beta_k \gamma_k}{\eta_k} \right\rceil, \ \forall k \geq 1.
\]  

(7.2.15)

**Proof.** We first show part a). Note that by (7.2.1) and (7.2.3), we have \( y_k - z_k = \gamma_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \). By using this observation, (7.1.8) and (7.2.3) we have

\[
f(y_k) \leq f(z_k; y_k) + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \|y_k - z_k\|^2
\]

\[
= (1 - \gamma_k) f(z_k; y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(z_k; x_k) + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2
\]

\[
= (1 - \gamma_k) f(z_k; y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(z_k; x_k) + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2
\]

\[
- \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} (\beta_k - L\gamma_k) \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2
\]

\[
\leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(z_k; x_k) + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \|y_k - x_{k-1}\|^2,
\]  

(7.2.16)
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \) and (7.2.10). Also observe that by (7.5.7), we have
\[
(f'(z_k) + \beta_k (x_k - x_{k-1}), x_k - x) \leq \eta_k, \quad \forall x \in X,
\]
which implies that
\[
\frac{1}{2} \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - (x_{k-1} - x_k, x_k - x) - \frac{1}{2} \|x_k - x\|^2
\leq \frac{1}{2} \|x_k - x\|^2 + \frac{\eta_k}{k}\langle f'(z_k), x - x_k \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \|x_k - x\|^2 + \frac{\eta_k}{k}. \tag{7.2.17}
\]
Combining (7.2.16) and (7.2.17), we obtain
\[
f(y_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(z_k; x) + \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{2} (\|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2) + \eta_k \gamma_k \\
\leq (1 - \gamma_k)f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(x) + \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{2} (\|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2) + \eta_k \gamma_k, \tag{7.2.18}
\]
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \). Subtracting \( f(x) \) from both sides of the above inequality, we have
\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)[f(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{2} (\|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2) + \eta_k \gamma_k, \quad \forall x \in X.
\]
which, in view of Lemma 3.17, then implies that
\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq \frac{\eta_k (1 - \gamma_k)}{\lambda_k} [f(y_0) - f(x)] \\
+ \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{2} \Sigma_{i=1}^k (\|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_i - x\|^2) + \frac{\eta_k \Sigma_{i=1}^k \gamma_k}{\lambda_k}. \tag{7.2.19}
\]
Our result in part a) then immediately follows from the above inequality, the assumption that \( \gamma_k = 1 \), and the fact that
\[
\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} (\|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_i - x\|^2) = \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} \|x_0 - x\|^2 + \sum_{i=2}^k \left( \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} - \frac{\beta_{i-1} \eta_{i-1}}{\lambda_{i-1}} \right) \|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 - \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} \|x_k - x\|^2 \\
\leq \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} \bar{D}_X^2 + \sum_{i=2}^k \left( \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} - \frac{\beta_{i-1} \eta_{i-1}}{\lambda_{i-1}} \right) \bar{D}_X^2 = \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} \bar{D}_X^2, \tag{7.2.20}
\]
where the inequality follows from the third assumption in (7.2.11) and the definition of \( \bar{D}_X \) in (7.1.18).

Similarly, Part b) follows from (7.2.19), the assumption that \( \gamma_k = 1 \), and the fact that
\[
\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} (\|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_i - x\|^2) \leq \frac{\beta_k \eta_k}{\lambda_k} \|x_0 - x\|^2 - \frac{\beta_{i-1} \eta_{i-1}}{\lambda_{i-1}} \|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 \leq \beta_k \|x_0 - x\|^2, \tag{7.2.21}
\]
due to the assumptions in (7.2.10) and (7.2.13).

Now we show that part c) holds. Let us denote \( \phi \equiv \phi_k \) and \( \phi^* \equiv \min_{x \in X} \phi(x) \). Also let us denote
\[ \lambda_t := \frac{3}{t} \quad \text{and} \quad \Lambda_t = \frac{2}{\rho(t-1)}. \quad (7.2.22) \]

It then follows from the above definitions that

\[ \Lambda_{t+1} = \Lambda_t (1 - \lambda_{t+1}), \quad \forall t \geq 2. \quad (7.2.23) \]

Let us define \( \tilde{u}_{t+1} := (1 - \lambda_{t+1})u_t + \lambda_{t+1}v_t \). Clearly we have \( \tilde{u}_{t+1} - u_t = \lambda_{t+1}(v_t - u_t) \).

Observe that \( u_{t+1} = (1 - \alpha_t)u_t + \alpha_t v_t \) and \( \alpha_t \) is an optimal solution of (7.2.6), and hence that \( \phi(u_{t+1}) \leq \phi(\tilde{u}_{t+1}) \). Using this observation, (7.1.8) and the fact that \( \phi \) has Lipschitz continuous gradients, we have

\[ \phi(u_{t+1}) \leq \phi(\tilde{u}_{t+1}) \leq I_\phi(u_t, \tilde{u}_{t+1}) + \frac{\beta}{2} \| \tilde{u}_{t+1} - u_t \|^2 \]

\[ \leq (1 - \lambda_{t+1})\phi(u_t) + \lambda_{t+1}I_\phi(u_t, v_t) + \frac{\beta \lambda^2_{t+1}}{2} \| v_t - u_t \|^2. \quad (7.2.24) \]

Also observe that by (7.1.7) and the fact that \( v_t \) solves (7.2.4), we have

\[ I_\phi(u_t, v_t) = \phi(u_t) + \langle \phi'(u_t), v_t - u_t \rangle \leq \phi(u_t) + \langle \phi'(u_t), x - u_t \rangle \leq \phi(x) \]

for any \( x \in X \), where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( \phi(\cdot) \). Combining the above two inequalities and re-arranging the terms, we obtain

\[ \phi(u_{t+1}) - \phi(x) \leq (1 - \lambda_{t+1})[\phi(u_t) - \phi(x)] + \lambda_{t+1}\beta \sum_{j=t+1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_j^2}{\lambda_j + 1} \| v_j - u_j \|^2, \quad \forall x \in X, \quad \forall t \geq 1, \]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17, then implies that, for any \( x \in X \) and \( t \geq 1 \),

\[ \phi(u_{t+1}) - \phi(x) \leq \Lambda_{t+1}(1 - \lambda_2)[\phi(u_1) - \phi(x)] + \Lambda_{t+1} \beta \sum_{j=t+1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_j^2}{\lambda_j + 1} \| v_j - u_j \|^2 \]

\[ \leq \frac{2\beta D^2_X}{t+1}, \quad (7.2.25) \]

where the last inequality easily follows from (7.2.22) and the definition of \( D_X \) in (7.1.18). Now, let the gap function \( V_{g,u,b} \) be defined in (7.2.4). Also let us denote \( \Delta_j = \phi(u_j) - \phi^* \). It then follows from (7.1.7), (7.2.4), and (7.2.24) that for any \( j = 1, \ldots, t \),

\[ \lambda_{j+1} V_{g,u,b}(u_j) \leq \phi(u_j) - \phi(u_{j+1}) + \frac{\beta \lambda_j^2}{2} \| v_j - u_j \|^2 \]

\[ = \Delta_j - \Delta_{j+1} + \frac{\beta \lambda_j^2}{2} \| v_j - u_j \|^2. \]

Dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( \Lambda_{j+1} \) and summing up the resulting inequalities, we obtain

\[ \sum_{j=1}^{t} \frac{\lambda_{j+1}}{\Lambda_{j+1}} V_{g,u,b}(u_j) \leq -\frac{1}{\Lambda_{j+1}} \Delta_{j+1} + \sum_{j=2}^{t} \left( \frac{1}{\Lambda_{j+1}} - \frac{1}{\Lambda_j} \right) \Delta_j + \Delta_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{t} \frac{\beta \lambda_j^2}{2 \lambda_j + 1} \| v_j - u_j \|^2 \]

\[ \leq \sum_{j=1}^{t} \left( \frac{1}{\Lambda_{j+1}} - \frac{1}{\Lambda_j} \right) \Delta_j + \Delta_1 + \sum_{j=1}^{t} \frac{\beta \lambda_j^2}{2 \lambda_j + 1} D^2_X \leq \sum_{j=1}^{t} j \Delta_j + t \beta D^2_X, \]
where the last inequality follows from the definitions of $\lambda_i$ and $\Lambda_i$ in (7.2.22). Using the above inequality and the bound on $\Delta_j$ given in (7.2.25), we conclude that

$$\min_{j=1,\ldots,t} V_{g,a,b}(u_j) \sum_{i=1}^{\lambda_{j+1}} \frac{\lambda_{j+1}}{\lambda_{j+1}} V_{g,a,b}(u_j) \leq 3t \beta \bar{D}_X^2,$$

which, in view of the fact that $\sum_{j=1}^{t} \lambda_{j+1} / \Lambda_{j+1} = t(t+1)/2$, then clearly implies that

$$\min_{j=1,\ldots,t} V_{g,a,b}(u_j) \leq \frac{6t \bar{D}_X^2}{t+1}, \quad \forall t \geq 1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.26)

from which part c) immediately follows.  

Clearly, there exist various options to specify the parameters $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{\eta_k\}$ so as to guarantee the convergence of the CGS method. In the following corollaries, we provide two different parameter settings for $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{\eta_k\}$, which lead to optimal complexity bounds on the total number of calls to the FO and LO oracles for smooth convex optimization.

**Corollary 7.3.** If $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{\eta_k\}$ in the CGS method are set to

$$\beta_k = \frac{3L}{k+1}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{3}{k+2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_k = \frac{L \bar{D}_X^2}{k(k+1)}, \quad \forall k \geq 1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.27)

then for any $k \geq 1$,

$$f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{15L \bar{D}_X^2}{2(k+1)(k+2)},$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.28)

As a consequence, the total number of calls to the FO and LO oracles performed by the CGS method for finding an $\varepsilon$-solution of (7.1.1) can be bounded by $O\left(\sqrt{LD_X^2/\varepsilon}\right)$ and $O\left(\varepsilon / \bar{D}_X^2\right)$, respectively.

**Proof.** We first show Part a). It can be easily seen from (7.2.27) that (7.2.10) holds. Also note that by (7.2.27), we have

$$I_k = \frac{6}{k(k+1)(k+2)},$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.29)

and

$$\frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{I_k} = \frac{9L}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{6} = \frac{3Lk}{2},$$

which implies that (7.2.11) is satisfied. It then follows from Theorem 7.9.a), (7.2.27), and (7.2.29) that

$$f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{9L \bar{D}_X^2}{2(k+1)(k+2)} + \frac{6}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_i \gamma_i}{I_i} = \frac{15L \bar{D}_X^2}{2(k+1)(k+2)},$$

which implies that the total number of outer iterations performed by the CGS method for finding an $\varepsilon$-solution can be bounded by $N = \sqrt{15LD_X^2 / (2\varepsilon)}$. Moreover, it follows from the bound in (7.2.15) and (7.2.27) that the total number of inner
iterations can be bounded by
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} T_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( \frac{6\bar{D}_k^2}{\eta_k} + 1 \right) = 18\sum_{k=1}^{N} k + N = 9N^2 + 10N, \]
which implies that the total number of inner iterations is bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(LD_X^2/\epsilon) \).

Observe that in the above result, the number of calls to the LO oracle is not improvable in terms of their dependence on \( \epsilon, L, \) and \( \bar{D}_X \) for LCP methods. Similarly, the number of calls to the FO oracle is also optimal in terms of its dependence on \( \epsilon \) and \( L \). It should be noted, however, that we can potentially improve the latter bound in terms of its dependence on \( \bar{D}_X \). Indeed, by using a different parameter setting, we show in Corollary 7.4 a slightly improved bound on the number of calls to the FO oracle which only depends on the distance from the initial point to the set of optimal solutions, rather than the diameter \( \bar{D}_X \). This result will play an important role for the analysis of the CGS method for solving strongly convex problems. The disadvantage of using this parameter setting is that we need to fix the number of iterations \( N \) in advance.

**Corollary 7.4.** Suppose that there exists an estimate \( D_0 \geq \|x_0 - x^*\| \) and that the outer iteration limit \( N \geq 1 \) is given. If
\[ \beta_k = \frac{2L}{k+1}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad \eta_k = \frac{2LD_0^2}{Nk}, \quad (7.2.30) \]
for any \( k \geq 1 \), then
\[ f(y_N) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{6LD_0^2}{N(N+1)}. \quad (7.2.31) \]
As a consequence, the total number of calls to the FO and LO oracles performed by the CGS method for finding an \( \epsilon \)-solution of (7.1.1), respectively, can be bound by
\[ \mathcal{O} \left( D_0 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\epsilon}} \right) \quad (7.2.32) \]
and
\[ \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{LD_0^2}{\epsilon} + D_0 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\epsilon}} \right). \quad (7.2.33) \]

**Proof.** It can be easily seen from the definition of \( \gamma_k \) in (7.2.30) and \( \Gamma_k \) in (7.2.9) that
\[ \Gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)}. \quad (7.2.34) \]
Using the previous identity and (7.2.30), we have \( \beta_k \gamma_k/\Gamma_k = 2L \), which implies that (7.2.13) holds. It then follows from (7.2.14), (7.2.30), and (7.2.34) that
\[ f(y_N) - f(x^*) \leq \Gamma_k \left( LD_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\eta_i}{\Gamma_i} \right) = \Gamma_k \left( LD_0^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N} i \eta_i \right) = \frac{6LD_0^2}{N(N+1)}. \]
Moreover, it follows from the bound in (7.2.15) and (7.2.30) that the total number of inner iterations can be bounded by
The complexity bounds in (7.2.32) and (7.2.33) then immediately follow from the
previous two inequalities.

In view of the classic complexity theory for convex optimization, the bound on
the total number of calls to FO oracle in (7.2.32) is optimal for smooth convex
optimization. Moreover, in view of the complexity results established in the previous
section, the total number of calls to the LO oracle in (7.2.33) is not improvable for a
wide class of LCP methods. To the best of our knowledge, the CGS method is the
first algorithm in the literature that can achieve these two optimal bounds at the same
time.

Remark 7.1. Observe that in this section, we have assumed that the Euclidean dis-
tance function \( \| x - x_{k-1} \|^2 \) has been used in the subproblem (7.5.6). However, one
can also replace it with the more general Bregman distance
\[
V(x, x_{k-1}) := \omega(x) - \left[ \omega(x_{k-1}) + \langle \omega'(x_{k-1}), x - x_{k-1} \rangle \right]
\]
and relax the assumption that the norms are associated with the inner product,
where \( \omega \) is a strongly convex function. We can show similar complexity results as
those in Corollaries 7.3 and 7.4 under the following assumptions: i) \( \omega \) is a smooth
convex function with Lipschitz continuous gradients; and ii) in the CndG subroutine,
the objective function in (7.2.4) and the stepsizes \( \alpha_t \) in (7.2.5) are replaced by
\( g + \beta [\omega'(u_t) - \omega'(u)] \) and \( 2/(t + 1) \), respectively. However, if \( \omega \) is nonsmooth (e.g.,
the entropy function), then we cannot obtain these results since the CndG subroutine
cannot be directly applied to the modified subproblem.

7.2.1.2 Strongly convex optimization

In this subsection, we assume that the objective function \( f \) is not only smooth (i.e.,
(7.1.8) holds), but also strongly convex, that is, \( \exists \mu > 0 \) s.t.
\[
f(y) - f(x) - \langle f'(x), y - x \rangle \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \| y - x \|^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (7.2.35)
\]
Our goal is to show that a linear rate of convergence, in terms of the number of calls
to the FO oracle, can be obtained by only performing linear optimization over the
feasible region \( X \). In contrast with the shrinking conditional gradient method in the
previous section, here we do not need to enforce any additional assumptions on the
LO oracle. We also show that the total number of calls to the LO oracle is bounded by
\( O(L D_X^2 / \epsilon) \), which has been shown to be optimal for strongly convex optimization.

We are now ready to formally describe the CGS method for solving strongly
convex problems, which is obtained by properly restarting the CGS method in
Algorithm 7.6.
Algorithm 7.7 The CGS method for strongly convex problems

**Input:** Initial point \( p_0 \in X \) and an estimate \( \delta_0 > 0 \) satisfying \( f(p_0) - f(x^*) \leq \delta_0 \).

for \( s = 1, 2, \ldots \) 

Call the CGS method in Algorithm 7.6 with input 
\[ x_0 = p_{s-1} \quad \text{and} \quad N = \left\lceil \frac{2 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}}{\delta_0^2} \right\rceil, \quad (7.2.36) \]

and parameters 
\[ \beta_k = \frac{2L}{k+1}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_k = \eta_{s,k} = \frac{\mu \delta_0 2^{-s}}{\mu N_k}, \quad (7.2.37) \]

and let \( p_s \) be its output solution.

end for

In Algorithm 7.7, we restart the CGS method for smooth optimization (i.e., Algorithm 7.6) every \( \left\lceil \frac{2 \sqrt{6L/\mu}}{\delta_0^2} \right\rceil \) iterations. We say that a phase of the above CGS algorithm occurs whenever \( s \) increases by 1. Observe that \( \{ \eta_k \} \) decrease by a factor of 2 as \( s \) increments by 1, while \( \{ \beta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) remain the same. The following theorem shows the convergence of the above variant of the CGS method.

**Theorem 7.10.** Assume \((7.2.35)\) holds and let \( \{ p_s \} \) be generated by Algorithm 7.7. Then,
\[ f(p_s) - f(x^*) \leq \delta_0 2^{-s}, \quad s \geq 0. \quad (7.2.38) \]

As a consequence, the total number of calls to the FO and LO oracles performed by this algorithm for finding an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of problem (7.1.1) can be bounded by
\[ O \left\{ \frac{L \beta_s}{\varepsilon} \left[ \log_2 \max \left( 1, \frac{\delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right) \right] \right\} \quad (7.2.39) \]

and
\[ O \left\{ \frac{L \beta_s^2}{\varepsilon} + \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \left[ \log_2 \max \left( 1, \frac{\delta_0}{\varepsilon} \right) \right] \right\} \], \quad (7.2.40) \]

respectively.

**Proof.** We prove \((7.2.38)\) by using induction. This inequality holds obviously when \( s = 0 \) due to our assumption on \( \delta_0 \). Now suppose that \((7.2.38)\) holds before the \( s \)-th phase starts, i.e.,
\[ f(p_{s-1}) - f(x^*) \leq \delta_0 2^{-s+1}. \]

Using the above relation and the strong convexity of \( f \), we have
\[ \| p_{s-1} - x^* \|^2 \leq \frac{2}{\mu} [ f(p_{s-1}) - f(x^*) ] \leq \frac{4 \delta_0 2^{-s}}{\mu}. \]

Hence, by comparing the parameter settings in \((7.2.37)\) with those in \((7.2.30)\), we can easily see that Corollary 7.4 holds with \( x_0 = p_{s-1}, y_N = p_s, \) and \( D_0^2 = 4 \delta_0 2^{-s}/\mu \), which implies that
\[ f(y_s) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{6LD_0^2}{N(N+1)} = \frac{24L \delta_0 2^{-s}}{\mu N(N+1)} \leq \delta_0 2^{-s}, \]
where the last inequality follows from the definition of $N$ in (7.2.36). In order to show the bounds in (7.2.39) and (7.2.40), it suffices to consider the case when $\delta_0 > \epsilon$ (otherwise, the results are obvious). Let us denote

$$S := \left\lceil \log_2 \max \left( \frac{\delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right) \right\rceil. \quad (7.2.41)$$

By (7.2.38), an $\epsilon$-solution of (7.1.1) can be found at the $s$-th phase for some $1 \leq s \leq S$.

Since the number of calls to the FO in each phase is bounded by $N$, the total number of calls to the FO performed by Algorithm 7.7 is clearly bounded by $NS$, which is bounded by (7.2.39). Now, let $T_{s,k}$ denote the number of calls to LO required at the $k$-th outer iteration in $s$-th phase. It follows from Theorem 7.9.c) that

$$T_{s,k} \leq \frac{6\delta_k D_k^2}{\eta_k} + 1 \leq \frac{3\mu D_k^2 2^s N}{2\delta_0} + 1.$$

Therefore, the total number of calls to the LO can be bounded by

$$\sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} T_{s,k} \leq \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{3\mu D_k^2 2^s N}{2\delta_0} + NS = \frac{3\mu D_k^2 N^2}{2\delta_0} \sum_{s=1}^{S} 2^s + NS$$

$$\leq \frac{3\mu D_k^2 N^2}{2\delta_0} 2S + NS$$

$$\leq \frac{3\mu D_k^2 N^2}{2\delta_0} + NS,$$

which is bounded by (7.2.40) due to the definitions of $N$ and $S$ in (7.2.36) and (7.2.41), respectively.

In view of the classic complexity theory for convex optimization, the bound on the total number of calls to FO oracle in (7.2.39) is optimal for strongly convex optimization. Moreover, in view of the complexity results established in the previous section, the bound on the total number of calls to the LO oracle in (7.2.40) is also not improvable for a wide class of linear-optimization based convex programming methods. CGS is the first optimization method that can achieve these two bounds simultaneously.

### 7.2.2 Stochastic conditional gradient sliding method

#### 7.2.2.1 The algorithm and the main convergence results

In this section, we still consider smooth convex optimization problems satisfying (7.1.4). However, here we only have access to the stochastic first-order information about $f$. More specifically, we assume that $f$ is represented by a stochastic first-order (SFO) oracle, which, for a given search point $z_k \in X$, outputs a vector $G(z_k, \xi_k)$ s.t.

$$\mathbb{E}[G(z_k, \xi_k)] = f'(z_k), \quad (7.2.43)$$

$$\mathbb{E}[||G(z_k, \xi_k) - f'(z_k)||^2] \leq \sigma^2. \quad (7.2.44)$$
Our goal in this section is to present a stochastic conditional gradient type algorithm that can achieve the optimal bounds on the number of calls to SFO and LO oracles.

The stochastic CGS (SCGS) method is obtained by simply replacing the exact gradients in Algorithm 7.6 with an unbiased estimator computed by the SFO oracle. The algorithm is formally described as follows.

\[ \text{Algorithm 7.8 The stochastic conditional gradient sliding method} \]

This algorithm is the same as Algorithm 7.6 except that (7.2.2) is replaced by

\[ x_k = \text{CndG}(g_k, x_k, \beta_k, \eta_k). \quad (7.2.45) \]

Here,

\[ g_k := \frac{1}{B_k} \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}) \quad (7.2.46) \]

and \( G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}), j = 1, \ldots, B_k \), are stochastic gradients computed by the SFO at \( z_k \).

In the above stochastic CGS method, the parameters \( \{B_k\} \) denote the batch sizes used to compute \( g_k \). It can be easily seen from (7.2.43), (7.2.44), and (7.2.46) that

\[ \mathbb{E}[g_k - f'(z_k)] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[\|g_k - f'(z_k)\|^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2}{B_k} \quad (7.2.47) \]

and hence \( g_k \) is an unbiased estimator of \( f'(z_k) \). Indeed, letting \( S_{B_k} = \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} (G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}) - f'(z_k)) \), from (7.2.43) and (7.2.44), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}
\left[\|S_{B_k}\|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}
\left[\|S_{B_k-1} + G(z_k, \xi_{k,B_k}) - f'(z_k)\|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}
\left[\|S_{B_k-1}\|^2 + 2\langle S_{B_k-1}, G(z_k, \xi_{k,B_k}) - f'(z_k)\rangle + \|G(z_k, \xi_{k,B_k}) - f'(z_k)\|^2\right] = \mathbb{E}
\left[\|S_{B_k-1}\|^2\right] + \mathbb{E}\left[\|G(z_k, \xi_{k,B_k}) - f'(z_k)\|^2\right] = \cdots = \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} \mathbb{E}\left[\|G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}) - f'(z_k)\|^2\right] \leq B_k \sigma^2. \]

Note that by (7.2.46), we have

\[ g_k - f'(z_k) = \frac{1}{B_k} \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}) - f'(z_k) = \frac{1}{B_k} \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} \left[ G(z_k, \xi_{k,j}) - f'(z_k) \right] = \frac{1}{B_k} S_{B_k}. \]

Therefore, the second relationship in (7.2.47) immediately follows. Since the algorithm is stochastic, we will establish the complexity for finding a stochastic \( \varepsilon \)-solution, i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}) - f(x^*)] \leq \varepsilon \), as well as a stochastic \((\varepsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution, i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \text{Prob}\left\{ f(\bar{x}) - f(x^*) \leq \varepsilon \right\} \geq 1 - \Lambda \) for some \( \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( \Lambda \in (0, 1) \).

Observe that the above SCGS method is conceptual only as we have not yet specified the parameters \( \{B_k\}, \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \) and \( \{\eta_k\} \). We will come back to this issue after establishing the main convergence properties for this algorithm.

\[ \text{Theorem 7.11. Let } \Gamma_\varepsilon \text{ and } \tilde{D}_\varepsilon \text{ be defined in (7.2.9) and (7.1.18), respectively. Also assume that } \{\beta_k\} \text{ and } \{\gamma_k\} \text{ satisfy (7.2.10) and (7.2.11).} \]
7.2 Conditional gradient sliding method

a) Under assumptions (7.2.43) and (7.2.44), we have

\[
\mathbb{E} [f(y_k) - f(x^*)] \leq \mathcal{C}_c := \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \tilde{D}_k^2 + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^k \left[ \frac{\eta_k}{T^2} + \frac{\gamma \sigma^2}{2T^2 B_i (\beta_i - L_i \gamma_i)} \right], \quad \forall k \geq 1,
\]

where \(x^*\) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (7.1.1).

b) If (7.2.13) (rather than (7.2.11)) is satisfied, then the results in part a) still hold by replacing \(\beta_k \gamma_k \tilde{D}_k^2\) with \(\beta_k \Gamma_k \|x_0 - x^*\|^2\) in the first term of \(\mathcal{C}_c\) in (7.2.48).

c) Under the assumptions in part a) or b), the number of inner iterations performed at the \(k\)-th outer iterations is bounded by (7.2.15).

**Proof.** Let us denote \(\delta_{i,j} = G(z_k, \xi_{i,j}) - f'(z_k)\) and \(\delta_k \equiv g_k - f'(z_k) = \sum_{j=1}^{b_k} \delta_{i,j}/B_k\). Note that by (7.2.16) and (7.2.17) (with \(f'(z_k)\) replaced by \(g_k\), we have

\[
f(y_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(x_k) + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, x - x_k \rangle + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] + \eta_k \gamma_k - \frac{\beta_k}{2} (\beta_k - L_k \gamma_k) \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2.
\]

Using the above inequality and the fact that

\[
\langle \delta_k, x - x_k \rangle - \frac{1}{2} (\beta_k - L_k \gamma_k) \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2
\]

\[
= \langle \delta_k, x - x_{k-1} \rangle + \langle \delta_k, x_{k-1} - x_k \rangle - \frac{1}{2} (\beta_k - L_k \gamma_k) \|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2
\]

\[
\leq \langle \delta_k, x - x_{k-1} \rangle + \frac{\|\delta_k\|^2}{2(\beta_k - L_k \gamma_k)},
\]

we obtain

\[
f(y_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f(x) + \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] + \eta_k \gamma_k + \gamma_k \langle \delta_k, x - x_{k-1} \rangle + \frac{\eta_k \|\delta_k\|^2}{2(\beta_k - L_k \gamma_k)}, \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

Subtracting \(f(x)\) from both sides of (7.2.49) and using Lemma 3.17, we have

\[
f(y_k) - f(x) \leq \Gamma_k (1 - \gamma_k) f(y_{k-1}) + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^k \left\{ \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2T^2} \left[ \|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2 \right] + \frac{\eta_k \gamma_k}{T^2} \right\}
\]

\[
+ \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\gamma \sigma^2}{2T^2 B_i (\beta_i - L_i \gamma_i)} \left[ \langle \delta_i, x - x_{i-1} \rangle + \frac{\|\delta_i\|^2}{2(\beta_i - L_i \gamma_i)} \right]
\]

\[
\leq \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{2} \tilde{D}_k^2 + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\eta_k \gamma_k}{T^2} + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\gamma \sigma^2}{2T^2 B_i (\beta_i - L_i \gamma_i)} \left[ \sum_{j=1}^{b_i} B_i^{-1} \langle \delta_{i,j}, x - x_{i-1} \rangle + \frac{\|\delta_{i,j}\|^2}{2(\beta_i - L_i \gamma_i)} \right],
\]

where the last inequality follows from (7.2.28) and the fact that \(\gamma_1 = 1\). Note that by our assumptions on the SFO, the random variables \(\delta_{i,j}\) are independent of the search.
point \( x_{i-1} \) and hence \( \mathbb{E}([\delta_i, x^* - x_{i-1}]) = 0. \) In addition, relation (7.2.47) implies that \( \mathbb{E}([\delta_i]) \leq \sigma^2 / B_i. \) Using the previous two observations and taking expectation on both sides of (7.2.50) (with \( x = x^* \)), we obtain (7.2.48).

Part b) follows similarly from the bound in (7.2.21) and (7.2.50), and the proof of part c) is exactly the same as that of Theorem 7.9.c).

Now we provide a set of parameters \( \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \) and \( \{B_k\} \) which lead to optimal bounds on the number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles.

**Corollary 7.5.** Suppose that \( \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \) and \( \{B_k\} \) in the SCGS method are set to
\[
\beta_k = \frac{4L_k}{k+2}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{3}{k+2}, \quad \eta_k = \frac{L\bar{D}^2_k}{k(k+1)}, \quad \text{and} \quad B_k = \left\lceil \frac{\sigma^2 (k+2)^3}{L^2 D^2_k} \right\rceil, \quad k \geq 1. \tag{7.2.51}
\]
Under assumptions (7.2.43) and (7.2.44), we have
\[
\mathbb{E} [ f(y_k) - f(x^*) ] \leq \left( \frac{6L\bar{D}^2_k}{(k+2)^2} + \frac{9L\bar{D}^2_k}{2(k+1)(k+2)} \right), \quad \forall k \geq 1. \tag{7.2.52}
\]
As a consequence, the total number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles performed by the SCGS method for finding a stochastic \( \epsilon \)-solution of (7.1.1), respectively, can be bounded by
\[
O\left( \sqrt{\frac{LD_k}{\epsilon}} + \frac{\sigma^2 D^2_k}{\epsilon^2} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad O\left( \frac{L\bar{D}^2_k}{\epsilon} \right). \tag{7.2.53}
\]
**Proof.** It can be easily seen from (7.2.51) that (7.2.10) holds. Also by (7.2.51), \( \Gamma_k \) is given by (7.2.29) and hence
\[
\frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{\eta_k} = \frac{2L_k (k+1)}{k+2},
\]
which implies that (7.2.11) holds. It can also be easily checked from (7.2.29) and (7.2.51) that
\[
\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\eta_i y_i}{\beta_i} \leq \frac{kL\bar{D}^2_k}{2}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\gamma_i}{\beta_i} \leq \frac{kL\bar{D}^2_k}{2\sigma^2}.
\]
Using the bound in (7.2.48), we obtain (7.2.52), which implies that the total number of outer iterations can be bounded by
\[
O\left( \sqrt{\frac{LD_k}{\epsilon}} \right)
\]
under the assumptions (7.2.43) and (7.2.44). The bounds in (7.2.53) then immediately follow from this observation and the fact that the number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles are bounded by
\[
\sum_{k=1}^N B_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{\sigma^2 (k+2)^3}{L^2 D^2_k} + N \leq \frac{\sigma^2 (N+3)^3}{4L^2 D^2_k} + N,
\]
\[
\sum_{k=1}^N T_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \left( \frac{6L_k \bar{D}^2_k}{\eta_k} + 1 \right) \leq 12N^2 + 13N.
\]
Now we give a different set of parameters \( \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \) and \( \{B_k\} \), which can slightly improve the bounds on the number of calls to the SFO in terms of its dependence on \( \bar{D}_X \).

**Corollary 7.6.** Suppose that there exists an estimate \( D_0 \) s.t. \( \|x_0 - x^*\| \leq D_0 \leq \bar{D}_X \). Also assume that the outer iteration limit \( N \geq 1 \) is given. If

\[
\beta_k = \frac{3L_k}{k}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{2L^2k^2}{N_k^2}, \quad \eta_k = \frac{2\sigma^2 N (k+1)^2}{L^2 D_0}, \quad k \geq 1.
\]  

(7.2.54)

Under assumptions (7.2.43) and (7.2.44),

\[
\mathbb{E} [f(y_N) - f(x^*')] \leq \frac{8L D_0^2}{N(N+1)^2}, \quad \forall N \geq 1.
\]  

(7.2.55)

As a consequence, the total number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles performed by the SCGS method for finding a stochastic \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (7.1.1), respectively, can be bounded by

\[
O \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{L D_0^2}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{\sigma^2 D_0^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad O \left\{ \frac{L D_0^2}{\varepsilon} \right\}.
\]  

(7.2.56)

**Proof.** It can be easily seen from (7.2.54) that (7.10) holds. Also by (7.2.54), \( \Gamma_k \) is given by (7.2.34) and hence

\[
\frac{\beta_k \Gamma_k}{\eta_k} = 3L,
\]

which implies that (7.2.13) holds. It can also be easily checked from (7.2.34) and (7.2.54) that

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\eta_i}{T_i} \leq 2LD_0^2, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\eta_i}{i \Gamma_i (\eta_i - \gamma_i)} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\eta (i+1)}{i \Gamma_i} \leq \frac{LD_0^2}{\sigma^2}.
\]

Using the bound in (7.2.48) (with \( \beta_k \gamma_k \bar{D}_X^2 \) replaced by \( \beta_1 \Gamma_1 D_0^2 \) in the definition of \( \mathcal{C}_\varepsilon \)), we obtain (7.2.55), which implies that the total number of outer iterations can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L D_0^2}{\varepsilon}} \right)
\]

under the assumptions (7.2.43) and (7.2.44). The bounds in (7.2.56) then immediately follow from this observation and the fact that the total number calls to the SFO and LO are bounded by

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} B_k \leq N \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\sigma^2 (k+1)^2}{L^2 D_0} + N \leq \frac{\sigma^2 N (N+1)^3}{3L^2 D_0} + N,
\]

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} T_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{6\beta_k \Gamma_k^2}{\eta_k} + N \leq \frac{9\beta_1 D_0^2}{D_0} + N.
\]  

According to the complexity bounds in Corollaries 7.5 and 7.6, the total number of calls to the SFO oracle can be bounded by \( O(1/\varepsilon^2) \), which is optimal in view...
of the classic complexity theory for stochastic convex optimization. Moreover, the total number of calls to the LO oracle can be bounded by $O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$, which is the same as the CGS method for deterministic smooth convex optimization and hence not improvable for a wide class of LCP methods.

In view of the results in Corollary 7.6, we can present an optimal algorithm for solving stochastic strongly convex problems, similarly to the deterministic case.

**Algorithm 7.9** The stochastic CGS method for solving strongly convex problems

**Input:** Initial point $p_0 \in X$ and an estimate $\delta_0 > 0$ satisfying $f(p_0) - f(x^*) \leq \delta_0$.

**for** $s = 1, 2, \ldots$

Call the stochastic CGS method in Algorithm 7.8 with input $x_0 = p_{s-1}$ and $N = \left\lceil \frac{4 \sqrt{2}}{\mu} \right\rceil$, \hspace{1cm} (7.2.57)

and parameters

$\beta_k = \frac{3L_k}{\mu}, \> \gamma_k = \frac{2k + 1}{k + 1}, \> \eta_k = \eta_{1,k} := \frac{8k \delta_2^{-s-k}}{\mu \varepsilon}, \> \text{and} \> B_k = B_{1,k} := \left\lceil \frac{\mu \sigma^2 N(k+1)^2}{4L^2 \delta_0^2 \varepsilon^2} \right\rceil$, \hspace{1cm} (7.2.58)

and let $p_s$ be its output solution. \hspace{1cm} **end for**

The main convergence properties of Algorithm 7.9 are described as follows.

**Theorem 7.12.** Assume that (7.2.35) holds and let $\{p_s\}$ be generated by Algorithm 7.9. Then,

$\mathbb{E}[f(p_s) - f(x^*)] \leq \delta_0 2^{-s}, \> s \geq 0$. \hspace{1cm} (7.2.59)

As a consequence, the total number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles performed by this algorithm for finding a stochastic $\varepsilon$-solution of problem (7.1.1) can be bounded by

$O\left\{ \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon} + \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \left\lceil \log_2 \max \left(1, \frac{\delta_0}{\varepsilon}\right) \right\rceil \right\}$ \hspace{1cm} (7.2.60)

and

$O\left\{ \frac{16\delta_2}{\varepsilon} + \frac{L}{\mu} \left\lceil \log_2 \max \left(1, \frac{\delta_0}{\varepsilon}\right) \right\rceil \right\}$, \hspace{1cm} (7.2.61)

respectively.

**Proof.** In view of Corollary 7.6, (7.2.59) can be proved in a way similar to (7.2.38). It now remains to show the bounds in (7.2.60) and (7.2.61), respectively, for the total number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles. It suffices to consider the case when $\delta_0 > \varepsilon$, since otherwise the results are obvious. Let us denote

$S := \left\lceil \log_2 \max \left(\frac{\delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1\right) \right\rceil$. \hspace{1cm} (7.2.62)

By (7.2.59), a stochastic $\varepsilon$-solution of (7.1.1) can be found at the $s$-th phase for some $1 \leq s \leq S$. Since the number of calls to the SFO oracle in each phase is bounded by
7.2 Conditional gradient sliding method

N, the total number of calls to the SFO oracle can be bounded by

\[ \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} B_k \leq \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( \frac{\mu \sigma^2 N (k+1)^2}{4L^2 \delta_0^2 s} + 1 \right) \]

\[ \leq \frac{\mu \sigma^2 N (N+1)^3}{12L^2 \delta_0^2} \sum_{s=1}^{S} 2^s + SN \leq \frac{\mu \sigma^2 N (N+1)^3}{3L^2 \varepsilon} + SN. \]

Moreover, let \( T_{s,k} \) denote the number of calls to LO oracle required at the k-th outer iteration in s-th phase of the stochastic CGS method. It follows from Theorem 7.9.c) that

\[ T_{s,k} \leq \frac{6 \mu \bar{D}_X^2}{\eta_{k,s}} + 1 \leq \frac{9 \mu \bar{D}_X^2 2^s N}{4 \delta_0} + 1. \]

Therefore, the total number of calls to the LO oracle can be bounded by

\[ \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} T_{s,k} \leq \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{9 \mu \bar{D}_X^2 2^s N}{4 \delta_0} + NS = \frac{9}{4} \mu \bar{D}_X^2 N^2 \delta_0^{-1} \sum_{s=1}^{S} 2^s + NS \]

\[ \leq \frac{9}{4} \mu \bar{D}_X^2 N^2 + NS \]

which is bounded by (7.2.40) due to the definitions of \( N \) and \( S \) in (7.2.57) and (7.2.62), respectively.

According to Theorem 7.12, the total number of calls to the SFO oracle can be bounded by \( O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right) \), which is optimal in view of the classic complexity theory for strongly convex stochastic optimization. Moreover, the total number of calls to the LO oracle can be bounded by \( O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right) \), which is the same as the deterministic CGS method for strongly convex optimization and not improvable for a wide class of LCP methods discussed in the previous section.

7.2.2.2 The large deviation results

For the sake of simplicity, in this subsection we only consider smooth convex optimization problems rather than strongly convex problems. In order to develop some large deviation results associated with the aforementioned optimal complexity bounds, we need to make some assumptions about the objective function values and its estimator, \( F(x, \xi) \), given by the SFO. More specifically, we assume that

\[ \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)] = f(x), \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}\left[ \exp\left\{ (F(x, \xi) - f(x))^2 / M^2 \right\} \right] \leq \exp\{1\} \quad (7.2.63) \]

for some \( M \geq 0 \).

We now propose a variant of the SCGS method which has some desirable large deviation properties. Similar to the 2-RSPG algorithm in Section 6.2, this method consists of two phases: an optimization phase and a post-optimization phase. In the optimization phase, we restart the SCGS algorithm for a certain number of times to generate a list of candidate solutions, and in the post-optimization phase, we choose a solution \( \hat{x} \) from this list according to a certain rule.
Algorithm 7.10 A two phase SCGS (2-SCGS) algorithm

**Input:** Initial point \( x_0 \in X \), number of restart times \( S \), iteration limit \( N \), and the sample size \( K \) in the post-optimization phase.

**Optimization phase:**

1. Call the SCGS algorithm with iteration limit \( N \), and the initial point \( x_{i-1} \), where \( x_i = x_{N_i} \), \( s = 1, \ldots, S \), are the outputs of the \( s \)-th run of the SCGS algorithm.

**Post-optimization phase:**

Let \( \{ \bar{x}_s \}_{s=1}^S \), be the output list of candidate solutions.

Choose a solution \( \hat{x} \) from the candidate list \( \{ x_1, \ldots, x_S \} \) such that

\[
\hat{x} = \arg\min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) \},
\]

(7.2.64)

where \( \hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=1}^K f(x, \xi_j) \).

---

Now we are ready to state the large deviation results obtained for the above 2-SCGS algorithm.

**Theorem 7.13.** Assuming that \( \{ \beta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) satisfy (7.2.10) and (7.2.11), under assumption (7.2.63), we have

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ f(\hat{x}) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{2\sqrt{2(1+\lambda)M}}{\sqrt{K}} + 2\epsilon \gamma \right\} \leq \text{Exp} \left\{ -\lambda^2/3 \right\} + 2^{-S},
\]

(7.2.65)

where \( \hat{x} \) is the output of the 2-SCGS algorithm, \( x^* \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (7.1.1), and \( \epsilon \gamma \) is defined in (7.2.48).

**Proof.** It follows from the definition of \( \hat{x} \) in (7.2.64) that

\[
\hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x^*) = \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \}
\]

\[
= \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s) + f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \}
\]

\[
\leq \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ \| \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s) \| + f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \}
\]

\[
\leq \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} |\hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s)| + \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \},
\]

which implies that

\[
f(\hat{x}) - f(x^*) = f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}) + \hat{f}(\hat{x}) - f(x^*)
\]

\[
\leq f(\hat{x}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}) + \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} |\hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s)| + \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \}
\]

\[
\leq 2 \max_{s=1,\ldots,S} |\hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s)| + \min_{s=1,\ldots,S} \{ f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \}.
\]

(7.2.66)

Note that by the Markov’s inequality and (7.2.48), we obtain

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \geq 2\epsilon \gamma \right\} \leq \frac{E[|f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*)|]}{2\epsilon \gamma} \leq \frac{1}{2}, \; \forall s = 1, \ldots, S.
\]

(7.2.67)
Let $E_s$ be the event that $f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \geq 2\epsilon$, note that due to the boundedness of $X$, and the above observation, we have

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \bigcap_{j=1}^{s-1} E_j \right\} \leq \frac{1}{2}, s = 1, \ldots, S,$$

which then implies that

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \min_{s=1}^{S} \left[ f(\bar{x}_s) - f(x^*) \right] \geq 2\epsilon \right\} = \operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \bigcap_{s=1}^{S} E_s \right\} = \prod_{s=1}^{S} \operatorname{Prob}\left\{ E_s \right\} \leq 2^{-S}. \quad (7.2.68)$$

By assumption (7.2.63) and Lemma 4.1, it is clear that

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \left| \sum_{j=1}^{K} [F(\bar{x}_s, \xi_j) - f(\bar{x}_s)] \right| \geq \sqrt{2(1 + \lambda)\sqrt{KM^2}} \right\} \leq \exp\left\{ -\lambda^2/3 \right\}, \ s = 1, \ldots, S,$$

which implies

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \left| \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s) \right| \geq \frac{\sqrt{2(1 + \lambda)M}}{\sqrt{K}} \right\} \leq \exp\left\{ -\lambda^2/3 \right\}, \ s = 1, \ldots, S.$$

Therefore, we obtain

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left\{ \max_{s=1}^{S} \left| \hat{f}(\bar{x}_s) - f(\bar{x}_s) \right| \geq \frac{\sqrt{2(1 + \lambda)M}}{\sqrt{K}} \right\} \leq S \exp\left\{ -\lambda^2/3 \right\}. \quad (7.2.69)$$

Our result in (7.2.65) directly follows from (7.2.66), (7.2.68) and (7.2.69).

Now we state a set of parameters $S, N, K$, and the associated bounds on the number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles.

**Corollary 7.7.** Suppose that parameters $\{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{B_k\}$ in the 2-SCGS method are set as in (7.2.51) for each run of SCGS algorithm. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and $\Lambda \in (0, 1)$ be given, parameters $S, N, K$ are set to

$$S(\Lambda) := \left\lfloor \log_2 \left( \frac{2}{\Lambda} \right) \right\rfloor, \quad N(\epsilon) := \left\lceil \sqrt{\frac{32LD^2}{\epsilon}} \right\rceil, \quad \text{and} \quad K(\epsilon, \Lambda) := \left\lceil \frac{32(1 + \lambda)^2M^2}{\epsilon^2} \right\rceil,$$

where $\lambda = \sqrt{3\ln(2S/\Lambda)}$, then the total number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles performed by the 2-SCGS method in the optimization phase to compute a stochastic $(\epsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of the problem (7.1.1), respectively, can be bounded by

$$O\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{LD^2}{\epsilon}} \log_2 \frac{2}{\Lambda} + \frac{\sigma^2D^2}{\epsilon^2} \log_2 \frac{2}{\Lambda} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad O\left\{ \frac{LD^2}{\epsilon} \log_2 \frac{2}{\Lambda} \right\}. \quad (7.2.71)$$

**Proof.** By Corollary 7.5, we have
466 7 Projection-free Methods

g_e \leq \frac{21L\bar{D}_2^2}{2(N+1)^2},

together with the definition of $S$, $N$ and $K$ in (7.2.70), (7.2.65), and $\lambda = \sqrt{3\ln(2S/\Lambda)}$,

we have

\[ \text{Prob}\{f(\hat{x}) - f(x^*) \geq \varepsilon\} \leq \Lambda, \]

i.e. $\hat{x}$ is a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \Lambda)$-solution of problem (7.1.1). Moreover, we obtain from

Corollary 7.5 that the bounds for the number of calls to the SFO and LO oracles for each run of SCGS algorithm as (7.2.53), which immediately implies the bounds in (7.2.71), as we restart the SCGS algorithm in 2-SCGS method $S$ times.

7.2.3 Generalization to saddle point problems

In this section, we consider an important class of saddle point problems with $f$ given in the form of:

\[ f(x) = \max_{y \in Y} \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{f}(y) \}, \quad (7.2.72) \]

where $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ denotes a linear operator, $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ is a convex compact set, and $\hat{f}: Y \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a simple convex function. Since the objective function $f$ given in (7.2.72) is nonsmooth, we cannot directly apply the CGS method presented in the previous section. However, as discussed in the previous section, the function $f(\cdot)$ in (7.2.72) can be closely approximated by a class of smooth convex functions

\[ f_\tau(x) := \max_y \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - \hat{f}(y) - \tau [V(y) - D_2^2] : y \in Y \} \]

for some $\tau > 0$.

In this subsection, we assume that the feasible region $Y$ and the function $\hat{f}$ are simple enough, so that the subproblem in (7.2.73) is easy to solve, and as a result, the major computational cost for computing the gradient of $f_\tau$ exists in the evaluation of the linear operator $A$ and its adjoint operator $A^T$. Our goal is to present a variant of the CGS method, which can achieve the optimal bounds on the number of calls to the LO oracle and the number of evaluations for the linear operator $A$ and $A^T$.

**Algorithm 7.11** The CGS method for solving saddle point problems

This algorithm is the same as Algorithm 7.6 except that (7.2.2) is replaced by

\[ x_k = \text{CndG}(f'_\tau(z_k), x_{k-1}, \beta_k, \eta_k), \quad (7.2.74) \]

for some $\tau_k \geq 0$.

We now ready to describe the main convergence properties of this modified CGS method to solve the saddle point problem in (7.1.1)-(7.2.72).
Theorem 7.14. Suppose that \( \tau_1 \geq \tau_2 \geq \ldots \geq 0 \). Also assume that \( \{\beta_k\} \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) satisfy (7.2.10) (with \( L \) replaced by \( L_{\tau_k} \)) and (7.2.11). Then,

\[
f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{\beta_k}{2}D_x^2 + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_i}{T_i} (\eta_i + \tau_i D^2), \quad \forall k \geq 1,
\]

where \( x^* \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (7.1.1)-(7.2.72). Moreover, the number of inner iterations performed at the \( k \)-th outer iteration can be bounded by (7.2.15).

Proof. First, observe that by the definition of \( f_\tau(\cdot) \) in (7.2.73), and the facts that \( V(y) - D^2 \leq 0 \) and \( \tau_{k-1} \geq \tau_k \), we have

\[
f_{\tau_{k-1}}(x) \geq f_\tau(x) \quad \forall x \in X, \quad \forall k \geq 1.
\]

Applying relation (7.2.18) to \( f_\tau \) and using (7.2.76), we obtain

\[
f_\tau(y_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) f_\tau(y_{k-1}) + \gamma_k f_\tau(x) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} (\|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2) + \eta_k \gamma_k
\]

for any \( x \in X \), where the second inequality follows from (7.1.24) and (7.2.76). Subtracting \( f(x) \) from the both sides of the above inequality, we have

\[
f_\tau(y_k) - f(x) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) [f_{\tau_{k-1}}(y_{k-1}) - f(x)] + \frac{\beta_k}{2} (\|x_{k-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_k - x\|^2) + \eta_k \gamma_k + \gamma_k \tau_k D^2
\]

for any \( x \in X \), which, in view of Lemma 3.17 and (7.2.20), then implies that

\[
f_\tau(y_k) - f(x) \leq \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_i}{2} (\|x_{i-1} - x\|^2 - \|x_i - x\|^2) + \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_i}{T_i} (\eta_i + \tau_i D^2)
\]

Our result in (7.2.75) then immediately follows from the above relation and the fact that \( f_\tau(y_k) \geq f(y_k) \) due to (7.1.24). The last part of our claim easily follows from Theorem 7.9.c.

We now provide two sets of parameters for \( \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{\eta_k\} \), and \( \{\tau_k\} \) which can guarantee the optimal convergence of the above variant of CGS method for saddle point optimization.

Corollary 7.8. Assume the outer iteration limit \( N \geq 1 \) is given. If

\[
\tau_k \equiv \tau = \frac{2 \|\partial_x f\|_{D^2}}{D^2 \sqrt{\|x\|_N}}, \quad k \geq 1,
\]

and \( \{\beta_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \) and \( \{\eta_k\} \) used in Algorithm 7.11 are set to

\[
\beta_k = \frac{\gamma_k}{k+1}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{1}{k+2}, \text{ and } \eta_k = \frac{\tau_{\gamma} D^2_k}{k}, \quad k \geq 1,
\]
then the number of linear operator evaluations (for $A$ and $A^T$) and the number of calls to the LO oracle performed by Algorithm 7.11 for finding an $\epsilon$-solution of problem (7.1.1)-(7.2.72), respectively, can be bounded by

$$O \left\{ \frac{\|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y \sqrt{\sigma_v \epsilon}}{\epsilon^2} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad O \left\{ \frac{\|A\|^2 \bar{D}_X^2 \bar{D}_Y^2}{\sigma_v \epsilon^2} \right\}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.80)

**Proof.** Observe that $\Gamma_k$ is given by (7.2.29) due to the definition of $\gamma_k$ in (7.2.79).

By (7.2.29) and (7.2.79), we have

$$\beta_k \gamma_k = L_{\tau} \left( \frac{k+2}{k+1} \right) \geq L_{\tau},$$

and

$$\beta_k \gamma_k \Gamma_k = \frac{3 L_{\tau} k^2}{2} \geq \frac{\beta_k - 1}{\Gamma_k - 1}.$$

The above results indicate that the assumptions in Theorem 7.14 are satisfied. It then follows from Theorem 7.14, (7.2.78), and (7.2.79) that

$$f(y_N) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{9 L_{\tau} \bar{D}_X^2}{2(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{6}{N(N+1)(N+2)} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ \frac{L_{\tau} \bar{D}_X^2}{2} + \frac{2 \|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y \sqrt{\sigma_v N}}{2} \right] i(i+1) \leq \frac{69 \|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y \sqrt{\sigma_v (N+2)}}{4 \sqrt{\sigma_v (N+1)(N+2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} N \leq 9 \|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y \sqrt{\sigma_v N},$$

where the second inequality follows from the definition of $L_{\tau}$ in (8.1.93). Moreover, it follows from (7.2.15) and (7.2.79) that the total number of calls to the LO oracle can be bounded by

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} T_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( \frac{18 L_{\tau} \bar{D}_X^2}{k+1} \frac{k^2 \bar{D}_X^2}{\bar{D}_Y^2} + 1 \right) \leq \frac{18(N+1)N}{2} + N \leq 9N^2 + 10N.$$

The bounds in (7.2.80) then immediately follow from the previous two conclusions.

In the above result, we used a static smoothing technique, in which we need to fix the number of outer iterations $N$ in advance for obtaining a constant $\tau_k$ in (7.2.78). We now state a dynamic parameter setting for $\tau_k$ so that the number of outer iterations $N$ need not to be given a priori.

**Corollary 7.9.** Suppose that parameter $\{\tau_k\}$ is now set to

$$\tau_k = \frac{3 \|A\| \bar{D}_X \bar{D}_Y \sqrt{\sigma_v}}{2 \sqrt{\epsilon}}, \quad k \geq 1,$$  \hspace{1cm} (7.2.81)

and the parameters $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{\eta_k\}$ used in Algorithm 7.11 are set as in (7.2.79).

Then, the number of linear operator evaluations (for $A$ and $A^T$) and the number of calls to the LO oracle performed by Algorithm 7.11 for finding an $\epsilon$-solution of problem (7.1.1)-(7.2.72), respectively, can also be bounded by (7.2.80).

**Proof.** Note that $\gamma_k$ is defined in (7.2.79), and hence that $\Gamma_k$ is given by (7.2.29). We have
We can solve this stochastic saddle point problem by replacing (7.2.74) with

\[ \frac{\beta_k}{k} \geq \mathcal{L}_{\gamma_k}, \]

and

\[ \frac{\beta_k}{k} = \frac{3\mathcal{L}_{\gamma_k}}{2} = \frac{3\|A\|D_k k^2}{4\sqrt{\sigma} D_k} \geq \frac{\beta_{k-1} \eta_{k-1}}{k-1}. \]

Therefore, the assumptions in Theorem 7.14 are satisfied. It then follows from Theorem 7.14, (7.2.79), and (7.2.81) that

\[ f(y_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{9\mathcal{L}_{\gamma_k} D_k^2}{2(k+1)(k+2)} + \frac{6}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left[ \mathcal{L}_{\gamma_i} D_i^2 \eta_i^2 - \frac{2\|A\|D_k D_{y_k}}{\sqrt{\sigma} D_k} i(i+1) \right] \]

where the second inequality follows from the definition of \( \mathcal{L}_{\gamma_k} \) in (8.1.93). Similarly to the proof in Corollary 7.8, we can show that the total number of calls to the LO oracle in \( N \) outer iterations can be bounded by \( \mathcal{O}(N^2) \). The bounds in (7.2.80) then immediately follow.

Observe that the \( \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon) \) bound on the total number of operator evaluations is not improvably for solving the saddle point problems in (7.1.1)-(7.2.72). Moreover, the \( \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^2) \) bound on the total number of calls to the LO is also optimal for the LCP methods for solving the saddle point problems in (7.1.1)-(7.2.72).

We now turn our attention to stochastic saddle point problems for which only stochastic gradients of \( f \) are available. In particular, we consider the situation when the original objective function \( f \) in (7.1.1) is given by

\[ f(x) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \max_{y \in F} \langle A \xi, x \rangle - f(y, \xi) \right], \tag{7.2.82} \]

where \( f(y, \xi) \) is simple concave function for all \( \xi \in \Xi \) and \( A \xi \) is a random linear operator such that

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \|A \xi\|^2 \right] \leq L_A^2 \tag{7.2.83} \]

We can solve this stochastic saddle point problem by replacing (7.2.74) with

\[ x_k = \text{CndG}(g_k, x_{k-1}, \beta_k, \eta_k) \quad \text{where} \quad g_k = \frac{1}{B_k} \sum_{j=1}^{B_k} F'(z_k, \xi_j) \tag{7.2.84} \]

for some \( \tau_k \geq 0 \) and \( B_k \geq 1 \). By properly specifying \( \{\beta_k\} \), \( \{\eta_k\} \), \( \{\tau_k\} \), and \( \{B_k\} \), we can show that the number of linear operator evaluations (for \( A \xi \) and \( A \xi^2 \)) and the number of calls to the LO performed by this variant of CGS method for finding a stochastic \( \epsilon \)-solution of problem (7.1.1)-(7.2.82) can be bounded by

\[ \mathcal{O} \left\{ \frac{\|A\|^2 D_k^2 \bar{D}_{x_k}^2}{\epsilon^2 \tau_k^2} \right\}. \tag{7.2.85} \]

This result can be proved by combining the techniques in Section 7.2.2 and those in Theorem 7.14. However, we skip the details of these developments for the sake of simplicity.
7.3 Nonconvex conditional gradient method

In this section, we consider the conditional gradient method applied to solve the following nonconvex optimization problem

\[ f^* \equiv \min_{x \in X} f(x). \]  

(7.3.1)

Here \( X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \) is a compact convex set and \( f \) is differentiable but not necessarily convex. Moreover, we assume that the gradients of \( f \) satisfy

\[ \| \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y) \|_* \leq L \| x - y \|, \forall x, y \in X \]  

(7.3.2)

for a given norm \( \| \cdot \| \) in \( \mathbb{R}^n \), where \( \| \cdot \|_* \) denotes the conjugate norm of \( \| \cdot \| \).

For a given \( \bar{x} \in X \), we evaluate its accuracy using the Wolfe gap given by

\[ \text{gap}(\bar{x}) := \max_{x \in X} \langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{x} - x \rangle. \]  

(7.3.3)

Clearly, \( \bar{x} \in X \) satisfies the first-order optimality condition for (7.3.1) if and only if \( \text{gap}(\bar{x}) = 0 \).

We study the convergence behavior of the conditional gradient method presented in Algorithm 7.1 for solving (7.3.1).

**Theorem 7.15.** Let \( \{y_t^k\}_{t=0}^k \) be generated by the conditional gradient method in Algorithm 7.1 applied to (7.3.1). Then we have

\[ \min_{t=0, \ldots, k} \\text{gap}(y_{t-1}) \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{t=1}^k \alpha_t} \left[ f(y_0) - f^* + \frac{L\bar{D}_X^2}{2} \sum_{t=1}^k \alpha_t^2 \right]. \]  

(7.3.4)

In particular, if \( k \) is given in advance and \( \alpha_t = \theta / \sqrt{k}, t = 1, \ldots, k, \) for some \( \theta > 0 \), then

\[ \min_{t=0, \ldots, k} \\text{gap}(y_{t-1}) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \left[ \frac{f(y_0) - f^*}{\theta} + \frac{\theta \bar{D}_X^2}{2} \right], \]  

(7.3.5)

where \( \bar{D}_X := \max_{x, y \in X} \| x - y \| \).

**Proof.** Using the smoothness property of \( f \), the fact that \( y_k = (1 - \alpha_k)y_{k-1} + \alpha_k x_k \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
    f(y_k) &\leq f(y_{k-1}) + \langle \nabla f(y_{k-1}), y_k - y_{k-1} \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| y_k - y_{k-1} \|^2 \\
    &= f(y_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \langle f(y_{k-1}, x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L\alpha_k^2}{2} \| x_k - y_{k-1} \|^2 \\
    &\leq f(y_{k-1}) + \alpha_k \langle f(y_{k-1}, x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L\alpha_k^2}{2} \bar{D}_X^2 \end{align*}
\]

for any \( k \geq 1 \) Summing up the above inequalities and rearranging the terms, we conclude that

\[ \sum_{t=1}^k \alpha_t \text{gap}(y_{t-1}) = \sum_{t=1}^k (\alpha_t \langle f(y_{t-1}, x_k - y_{t-1}) \rangle) \]
\[ f(y_0) - f(y_k) \leq f(y_0) - f^* + \frac{L\bar{D}_X^2}{2} \sum_{t=1}^k \alpha_t^2, \]

which clearly implies (7.3.4).

In view of (7.3.5), the best stepsize policy for \( \alpha_t \) would be

\[ \alpha_t = \frac{\theta}{\sqrt{k}}, t = 1, \ldots, k, \text{ with } \theta = \sqrt{\frac{2[f(y_0) - f^*]}{L\bar{D}_X^2}}. \]

In this case, we have

\[ \min_{t=0, \ldots, k} \text{gap}(y_{t-1}) \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \sqrt{2[f(y_0) - f^*]L\bar{D}_X^2}. \]

**7.4 Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient**

In this section, we consider the following nonconvex finite-sum problem

\[ f^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ f(x) \}, \quad (7.4.1) \]

where \( X \) is a closed compact set in Euclidean space \( \mathbb{R}^n \), and \( f \) can be given as the average of \( m \) smooth but possibly nonconvex component functions \( f_i \), i.e.,

\[ f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(x)/m, \]

or given as an expectation function, i.e.,

\[ f(x) = \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)] \]

for some random variable \( \xi \subseteq \Xi \). Our goal is to develop projection-free stochastic methods for solving these problems.

**7.4.1 Basic scheme for finite-sum problems**

We first focus on the basic case when the number of terms \( m \) is fixed. Our goal is to develop a variance-reduced conditional gradient method and establish its convergence properties.

This method computes a full gradient for every \( T \) iterations and use it to recursively define a gradient estimator \( G_k \), which will be used in the linear optimization problem.
Algorithm 7.12 Nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient for finite-sum problems

**Input:** $x_1, T, \{\alpha_k\}$ and probability distribution $Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_m\}$ on $\{1, \ldots, m\}$.

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ do
  if $k \% T = 1$ then
    Set $G_k = \nabla f(x_k)$.
  else
    Generate i.i.d. samples $I_b$ of size $b$ according to $Q$.
    Set $G_k = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_b} (\nabla f_i(x_k) - \nabla f_i(x_k-1))/(q_i m) + G_{k-1}$.
  end if
  Set $y_k = \arg\min_{x \in X} \langle G_k, x \rangle$.
  Set $x_{k+1} = (1 - \alpha_k)x_k + \alpha_k y_k$.
end for

Output $x_R$, where $R$ is a random variable s.t. to

$$\text{Prob}\{R = k\} = \frac{\alpha_k}{\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_k}, k = 1, \ldots, N.$$ 

In order to facilitate the analysis of the algorithm, we will group the iteration indices $k = 1, 2, \ldots$ into different epochs given by

$$\{\{1, 2, \ldots, T\}, \{T + 1, T + 2, \ldots, 2T\}, \ldots, \{sT + 1, sT + 2, \ldots, (s+1)T\}, \ldots\}.$$

In other words, except for the last epoch, each epoch $s$, $s \geq 0$, consists of $T$ iterations starting from $sT + 1$ to $(s+1)T$, and the last epoch consist of the remaining iterations. For a given iteration index $k = sT + t$, we will always use the index $k$ and the pair $(s, t)$ interchangeably. For notational convenience, we also denote $(s, T + 1) = (s + 1, 1)$. Sometimes we will simply denote $(s, t)$ by $i$ if the epoch $s$ is clear from the context.

For a given $\bar{x} \in X$, we evaluate its accuracy using the Wolfe gap given by (7.3.3). Denoting $\delta_k \equiv G_k - \nabla f(x_k)$, we can easily see that

$$\text{gap}(x_k) \leq \max_{x \in X} \langle G_k, x_k - x \rangle + \|\delta_k\| \hat{D}_X,$$ 

(7.4.2)

where $\hat{D}_X := \max_{x, y \in X} \|x - y\|$.

We first provide a bound on the size of $\|\delta_k\|$. Its proof is skipped since it is similar to that of Lemma 6.10.

**Lemma 7.4.** Let $L$ be defined in (6.5.2) and suppose that the probabilities $q_i$ are set to

$$q_i = \frac{L_i}{\sum_{i=1}^m L_i}$$ 

(7.4.3)

for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. If the iteration index $k$ (or equivalently $(s, t)$ represents the $t$-th iteration at the $s$-epoch, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\delta_k\|^2] \equiv \mathbb{E}[\|\delta_{s,t}\|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{T^2} \sum_{i=2}^T \mathbb{E}[\|x_{s,i} - x_{s,i-1}\|^2].$$ 

(7.4.4)

Now we are ready to prove the main convergence properties of the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method.
7.4 Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient 473

**Theorem 7.16.** If the probabilities \(q_t\) are set to (7.4.3) and the batch size \(b \geq T\), then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{\sum_{k=1}^{\alpha_k}} + \frac{LD_x^2}{2\sum_{k=1}^{\alpha_k}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k^2 + \sum_{j=0}^{S} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j} \right) \right],
\]

where \(S = \lceil N/T \rceil\).

**Proof.** Using the smoothness property of \(f\) and the fact that \(x_{k+1} = (1 - \alpha_k)x_k + \alpha_k y_k\), we have

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2 \]

where \(s \leq E_k \leq f \leq (E_k + \alpha_k \delta_k, y_k, x_k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2 + L \alpha_k^2 \| y_k - x_k \|^2 \]

\[
f(x_k) - \alpha_k \max_k \{G_k, x_k - x\} + \frac{1}{2} \| \delta_k \|^2 + L \alpha_k^2 \| y_k - x_k \|^2
\]

(7.4.5) for any \(k \geq 1\), where the second inequality follows from the Cauchy Schwarz inequality and the third inequality follows from the definition of \(x_{k+1}\). Note that by (7.4.4) and the definition of \(x_{k+1}\),

\[
\mathbb{E}[\| \delta_k \|^2] = \mathbb{E}[\| \delta_{x,t} \|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{b^2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \mathbb{E}[\| x_{s,i} - x_{s,t-1} \|^2]
\]

\[
= \frac{L^2}{b^2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 \| x_{s,i} - x_{s,t-1} \|^2
\]

\[
\leq \frac{L^2}{b^2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \sum_{j=2}^{\alpha_{s,i}} \alpha_{s,i,j}^2.
\]

Combining the above two inequalities with (7.4.2), we have for any iteration \(t\) at epoch \(s\),

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t+1})] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t})] - \alpha_{s,t} \mathbb{E}[\max_k \{G_k, x_{s,t} - x\} + \frac{L}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 + L \alpha_{s,t}^2 D_x^2]
\]

\[
\leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t})] - \alpha_{s,t} \mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_{s,t})] + LD_x^2 \left[ \alpha_{s,t} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 \right)^{1/2} + \frac{1}{2b} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 + \alpha_{s,t}^2 \right].
\]

(7.4.6)

Summing up these inequalities, we conclude that for any \(t = 1, \ldots, T\),

\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t+1})] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,1})] - \alpha_{s,t} \mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_{s,t})]
\]

\[
+ LD_x^2 \sum_{j=1}^{t} \left[ \alpha_{s,j} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 \right)^{1/2} + \frac{1}{2b} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 + \alpha_{s,j}^2 \right].
\]

Observing

\[
\frac{1}{2b} \sum_{j=1}^{t} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 = \frac{1}{2b} \sum_{j=2}^{t} (t-j+1) \alpha_{s,j}^2 \leq \frac{1}{2b} \sum_{j=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,j}^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,j}^2
\]

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{t} \alpha_{s,j} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{t} \alpha_{s,i}^2 \right)^{1/2} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \left( \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j} \right) \sum_{j=1}^{t} \sqrt{j-1} \alpha_{s,j}
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{j=1}^{t} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j},
\]
we conclude that for any $t = 1, \ldots, T$,

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_{s,j})] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t})] - \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s,t+1})] + L\bar{D}_X^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j}^2 + \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j} \right].
$$

Noting $S = \lfloor N/T \rfloor$ and $J = N \% T$, and taking telescope sum over epochs $s = 0, \ldots, S$, we obtain

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k \mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_k)] \leq f(x_1) - \mathbb{E}[f(x_{N+1})] + L\bar{D}_X^2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k^2 + \sum_{i=0}^{S} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j} \right) \right]
$$

Our result immediately follows from the above inequality and the selection of the random variable $R$.

We are now ready to specify stepsizes $\alpha_k$ and establish the bounds on the total number of gradient evaluations and linear optimization required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method.

**Corollary 7.10.** Assume that the probabilities $q_i$ are set to (7.4.3) and that $b = T = \sqrt{m}$. (7.4.7)

If $N$ is given and

$$
\alpha_k = \alpha := \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}},
$$

then the total number of linear oracles and gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method to find a solution $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(\bar{x})] \leq \epsilon$ can be bounded by

$$
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \left[ f(x_1) - f^* + L\bar{D}_X^2 \right]^2 \right\} \quad \text{(7.4.9)}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{O}\left\{ m + \frac{\sqrt{m}}{\epsilon^2} \left[ f(x_1) - f^* + L\bar{D}_X^2 \right]^2 \right\} \quad \text{(7.4.10)}
$$

respectively.

**Proof.** Denote $S = \lfloor N/T \rfloor$. Observe that by (7.4.8), $\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k = N\alpha$, $\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k^2 = N\alpha^2$ and

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{S} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j=2,\ldots,T} \alpha_{s,j} \right) = \sum_{i=0}^{S} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha^2 \leq 2N\alpha^2.
$$

Using these observations in Theorem 7.16, we conclude that
\[
E[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{N \alpha} + \frac{7L \bar{D}^2}{2} \alpha \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \left[ f(x_1) - f^* + \frac{7L \bar{D}^2}{2} \right].
\]

Hence, the total number of linear oracles will be bounded by (7.4.16). Moreover, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by
\[
(m + bT) \left\lceil \frac{N}{T} \right\rceil = (2m) \left\lceil \frac{N}{T} \right\rceil = 2m + \sqrt{mN},
\]
and thus by (7.4.17).

In practice, it makes sense to choose a non-uniform distribution to select the output solution \(x_R\). We provide such an option below with increasing \(\alpha_k\) so as to put more weight on the iterations generated later by the algorithm.

**Corollary 7.11.** Assume that the probabilities \(q_i\) and batch size \(b\) are set to (7.4.3) and (7.4.7), respectively. If \(N\) is given and
\[
\alpha_k = \alpha := \frac{k^{1/4}}{N^{3/4}},
\]
then the total number of linear oracles and gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method to find a solution \(\bar{x} \in X\) s.t. \(E[\text{gap}(\bar{x})] \leq \varepsilon\) can be bounded by (7.4.16) and (7.4.17), respectively.

**Proof.** Denote \(S = \lfloor N/T \rfloor\). Observe that by (7.4.11),
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k = \frac{1}{N^{1/4}} \sum_{k=1}^{N} k^{1/4} \geq \frac{4}{3} \sqrt{N},
\]
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k^2 = \frac{1}{N^{3/2}} \sum_{k=1}^{N} k^{1/2} \leq \frac{2(N+1)^{3/2}}{3N^{1/2}} \leq \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3},
\]
\[
\sum_{s=0}^{S} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_j \max_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_j \right) = \sum_{s=0}^{S} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_j \leq \sum_{s=0}^{S} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_j \leq \frac{T^{1/2}(S+1)^{1/2}}{N^{3/2}} \leq \frac{2T^{1/2}}{3N^{3/2}} (S+2)^{3/2} \leq 2\sqrt{3}.
\]

Using these observations in Theorem 7.16, we conclude that
\[
E[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{S}{2\sqrt{N}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} f(x_1) - f^* + (\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3})L \bar{D}^2 \right].
\]

Hence, the total number of linear oracles will be bounded by (7.4.16). Moreover, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by
\[
(m + bT) \left\lceil \frac{N}{T} \right\rceil = (2m) \left\lceil \frac{N}{T} \right\rceil = 2m + \sqrt{mN},
\]
and thus by (7.4.17).

In view of the results in Corollaries 7.12 and 7.11, the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method can save up to a factor of \(\sqrt{m}\) gradient evaluations without increasing the number of calls to the linear oracle than the deterministic nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method. Observe that both stepsize policies in (7.4.8) and (7.4.11) requires us to fix the number of iterations \(N\) a priori. It is possible to relax this assumption, e.g., by setting \(\alpha_k = 1/\sqrt{k}\). However, this
Projection-free Methods

stepsize policy will result in a slightly worse rate of convergence result up to some logarithmic factors than those in Corollaries 7.12 and 7.11.

7.4.2 Generalization for stochastic optimization problems

In this section, we still consider problem (7.4.1), but with \( f \) given by

\[
f(x) = \mathbb{E}[F(x, \xi)],
\]

(7.4.12)

where \( \xi \) is a random vector supported on \( \mathcal{Z} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \) for some \( d \geq 1 \). We make the following assumptions throughout this subsection.

- \( F(x, \xi) \) is a smooth function with Lipschitz constant \( L \) for any \( \xi \in \mathcal{Z} \) almost surely.
- It is possible to generate a realization \( \xi \in \mathcal{Z} \), and to compute \( \nabla F(x, \xi) \) and \( \nabla F(y, \xi) \) for any given two points \( x, y \in X \) for a fixed realization \( \xi \).
- For any \( x \), we have \( \mathbb{E}[\nabla F(x, \xi)] = \nabla f(x) \) and

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\nabla F(x, \xi) − \nabla f(x)\|^2] \leq \sigma^2.
\]

(7.4.13)

These assumptions are the same as those for the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror-descent method in Section 7.4, but much stronger than the those required for the RSMD method in Section 6.2.

Algorithm 7.13 Nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient for stochastic problems

**Input:** \( x_1, T, \{\alpha_k\} \) and sample size \( m \).

**for** \( k = 1, 2, \ldots, N \) **do**

**if** \( k \% T == 1 \) **then**

- Generate an i.i.d. sample \( H^k = \{\xi_1^k, \ldots, \xi_m^k\} \) for the random variable \( \xi \).
- Set \( G_k = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nabla F(x_k, \xi_i^k) \).
- Set \( s \leftarrow s + 1 \).

**else**

- Generate an i.i.d. sample \( I^k = \{\xi_{k}^1, \ldots, \xi_{b}^k\} \) for the random variable \( \xi \).
- Set \( G_k = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i=1}^{b} (\nabla F(x_k, \xi_i^k) − \nabla F(x_{k-1}, \xi_i^k)) + G_{k-1} \).

**end if**

**Set** \( y_k = \text{argmin}_{x \in X} \langle G_k, x \rangle \).

**Set** \( x_{k+1} = (1 − \alpha_k)x_k + \alpha_k y_k \).

**end for**

**Output** \( x_R \), where \( R \) is a random variable s.t. to

\[
\text{Prob}\{R = k\} = \frac{\alpha_k}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} \alpha_i}, \quad k = 1, \ldots, N.
\]
7.4 Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient

Similar to the previous section, we will first need to provide a bound on the size of \( \delta_k = G_k - \nabla f(x_k) \). The proof of this result is almost identical to that of Lemma 6.11 and hence its details are skipped.

**Lemma 7.5.** If the iteration index \( k \) (or equivalently \( (s,t) \)) represents the \( t \)-th iteration at the \( s \)-epoch, then

\[
E[\| \delta_k \|^2] = E[\| \delta_{(s,t)} \|^2] \leq \frac{L^2}{\epsilon} \sum_{i=2}^{T} E[\| x_{(s,i)} - x_{(s,i-1)} \|^2] + \frac{\sigma^2}{m},
\]

(7.4.14)

**Theorem 7.17.** If the probabilities \( q_i \) are set to (7.4.3) and the batch size \( b \geq T \), then

\[
E[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{7L\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{N}} + \frac{4\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\sqrt{m}}.
\]

As a consequence, then the total number of linear oracles and gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( E[\text{gap}(\bar{x})] \leq \varepsilon \) can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f^* + L\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \right)
\]

and

\[
O \left( \left( \frac{\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\epsilon} \right)^2 + \frac{\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f^* + L\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \right),
\]

(7.4.16) (7.4.17)

respectively.

**Proof.** The result can be proved similarly to Theorem 7.16 after we replace (6.5.16) with (7.4.14).

We are now ready to specify stepsizes \( \alpha_k \) and establish the bounds on the total number of gradient evaluations and calls to the linear optimization oracle required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method.

**Corollary 7.12.** Assume that that \( b \) and \( T \) are set to (7.4.7). If

\[
\alpha_k = \alpha := \left[ \left( \frac{1}{N} + \frac{\sigma^2}{m} \right) \frac{1}{L\bar{D}_X} \right]^{1/2}
\]

(7.4.15)

for some fixed in advance iterations count \( N \), then we have

\[
E[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{7L\sigma^2}{2\sqrt{N}} + \frac{4\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\sqrt{m}}.
\]

As a consequence, then the total number of linear oracles and gradient evaluations required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( E[\text{gap}(\bar{x})] \leq \varepsilon \) can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f^* + L\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \right)
\]

and

\[
O \left( \left( \frac{\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\epsilon} \right)^2 + \frac{\sigma \bar{D}_X}{\epsilon} \left( \frac{f(x_1) - f^* + L\sigma^2}{\epsilon} \right)^2 \right),
\]

(7.4.16) (7.4.17)

respectively.

**Proof.** Denote \( S = \lfloor N/T \rfloor \). Observe that by (7.4.15), \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k = N\alpha \), \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \alpha_k^2 = N\alpha^2 \) and
\[ \sum_{s=0}^{S} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha_{s,j} \max_{j \geq 2, \ldots, T} \alpha_{s,j} \right) = \sum_{s=0}^{S} \sum_{j=1}^{T} \alpha^2 \leq 2N \alpha^2. \]

Using these observations in Theorem 7.17, we conclude that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{gap}(x_R)] \leq \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{N \alpha} + \frac{\gamma L \tilde{D} \alpha}{2} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2 \sqrt{m} \alpha},
\]
\[
= \frac{f(x_1) - f^*}{\sqrt{N}} + \frac{\gamma L \tilde{D} \alpha}{2 \sqrt{N}} + 4 \alpha \sigma \tilde{D} \sqrt{\frac{m}{2}}.
\]

Now if we choose
\[
m = \mathcal{O} \left\{ \left( \frac{\sigma \tilde{D} \epsilon}{\gamma} \right)^2 \right\}
\]
then an \(\epsilon\)-solution will be found in
\[
N = \mathcal{O} \left\{ \left( \frac{\frac{f(x_1) - f^* + \gamma L \tilde{D} \alpha}{\epsilon}}{\frac{\gamma L \tilde{D} \alpha}{2}} \right)^2 \right\}
\]iterations. Hence, the total number of linear oracles will be bounded by (7.4.16). Moreover, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by
\[
(m + bT) \left[ \frac{N}{T} \right] = (2m) \left[ \frac{N}{T} \right] = 2m + \sqrt{mN},
\]
and thus by (7.4.17).

One can also choose a non-uniform distribution to select the output solution \(x_R\), similarly to the deterministic case in Corollary 7.11. We leave this as an exercise.

### 7.5 Stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient sliding

We have so far discussed different types of termination criteria for solving non-convex optimization problems given in the form of (7.4.1), including one based on Wolfe gap and the other based on projected gradient. In this section, we first compare these two criteria and then present a stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient sliding method for solving problem (7.4.1), which can potentially outperform the stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient method in the previous section in terms of the latter criterion based on projected gradient.

#### 7.5.1 Wolfe gap vs projected gradient

Recall that for a given search point \(\bar{x} \in X\), the projected gradient \(g_X(\bar{x})\) associated with problem (7.4.1) is given by (see (6.2.7))
\[
g_X(\bar{x}) \equiv P_X(x, \nabla f(\bar{x}), \gamma) := \frac{1}{\gamma}(\bar{x} - \bar{x}^\dagger),
\]
(7.5.1)
where
\[ \bar{x}^+ = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), u \rangle + \frac{1}{\gamma} V(\bar{x}, u) \right\}, \]  
(7.5.2)
where \( V \) denotes the prox-function (or Bregman distance) associated with the distance generating function \( v \). We assume that \( v \) has \( L_v \)-Lipschitz gradients and modulus 1. It then follows from Lemma 6.3 that if
\[ \| g_X(\bar{x}) \| \leq \varepsilon, \]
then
\[ -\nabla f(\bar{x}^+) \in N_X(\bar{x}^+) + B(\varepsilon(\gamma L + L_v)), \]  
(7.5.3)
which, in view of the definitions of the normal cone in (6.2.8) and the Wolfe gap in (7.3.3) then clearly imply that
\[ \text{gap}(\bar{x}^+) \leq \varepsilon(\gamma L + L_v). \]

Now suppose that we have a solution \( \bar{x} \) satisfying \( \text{gap}(\bar{x}) \leq \varepsilon \). It can been easily seen that
\[ -\nabla f(\bar{x}) \in N_X(\bar{x}) + B(\varepsilon). \]  
(7.5.4)
Observe that one nice feature about the definition of \( \text{gap}(\bar{x}) \) is that it does not rely on the selection of the norm. Now let us provide a bound on the size of projected gradient for \( \bar{x} \). By the optimality condition of (7.5.2), we have
\[ \langle \gamma \nabla f(\bar{x}) + \nabla v(\bar{x}^+) - \nabla v(\bar{x}), x - \bar{x}^+ \rangle \geq 0, \forall x \in X. \]
Letting \( x = \bar{x} \) in the above inequality, we have
\[ \langle \gamma \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{x}^+ - \bar{x} \rangle \geq \langle \nabla v(\bar{x}) - \nabla v(\bar{x}^+), \bar{x} - \bar{x}^+ \rangle \]
\[ \geq \| \bar{x} - \bar{x}^+ \|^2 = \gamma^2 g_X(\bar{x}), \]
which implies that
\[ \| g_X(\bar{x}) \|^2 \leq \langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{x}^+ - \bar{x} \rangle \leq \text{gap}(\bar{x}). \]
In other words, if \( \text{gap}(\bar{x}) \leq \varepsilon \), in general we can only guarantee that
\[ \| g_X(\bar{x}) \| \leq \sqrt{\varepsilon}. \]
Therefore, it appears that the projected gradient is a stronger termination criterion than the Wolfe gap, even though they both imply that the gradient \( \nabla f(\bar{x}) \) (or \( \nabla f(\bar{x}^+) \)) falls within a small neighborhood of the norm cone \( N_X(\bar{x}) \) (or \( N_X(\bar{x}^+) \) with similar magnitude of perturbation (see (7.5.3) and (7.5.4)).
7.5.2 Projection-free method to drive projected gradient small

Suppose that our goal indeed is to find a solution of problem (7.4.1) with small projected gradient, i.e., a solution $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\mathbb{E}[\|g_X(\bar{x})\|^2] \leq \epsilon$. First consider the finite-sum case when $f$ is given by the average of $m$ components. If we apply the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method, then the total number of stochastic gradients and calls to the linear optimization oracle will be bounded by

$$\mathcal{O}\left\{ m + \frac{\sqrt{m}}{\epsilon^2} \right\} \text{ and } \mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \right\},$$

respectively. On the other hand, we apply the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method in Section 7.4, then the total number of stochastic gradient will be bounded by $\mathcal{O}(m + \sqrt{m}/\epsilon)$. Therefore, the number of stochastic gradients required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method can be worse than that by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method up to a factor of $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon)$. The same situation happens for the stochastic case when $f$ is given in the form of expectation. If we apply the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method, then the the total number of stochastic gradients and calls to the linear optimization oracle will be bounded by

$$\mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon^3} \right\} \text{ and } \mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \right\},$$

respectively. However, the total number of stochastic gradient required by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method will be bounded by $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^{3/2})$. Therefore, the total number of stochastic gradients required by the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method can be worse than that by the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method up to a factor of $\mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^{3/2})$.

Our goal in this section is to present the nonconvex stochastic conditional gradient sliding method for solving problem (7.4.1) and show that it can substantially reduce the total number of required stochastic gradients than the nonconvex variance-reduced conditional gradient method, but without increasing the total number of calls to the linear oracle.

Similar to the conditional gradient sliding method, the basic idea of the nonconvex stochastic conditional gradient sliding method is to apply the conditional gradient method for solving the projection subproblem existing in the nonconvex variance-reduced mirror descent method in Section 7.4. We formally state this algorithm as follows.

**Nonconvex stochastic conditional gradient sliding for finite-sum problems.**

Replace the definition of $x_{k+1}$ in Algorithm 7.13 by

$$x_{k+1} = \text{CndG}(G_k, x_k, 1/\gamma, \eta),$$

(7.5.5)
where the procedure CndG is defined in the conditional gradient sliding method (see Algorithm 7.6).

In (7.5.5), we call the classical conditional gradient method to approximately solve the projection subproblem

\[
\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \Phi_k(x) := \langle G_k, x \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| x - x_k \|^2 \right\}
\]

(7.5.6)
such that

\[
\langle \phi'(x_{k+1}), x_{k+1} - x \rangle = \langle G_k + (x_{k+1} - x_k) / \gamma, x_{k+1} - x \rangle \leq \eta, \ \forall x \in X,
\]

(7.5.7)

for some \( \eta \geq 0 \).

**Theorem 7.18.** Suppose that the probabilities \( q_i \) are set to (7.4.3). If

\[
b = 10T \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma = \frac{1}{L}.
\]

(7.5.8)

Then we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \| g_{X,k} \|^2 \leq \frac{16}{b} \| f(x_1) - f^* \| + 24L\eta.
\]

(7.5.9)

**Proof.** Let us denote \( \bar{x}_{k+1} := \arg\min_{x \in X} \Phi_k(x) \), \( \hat{x}_{k+1} := \arg\min \langle \nabla f(x_k), x \rangle + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| x - x_k \|^2 \) and \( \tilde{g}_k \equiv \frac{1}{\gamma}(x_k - x_{k+1}) \). It follows from (7.5.7) with \( x = x_k \) that

\[
\frac{1}{\gamma} \| x_k - x_{k+1} \|^2 \leq \langle G_k, x_k - x_{k+1} \rangle + \eta.
\]

Using the above relation and the smoothness of \( f \), we have for any \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2
\]

\[
= f(x_k) + \langle G_k, x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle + \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_{k+1} - x_k \|^2 - \langle \delta_k, x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle
\]

\[
\leq f(x_k) - \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_k - x_{k+1} \|^2 + \eta_k + \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_k - x_{k+1} \|^2 - \langle \delta_k, x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle
\]

\[
\leq f(x_k) - \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_k - x_{k+1} \|^2 + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| \delta_k \|^2 + \eta_k,
\]

for any \( \eta > 0 \). Using the definition of \( \tilde{g}_k \) in the above relation, we have

\[
f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) - \gamma \left( 1 - \frac{\eta}{2} \right) \| \tilde{g}_{X,k} \|^2 + \frac{1}{2\gamma} \| \delta_k \|^2 + \eta_k.
\]

(7.5.10)

Moreover, by (7.5.7) with \( x = \bar{x}_{k+1} \) and the strong convexity of \( \Phi_k \), we obtain

\[
\frac{1}{2\gamma} \| x_{k+1} - \bar{x}_{k+1} \|^2 \leq \langle \phi'(x_{k+1}), x_{k+1} - \bar{x}_{k+1} \rangle \leq \eta_k.
\]

(7.5.11)

Using the simple observation that

\[
g_{X,k} = (x_k - \hat{x}_{k+1}) / \gamma = [(x_k - x_{k+1}) + (x_{k+1} - \bar{x}_{k+1}) + (\bar{x}_{k+1} - \hat{x}_{k+1})] / \gamma,
\]

we conclude from (6.2.11) and (7.5.11) that
\[ \|g_{x,k}\|^2 \leq 2\|\bar{g}_{x,k}\|^2 + 4\|(x_{k+1} - \bar{x}_{k+1})/\gamma\|^2 + 4\|((\bar{x}_{k+1} - \bar{x}_{k+1})/\gamma\|^2 \]

Multiplying the above inequality for any \( p > 0 \) and adding it to (7.5.10), we have
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{s+1})] + p\sum_{j=1}^{t}\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,(s,j)}\|^2] &\leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_s)] - \left[ \gamma \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2} - \frac{q^2}{4} \right) - 2p \right] \|\bar{g}_{x,k}\|^2 \\
&\quad + (4p + \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2})\|\delta_k\|^2 + (1 + \frac{2p}{2})\eta_t.
\end{align*}
\]

Now using an argument similar to (6.5.12), we can show that for any epoch \( s \) of the nonconvex stochastic conditional gradient sliding method,
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{s+1})] + p\sum_{j=1}^{t}\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,(s,j)}\|^2] &\leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_s)] - \left[ \gamma \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2} - \frac{q^2}{4} \right) - 2p \right] \|\bar{g}_{x,k}\|^2 \\
&\quad + (4p + \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2})\|\delta_k\|^2 + (1 + \frac{2p}{2})\eta_t.
\end{align*}
\]

Fixing \( \gamma = 1/L \), \( p = 1/(16L) \), \( q = L/2 \) and \( b = 10T \) in the above inequality, and observing
\[
\gamma \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2} - \frac{q^2}{4} \right) - 2p - \left( 4p + \frac{\eta_{s+1}^2}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{8L} - \frac{5(t-1)}{4Lb} > 0, \forall t = 1,\ldots, T,
\]
we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{s+1})] + \frac{1}{16L}\sum_{j=1}^{t}\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,(s,j)}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_{s+1})] + \frac{3}{4}\sum_{j=1}^{t}\eta_{s,j}.
\]

Therefore, by summing up the first \( N \) inequalities in the above form we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}[f(x_{N+1})] + \frac{1}{16L}\sum_{j=1}^{N}\mathbb{E}[\|g_{x,(s,j)}\|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[f(x_1)] + \frac{3}{4}\sum_{k=1}^{N}\eta_k.
\]

The result then follows from the above inequality, the definition of the random variable \( R \) and the fact that \( f(x_{N+1}) \geq f^* \).

Using the above result, we can bound the total number of stochastic gradients and calls to the linear optimization oracle.

**Corollary 7.13.** Suppose that the probabilities \( q_i \) are set to (7.4.3) and that \( b \) and \( \gamma \) are set to (7.5.8) with \( T = \sqrt{m} \). Then the total number of stochastic gradients and calls to the linear optimization oracle performed by the nonconvex stochastic conditional gradient sliding method to find a solution \( \bar{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[g_X(\bar{x})] \leq \varepsilon \) will be bounded by
\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ m + \frac{\sqrt{m}}{\varepsilon}[f(x_1) - f^*] \right\}
\]
and
\[
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \frac{L^3D^2\varepsilon}{\varepsilon^2}[f(x_1) - f^*] \right\},
\]
respectively.
Proof. Assume that \( \eta = \varepsilon/(48L) \). Clearly, by Theorem 7.18, the total number of iterations \( N \) will be bounded by

\[
\frac{32L}{\varepsilon} [f(x_1) - f^*].
\]

Therefore, the total number of gradient evaluations will be bounded by

\[
(m + bT) \lceil \frac{N}{T} \rceil \leq 11m(N^{\frac{1}{m}} + 1),
\]

which is bounded by (7.5.14). Moreover, in view of Theorem 7.9.c), the number of call to the linear optimization oracle performed at each iteration can be bounded by

\[
\left\lceil \frac{6\bar{D}^2}{\eta} \right\rceil,
\]

and hence total number of calls to the linear optimization oracle will be bounded by

\[
N \left\lceil \frac{6\bar{D}^2}{\eta} \right\rceil,
\]

which is bounded by (7.5.15).

We can develop a similar stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient sliding method for solving stochastic optimization problem with the objective function given in the form of expectation. We leave this as an exercise for the readers.

7.6 Exercises and notes

1. Try to provide a game interpretation for the conditional gradient method, similar to the game interpretation for the accelerated gradient method discussed in Section 3.4.

2. Similar to the conditional gradient sliding method, try to solve the subproblems in the primal-dual method in Section 3.6 by using the conditional gradient method and establish the rate of convergence of the resulting algorithm.

3. Similar to the conditional gradient sliding method, try to solve the subproblems in the mirror-prox method in Section 3.8 by using the conditional gradient method and establish the rate of convergence of the resulting algorithm.

Notes. The conditional gradient method was first introduced by Frank and Wolfe in [28]. The variants of the conditional gradient method obtained by replacing the projection with linear optimization in the accelerated gradient descent method, was first introduced by Lan in [54]. Lan [54] also discussed nonsmooth conditional gradient method and the low complexity bounds on the number of calls to the linear optimization oracles for solving different classes of convex optimization problems. Lan and Zhou [63] introduced the conditional gradient methods, which was the first class of optimization algorithms that can achieve the lower complexity bound for linear optimization oracles while maintaining the optimal rate of convergence in
terms of the number of calls to the first-order oracle. The complexity of nonconvex conditional gradient gradient and conditional gradient sliding methods were analyzed in [45] and [91], respectively. Lan developed the materials on stochastic nonconvex conditional gradient in Sections 7.4 and 7.5 when writing the book in the end of 2018 and early 2019, before realizing that some results in Section 7.4 were developed in [103]. It is worth mentioning that the best complexity result so far, in terms of gradient computation, for variance-reduced conditional gradient methods was reported by Reddi et. al. [93] even though their algorithm requires more memory that the one presented in Section 7.4. Conditional gradient type methods have attracted a lot of interest in both optimization and machine learning community recently (see, e.g., [1, 3, 5, 20, 19, 29, 38, 36, 42, 43, 44, 70, 98, 102]).
Chapter 8
Operator Sliding and Decentralized Optimization

In this chapter, we will further explore the structure properties for solving optimization problems. We will identify potential bottlenecks for solving these problems and develop new techniques that can skip expensive operations from time to time. More specifically, we first consider a class of composite optimization problems whose objective function is given by the summation of a general smooth and nonsmooth component, and present the gradient sliding (GS) algorithm, which can skip the computation of the gradient for the smooth component from time to time. We then discuss an accelerated gradient sliding (AGS) method for minimizing the summation of two smooth convex functions with different Lipschitz constants and show that the AGS method can skip the gradient computation for one of these smooth components without slowing down the overall optimal rate of convergence. The AGS method can further improve the complexity for solving an important class of bilinear saddle point problems. In addition, we present a new class of decentralized first-order methods for nonsmooth and stochastic optimization problems defined over multiagent networks. These methods can skip the inter-node communications while agents solve the primal subproblems iteratively through linearizations of their local objective functions.

8.1 Gradient sliding for composite optimization

In this section, we consider a class of composite convex programming (CP) problems given in the form of

$$\Psi^* \equiv \min_{x \in X} \{\Psi(x) := f(x) + h(x) + \mathcal{R}(x)\}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.1.1)

Here, $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a closed convex set, $\mathcal{R}$ is a relatively simple convex function, and $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ and $h : X \to \mathbb{R}$, respectively, are general smooth and nonsmooth convex functions satisfying

$$f(x) \leq f(y) + \langle \nabla f(y), x - y \rangle + \frac{L}{2}\|x - y\|^2, \forall x, y \in X,$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.1.2)
for some $L > 0$ and $M > 0$, where $h'(x) \in \partial h(x)$. Composite problem of this type appears in many data analysis applications, where either $f$ or $h$ corresponds to a certain data fidelity term, while the other components in $\Psi$ denote regularization terms used to enforce certain structural properties for the obtained solutions.

Throughout this section, we assume that one can access the first-order information of $f$ and $h$ separately. More specifically, in the deterministic setting, we can compute the exact gradient $\nabla f(x)$ and a subgradient $h'(x) \in \partial h(x)$ for any $x \in X$. We also consider the stochastic situation where only a stochastic subgradient of the nonsmooth component $h$ is available. The main goal of this section to provide a better theoretical understanding on how many number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and subgradient evaluations of $h'$ are needed in order to find a certain approximate solution of (8.1.1).

Most existing first-order methods for solving (8.1.1) require the computation of both $\nabla f$ and $h'$ in each iteration. In particular, since the objective function $\Psi$ in (8.1.1) is nonsmooth, these algorithms would require $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ first-order iterations, and hence $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ evaluations for both $\nabla f$ and $h'$ to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\Psi(\bar{x}) - \Psi^\ast \leq \varepsilon$. Much recent research effort has been directed to reducing the impact of the Lipschitz constant $L$ on the aforementioned complexity bounds for composite optimization. For example, we show in Section 4.2 that the number of evaluations for $\nabla f$ and $h'$ required to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by

$$O\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon^2}} + \frac{M^2}{\varepsilon^2}\right).$$

(8.1.4)

It is also shown in Section 4.2 that similar bounds hold for the stochastic case where only unbiased estimators for $\nabla f$ and $h'$ are available. It is observed in Section 4.2 that such a complexity bound is not improvable if one can only access the first-order information for the summation of $f$ and $h$ all together.

Note, however, that it is unclear whether the complexity bound in (8.1.4) is optimal if one does have access to the first-order information of $f$ and $h$ separately. In particular, one would expect that the number of evaluations for $\nabla f$ can be bounded by $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$, if the nonsmooth term $h$ in (8.1.1) does not appear.However, it is unclear whether such a bound still holds for the more general composite problem in (8.1.1) without significantly increasing the bound in (8.1.4) on the number of subgradient evaluations for $h'$. It should be pointed out that in many applications the bottleneck of first-order methods exist in the computation of $\nabla f$ rather than that of $h'$. To motivate our discussion, let us mention a few such examples.

a) In many inverse problems, we need to enforce certain block sparsity (e.g., total variation and overlapped group Lasso) by solving the problem of $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + r(Bx)$. Here $A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is a given linear operator, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ denotes the collected observations, $r : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ is a relatively simple nonsmooth convex function (e.g., $r = \| \cdot \|_1$), and $B : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p$ is a very sparse matrix. In this case, evaluating the gradient of $\|Ax - b\|_2^2$ requires $O(mn)$ arithmetic operations, while the computation of $r'(Bx)$ only needs $O(n + p)$ arithmetic operations.
b) In many machine learning problems, we need to minimize a regularized loss function given by \( \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} E_\xi [l(x, \xi)] + q(Bx) \). Here \( l : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} \) denotes a certain simple loss function, \( \xi \) is a random variable with unknown distribution, \( q \) is a certain smooth convex function, and \( B : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^p \) is a given linear operator. In this case, the computation of the stochastic subgradient for the loss function \( E_\xi [l(x, \xi)] \) requires only \( \mathcal{O}(n + d) \) arithmetic operations, while evaluating the gradient of \( q(Bx) \) needs \( \mathcal{O}(np) \) arithmetic operations.

c) In some cases, the computation of \( \nabla f \) involves a black-box simulation procedure, the solution of an optimization problem, or a partial differential equation, while the computation of \( h' \) is given explicitly.

In all these cases mentioned above, it is desirable to reduce the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) to improve the overall efficiency for solving the composite problem (8.1.1).

In this section, we first present a new class of first-order methods, namely the gradient sliding algorithms, and show that the number of gradient evaluations for \( \nabla f \) required by these algorithms to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1) can be significantly reduced from (8.1.4) to

\[
\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}\right),
\]

while the total number of subgradient evaluations for \( h' \) is still bounded by (8.1.4). The basic scheme of these algorithms is to skip the computation of \( \nabla f \) from time to time so that only \( \mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon}) \) gradient evaluations are needed in the \( \mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2) \) iterations required to solve (8.1.1). Similar to the conditional gradient sliding method in Section 7.2, such an algorithmic framework originated from the simple idea of incorporating an iterative procedure to solve the subproblems in the aforementioned accelerated proximal gradient methods, although the analysis of these gradient sliding algorithms appears to be more technical and involved.

We then consider the stochastic case where the nonsmooth term \( h \) is represented by a stochastic oracle (SFO), which, for a given search point \( u_t \in X \), outputs a vector \( H(u_t, \xi_t) \) such that (s.t.)

\[
E[H(u_t, \xi_t)] = h'(u_t) \in \partial h(u_t), \quad \text{(8.1.6)}
\]

\[
E[\|H(u_t, \xi_t) - h'(u_t)\|^2] \leq \sigma^2, \quad \text{(8.1.7)}
\]

where \( \xi_t \) is a random vector independent of the search points \( u_t \). Note that \( H(u_t, \xi_t) \) is referred to as a stochastic subgradient of \( h \) at \( u_t \) and its computation is often much cheaper than the exact subgradient \( h' \). Based on the gradient sliding techniques, we develop a new class of stochastic approximation type algorithms and show that the total number gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) required by these algorithms to find a stochastic \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1), i.e., a point \( \tilde{x} \in X \) s.t. \( E[\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \varepsilon \), can still be bounded by (8.1.5), while the total number of stochastic subgradient evaluations can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon} + \frac{M^2 + \sigma^2}{\varepsilon^2}}\right),
\]
We also establish large-deviation results associated with these complexity bounds under certain “light-tail” assumptions on the stochastic subgradients returned by the SFO.

Finally, we generalize the gradient sliding algorithms for solving two important classes of composite problems given in the form of (8.1.1), but with $f$ satisfying additional or alternative assumptions. We first assume that $f$ is not only smooth, but also strongly convex, and show that the number of evaluations for $\nabla f$ and $h'$ can be significantly reduced from $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ and $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$, respectively, to $O(\log(1/\varepsilon))$ and $O(1/\varepsilon)$. We then consider the case when $f$ is nonsmooth, but can be closely approximated by a class of smooth functions. By incorporating Nesterov’s smoothing scheme into the gradient sliding algorithms, we show that the number of gradient evaluations can be bounded by $O(1/\varepsilon)$, while the optimal $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ bound on the number of subgradient evaluations of $h'$ is still retained.

### 8.1.1 Deterministic gradient sliding

In this section, we consider the gradient sliding method for solving the deterministic problem in (8.1.1) where exact subgradients of $h$ are available.

Let us provide a brief review on the proximal gradient methods from which the proposed gradient sliding algorithms originate, and point out a few problems associated with these existing algorithms when applied to solve problem (8.1.1).

We start with the simplest proximal gradient method which works for the case when the nonsmooth component $h$ does not appear or is relatively simple (e.g., $h$ is affine). Let $V(x,u)$ be the prox-function associated with the distance generating function $\nu$ with modulus 1 (see Section 3.2). For a given $x \in X$, let

$$m_\Psi(x,u) := l_f(x,u) + h(u) + \chi(u), \forall u \in X,$$  

where $l_f(x,y) := f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y-x \rangle$.  

Clearly, by the convexity of $f$ and (8.1.2), we have

$$m_\Psi(x,u) \leq \Psi(u) \leq m_\Psi(x,u) + \frac{L}{2} |u-x|^2 \leq m_\Psi(x,u) + LV(x,u)$$

for any $u \in X$, where the last inequality follows from the strong convexity of $\nu$. Hence, $m_\Psi(x,u)$ is a good approximation of $\Psi(u)$ when $u$ is “close” enough to $x$. In view of this observation, we update the search point $x_k \in X$ at the $k$-th iteration of the proximal gradient method by

$$x_k = \arg\min_{u \in X} \{l_f(x_{k-1},u) + h(u) + \chi(u) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1},u)\},$$

Here, $\beta_k > 0$ is a parameter which determines how well we “trust” the proximity between $m_\Psi(x_{k-1},u)$ and $\Psi(u)$. In particular, a larger value of $\beta_k$ implies less confi-
dence on $m_{\Psi}(x_{k-1}, u)$ and results in a smaller step moving from $x_{k-1}$ to $x_k$. It can be shown that the number of iterations required by the proximal gradient method for finding an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon)$ (see Section 3.1).

The efficiency of the above proximal gradient method can be significantly improved by incorporating a multi-step acceleration scheme. The basic idea of this scheme is to introduce three closely related search sequences, namely, $\{x_k\}$, $\{x_k\}$, and $\{\bar{x}_k\}$, which will be used to build the model $m_{\Psi}$, control the proximity between $m_{\Psi}$ and $\Psi$, and compute the output solution, respectively. More specifically, these three sequences are updated according to

$$
\bar{x}_k = (1 - \gamma_k)\bar{x}_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_{k-1}, \\
x_k = \arg\min_{u \in X} \left\{ \Phi_k(u) := l_f(x_k, u) + h(u) + \chi(u) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u) \right\}, \\
x_k = (1 - \gamma_k)\bar{x}_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_k,
$$

where $\beta_k \geq 0$ and $\gamma_k \in [0, 1]$ are given parameters for the algorithm. Clearly, (8.1.11)-(8.1.13) reduces to (8.1.10), if $\bar{x}_0 = x_0$ and $\gamma_k$ is set to 1. However, by properly specifying $\beta_k$ and $\gamma_k$, e.g., $\beta_k = 2L/k$ and $\gamma_k = 2/(k + 2)$, one can show that the above accelerated gradient descent method can find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1) in at most $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ iterations (see Section 3.3 for the analysis of the scheme in (8.1.11)-(8.1.13)). Since each iteration of this algorithm requires only one evaluation of $\nabla f$, the total number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ can also be bounded by $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$.

One crucial problem associated with the aforementioned proximal gradient type methods is that the subproblems (8.1.10) and (8.1.12) are difficult to solve when $h$ is a general nonsmooth convex function. To address this issue, one can possibly apply an enhanced accelerated gradient method introduced in Section 4.2. This algorithm is obtained by replacing $h(u)$ in (8.1.12) with

$$
l_h(x_k; u) := h(x_k) + \langle h'(x_k), u - x_k \rangle
$$

for some $h'(x_k) \in \partial h(x_k)$. As a result, the subproblems in this algorithm become easier to solve. Moreover, with a proper selection of $\{\beta_k\}$ and $\{\gamma_k\}$, this approach can find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1) in at most

$$
\mathcal{O}\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{LV(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{M^2 V(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon^2} \right\}
$$

iterations. Since each iteration requires one computation of $\nabla f$ and $h'$, the total number of evaluations for $f$ and $h'$ is bounded by $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$. This bound in (8.1.15) is not improvable if one can only compute the subgradient of the composite function $f(x) + h(x)$ as a whole. However, as mentioned earlier, we do have access to separate first-order information about $f$ and $h$ in many applications. One interesting problem is whether we can further improve the performance of proximal gradient type methods in the latter case.

By presenting the gradient sliding method, we show that one can significantly reduce the number of gradient evaluations for $\nabla f$ required to solve (8.1.1), while
Algorithm 8.1 The gradient sliding (GS) algorithm

Input: Initial point $x_0 \in X$ and iteration limit $N$.
Let $\beta_k \in \mathbb{R}^+$, $\gamma_k \in \mathbb{R}^+$, and $t_k \in N$, $k = 1, 2, \ldots$, be given and set $\tilde{x}_0 = x_0$.

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, N$ do

1. Set $\tilde{x}_k = (1 - \gamma_k)\tilde{x}_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_{k-1}$, and let $l_k(\cdot) \equiv L_f(\tilde{x}_k, \cdot)$ be defined in (8.1.19).

2. Set $(x_k, \tilde{x}_k) = \text{PS}(x_k, x_{k-1}, \beta_k, t_k)$; \hspace{1cm} (8.1.16)

3. Set $\tilde{x}_k = (1 - \gamma_k)\tilde{x}_{k-1} + \gamma_k \tilde{x}_k$.

end for

Output: $\tilde{x}_N$.

The PS (prox-sliding) procedure called at step 2 is stated as follows.

procedure $(x^+, \tilde{x}^+) = \text{PS}(g, x, \beta, T)$

Let the parameters $p_t \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $\theta_t \in [0, 1]$, $t = 1, 2, \ldots$, be given. Set $u_0 = \tilde{u}_0 = x$.

for $t = 1, 2, \ldots, T$ do

\[ u_t = \arg\min_{u \in X} \{ g(u) + l_t(u_{t-1}, u) + \beta V(x, u) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) + \chi(u) \}, \] \hspace{1cm} (8.1.17)

\[ \tilde{u}_t = (1 - \theta_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1} + \theta_t u_t, \] \hspace{1cm} (8.1.18)

end for

Set $x^+ = u_T$ and $\tilde{x}^+ = \tilde{u}_T$.

end procedure

Observe that when supplied with an affine function $g(\cdot)$, prox-center $x \in X$, parameter $\beta$, and sliding period $T$, the PS procedure computes a pair of approximate solutions $(x^+, \tilde{x}^+) \in X \times X$ for the problem of:

\[ \arg\min_{u \in X} \{ \Phi(u) := g(u) + h(u) + \beta V(x, u) + \chi(u) \}. \] \hspace{1cm} (8.1.19)

Clearly, problem (8.1.19) is equivalent to (8.1.12) when the input parameters are set to (8.1.16). Since the same affine function $g(\cdot) = l_f(x_{k-1}, \cdot)$ has been used throughout the $T$ iterations of the PS procedure, we skip the computation of the gradients of $f$ when performing the $T$ projection steps in (8.1.17). This differs from the accelerated gradient method in Section 4.2, where one needs to compute $\nabla f + h'$ in each projection step.
It should also be noted that there has been some related work on the accelerated gradient methods with inexact solution of the proximal mapping step (8.1.19). The results basically state that the approximation error at each step has to decrease very fast to maintain the accelerated convergence rate. Since (8.1.19) is strongly convex, one can apply the subgradient method to solve it efficiently. However, one needs to carefully deal with some difficulties in this intuitive approach. Firstly, one has to define an appropriate termination criterion for solving (8.1.19). It turns out that using the natural functional optimality gap as the termination criterion for this subproblem could not lead to the desirable convergence rates, and we need to use in the GS algorithm a special termination criterion defined by the summation of the functional optimality gap and the distance to the optimal solution (see (8.1.21) below). Secondly, even though (8.1.19) is strongly convex, it is nonsmooth and the strong convexity modulus decreases as the number of iterations increases. Hence, one has to carefully determine the specification of these nested (accelerated) subgradient algorithms. Thirdly, one important modification that we incorporated in the GS method is to use two different approximate solutions in the two interpolation updates in the accelerated gradient methods. Otherwise, one could not obtain the optimal complexity bounds on the computation of both $\nabla f$ and $h'$.

A few more remarks about the above GS algorithm are in order. Firstly, we say that an outer iteration of the GS algorithm occurs whenever $k$ in Algorithm 8.1 increments by 1. Each outer iteration of the GS algorithm involves the computation of the gradient $\nabla f(x_{k-1})$ and a call to the PS procedure to update $x_k$ and $\tilde{x}_k$. Secondly, the PS procedure solves problem (8.1.19) iteratively. Each iteration of this procedure consists of the computation of subgradient $h'(u_{t-1})$ and the solution of the projection subproblem (8.1.17), which is assumed to be relatively easy to solve (see Section 5.1.1). For notational convenience, we refer to an iteration of the PS procedure as an inner iteration of the GS algorithm. Thirdly, the GS algorithm described above is conceptual only since we have not yet specified the selection of $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, $\{T_k\}$, $\{p_t\}$ and $\{\theta_t\}$. We will return to this issue after establishing some convergence properties of the generic GS algorithm described above.

We first present a result which summarizes some important convergence properties of the PS procedure.

**Proposition 8.1.** If $\{p_t\}$ and $\{\theta_t\}$ in the PS procedure satisfy

\[
\theta_t = \frac{p_{t-1} - p_t}{(1 - P_t)P_{t-1}} \quad \text{with} \quad P_t := \begin{cases} 
1, & t = 0, \\
 p_t(1 + p_t)^{-1}P_{t-1}, & t \geq 1,
\end{cases}
\]

then, for any $t \geq 1$ and $u \in X$,

\[
\beta(1 - P_t)^{-1}V(u_t, u) + [\Phi(\tilde{u}_t) - \Phi(u)] \leq P_t(1 - P_t)^{-1} \left[ \beta V(u_0, u) + \frac{M^2}{2\beta} \sum_{t=1}^{T_t} (p_t^2 P_{t-1})^{-1} \right],
\]

(8.1.21)
where $\Phi$ is defined in (8.1.19).

Proof. By (8.1.3) and the definition of $l_h$ in (8.1.14), we have $h(u_t) \leq l_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|$. Adding $g(u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t)$ to both sides of this inequality and using the definition of $\Phi$ in (8.1.19), we obtain

$$
\Phi(u_t) \leq g(u_t) + l_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|. \quad (8.1.22)
$$

Now applying Lemma 3.5 to (8.1.17), we obtain

$$
g(u_t) + l_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u_t)
\leq g(u) + h(u) + \beta V(x, u) + \chi(u) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) - \beta (1 + p_t) V(u_t, u)
\leq g(u) + h(u) + \beta V(x, u) + \chi(u) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) - \beta (1 + p_t) V(u_t, u)
= \Phi(u) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) - \beta (1 + p_t) V(u_t, u),
$$

where the second inequality follows from the convexity of $h$. Moreover, by the strong convexity of $\nu$,

$$
-\beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\| \leq -\frac{\beta p_t}{2} \|u_t - u_{t-1}\|^2 + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\| \leq \frac{M^2}{2p_t}
$$

where the last inequality follows from the simple fact that $-at^2/2 + bt \leq b^2/(2a)$ for any $a > 0$. Combining the previous three inequalities, we conclude that

$$
\Phi(u_t) - \Phi(u) \leq \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) - \beta (1 + p_t) V(u_t, u) + \frac{M^2}{2p_t}.
$$

Dividing both sides by $1 + p_t$ and rearranging the terms, we obtain

$$
\beta V(u_t, u) + \Phi(u_t) - \Phi(u) \leq \frac{\beta p_t}{1 + p_t} V(u_{t-1}, u) + \frac{M^2}{(1 + p_t)p_t},
$$

which, in view of the definition of $P_t$ in (8.1.20) and Lemma 3.17 (with $k = t$, $w_k = 1/(1 + p_t)$ and $W_k = P_t$), then implies that

$$
\frac{\beta}{P_t} V(u_t, u) + \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\Phi(u_i) - \Phi(u)}{P_i(1 + p_t)} \leq \beta V(u_0, u) + \frac{M^2}{2P_t} \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{1}{P_i(1 + p_t)}
= \beta V(u_0, u) + \frac{M^2}{2P_t} \sum_{i=1}^t (p_{i-1}^2 P_{i-1})^{-1}, \quad (8.1.23)
$$

where the last identity also follows from the definition of $P_t$ in (8.1.20). Also note that by the definition of $\tilde{u}_t$ in the PS procedure and (8.1.20), we have

$$
\tilde{u}_t = \frac{P_t}{1 - P_t} \left(1 - \frac{P_t}{P_{t-1}}\right) \tilde{u}_{t-1} + \frac{1}{P_t(1 + p_t)} u_t.
$$

Applying this relation inductively and using the fact that $P_0 = 1$, we can easily see that
\[
\hat{u}_t = \frac{p_t}{1 - p_t} \left[ 1 - \frac{p_t}{p_{t^2}} \hat{u}_{t^2} + \frac{1}{p_t - 1} \frac{1}{1 + p_{t^2}} u_{t^2} + \frac{1}{p_t (1 + p_t)} u_t \right]
= \ldots = \frac{p_t}{1 - p_t} \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{1}{p_i (1 + p_i)} u_i,
\]
which, in view of the convexity of \( \Phi \), then implies that
\[
\Phi(\hat{u}_t) - \Phi(u) \leq \frac{p_t}{1 - p_t} \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\Phi(u_i) - \Phi(u)}{p_i (1 + p_i)}.
\]  
(8.1.24)

Combining the above inequality with (8.1.23) and rearranging the terms, we obtain (8.1.21).

Setting \( u \) to be the optimal solution of (8.1.19), we can see that both \( x_k \) and \( \bar{x}_k \) are approximate solutions of (8.1.19) if the right hand side (RHS) of (8.1.21) is small enough. With the help of this result, we can establish an important recursion from which the convergence of the GS algorithm easily follows.

**Proposition 8.2.** Suppose that \( \{p_t\} \) and \( \{\theta_t\} \) in the PS procedure satisfy (8.1.20). Also assume that \( \{\beta_k\} \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the GS algorithm satisfy
\[
\gamma_1 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_k - L \gamma_k \geq 0, \; k \geq 1.
\]  
(8.1.25)

Then for any \( u \in X \) and \( k \geq 1,
\[
\Psi(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi(u) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) [\Psi(\bar{x}_{k-1}) - \Psi(u)] + \gamma_k (1 - P_{t_k})^{-1}
\[
\left[ \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u) - \beta_k V(x_k, u) + \frac{M^2 P_{t_k}}{2 \beta_k} \sum_{i=1}^{t_k} (p_i^2 P_i^{-1})^{-1} \right].
\]  
(8.1.26)

**Proof.** First, notice that by the definition of \( \bar{x}_k \) and \( \bar{x}_k \), we have \( \bar{x}_k - x_k = \gamma_k (\bar{x}_k - x_{k-1}) \). Using this observation, (8.1.2), the definition of \( l_f \) in (8.1.9), and the convexity of \( f \), we obtain
\[
f(\bar{x}_k) \leq l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \frac{L}{2} \| \bar{x}_k - x_k \|^2
= (1 - \gamma_k) l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \gamma_k l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \frac{L^2}{2} \| \bar{x}_k - x_k \|^2
\leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \gamma_k \left[ l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, \bar{x}_k) \right]
- (1 - \gamma_k) f(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \gamma_k \left[ l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, \bar{x}_k) \right]
- (\gamma_k \beta_k - L \gamma_k^2) V(x_{k-1}, \bar{x}_k)
\leq (1 - \gamma_k) f(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \gamma_k \left[ l_f(x_k, \bar{x}_k) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, \bar{x}_k) \right],
\]  
(8.1.27)

where the third inequality follows from the strong convexity of \( V \) and the last inequality follows from (8.1.25). By the convexity of \( h \) and \( \chi \), we have
\[
h(\bar{x}_k) + \chi(\bar{x}_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) [h(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \chi(\bar{x}_{k-1})] + \gamma_k [h(\bar{x}_k) + \chi(\bar{x}_k)],
\]  
(8.1.28)
Adding up the previous two inequalities, and using the definitions of $\Psi$ in (8.1.1) and $\Phi_k$ in (8.1.12), we have

$$
\Psi'(\bar{x}_k) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)\Psi'(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + \gamma_k \Phi_k(\bar{x}_k).
$$

Subtracting $\Psi(u)$ from both sides of the above inequality, we obtain

$$
\Psi'(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi'(u) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)\Psi'(\bar{x}_{k-1}) - \Psi'(u) + \gamma_k[\Phi_k(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi(u)].
$$

(8.1.29)

Also note that by the definition of $\Phi_k$ in (8.1.12) and the convexity of $f$,

$$
\Phi_k(u) \leq f(u) + h(u) + \chi(u) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u) = \Psi(u) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u), \quad \forall u \in X.
$$

(8.1.30)

Combining these two inequalities (i.e., replacing the third $\Psi'(u)$ in (8.1.29) by $\Phi_k(u) - \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u)$), we obtain

$$
\Psi'(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi'(u) \leq (1 - \gamma_k)\Psi'(\bar{x}_{k-1}) - \Psi'(u) + \gamma_k[\Phi_k(\bar{x}_k) - \Phi_k(u) + \beta_k V(x_{k-1}, u)].
$$

(8.1.31)

Now, in view of the definition of $\Phi_k$ in (8.1.12) and the origin of $(x_k, \bar{x}_k)$ in (8.1.16), we can apply Proposition 1 with $\phi = \phi_k$, $u_0 = x_{k-1}$, $u_t = x_k$, $u_t = \bar{x}_k$, and $\beta = \beta_k$, and conclude that for any $u \in X$ and $k \geq 1$,

$$
\frac{\beta_k}{1 - \gamma_k} V(x_k, u) + [\Phi_k(\bar{x}_k) - \Phi_k(u)] \leq \frac{\beta_k}{1 - \gamma_k} V(x_k, u) + \frac{M^2}{2\gamma_k} \sum_{i=1}^{\Gamma_k} \left( \beta_i^2 P_{i-1}^{-1} \right).
$$

Plugging the above bound on $\Phi_k(\bar{x}_k) - \Phi_k(u)$ into (8.1.31), we obtain (8.1.26).

We are now ready to establish the main convergence properties of the GS algorithm. Note that the following quantity will be used in our analysis of this algorithm.

$$
\Gamma_k = \begin{cases} 
1, & k = 1, \\
(1 - \gamma) \Gamma_{k-1}, & k \geq 2.
\end{cases}
$$

(8.1.32)

**Theorem 8.1.** Assume that $\{\rho_i\}$ and $\{\theta_i\}$ in the PS procedure satisfy (8.1.20), and also that $\{\beta_k\}$ and $\{\gamma_k\}$ in the GS algorithm satisfy (8.1.25).

a) If for any $k \geq 2$,

$$
\frac{\gamma_k \beta_k}{1 - \gamma_k} \leq \frac{\gamma_{k-1} \beta_{k-1}}{1 - \gamma_{k-1}},
$$

(8.1.33)

then we have, for any $N \geq 1$,

$$
\Psi'(\bar{x}_k) - \Psi'(x^*) \leq \beta_d(N) := 
\frac{F_0 \beta_k}{1 - \gamma_k} V(x_0, x^*)
+ \frac{M^2 F_0}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=1}^{\Gamma_k} \frac{\gamma_j \beta_j}{(1 - \gamma_j) P_{j-1}^{-1}}.
$$

(8.1.34)
where \( x^* \in X \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of problem (8.1.1), and \( P_i \) and \( \Gamma_k \) are defined in (8.1.20) and (8.1.32), respectively.

b) If \( X \) is compact, and for any \( k \geq 2 \),

\[
\frac{\gamma_k \beta_k}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)} \geq \frac{\gamma_{k-1} \beta_{k-1}}{\Gamma_{k-1}(1-P_{k-1})},
\]

then (8.1.34) still holds by simply replacing the first term in the definition of \( \mathcal{B}_d(N) \) with \( \gamma_N \beta_N \bar{V}(x^* \in X) / (1 - P_{\Gamma_N}) \), where \( \bar{V}(u) = \max_{x \in X} V(x, u) \).

**Proof.** We conclude from (8.1.26) and Lemma 3.17 that

\[
\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(u) \leq \Gamma_N \frac{1-\gamma}{\Gamma_1} [\Psi(\bar{x}_0) - \Psi(u)] + \Gamma_N \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)} [V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u)] + \frac{M^2 \Gamma_k}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{\gamma_i P_i}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)}
\]

where the last identity follows from the fact that \( \gamma_1 = 1 \). Now it follows from (8.1.33) that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)} [V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u)] \leq \frac{\beta_1 \gamma_1}{\Gamma_1(1-P_1)} V(x_0, u) - \frac{\beta_P \gamma_N}{\Gamma_N(1-P_N)} V(x_N, u) \leq \frac{\beta_1}{1-P_1} V(x_0, u),
\]

where the last inequality follows from the facts that \( \gamma = \Gamma_1 = 1, P_{\Gamma_N} \leq 1, \) and \( V(x_N, u) \geq 0 \). The result in part a) then clearly follows from the previous two inequalities with \( u = x^* \). Moreover, using (8.1.35) and the fact \( V(x_k, u) \leq \bar{V}(u) \), we conclude that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)} [V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u)] \leq \frac{\beta_1}{1-P_1} \bar{V}(u) - \sum_{k=2}^{N} \left[ \frac{\beta_k \gamma_k}{\Gamma_k(1-P_k)} - \frac{\beta_{k-1} \gamma_{k-1}}{\Gamma_{k-1}(1-P_{k-1})} \right] \bar{V}(u) = \frac{\gamma_N \beta_N}{\Gamma_k(1-P_N)} \bar{V}(u).
\]

Part b) then follows from the above observation and (8.1.36) with \( u = x^* \).

Clearly, there are various options for specifying the parameters \( \{p_i\}, \{\theta_i\}, \{\beta_k\}, \) and \( \{T_k\} \) to guarantee the convergence of the GS algorithm. Below we provide a few such selection which lead to the best possible rate of convergence for solving problem (8.1.1). In particular, Corollary 8.1.a) provides a set of such parameters for the case when the feasible region \( X \) is unbounded and the iteration limit \( N \) is given a
priori, while the one in Corollary 8.1.b) works only for the case when $X$ is compact, but does not require $N$ to be given in advance.

**Corollary 8.1.** Assume that $\{p_t\}$ and $\{\theta_t\}$ in the PS procedure are set to

\[ p_t = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_t = \frac{2(t+1)}{(t+3)^2}, \quad \forall t \geq 1. \quad (8.1.39) \]

a) If $N$ is fixed a priori, and $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{T_k\}$ are set to

\[ \beta_k = \frac{2L}{N}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad \text{and} \quad T_k = \left\lceil \frac{M^2N^2}{DL^2} \right\rceil \quad (8.1.40) \]

for some $\bar{D} > 0$, then

\[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{2L}{N(N+1)} \left[ 3V(x_0, x^*) + 2\bar{D} \right], \quad \forall N \geq 1. \quad (8.1.41) \]

b) If $X$ is compact, and $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{\gamma_k\}$, and $\{T_k\}$ are set to

\[ \beta_k = \frac{9L(1-P)}{2(k+1)}, \quad \gamma_k = \frac{3}{k+2}, \quad \text{and} \quad T_k = \left\lceil \frac{M^2(k+1)^2}{DL^2} \right\rceil, \quad (8.1.42) \]

for some $\bar{D} > 0$, then

\[ \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{L}{N(N+1)} \left[ \frac{27V(x^*)}{2} + \frac{8\bar{D}}{N} \right], \quad \forall N \geq 1. \quad (8.1.43) \]

**Proof.** We first show part a). By the definitions of $P_t$ and $p_t$ in (8.1.20) and (8.1.39), we have

\[ P_t = \frac{p_{t-1}}{t+2} = \cdots = \frac{2}{(t+1)(t+2)}, \quad (8.1.44) \]

Using the above identity and (8.1.39), we can easily see that the condition in (8.1.20) holds. It also follows from (8.1.44) and the definition of $T_k$ in (8.1.40) that

\[ P_k \leq P_{k-1} \leq \ldots \leq P_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}. \quad (8.1.45) \]

Now, it can be easily seen from the definition of $\beta_k$ and $\gamma_k$ in (8.1.40) that (8.1.25) holds. It also follows from (8.1.42) and (8.1.40) that

\[ \Gamma_k = \frac{2}{k(k+1)}. \quad (8.1.46) \]

By (8.1.40), (8.1.45), and (8.1.46), we have

\[ \frac{\gamma_k \beta_k}{\gamma_{(1-P)^k} / \Gamma_k} = \frac{2L}{1-P_k} \leq \frac{2L}{1-P_{k-1}} = \frac{\gamma_{(1-P_k)^{k-1}}}{\Gamma_{k-1}(1-P_{k-1})}, \]

from which (8.1.33) follows. Now, by (8.1.44) and the fact that $p_t = t/2$, we have

\[ \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{1}{i+1} \leq 4T_k, \quad (8.1.47) \]

which, together with (8.1.40) and (8.1.46), then imply that
Using this observation, (8.1.34), (8.1.45), and (8.1.46), we have
\[
 R_{\text{d}}(N) \leq \frac{4L VR(x^*)}{N(N+1)(1 - P_{t_k})} + \frac{4M^2}{2(N+1)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{k^3 + 3},
\]
which, in view of Theorem 8.1.a) and the definition of \( T_k \) in (8.1.40), then clearly implies (8.1.41).

Now let us show that part b) holds. It follows from (8.1.45), and the definition of \( \beta_k \) and \( \gamma_k \) in (8.1.42) that
\[
 \beta_k \geq \frac{3L}{k^2 + 1} \geq L\gamma_k
\]
and hence that (8.1.25) holds. It also follows from (8.1.32) and (8.1.42) that
\[
 \Gamma_k = \frac{6}{k(k+1)(k+2)}, \quad k \geq 1,
\]
and hence that
\[
 \frac{\gamma_k \beta_k}{\Gamma_k} = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \frac{9L}{k^3 + 1} = \frac{9Lk}{4},
\]
which implies that (8.1.35) holds. Using (8.1.42), (8.1.45), (8.1.47), and (8.1.49), we have
\[
 \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\gamma_i P_{t_i}}{\Gamma_i (1 - P_{t_i}) P_{t_i-1}^2} \leq \frac{4k P_{t_k} T_k}{\Gamma_k (1 - P_{t_k})} = \frac{4k(k+1)^2 P_{t_k} T_k}{9L(1 - P_{t_k})^2} \]
\[
 = \frac{8(k+1)^2 T_k(1) T_k(2)}{9L T_k(3)^2} \leq \frac{8(k+1)^2}{9L T_k}.
\]
Using this observation, (8.1.42), (8.1.50), and Theorem 8.1.b), we conclude that
\[
 \Psi(x_N) - \Psi(x^*) \leq \frac{\gamma_k \beta_k V(x^*)}{1 - P_{t_k}} + \frac{M^2 T_k}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{8(k+1)^2}{9L T_k}
\]
\[
 \leq \frac{\gamma_k \beta_k V(x^*)}{1 - P_{t_k}} + \frac{8L \tilde{D}}{3(N+1)(N+2)}
\]
\[
 \leq \frac{L}{2} \left( \frac{27V(x^*)}{2} + \frac{8L \tilde{D}}{3} \right).
\]

Observe that by (8.1.18) and (8.1.44), when the selection of \( p_t = t/2 \), the definition of \( \tilde{u}_t \) in the PS procedure can be simplified as
\[
 \tilde{u}_t = \frac{t+2}{t(t+3)} \tilde{u}_{t-1} + \frac{2t+1}{t(t+3)} u_t.
\]

In view of Corollary 8.1, we can establish the complexity of the GS algorithm for finding an \( \epsilon \)-solution of problem (8.1.1).

**Corollary 8.2.** Suppose that \( \{ p_t \} \) and \( \{ \theta_t \} \) are set to (8.1.39). Also assume that there exists an estimate \( D_X > 0 \) s.t.

\[
 D_X \leq \text{cor}(x^*; x_N).
\]
\[ V(x, y) \leq D_X^2, \quad \forall x, y \in X. \quad (8.1.53) \]

If \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) are set to (8.1.40) with \( \tilde{D} = 3D_X^2 / 2 \) for some \( N > 0 \), then the total number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \) can be bounded by

\[ O \left( \sqrt{LD_X^2 \over \varepsilon} \right) \quad (8.1.54) \]

and

\[ O \left\{ M^2 D_X^2 \over \varepsilon^2 + \sqrt{LD_X^2 \over \varepsilon} \right\}, \quad (8.1.55) \]

respectively. Moreover, the above two complexity bounds also hold if \( X \) is bounded, and \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) are set to (8.1.42) with \( \tilde{D} = 81D_X^2 / 16 \).

**Proof.** In view of Corollary 8.1.a), if \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) are set to (8.1.40), the total number of outer iterations (or gradient evaluations) performed by the GS algorithm to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by

\[ N \leq \left\lceil {L^2 \over 4} \left[ 3V(x_0, x^*) + 2\tilde{D} \right] \right\rceil \leq \sqrt{6L^2 \tilde{D}^2 \over \varepsilon}. \quad (8.1.56) \]

Moreover, using the definition of \( T_k \) in (8.1.40), we conclude that the total number of inner iterations (or subgradient evaluations) can be bounded by

\[ \sum_{k=1}^{N} T_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left( {M^2 N(N+1)^3 \over 3DL^2} + 1 \right) \leq {M^2 N(N+1)^3 \over 3DL^2} + N = {2M^2 N(N+1)^3 \over 9D_X^4 L^2} + N, \]

which, in view of (8.1.56), then clearly implies the bound in (8.1.55). Using Corollary 8.1.b) and similar arguments, we can show that the complexity bounds (8.1.54) and (8.1.55) also hold when \( X \) is bounded, and \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) are set to (8.1.42).

In view of Corollary 8.2, the GS algorithm can achieve the optimal complexity bound for solving problem (8.1.1) in terms of the number of evaluations for both \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \).

It is also worth noting that we can relax the requirement on \( D_X \) in (8.1.53) to \( V(x_0, x^*) \leq D_X^2 \) or \( \max_{x \in X} V(x, x^*) \leq D_X^2 \), respectively, when the stepsize policies in (8.1.40) or in (8.1.42) is used. Accordingly, we can tighten the complexity bounds in (8.1.54) and (8.1.55) by a constant factor.

### 8.1.2 Stochastic gradient sliding

We now consider the situation when the computation of stochastic subgradients of \( h \) is much easier than that of exact subgradients. This situation happens, for example, when \( h \) is given in the form of an expectation or as the summation of many nonsmooth components. By presenting a stochastic gradient sliding (SGS) method, we show that
similar complexity bounds as in Section 8.1.1 for solving problem (8.1.1) can still be obtained in expectation or with high probability, but the iteration cost of the SGS method can be substantially smaller than that of the GS method.

More specifically, we assume that the nonsmooth component $h$ is represented by a stochastic oracle (SFO) satisfying (8.1.6) and (8.1.7). Sometimes, we augment (8.1.7) by a “light-tail” assumption:

$$
\mathbb{E}[\exp(\|H(u, \xi) - h'(u)\|_2^2 / \sigma^2)] \leq \exp(1).
$$

It can be easily seen that (8.1.57) implies (8.1.7) by Jensen’s inequality.

The stochastic gradient sliding (SGS) algorithm is obtained by simply replacing the exact subgradients in the PS procedure with the stochastic subgradients returned by the SFO. This algorithm is formally described as follows.

**Algorithm 8.2** The stochastic gradient sliding (SGS) algorithm

The algorithm is the same as GS except that the identity (8.1.17) in the PS procedure is replaced by

$$
u_t = \arg\min_{u \in X} \{ g(u) + \langle H(u_{t-1}, \xi_{t-1}), u \rangle + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) + \chi(u) \}.
$$

The above modified PS procedure is called the SPS (stochastic PS) procedure.

We add a few remarks about the above SGS algorithm. Firstly, in this algorithm, we assume that the exact gradient of $f$ will be used throughout the $T_k$ inner iterations. This is different from the stochastic accelerated gradient method in Section 4.2, where one needs to compute $\nabla f$ at each subgradient projection step. Secondly, let us denote

$$
\tilde{h}(u_{t-1}, u) := h(u_{t-1}) + \langle H(u_{t-1}, \xi_{t-1}), u - u_{t-1} \rangle.
$$

It can be easily seen that (8.1.58) is equivalent to

$$
u_t = \arg\min_{u \in X} \{ g(u) + \tilde{h}(u_{t-1}, u) + \beta p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) + \chi(u) \}.
$$

This problem reduces to (8.1.17) if there is no stochastic noise associated with the SFO, i.e., $\sigma = 0$ in (8.1.7). Thirdly, note that we have not provided the specification of $\{B_k\}, \{\gamma_k\}, \{T_k\}, \{p_t\}$ and $\{\theta_t\}$ in the SGS algorithm. Similarly to Section 8.1.1, we will return to this issue after establishing some convergence properties about the generic SPS procedure and SGS algorithm.

The following result describes some important convergence properties of the SPS procedure.

**Proposition 8.3.** Assume that $\{p_t\}$ and $\{\theta_t\}$ in the SPS procedure satisfy (8.1.20). Then for any $t \geq 1$ and $u \in X$, 

\[ \beta (1 - P_t)^{-1}V(u, u) + [\Phi(\tilde{u}) - \Phi(u)] \leq \beta P_t (1 - P_t)^{-1}V(u_{t-1}, u) + P_t (1 - P_t)^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{t} (p_i P_{t-1})^{-1} \left[ \frac{(M + \|\delta_i\|_*)^2}{2\beta P_t} + \langle \delta_i, u - u_{t-1} \rangle \right], \]  
(8.1.61)

where \( \Phi \) is defined in (8.1.19).

\[ \delta_t := H(u_{t-1}, \xi_{t-1}) - h'(u_{t-1}), \quad \text{and} \quad h'(u_{t-1}) = \mathbb{E}[H(u_{t-1}, \xi_{t-1})]. \]  
(8.1.62)

**Proof.** Let \( \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u) \) be defined in (8.1.59). Clearly, we have \( \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u) - I_h(u_{t-1}, u) = \langle \delta_t, u - u_{t-1} \rangle \). Using this observation and (8.1.22), we obtain

\[
\Phi(u_t) \leq g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|
\leq g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u) - \langle \delta_t, u_t - u_{t-1} \rangle + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) + M\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|
\leq g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) + (M + \|\delta_t\|_*)\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|,
\]
where the last inequality follows from the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality. Now applying Lemma 3.5 to (8.1.58), we obtain

\[
g(u_t) \leq g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \beta p_1 V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \chi(u_t)
\leq g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \beta p_1 V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \chi(u_t) - \beta (1 + p_1) V(u_t, u_t)
= g(u) + \tilde{I}_h(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \beta V(x, u_t) + \chi(u_t) - \beta (1 + p_1) V(u_t, u_t)
\leq \Phi(u_t) + \beta p_1 V(u_{t-1}, u_t) - \beta (1 + p_1) V(u_t, u_t) + \langle \delta_t, u - u_{t-1} \rangle,
\]
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of \( v \) and (8.1.19). Moreover, by the strong convexity of \( v \),

\[
-\beta p_1 V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + (M + \|\delta_t\|_*)\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|
\leq -\frac{\beta p_1}{2} \|u_t - u_{t-1}\|^2 + (M + \|\delta_t\|_*)\|u_t - u_{t-1}\| \leq \frac{(M + \|\delta_t\|_*)^2}{2\beta p_1},
\]

where the last inequality follows from the simple fact that \(-a^2/2 + bt \leq b^2/(2a)\) for any \( a > 0 \). Combining the previous three inequalities, we conclude that

\[ \Phi(u_t) - \Phi(u) \leq \beta p_1 V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + (M + \|\delta_t\|_*)\|u_t - u_{t-1}\|.
\]

Now dividing both sides of the above inequality by \( 1 + p_1 \) and re-arranging the terms, we obtain

\[ \beta V(u_t, u) + \frac{\Phi(u_t) - \Phi(u)}{1 + p_1} \leq \beta \frac{p_1}{1 + p_1} V(u_{t-1}, u_t) + \frac{(M + \|\delta_t\|_*)^2}{2\beta (1 + p_1)} \|u_t - u_{t-1}\|,
\]
which, in view of Lemma 3.17, then implies that
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial t} V(u_t, u) + \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{\Phi(u_i) - \Phi(u)}{P_i (1 + p_i)} \leq BV(u_0, u) + \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \left( \frac{(M + ||\delta||)^2}{2P_i (1 + p_i)} + \langle \delta, u - u_{i-1} \rangle \right).
\]

(8.1.63)

The result then immediately follows from the above inequality and (8.1.24).

It should be noted that the search points \( \{u_t\} \) generated by different calls to the SPS procedure in different outer iterations of the SGS algorithm are distinct from each other. To avoid ambiguity, we use \( u_{k,t} \), \( k \geq 1, t \geq 0 \), to denote the search points generated by the SPS procedure in the \( k \)-th outer iteration. Accordingly, we use

\[
\delta_{k,t-1} := H(u_{k,t-1}, \xi_{k-1}) - h'(u_{k,t-1}), \quad k \geq 1, t \geq 1,
\]

(8.1.64)

to denote the stochastic noises associated with the SFO. Then, by (8.1.61), the definition of \( \Phi_k \) in (8.1.12), and the origin of \( (x_k, \xi_k) \) in the SGS algorithm, we have

\[
\beta_k (1 - P_{k})^{-1} V(x_k, u) + \Phi_k (x_k) - \Phi_k (u) \leq \beta_k P_{k} (1 - P_{k})^{-1} V(x_k, u) + P_{k} (1 - P_{k})^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{1}{P_i} \left( \frac{(M + ||\delta_{k,t-1}||)}{2\beta_k P_i} + \langle \delta_{k,t-1}, u - u_{k,t-1} \rangle \right)
\]

(8.1.65)

for any \( u \in X \) and \( k \geq 1 \).

With the help of (8.1.65), we are now ready to establish the main convergence properties of the SGS algorithm.

**Theorem 8.2.** Suppose that \( \{p_i\}, \{\theta_i\}, \{\beta_k\}, \) and \( \{\gamma_k\} \) in the SGS algorithm satisfy (8.1.20) and (8.1.25).

a) If relation (8.1.33) holds, then under Assumptions (8.1.6) and (8.1.7), we have, for any \( N \geq 1 \),

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Psi_N(x_N^*) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \hat{\mathcal{R}}_d(N) := \frac{\Gamma_k \beta_1}{1 - P_{k}} V(x_0, u) + \Gamma_k N \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2) \gamma_k P_{k}}{\beta_k P_{k} (1 - P_{k}) p_i P_{i-1}}.
\]

(8.1.66)

where \( x^* \) is an arbitrary optimal solution of (8.1.1), and \( P_{i} \) and \( \Gamma_k \) are defined in (8.1.18) and (8.1.32), respectively.

b) If in addition, \( X \) is compact and Assumption (8.1.57) holds, then

\[
\text{Prob} \{\Psi_N(x_N^*) - \Psi(x^*) \geq \hat{\mathcal{R}}_d(N) + \lambda, \mathcal{R}_p(N)\} \leq \exp \left\{-2\lambda^2/3 \right\} + \exp \left\{-\lambda \right\},
\]

(8.1.67)

for any \( \lambda > 0 \) and \( N \geq 1 \), where

\[
\hat{\mathcal{R}}_p(N) := \sigma \Gamma_k \left\{ 2 \mathbb{V}(x^*) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{\gamma_k P_{k}}{\beta_k P_{k} (1 - P_{k}) p_i P_{i-1}} \right\}^{1/2} + \Gamma_k N \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \frac{\sigma^2 \gamma_k P_{k}^2}{\beta_k P_{k} (1 - P_{k}) p_i P_{i-1}}.
\]

(8.1.68)
c) If \( X \) is compact and relation (8.1.35) (instead of (8.1.33)) holds, then both part a) and part b) still hold by replacing the first term in the definition of \( \hat{B}_d(N) \) with \( \gamma n_0^1V(x^*)/(1 - P_{N}) \).

**Proof.** Using (8.1.31) and (8.1.65), we have

\[
\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi(u) \leq (1 - \gamma_1)\Psi(\tilde{x}_0) - \Psi(u) + \gamma_1 \left\{ \frac{\beta_{k}}{1 - P_{k}} \left[ V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u) \right] + \frac{P_{k}}{1 - P_{k}^k} \sum_{l=1}^{T_k} \frac{1}{P_{l}} \left[ \frac{(M + \|\delta_{k,l-1}\|)^2}{2\beta_{k}P_{k}} + \langle \delta_{k, l-1}, u - u_{k, l-1} \rangle \right] \right\}.
\]

Using the above inequality and Lemma 3.17, we conclude that

\[
\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(u) \leq \Gamma_N (1 - \gamma_1)\Psi(\tilde{x}_0) - \Psi(u) + \Gamma_N \Sigma_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\beta_{k} \gamma N}{1 - P_{k}} \left[ V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u) \right] + \Gamma_N \Sigma_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\gamma P_{k}}{1 - P_{k}^k} \sum_{l=1}^{T_k} \frac{1}{P_{l}} \left[ \frac{(M + \|\delta_{k,l-1}\|)^2}{2\beta_{k}P_{k}} + \langle \delta_{k, l-1}, u - u_{k, l-1} \rangle \right].
\]

The above relation, in view of (8.1.37) and the fact that \( \gamma_1 = 1 \), then implies that

\[
\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(u) \leq \frac{\beta_{k}}{1 - P_{k}} V(x_0, u) + \Gamma_N \Sigma_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\gamma P_{k}}{1 - P_{k}^k} \sum_{l=1}^{T_k} \frac{1}{P_{l}} \left[ \frac{M^2 + \|\delta_{k,l-1}\|^2}{2\beta_{k}P_{k}} + \langle \delta_{k, l-1}, u - u_{k, l-1} \rangle \right].
\]

(8.1.69)

We now provide bounds on the RHS of (8.1.69) in expectation or with high probability.

We first show part a). Note that by our assumptions on the SFO, the random variable \( \delta_{k,l-1} \) is independent of the search point \( u_{k,l-1} \) and hence \( E[\|\Delta_{k,l-1}(x^* - u_{k,l-1})\|] = 0 \). In addition, Assumption 8.1.7 implies that \( E[\|\delta_{k,l-1}\|^2] \leq \sigma^2 \). Using the previous two observations and taking expectation on both sides of (8.1.69) (with \( u = x^* \)), we obtain (8.1.66).

We now show that part b) holds. Note that by our assumptions on the SFO and the definition of \( u_{k,l} \), the sequence \( \{\langle \delta_{k,l-1}, x^* - u_{k,l-1}\rangle\} \) is a martingale-difference sequence. Denoting

\[
\alpha_{k,l} := \frac{\gamma P_{k} \Gamma_N}{\Gamma_N + (1 - P_{k})P_{k}^k},
\]

and using the large-deviation theorem for martingale-difference sequence and the fact that
where the last inequality follows from Assumption 8.1.57. Therefore, by Markov’s inequality, we conclude that

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \alpha_{k,i} \delta_{k,i-1}, x^* - u_{k,i-1} > \lambda \sigma \sqrt{2 \bar{V}(x^*) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \alpha_{k,i}^2} \right\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda^2 / 3\}, \forall \lambda > 0. \tag{8.1.70}
\]

Now let

\[ S_{k,i} := \frac{\gamma_k P_k}{\beta_k (1-P_k) \gamma_k P_{k-1}} \]

and \( S := \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} S_{k,i} \). By the convexity of exponential function, we have

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \alpha_{k,i} \delta_{k,i-1}, x^* - u_{k,i-1} > (1 + \lambda) \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} S_{k,i} \right\} = \text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \alpha_{k,i} \delta_{k,i-1}, x^* - u_{k,i-1} > (1 + \lambda) \right\} \leq \exp\{-\lambda\}. \tag{8.1.71}
\]

Our result now directly follows from (8.1.69), (8.1.70) and (8.1.71). The proof of part c) is very similar to part a) and b) in view of the bound in (8.1.38), and hence the details are skipped.

We now provide some specific choices for the parameters \( \{ \beta_k \}, \{ \gamma_k \}, \{ T_k \}, \{ p_i \}, \) and \( \{ \theta_i \} \) used in the SGS algorithm. In particular, while the stepsize policy in Corollary 8.3.a) requires the number of iterations \( N \) given a priori, such an assumption is not needed in Corollary 8.3.b) given that \( X \) is bounded. However, in order to provide some large-deviation results associated with the rate of convergence for the SGS algorithm (see (8.1.74) and (8.1.77) below), we need to assume the boundness of \( X \) in both Corollary 8.3.a) and Corollary 8.3.b).

**Corollary 8.3.** Assume that \( \{ p_i \} \) and \( \{ \theta_i \} \) in the SPS procedure are set to (8.1.39).

a) If \( N \) is given a priori, \( \{ \beta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to (8.1.40), and \( \{ T_k \} \) is given by

\[
T_k = \left\lfloor \frac{\bar{M}^2 + \sigma^2}{\bar{M}^2} \right\rfloor \tag{8.1.72}
\]

for some \( \bar{M} > 0 \). Then under Assumptions (8.1.6) and (8.1.7), we have
\[
E[\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{2L}{N(N+1)} \left[3V(x_0,x^*) + 4\tilde{D}\right], \quad \forall N \geq 1.
\] (8.1.73)

If in addition, \(X\) is compact and Assumption (8.1.57) holds, then
\[
\text{Prob}\left\{\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \geq \frac{2L}{N(N+1)} \left[3V(x_0,x^*) + 4(1+\lambda)\tilde{D} + \frac{4\lambda \sqrt{\varphi(x^*)}}{\sqrt{3}}\right]\right\}
\leq \exp\left\{-2\lambda^2/3\right\} + \exp\{-\lambda\}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0, \forall N \geq 1.
\] (8.1.74)

b) If \(X\) is compact, \(\{\beta_k\}\) and \(\{\gamma_k\}\) are set to (8.1.42), and \(\{T_k\}\) is given by
\[
T_k = \left[\frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2)(k+1)^3}{27 \tilde{D}^2}\right]
\] (8.1.75)

for some \(\tilde{D} > 0\). Then under Assumptions (8.1.6) and (8.1.7), we have
\[
E[\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{L}{N(N+1)N(N+2)} \left[\frac{27\varphi(x^*)}{2} + 16\tilde{D}\right], \quad \forall N \geq 1.
\] (8.1.76)

If in addition, Assumption (8.1.57) holds, then
\[
\text{Prob}\left\{\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*) \geq \frac{L}{N(N+1)N(N+2)} \left[\frac{27\varphi(x^*)}{2} + \frac{8}{3}(2+\lambda)\tilde{D} + \frac{12\lambda \sqrt{\varphi(x^*)}}{\sqrt{3}}\right]\right\}
\leq \exp\left\{-2\lambda^2/3\right\} + \exp\{-\lambda\}, \quad \forall \lambda > 0, \forall N \geq 1.
\] (8.1.77)

Proof. We first show part a). It can be easily seen from (8.1.46) that (8.1.25) holds. Moreover, Using (8.1.40), (8.1.45), and (8.1.46), we can easily see that (8.1.33) holds. By (8.1.45), (8.1.46), (8.1.48), (8.1.66), and (8.1.72), we have
\[
\tilde{B}_d(N) \leq \frac{4LV(x_0,x^*)}{N(N+1)(1-P_{1,k})} + \frac{8(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{LN(N+1)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{T_k^2 + 3}
\leq \frac{6L}{N(N+1)} + \frac{8(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{LN(N+1)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{T_k^2 + 3}
\leq \frac{2L}{N(N+1)} \left[3V(x_0,x^*) + 4\tilde{D}\right],
\] (8.1.78)

which, in view of Theorem 8.2.a), then clearly implies (8.1.73). Now observe that by the definition of \(\gamma_k\) in (8.1.40) and relation (8.1.46),
\[
\sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \left[\frac{\gamma_i P_i}{I_i(1-P_{i,k}) I_{i-1}}\right]^2 = \left(\frac{2k}{I_{i}(I_{i+3})}\right)^2 \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} (i+1)^2
\leq \left(\frac{2k}{I_{i}(I_{i+3})}\right)^2 \frac{(I_k+1)(I_k+2)(2I_k+3)}{6} \leq \frac{8\sigma^2}{M},
\]
which together with (8.1.46), (8.1.48), and (8.1.68) then imply that
which together with (8.1.42), (8.1.75), and (8.1.68) then imply that

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_p(N) \leq \frac{6\sigma}{N(N+1)(N+2)}\left[\sigma\left(2\mathcal{\tilde{V}}(x^*)\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{T_k^2}\right)^{1/2} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{9}\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{T_k^2}\right]
\]

\[
= \frac{6\sqrt{2}V(x^*)D}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{4\tilde{D}}{N}
\]

Using the above inequality, (8.1.78), Theorem 8.2.b), we obtain (8.1.74).

We now show that part b) holds. Note that \(P_i\) and \(T_k\) are given by (8.1.44) and (8.1.50), respectively. It then follows from (8.1.49) and (8.1.51) that both (8.1.25) and (8.1.35) hold. Using (8.1.52), the definitions of \(\gamma_k\) and \(\beta_k\) in (8.1.42), (8.1.75), and Theorem 8.2.c), we conclude that

\[
\mathbb{E} [\Psi(\tilde{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{\gamma_k\beta_k\mathcal{\tilde{V}}(x^*)}{(1-P_{k+1})} + \frac{16\tilde{D}}{3(N+1)(N+2)} \leq \frac{L}{(N+1)(N+2)} \left( \frac{27V(x^*)}{2} + \frac{16\tilde{D}}{N+1} \right).
\]  

(8.1.79)

Now observe that by the definition of \(\gamma_k\) in (8.1.42), the fact that \(p_t = t/2\), (8.1.44), and (8.1.50), we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{T_k} \left[ \frac{\gamma_k\beta_k\mathcal{\tilde{V}}(x^*)}{(1-P_{k+1})} \right] = \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{T_k(T_k+3)} \right)^2 \sum_{i=1}^{T_k} (i+1)^2 \leq \frac{8k^4}{T_k^4},
\]

which together with (8.1.50), (8.1.52), and (8.1.68) then imply that

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{R}}_p(N) \leq \frac{2\sigma}{N(N+1)(N+2)}\left[\frac{8k^2}{T_k^2}\right]^{1/2} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{9}\sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{k^2}{T_k^2}
\]

\[
\leq \frac{6\sqrt{2}V(x^*)D}{N(N+1)(N+2)} + \frac{4\tilde{D}}{N}
\]

The relation in (8.1.77) then immediately follows from the above inequality, (8.1.79), and Theorem 8.2.c).

Corollary 8.4 below states the complexity of the SGS algorithm for finding a stochastic \(\epsilon\)-solution of (8.1.1), i.e., a point \(\tilde{x} \in X\) s.t. \(\mathbb{E} [\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi^*] \leq \epsilon\) for some \(\epsilon > 0\), as well as a stochastic \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (8.1.1), i.e., a point \(\tilde{x} \in X\) s.t. \(\mathbb{P} \{\Psi(\tilde{x}) - \Psi^* \leq \epsilon\} > 1 - \Lambda\) for some \(\epsilon > 0\) and \(\Lambda \in (0, 1)\). Since this result follows as an immediate consequence of Corollary 8.3, we skipped the details of its proof.
Corollary 8.4. Suppose that \( \{ p_t \} \) and \( \{ \theta_t \} \) are set to (8.1.39). Also assume that there exists an estimate \( D_X > 0 \) s.t. (8.1.53) holds.

\( a) \) If \( \{ \beta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to (8.1.40), and \( \{ T_k \} \) is given by (8.1.72) with \( \tilde{D} = 3D_X^2/(4) \) for some \( N > 0 \), then the number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \), respectively, required by the SGS algorithm to find a stochastic \( \epsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left( \frac{LD_X^2}{\epsilon} \right) \tag{8.1.80}
\]

and

\[
\mathcal{O} \left\{ \frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2)D_X^2}{\epsilon^2} + \sqrt{\frac{LD_X^2}{\epsilon}} \right\}. \tag{8.1.81}
\]

\( b) \) If in addition, Assumption (8.1.57) holds, then the number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \), respectively, required by the SGS algorithm to find a stochastic \((\epsilon, \Lambda)\)-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{LD_X^2}{\epsilon}} \max \left( 1, \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} \right) \right\} \tag{8.1.82}
\]

and

\[
\mathcal{O} \left\{ \frac{M^2D_X^2}{\epsilon^2} \max \left( 1, \log^2 \frac{1}{\Lambda} \right) + \sqrt{\frac{LD_X^2}{\epsilon}} \max \left( 1, \log \frac{1}{\Lambda} \right) \right\}. \tag{8.1.83}
\]

\( c) \) The above bounds in part \( a) \) and \( b) \) still hold if \( X \) is bounded, \( \{ \beta_k \} \) and \( \{ \gamma_k \} \) are set to (8.1.42), and \( \{ T_k \} \) is given by (8.1.75) with \( \tilde{D} = 81D_X^2/(32). \)

Observe that both bounds in (8.1.80) and (8.1.81) on the number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \) are essentially not improvable. In fact, it is interesting to note that only \( \mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\epsilon}) \) gradient evaluations is required by this stochastic approximation type algorithm applied to solve the composite problem in (8.1.1).

8.1.3 Strongly convex and structured nonsmooth problems

We intend to show that the gradient sliding techniques developed in Sections 8.1.1 and 8.1.2 can be further generalized to some other important classes of CP problems. More specifically, we first study in Subsection 8.1.3.1 the composite CP problems in (8.1.1) with \( f \) being strongly convex, and then consider in Subsection 8.1.3.2 the case where \( f \) is a special nonsmooth function given in a bi-linear saddle point form. Throughout this subsection, we assume that the nonsmooth component \( h \) is represented by a SFO (see Section 1). It is clear that our discussion covers also the deterministic composite problems as certain special cases by setting \( \sigma = 0 \) in (8.1.7) and (8.1.57).
8.1 Gradient sliding for composite optimization

8.1.3.1 Strongly convex optimization

In this section, we assume that the smooth component \( f \) in (8.1.1) is strongly convex, i.e., \( \exists \mu > 0 \) such that

\[
f(x) \geq f(y) + \langle \nabla f(y), x - y \rangle + \mu V(y, x), \quad \forall x, y \in X. \tag{8.1.84}
\]

One way to solve these strongly convex composite problems is to apply the aforementioned stochastic accelerated gradient descent method (or accelerated stochastic approximation algorithm) which would require \( \mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon) \) evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h' \) to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1) (Section 4.2). However, we will show in this subsection that this bound on the number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) can be significantly reduced to \( \mathcal{O}(\log(1/\varepsilon)) \), by properly restarting the SGS algorithm in Section 8.1.2. This multi-phase stochastic gradient sliding (M-SGS) algorithm is formally described as follows.

Algorithm 8.3

The multi-phase stochastic gradient sliding (M-SGS) algorithm

\[
\text{Input: Initial point } y_0 \in X, \text{ iteration limit } N_0, \text{ and an initial estimate } \Delta_0 \text{ s.t. } \Psi(y_0) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_0. \\
\text{for } s = 1, 2, \ldots, S \text{ do} \\
\begin{align*}
&\text{Run the SGS algorithm with } x_0 = y_{s-1}, \ N = N_0, \ \{p_t\} \text{ and } \{\theta_t\} \text{ in (8.1.39), } \{\beta_k\} \text{ and } \{\gamma_k\} \text{ in (8.1.40), and } \{T_k\} \text{ in (8.1.72) with } \tilde{D} = \Delta_0/(\mu 2^s), \text{ and let } y_s \text{ be its output solution.} \\
\end{align*}
\text{end for} \\
\text{Output: } y_S.
\]

We now establish the main convergence properties of the M-SGS algorithm described above.

**Theorem 8.3.** If \( N_0 = \left\lceil 2\sqrt{5L/\mu} \right\rceil \) in the M-SGS algorithm, then

\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(y_s) - \Psi^*] \leq \frac{\Delta_0}{2^s}, \quad s \geq 0. \tag{8.1.85}
\]

As a consequence, the total number of evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and \( h \), respectively, required by the M-SGS algorithm to find a stochastic \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O}\left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1 \right\} \right) \tag{8.1.86}
\]

and

\[
\mathcal{O}\left( \frac{M^2 + \sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon} + \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1 \right\} \right). \tag{8.1.87}
\]

**Proof.** We show (8.1.85) by induction. Note that (8.1.85) clearly holds for \( s = 0 \) by our assumption on \( \Delta_0 \). Now assume that (8.1.85) holds at phase \( s - 1 \), i.e., \( \Psi(y_{s-1}) - \Psi^* \leq \Delta_0/2^{s-1} \) for some \( s \geq 1 \). In view of Corollary 8.3 and the definition of \( y_s \), we have
\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi(y_s) - \Psi^*|y_{s-1}] \leq \frac{2L}{N_0(N_0+1)} \left[ 3V(y_{s-1}, x^*) + 4\tilde{D} \right] \leq \frac{4L}{N_0} \left( \Psi(y_{s-1}) - \Psi^* \right) + 4\tilde{D}, \]

where the second inequality follows from the strong convexity of \( \Psi \) and \( \Psi^* \). Now taking expectation on both sides of the above inequality w.r.t. \( y_{s-1} \), and using the induction hypothesis and the definition of \( \tilde{D} \) in the M-SGS algorithm, we conclude that

\[ \mathbb{E}[\Psi(y_s) - \Psi^*] \leq \frac{2L}{N_0} \frac{5\Delta_0}{\mu s + 1} \leq \frac{4\Delta_0}{s^2}, \]

where the last inequality follows from the definition of \( N_0 \). Now, by (8.1.85), the total number of phases performed by the M-SGS algorithm can be bounded by

\[ S = \left\lceil \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\} \right\rceil \]

Using this observation, we can easily see that the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) is given by \( N_0S \), which is bounded by (8.1.86).

Now let us provide a bound on the total number of stochastic subgradient evaluations of \( h' \). Without loss of generality, let us assume that \( \Delta_0 > \epsilon \). Using the previous bound on \( S \) and the definition of \( T_k \), the total number of stochastic subgradient evaluations of \( h' \) can be bounded by

\[
\sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} T_k \leq \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} \left( \frac{\mu N_0(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{3\Delta_0 L^2} k^2 s^2 + 1 \right) \\
\leq \sum_{s=1}^{S} \sum_{k=1}^{N_0} \left( \frac{\mu N_0(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{3\Delta_0 L^2} (N_0 + 1)^3 2^{s} + N_0 \right) \\
\leq \frac{\mu N_0(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{3\Delta_0 L^2} \left[ (N_0 + 1)^3 2^{s} + N_0 \right] + N_0 S \\
\leq \frac{4\mu N_0(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{3\Delta_0 L^2} \left[ (N_0 + 1)^3 2^{s} + 1 \right] + N_0 S.
\]

This observation, in view of the definition of \( N_0 \), then clearly implies the bound in (8.1.87).

We now add a few remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 8.3. Firstly, the M-SGS algorithm possesses optimal complexity bounds in terms of the number of gradient evaluations for \( \nabla f \) and subgradient evaluations for \( h' \), while existing algorithms only exhibit optimal complexity bounds on the number of stochastic subgradient evaluations (see Section 4.2). Secondly, in Theorem 8.3, we only establish the optimal convergence of the M-SGS algorithm in expectation. It is also possible to establish the optimal convergence of this algorithm with high probability by making use of the light-tail assumption in (8.1.57) and a domain shrinking procedure.

### 8.1.3.2 Structured nonsmooth problems

Our goal in this subsection is to further generalize the gradient sliding algorithms to the situation when \( f \) is nonsmooth, but can be closely approximated by a certain smooth convex function.

More specifically, we assume that \( f \) is given in the form of
8.1 Gradient sliding for composite optimization

\[ f(x) = \max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - J(y), \quad (8.1.88) \]

where \( A : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m \) denotes a linear operator, \( Y \) is a closed convex set, and \( J : Y \to \mathbb{R} \) is a relatively simple, proper, convex, and lower semi-continuous (l.s.c.) function (i.e., problem (8.1.91) below is easy to solve). Observe that if \( J \) is the convex conjugate of some convex function \( F \) and \( Y \equiv \mathcal{Y} \), then problem (8.1.1) with \( f \) given in (8.1.88) can be written equivalently as

\[ \min_{x \in X} h(x) + F(Ax), \]

Similarly to the previous subsection, we focus on the situation when \( h \) is represented by a SFO. Stochastic composite problems in this form have wide applications in machine learning, for example, to minimize the regularized loss function of

\[ \min_{x \in X} \mathbb{E}_\xi [l(x, \xi)] + F(Ax), \]

where \( l(\cdot, \xi) \) is a convex loss function for any \( \xi \in \Xi \) and \( F(Kx) \) is a certain regularization.

Since \( f \) in (8.1.88) is nonsmooth, we cannot directly apply the gradient sliding methods developed in the previous sections. However, the function \( f(\cdot) \) in (8.1.88) can be closely approximated by a class of smooth convex functions. More specifically, for a given strongly convex function \( \omega : Y \to \mathbb{R} \) such that

\[ \omega(y) \geq \omega(x) + \langle \nabla \omega(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \|y - x\|^2, \forall x, y \in Y, \quad (8.1.89) \]

let us denote \( c_\omega := \arg\min_{y \in Y} \omega(y) \), \( W(y) \equiv W(c_\omega, y) := \omega(y) - \omega(c_\omega) - \langle \nabla \omega(c_\omega), y - c_\omega \rangle \) and

\[ D_Y := \left[ \max_{y \in Y} W(y) \right]^{1/2}. \quad (8.1.90) \]

Then the function \( f(\cdot) \) in (8.1.88) can be closely approximated by

\[ f_\eta(x) := \max_y \{ \langle Ax, y \rangle - J(y) - \eta W(y) : y \in Y \}. \quad (8.1.91) \]

Indeed, by definition we have \( 0 \leq W(y) \leq D_Y^2 \) and hence, for any \( \eta \geq 0, \)

\[ f(x) - \eta D_Y^2 \leq f_\eta(x) \leq f(x), \quad \forall x \in X. \quad (8.1.92) \]

Moreover, \( f_\eta(\cdot) \) is differentiable and its gradients are Lipschitz continuous with the Lipschitz constant given by

\[ \mathcal{L}_\eta := \frac{\|A\|^2}{\eta}. \quad (8.1.93) \]

We are now ready to present a smoothing stochastic gradient sliding (S-SGS) method and study its convergence properties.
Theorem 8.4. Let \((\bar{x}_k, x_k)\) be the search points generated by a smoothing stochastic gradient sliding (S-SGS) method, which is obtained by replacing \(f\) with \(f_\eta(\cdot)\) in the definition of \(g_k\) in the SGS method. Suppose that \(\{p_t\}\) and \(\{\theta_t\}\) in the SPS procedure are set to (8.1.39). Also assume that \(\{\beta_k\}\) and \(\{\gamma_k\}\) are set to (8.1.40) and that \(T_k\) is given by (8.1.72) with \(\tilde{D} = 3D_X^2 / 4\) for some \(N \geq 1\), where \(D_X\) is given by (8.1.53). If 
\[
\eta = \frac{2\sqrt{3}\|A\|D_X}{N^2},
\]
then the total number of outer iterations and inner iterations performed by the S-SGS algorithm to find an \(\epsilon\)-solution of (8.1.1) can be bounded by
\[
O\left(\frac{|A|D_X D_Y}{\epsilon} \right) \quad (8.1.94)
\]
and
\[
O\left\{\frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2)|A|^2V(x_0, x^*)}{\epsilon^2} + \frac{|A|D_Y \sqrt{V(x_0, x^*)}}{\epsilon}\right\}, \quad (8.1.95)
\]
respectively.

Proof. Let us denote \(\Psi_\eta(x) = f_\eta(x) + h(x) + \chi(x)\). In view of (8.1.73) and (8.1.93), we have
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi_\eta(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi_\eta(x)] \leq \frac{2L_\eta}{N(N+1)} \left[ 3V(x_0, x) + 4\tilde{D} \right]
\]
\[
= \frac{2|A|^2}{\eta N(N+1)} \left[ 3V(x_0, x) + 4\tilde{D} \right], \quad \forall x \in X, N \geq 1.
\]
Moreover, it follows from (8.1.92) that
\[
\Psi_\eta(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi_\eta(x) \geq \Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x) - \eta D_Y^2.
\]
Combining the above two inequalities, we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x)] \leq \frac{2|A|^2}{\eta N(N+1)} \left[ 3V(x_0, x) + 4\tilde{D} \right] + \eta D_Y^2, \quad \forall x \in X,
\]
which implies that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{2|A|^2}{\eta N(N+1)} \left[ 3D_X^2 + 4\tilde{D} \right] + \eta D_Y^2. \quad (8.1.96)
\]
Plugging the value of \(\tilde{D}\) and \(\eta\) into the above bound, we can easily see that
\[
\mathbb{E}[\Psi(\bar{x}_N) - \Psi(x^*)] \leq \frac{4\sqrt{3}|A|D_X D_Y}{N}, \quad \forall x \in X, N \geq 1.
\]
It then follows from the above relation that the total number of outer iterations to find an \(\epsilon\)-solution of problem (8.1.88) can be bounded by
\[
\bar{N}(\epsilon) = \frac{4\sqrt{3}|A|D_X D_Y}{\epsilon}.
\]
Now observe that the total number of inner iterations is bounded by
\[ \sum_{k=1}^{\tilde{N}(\varepsilon)} T_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\tilde{N}(\varepsilon)} \left( \frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2)\tilde{N}(\varepsilon)k^2}{DL_h^2} + 1 \right) = \sum_{k=1}^{\tilde{N}(\varepsilon)} \left( \frac{(M^2 + \sigma^2)\tilde{N}(\varepsilon)k^2}{DL_h^2} + 1 \right). \]

Combining these two observations, we conclude that the total number of inner iterations is bounded by (8.4).

In view of Theorem 8.4, by using the smoothing SGS algorithm, we can significantly reduce the number of outer iterations, and hence the number of times to access the linear operator $A$ and $A^T$, from $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon)$ in order to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.1.1), while still maintaining the optimal bound on the total number of stochastic subgradient evaluations for $h'$. It should be noted that, by using the result in Theorem 8.2.b), we can show that the aforementioned savings on the access to the linear operator $A$ and $A^T$ also hold with overwhelming probability under the light-tail assumption in (8.1.57) associated with the SFO.

### 8.2 Accelerated gradient sliding

In this section, we show that one can skip gradient computations without slowing down the convergence of gradient descent type methods for solving certain structured convex programming (CP) problems. To motivate our study, let us first consider the following classic bilinear saddle point problem (SPP):

\[
\psi^* := \min_{x \in X} \left\{ \psi(x) := f(x) + \max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - J(y) \right\}. \tag{8.2.1}
\]

Here, $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Y \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ are closed convex sets, $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is a linear operator, $J$ is a relatively simple convex function, and $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuously differentiable convex function satisfying

\[
0 \leq f(x) - l_f(u,x) \leq \frac{L}{2}\|x - u\|^2, \quad \forall x, u \in X, \tag{8.2.2}
\]

for some $L > 0$, where $l_f(u,x) := f(u) + \langle \nabla f(u), x - u \rangle$ denotes the first-order Taylor expansion of $f$ at $u$. Observe that problem (8.2.1) is different from the problem discussed in Section 8.1.3.2, whose objective function consists of a general nonsmooth convex function $h$ (rather than a smooth convex function $f$), although both problems contain a structured nonsmooth component given by in the form of $\max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - J(y)$.

Since $\psi$ is a nonsmooth convex function, traditional nonsmooth optimization methods, e.g., the subgradient method, would require $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ iterations to find an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.2.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x} \in X$ s.t. $\psi(\bar{x}) - \psi^* \leq \varepsilon$. As discussed in Section 3.6, we can approximate $\psi$ by a smooth convex function...
\[ \psi^*_\rho := \min_{x \in X} \{ \psi_\rho(x) := f(x) + h_\rho(x) \}, \quad (8.2.3) \]

with

\[ h_\rho(x) := \max_{y \in Y} \langle Ax, y \rangle - J(y) - \rho W(y_0, y) \quad (8.2.4) \]

for some \( \rho > 0 \), where \( y_0 \in Y \) and \( W(y_0, \cdot) \) is a strongly convex function. By properly choosing \( \rho \) and applying the optimal gradient method to (8.2.3), one can compute an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.2.1) in at most

\[ O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\|A\|}{\varepsilon}} \right) \quad (8.2.5) \]

iterations. Such complexity bounds can also be achieved by primal-dual type methods and their equivalent form as the alternating direction method of multipliers.

One problem associated with the smoothing scheme and the related methods mentioned above is that each iteration of these methods require both the computation of \( \nabla f \) and the evaluation of the linear operators \( (A, A^T) \). As a result, the total number of gradient and linear operator evaluations will both be bounded by \( O(1/\varepsilon) \). However, in many applications the computation of \( \nabla f \) is often much more expensive than the evaluation of the linear operators \( A \) and \( A^T \). This happens, for example, when the linear operator \( A \) is sparse (e.g., total variation, overlapped group lasso and graph regularization), while \( f \) involves a more expensive data-fitting term. In Section 8.1, we considered some similar situation and proposed a gradient sliding (GS) algorithm to minimize a class of composite problems whose objective function is given by the summation of a general smooth and nonsmooth component. We show that one can skip the computation of the gradient for the smooth component from time to time, while still maintaining the \( O(1/\varepsilon^2) \) iteration complexity bound. More specifically, by applying the GS method to problem (8.2.1), we can show that the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) will be bounded by

\[ O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon}} \right), \quad (8.2.6) \]

which is significantly better than (8.2.5). Unfortunately, the total number of evaluations for the linear operators \( A \) and \( A^T \) will be bounded by

\[ O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon} + \frac{\|A\|^2}{\varepsilon^2}} \right), \quad (8.2.7) \]

which is much worse than (8.2.5). An important question is whether one can still preserve the optimal \( O(1/\varepsilon) \) complexity bound in (8.2.5) for solving (8.2.1) by utilizing only \( O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon}) \) gradient computations of \( \nabla f \) to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.2.1). If so, we could be able to keep the total number of iterations relatively small, but significantly reduce the total number of required gradient computations.
In order to address the aforementioned issues associated with existing solution methods for (8.2.1), we introduce in this section a different approach to exploit the structural information of (8.2.1). Firstly, instead of concentrating solely on nonsmooth optimization as in Section 8.1, we study the following smooth composite optimization problem:

\[
\phi^* := \min_{x \in X} \{ \phi(x) := f(x) + h(x) \}.
\]  

(8.2.8)

Here \( f \) and \( h \) are smooth convex functions satisfying (8.2.2) and

\[
0 \leq h(x) - l_h(u,x) \leq \frac{M}{2} \|x - u\|^2, \quad \forall x, u \in X,
\]  

(8.2.9)

respectively. It is worth noting that problem (8.2.8) can be viewed as a special case of (8.2.1) or (8.2.3) (with \( J = h^* \) being a strongly convex function, \( Y = \mathbb{R}^n \), \( A = I \) and \( \rho = 0 \)). Under the assumption that \( M \geq L \), we present a novel accelerated gradient sliding (AGS) method which can skip the computation of \( \nabla f \) from time to time. We show that the total number of required gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \), respectively, can be bounded by

\[
O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon}} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad O \left( \sqrt{\frac{M}{\varepsilon}} \right)
\]  

(8.2.10)

to find an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.2.8). Observe that the above complexity bounds are sharper than the complexity bound obtained by the accelerated gradient method (see Section 3.3) for smooth convex optimization, which is given by

\[
O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L+M}{\varepsilon}} \right).
\]

In particular, for the AGS method, the Lipschitz constant \( M \) associated with \( \nabla h \) does not affect at all the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \). Clearly, the higher ratio of \( M/L \) will potentially result in more savings on the gradient computation of \( \nabla f \). Moreover, if \( f \) is strongly convex with modulus \( \mu \), then the above two complexity bounds in (8.2.10) can be significantly reduced to

\[
O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad O \left( \sqrt{\frac{M}{\mu \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}} \right)
\]  

(8.2.11)

respectively, which also improves the accelerated gradient descent method applied to (8.2.8) in terms of the number gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \). Observe that in the classic black-box setting, the complexity bounds in terms of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \) are intertwined, and a larger Lipschitz constant \( M \) will result in more gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \), even though there is no explicit relationship between \( \nabla f \) and \( M \). In our development, we break down the black-box assumption by assuming that we have separate access to \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \) rather than \( \nabla \phi \) as a whole. To the best of our knowledge, these types of separate complexity bounds as in (8.2.10) and (8.2.11) have never been obtained before for smooth convex optimization.
Secondly, we apply the above AGS method to the smooth approximation problem (8.2.3) in order to solve the aforementioned bilinear SPP in (8.2.1). By choosing the smoothing parameter properly, we show that the total number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and operator evaluations of $A$ (and $A^T$) for finding an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.2.1) can be bounded by

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon}}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\|A\|}{\varepsilon}\right),$$

respectively. In comparison with the original smoothing scheme and other existing methods for solving (8.2.1), our method can provide significant savings on the number of gradient computations of $\nabla f$ without increasing the complexity bound on the number of operator evaluations of $A$ and $A^T$. In comparison with the GS method in Section 3.3, our method can reduce the number of operator evaluations of $A$ and $A^T$ from $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2)$ to $\mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon)$. Moreover, if $f$ is strongly convex with modulus $\mu$, the above two bounds will be significantly reduced to

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu \log \frac{1}{\varepsilon}}}\right) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\|A\|}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\right),$$

respectively. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that these tight complexity bounds were obtained for solving the classic bilinear saddle point problem (8.2.1).

It should be noted that, even though the idea of skipping the computation of $\nabla f$ is similar to Section 3.3, the AGS method presented in this paper significantly differs from the GS method in Section 3.3. In particular, each iteration of GS method consists of one accelerated gradient iteration together with a bounded number of subgradient iterations. On the other hand, each iteration of the AGS method is composed of an accelerated gradient iteration nested with a few other accelerated gradient iterations to solve a different subproblem. The development of the AGS method seems to be more technical than GS and its convergence analysis is also nontrivial.

### 8.2.1 Composite smooth optimization

In this subsection, we present an accelerated gradient sliding (AGS) algorithm for solving the smooth composite optimization problem in (8.2.8) and discuss its convergence properties. Our main objective is to show that the AGS algorithm can skip the evaluation of $\nabla f$ from time to time and achieve better complexity bounds in terms of gradient computations than the classical optimal first-order methods applied to (8.2.8) (e.g., the accelerated gradient descent method in Section 3.3). Without loss of generality, throughout this section we assume that $M \geq L$ in (8.2.2) and (8.2.9).

The AGS method evolves from the gradient sliding (GS) algorithm in Section 8.1, which was designed to solve a class of composite convex optimization problems with the objective function given by the summation of a smooth and nonsmooth...
component. The basic idea of the GS method is to keep the nonsmooth term inside the projection (or proximal mapping) in the accelerated gradient method and then to apply a few subgradient descent iterations to solve the projection subproblem.

Inspired by GS, we suggest to keep the smooth term $h$ that has a larger Lipschitz constant in the proximal mapping in the accelerated gradient method, and then to apply a few accelerated gradient iterations to solve this smooth subproblem. As a consequence, the proposed AGS method involves two nested loops (i.e., outer and inner iterations), each of which consists of a set of modified accelerated gradient descent iterations (see Algorithm 8.4). At the $k$-th outer iteration, we first build a linear approximation $g_k(u) = l_f(x_k, u)$ of $f$ at the search point $x_k \in X$ and then call the ProxAG procedure in (8.2.18) to compute a new pair of search points $(x_k, \tilde{x}_k) \in X \times X$.

Let $V(x, u)$ be the prox-function associated with the distance generating function $\nu$ with modulus 1 so that

$$V(x, u) = \frac{1}{2} ||x - u||^2 \forall x, y \in X. \quad (8.2.14)$$

The ProxAG procedure can be viewed as a subroutine to compute a pair of approximate solutions to

$$\min_{u \in X} g_k(u) + h(u) + \beta V(x_{k-1}, u), \quad (8.2.15)$$

where $g_k(\cdot)$ is defined in (8.2.17), and $x_{k-1}$ is called the prox-center at the $k$-th outer iteration. It is worth mentioning that there are two essential differences associated with the steps (8.2.16)-(8.2.20) from the standard accelerated gradient iterations. Firstly, we use two different search points, i.e., $x_k$ and $\tilde{x}_k$, respectively, to update $x_k$ to compute the linear approximation and $\tilde{x}_k$ to compute the output solution in (8.2.19). Secondly, we employ two parameters, i.e., $\gamma_k$ and $\lambda_k$, to update $x_k$ and $\tilde{x}_k$, respectively, rather than just one single parameter.

The ProxAG procedure in Algorithm 8.4 performs $T_k$ inner accelerated gradient iterations to solve (8.2.15) with certain properly chosen starting points $\tilde{u}_0$ and $u_0$. It should be noted, however, that the accelerated gradient iterations in (8.2.20)-(8.2.22) also differ from the standard accelerated gradient iterations in the sense that the definition of the search point $u_t$ involves a fixed search point $x_t$. Since each inner iteration of the ProxAG procedure requires one evaluation of $\nabla h$ and no evaluation of $\nabla f$, the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla h$ will be greater than that of $\nabla f$ as long as $T_k > 1$. On the other hand, if $\lambda_k \equiv \gamma_k$ and $T_k \equiv 1$ in the AGS method, and $\alpha_t \equiv 1$, and $p_t \equiv q_t \equiv 0$ in the ProxAG procedure, then (8.2.18) becomes

$$x_k = \tilde{x}_k = \arg\min_{u \in X} g_k(u) + l_h(x_k, u) + \beta V(x_{k-1}, u).$$

In this case, the AGS method reduces to a variant of the accelerated gradient descent method.

Our goal in the remaining part of this section is to establish the convergence of the AGS method and to provide theoretical guidance to specify quite a few parameters, including $\{\gamma_k\}$, $\{\beta_k\}$, $\{T_k\}$, $\{\lambda_k\}$, $\{\alpha_t\}$, $\{p_t\}$, and $\{q_t\}$, used in the generic statement of this algorithm. In particular, we will provide upper bounds on the number of outer iterations.
Algorithm 8.4 Accelerated gradient sliding (AGS) algorithm for solving (8.2.8)

Choose \( x_0 \in X \). Set \( \tau_0 = x_0 \).

for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) do

\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda_k &= (1 - \gamma_k)\tau_{k-1} + \gamma_k x_{k-1}, \\
g_k(\cdot) &= f(\lambda_k \cdot), \\
(x_k, \delta_k) &= \text{ProxAG}(g_k, x_{k-1}, x_k, \lambda_k, \beta_k, T_k), \\
\tau_k &= (1 - \lambda_k)\tau_{k-1} + \lambda_k \delta_k.
\end{align*}
\]

end for

Output \( \tau_N \).

procedure \((x^+, \tilde{x}^+) = \text{ProxAG}(g, \tau, x, \lambda, \beta, \gamma, T)\)

Set \( \tilde{u}_0 = \tau \) and \( u_0 = x \).

for \( t = 1, \ldots, T \) do

\[
\begin{align*}
u_t &= (1 - \lambda_t)\tau + \lambda_t (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1} + \lambda_t \alpha_t u_{t-1}, \\
u_t &= \arg\min_{u \in X} g(u) + l_k(u, x_t) + \beta V(x, u) + (\beta p_t + q_t) V(u_t, u), \\
\tilde{u}_t &= (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1} + \alpha_t u_t.
\end{align*}
\]

end for

Output \( x^+ = u_T \) and \( \tilde{x}^+ = \tilde{u}_T \).

end procedure

and inner iterations, corresponding to the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \), respectively, performed by the AGS method to find an \( \epsilon \)-solution to (8.2.8).

We will first study the convergence properties of the ProxAG procedure from which the convergence of the AGS method immediately follows. In our analysis, we measure the quality of the output solution computed at the \( k \)-th call to the ProxAG procedure by

\[
Q_k(x, u) := g_k(x) - g_k(u) + h(x) - h(u).
\]

Indeed, if \( x^* \) is an optimal solution to (8.2.8), then \( Q_k(x, x^*) \) provides a linear approximation for the functional optimality gap \( \phi(x) - \phi(x^*) = f(x) - f(x^*) + h(x) - h(x^*) \) obtained by replacing \( f \) with \( g_k \). The following result describes some relationship between \( \phi(x) \) and \( Q_k(\cdot, \cdot) \).

**Lemma 8.1.** For any \( u \in X \), we have

\[
\begin{align*}
\phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \phi(u) &\leq (1 - \gamma_k)[\phi(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - \phi(u)] + Q_k(\tilde{x}_k, u) - (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k(\tilde{x}_{k-1}, u) \\
&\quad + \frac{\gamma}{2} \| \tilde{x}_k - \tilde{x}_{k-1} \|^2.
\end{align*}
\]

**Proof.** By (8.2.2), (8.2.8), (8.2.17), and the convexity of \( f(\cdot) \), we have
\[
\phi(x_k) - (1 - \gamma_k)\phi(x_{k-1}) - \gamma_k\phi(u) \\
\leq g_k(x_k) + \frac{\phi}{2}||x_k - x_k||^2 + h(x_k) \\
\quad - (1 - \gamma_k)f(x_{k-1}) - (1 - \gamma_k)h(x_{k-1}) - \gamma_kf(u) - \gamma_kh(u) \\
\leq g_k(x_k) + \frac{\phi}{2}||x_k - x_k||^2 + h(x_k) \\
\quad - (1 - \gamma_k)g_k(x_{k-1}) - (1 - \gamma_k)h(x_{k-1}) - \gamma_kg_k(u) - \gamma_kh(u) \\
\equiv Q_k(x_k, u) - (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k(x_{k-1}, u) + \frac{\phi}{2}||x_k - x_k||^2.
\]

We need to derive some useful equalities for our convergence analysis. Let \( \{\alpha_t\} \) be the parameters used in the ProxAG procedure (see (8.2.20) and (8.2.22)) and consider the sequence \( \{\Lambda_t\}_{t \geq 1} \) defined by

\[
\Lambda_t = \begin{cases} 
1 & t = 1, \\
(1 - \alpha_t)\Lambda_{t-1} & t > 1.
\end{cases}
\]

By Lemma 3.17, we have

\[
1 = \Lambda_t \left[ \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\alpha_t} + \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\Lambda_i} \right] = \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha_1) + \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\Lambda_i},
\]

where the last identity follows from the fact that \( \Lambda_1 = 1 \) in (8.2.25). Similarly, applying Lemma 3.17 to the recursion \( \tilde{u}_t = (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1} + \alpha_t u_t \) in (8.2.22), we have

\[
\tilde{u}_t = \Lambda_t \left[ (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_0 + \sum_{i=1}^t \frac{\alpha_i}{\Lambda_i} u_t \right].
\]

In view of (8.2.26) and the fact that \( \tilde{u}_0 = x \) in the description of the ProxAG procedure, the above relation indicates that \( \tilde{u}_t \) is a convex combination of \( x \) and \( \{u_t\}_{t=1} \).

With the help of the above technical results, we are now ready to derive some important convergence properties for the ProxAG procedure in terms of the error measure \( Q_k(\cdot, \cdot) \). For the sake of notational convenience, when we work on the \( k \)-th call to the ProxAG procedure, we drop the subscript \( k \) in (8.2.23) and just denote

\[
Q(x, u) := g(x) - g(u) + h(x) - h(x).
\]

In a similar vein, we also define

\[
\tilde{x} := (1 - \gamma)\tilde{x} + \gamma x \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{x}^+ := (1 - \lambda)\tilde{x} + \lambda\tilde{x}^+.
\]

Comparing the above notations with (8.2.16) and (8.2.19), we can observe that \( \chi \) and \( \chi^+ \), respectively, represent \( x_k \) and \( x_k \) in the \( k \)-th call to the ProxAG procedure.

**Lemma 8.2.** Consider the \( k \)-th call to the ProxAG procedure in Algorithm 8.4 and let \( \Lambda_t \) and \( \chi^+ \) be defined in (8.2.25) and (8.2.29) respectively. If the parameters satisfy
\( \lambda \leq 1, \Lambda_T (1 - \alpha_t) = 1 - \frac{\lambda}{K}, \) and \( \beta p_t + q_t \geq \lambda M \alpha_t, \) \hspace{1cm} (8.2.30)

then
\[
Q(\bar{x}^+, u) - (1 - \gamma)Q(\bar{x}, u) \leq \Lambda_T \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{\gamma(u)}{\lambda t}, \forall u \in X,
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.31)

where
\[
\gamma_t(u) := \lambda \beta \alpha_t [V(x, u) - V(x, u_t) + p_t V(u_{t-1}, u) - (1 + p_t) V(u_t, u)] + \lambda \alpha_t q_t [V(u_{t-1}, u) - V(u_t, u)].
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.32)
\hspace{1cm} (8.2.33)

**Proof.** Let us fix any arbitrary \( u \in X \) and denote
\[
v := (1 - \lambda) \bar{x} + \lambda u, \text{ and } \bar{u}_t := (1 - \lambda) \bar{x} + \lambda u_t.
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.34)

Our proof consists of two major parts. We first prove that
\[
Q(\bar{x}^+, u) - (1 - \gamma)Q(\bar{x}, u) \leq Q(\bar{u}_T, v) - \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{K}\right) Q(\bar{u}_0, v),
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.35)
and then estimate the right-hand-side of (8.2.35) through the following recurrence property:
\[
Q(\bar{u}_T, v) - (1 - \alpha_t)Q(\bar{u}_{t-1}, v) \leq \gamma_t(u).
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.36)

The result in (8.2.31) then follows as an immediate consequence of (8.2.35) and (8.2.36). Indeed, by Lemma 3.17 applied to (8.2.36) (with \( k = t, C_k = \Lambda_t, c_k = \alpha_t, \delta_k = Q(\bar{u}_t, v), \) and \( B_k = \gamma_t(u) \)), we have
\[
Q(\bar{u}_T, v) \leq \Lambda_T \left[ \frac{1 - \alpha_t}{\Lambda_1} Q(\bar{u}_0, v) - \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{\gamma(u)}{\lambda t} \right]
\leq \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{K}\right) Q(\bar{u}_0, v) - \Lambda_T \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{\gamma(u)}{\lambda t},
\]
where last inequality follows from (8.2.30) and the fact that \( \Lambda_1 = 1 \) in (8.2.25). The above relation together with (8.2.35) then clearly imply (8.2.31).

We start with the first part of the proof regarding (8.2.35). By (8.2.28) and the linearity of \( g(\cdot) \), we have
\[
Q(\bar{x}^+, u) - (1 - \gamma)Q(\bar{x}, u)
\]
\[
= g(\bar{x}^+ - (1 - \gamma) \bar{x} - \gamma u + h(\bar{x}^+)) - (1 - \gamma) h(\bar{x}) - \gamma h(u)
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.37)
\[
= g(\bar{x}^+ - \bar{x} + \gamma (\bar{x} - u)) + h(\bar{x}^+) - h(\bar{x}) + \gamma (h(\bar{x}) - h(u)).
\]

Now, noting that by the relation between \( u \) and \( v \) in (8.2.34), we have
\[
\gamma (\bar{x} - u) = \frac{\lambda}{K} (\lambda \bar{x} - \lambda u) = \frac{\lambda}{K} (\bar{x} - v).
\] \hspace{1cm} (8.2.38)

In addition, by (8.2.34) and the convexity of \( h(\cdot) \), we obtain
\[
\frac{\gamma}{\lambda}[h(v) - (1 - \lambda)h(x) - \lambda h(u)] \leq 0,
\]
or equivalently,
\[
\gamma(h(x) - h(u)) \leq \frac{\gamma}{\lambda} (h(x) - h(v)). \tag{8.2.39}
\]

Applying (8.2.38) and (8.2.39) to (8.2.37), and using the definition of \(Q(\cdot, \cdot)\) in (8.2.28), we obtain
\[
Q(x^+, u) - (1 - \gamma)Q(x, u) \leq Q(x^+, v) - \left(1 - \frac{\gamma}{\lambda}\right)Q(x, v).
\]

Noting that \(\tilde{u}_0 = \pi\) and \(x = \tilde{a}_T\) in the description of the ProxAG procedure, by (8.2.29) and (8.2.34) we have \(x^+ = \pi_T\) and \(\tilde{a}_0 = \pi\). Therefore, the above relation is equivalent to (8.2.35), and we conclude the first part of the proof.

For the second part of the proof regarding (8.2.36), first observe that by the definition of \(Q(\cdot, \cdot)\) in (8.2.28), the convexity of \(h(\cdot)\), and (8.2.9),
\[
Q(\pi_t, v) - (1 - \alpha_t)Q(\pi_{t-1}, v) = \lambda \alpha_t (g(u_t) - g(u)) + h(\pi_t) - (1 - \alpha_t)h(\pi_{t-1}) - \alpha_t h(v)
\]
\[
\leq \lambda \alpha_t (g(u_t) - g(u)) + l_b(u_t, \pi_t) + \frac{M}{2} \|\pi_t - u_t\|^2
\]
\[
- (1 - \alpha_t)l_b(u_t, \pi_{t-1}) - \alpha_t l_b(u_t, v)
\]
\[
= \lambda \alpha_t (g(u_t) - g(u)) + l_b(u_t, \pi_t - (1 - \alpha_t)\pi_{t-1} - \alpha_t v) + \frac{M}{2} \|\pi_t - u_t\|^2.
\]

Also note that by (8.2.20), (8.2.22), and (8.2.34),
\[
\pi_t - (1 - \alpha_t)\pi_{t-1} = \alpha_t v = (\pi_t - \pi_{t-1}) + \alpha_t (\pi_{t-1} - v)
\]
\[
= \lambda (\tilde{u}_t - \tilde{u}_{t-1}) + \lambda \alpha_t (\tilde{u}_{t-1} - u) = \lambda (\tilde{u}_t - (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1}) - \lambda \alpha_t u
\]
\[
= \lambda \alpha_t (u_t - u).
\]

By a similar argument as the above, we have
\[
\pi_t - u_t = \lambda (\tilde{u}_t - (1 - \alpha_t)\tilde{u}_{t-1}) - \lambda \alpha_t u_{t-1} = \lambda \alpha_t (u_t - u_{t-1}). \tag{8.2.41}
\]

Using the above two identities in (8.2.40), we have
\[
Q(\pi_t, v) - (1 - \alpha_t)Q(\pi_{t-1}, v)
\]
\[
\leq \lambda \alpha_t \left[ g(u_t) - g(u) + l_b(u_t, u_t) - l_b(u_t, u) + \frac{M \alpha_t}{2} \|u_t - u_{t-1}\|^2 \right].
\]

Moreover, it follows from Lemma 3.5 applied to (8.2.21) that
\[
g(u_t) - g(u) + l_b(u_t, u_t) - l_b(u_t, u)
\]
\[
\leq \beta (V(x, u) - V(u_t, u) - V(x, u_t)) + (\beta p_t + q_t) (V(u_{t-1}, u) - V(u_t, u) - V(u_{t-1}, u_t)). \tag{8.2.42}
\]
Also by (8.2.14) and (8.2.30), we have
\[ \frac{M\alpha}{2} \|u_t - u_{t-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{M\alpha}{2} V(u_{t-1}, u_t) \leq (\beta p_t + q_t) V(u_{t-1}, u_t). \] (8.2.43)
Combining the above three relations, we conclude (8.2.36).

In the following proposition, we provide certain sufficient conditions under which the right-hand-side of (8.2.31) can be properly bounded. As a consequence, we obtain a recurrence relation for the ProxAG procedure in terms of \( Q(x, u) \).

**Proposition 8.4.** Consider the k-th call to the ProxAG procedure. If (8.2.30) holds,
\[ \alpha_t q_t \Lambda_t = \alpha_t + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t (1 + p_t) \Lambda_t = \alpha_t + 1 \] (8.2.44)
for any \( 1 \leq t \leq T - 1 \), then we have
\[ Q(x^+, u) - (1 - \gamma)Q(x, u) \leq \lambda \alpha \beta \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[ V(x, u) - V(x^+, u) \right] - \frac{\beta}{2} \|x - x^+\|^2, \] (8.2.45)
where \( x^+ \) and \( x \) are defined in (8.2.29).

**Proof.** To prove the proposition it suffices to estimate the right-hand-side of (8.2.31). We make three observations regarding the terms in (8.2.31) and (8.2.32). First, by (8.2.26),
\[ \lambda \beta \Lambda T \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t V(x, u) = \lambda \beta (1 - \Lambda_T (1 - \alpha_T)) V(x, u). \]
Second, by (8.2.14), (8.2.26), (8.2.27), (8.2.30), and the fact that \( \tilde{u}_0 = \tilde{x} \) and \( \tilde{x}^+ = \tilde{u}_T \) in the ProxAG procedure, we have
\[ \lambda \beta \Lambda_T \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t V(x, u_t) \geq \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x - \frac{\Lambda_T}{1 - \alpha_T} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t u_t \right\|^2 \]
\[ \geq \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x - \frac{\Lambda_T}{1 - \alpha_T} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t u_t \right\| \]
\[ = \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x - \frac{\Lambda_T}{1 - \alpha_T} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t u_t \right\|^2 \]
\[ = \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x - \frac{\Lambda_T}{1 - \alpha_T} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t u_t \right\|^2 \]
\[ = \frac{\beta}{2} \left\| x - \frac{\Lambda_T}{1 - \alpha_T} \sum_{t=1}^T \alpha_t \Lambda_t u_t \right\|^2 \]
where the last equality follows from (8.2.29). Third, by (8.2.44), the fact that \( \Lambda_T = 1 \) in (8.2.25), and the relations that \( u_0 = x \) and \( u_T = x^+ \) in the ProxAG procedure, we have
\[
\begin{align*}
\lambda \beta \Lambda_T \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{\alpha_i p_i V(u_{i-1}, u)}{\Lambda_i} - (1 + p_i) V(u_i, u) \\
+ \lambda \Lambda_T \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{\alpha_i p_i}{\Lambda_i} [V(u_{i-1}, u) - V(u_i, u)] \\
= & \lambda \beta \Lambda_T \left[ \alpha_1 p_1 V(u_0, u) - \sum_{i=1}^{T-1} \left( \frac{\alpha_{i+1} p_{i+1}}{\Lambda_{i+1}} - \frac{\alpha_i p_i}{\Lambda_i} \right) V(u_i, u) \right] \\
& - \frac{\alpha_{i+1} p_{i+1}}{\Lambda_{i+1}} V(u_T, u) \\
+ \lambda \alpha_T q_T [V(u_0, u) - V(u_T, u)] \\
= & \lambda \beta [\Lambda_T \alpha_1 p_1 V(u_0, u) - \alpha_T (1 + p_T) V(u_T, u)] \\
+ \lambda \alpha_T q_T [V(u_0, u) - V(u_T, u)] \\
= & \lambda \beta [\Lambda_T \alpha_1 p_1 V(x, u) - \alpha_T (1 + p_T) V(x^+, u)] \\
+ \lambda \alpha_T q_T [V(x, u) - V(x^+, u)].
\end{align*}
\]

Using the above three observations in (8.2.31), we have
\[
Q(x^+, u) - (1 - \gamma) Q(x, u) \\
\leq \lambda \beta \left[ (1 - \Lambda_T (1 - \alpha_1) + \Lambda_T \alpha_1 p_1) V(x, u) - \alpha_T (1 + p_T) V(x^+, u) \right] \\
+ \lambda \alpha_T q_T [V(x, u) - V(x^+, u)] - \frac{\beta}{2T} \|x - x^+\|^2.
\]

Comparing the above equation with (8.2.45), it now remains to show that
\[
\alpha_T (1 + p_T) = \Lambda_T \alpha_1 p_1 + 1 - \Lambda_T (1 - \alpha_1). \tag{8.2.46}
\]

By (8.2.26), the last relation in (8.2.44), and the fact that \( \Lambda_1 = 1 \), we have
\[
\frac{\alpha_{i+1} p_{i+1}}{\Lambda_{i+1}} = \frac{\alpha_i p_i}{\Lambda_i} + \alpha_i = \ldots = \frac{\alpha_i p_i}{\Lambda_i} + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{\alpha_i}{\Lambda_i} = \alpha_1 p_1 + \frac{1 - \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha_t)}{\Lambda_t}.
\]

Using the second relation in (8.2.44) to the above equation, we have
\[
\frac{\alpha_{i+1} p_{i+1}}{\Lambda_{i+1}} = \alpha_i p_i + \frac{1 - \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha_t)}{\Lambda_t},
\]
which implies \( \alpha_t (1 + p_t) = \Lambda_t \alpha_1 p_1 + 1 - \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha_t) \) for any \( 1 \leq t \leq T \).

Using the help of the above proposition and Lemma 8.1, we are now ready to establish the convergence of the AGS method. Note that the following sequence will the used in the analysis of the AGS method:
\[
\Gamma_k = \begin{cases} 
1 & k = 1 \\
(1 - \gamma_k) \Gamma_{k-1} & k > 1.
\end{cases} \tag{8.2.47}
\]

**Theorem 8.5.** Suppose that (8.2.30) and (8.2.44) hold. If
\[
\gamma_t = 1 \text{ and } \beta_k \geq L \gamma_k, \tag{8.2.48}
\]
then
Operator Sliding and Decentralized Optimization

\[ \phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \leq \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i (1 + p_T) + q_T}{I_i} (V(x_{i-1}, u) - V(x_i, u)), \]  

(8.2.49)

where \( \Gamma_k \) is defined in (8.2.47).

**Proof.** It follows from Proposition 8.4 that for all \( u \in X \),

\[ Q_k(x_k, u) - (1 - \gamma_k) Q_k(x_{k-1}, u) \leq \lambda_k \alpha_k \beta_k (1 + p_T) + q_T (V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u)) - \frac{\beta_k}{T_k} \| x_k - x_k \|^2. \]

Substituting the above bound to (8.2.24) in Lemma 8.1, and using (8.2.48), we have

\[ \phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \leq (1 - \gamma_k) [\phi(x_{k-1}) - \phi(u)] + \lambda_k \alpha_k \beta_k (1 + p_T) + q_T (V(x_{k-1}, u) - V(x_k, u)), \]

which, in view of Lemma 3.17 (with \( c_k = \gamma_k, C_k = \Gamma_k, \) and \( \delta_k = \phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \)), then implies that

\[ \phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \leq \Gamma_k \left( \frac{1 - \gamma_k}{I_k} \phi(x_0) - \phi(u) \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i (1 + p_T) + q_T}{I_i} (V(x_{i-1}, u) - V(x_i, u)) \]

\[ = \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\lambda_i \alpha_i \beta_i (1 + p_T) + q_T}{I_i} (V(x_{i-1}, u) - V(x_i, u)), \]

where the last equality follows from the fact that \( \gamma_1 = 1 \) in (8.2.48). \( \square \)

There are many possible selections of parameters that satisfy the assumptions of the above theorem. In the following corollaries we describe two different ways to specify the parameters of Algorithm 8.4 that lead to the optimal complexity bounds in terms of the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \).

**Corollary 8.5.** Consider problem (8.2.8) with the Lipschitz constants in (8.2.2) and (8.2.9) satisfying \( M \geq L \). Suppose that the parameters of Algorithm 8.4 are set to

\[ \gamma_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad T_k \equiv T := \left\lceil \sqrt{\frac{M}{L}} \right\rceil, \]

\[ \lambda_k = \begin{cases} 1 & k = 1, \\ \frac{\gamma_k(T+1)(T+2)}{T(T+3)} & k > 1, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_k = \frac{3M}{T_k}. \]  

(8.2.50)

Also assume that the parameters in the first call to the ProxAG procedure (\( k = 1 \)) are set to
\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+2}, \quad p_t = \frac{t-1}{2}, \quad \text{and} \quad q_t = \frac{6M}{T}, \quad (8.2.51)
\]

and the parameters in the remaining calls to the ProxAG procedure \((k > 1)\) are set to
\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+2}, \quad p_t = \frac{t}{2}, \quad \text{and} \quad q_t = \frac{6M}{k(t+1)}, \quad (8.2.52)
\]

Then the numbers of gradient evaluations of \(\nabla f\) and \(\nabla h\) performed by the AGS method to compute an \(\varepsilon\)-solution of \((8.2.8)\) can be bounded by
\[
N_f := \sqrt{\frac{30LV(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} \quad (8.2.53)
\]

and
\[
N_h := \sqrt{\frac{30MV(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} + \sqrt{\frac{30LV(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} \quad (8.2.54)
\]
respectively, where \(x^*\) is a solution to \((8.2.8)\).

**Proof.** Let us start with verification of \((8.2.30)\), \((8.2.44)\), and \((8.2.48)\) for the purpose of applying Theorem 8.5. We will consider the first call to the ProxAG procedure \((k = 1)\) and the remaining calls \((k > 1)\) separately.

When \(k = 1\), by \((8.2.50)\) we have \(\lambda_1 = \gamma_1 = 1\), and \(\beta_1 = 3L\), hence \((8.2.48)\) holds immediately. By \((8.2.51)\) we can observe that
\[
\Lambda_t = \frac{2}{t(t+2)} \quad (8.2.25),
\]

and that
\[
\alpha_t q_t \Lambda_t \equiv 6M, \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_t (1+p_t) \Lambda_t = \frac{t(t+1)}{2} = \frac{\alpha_{t+1}p_{t+1}}{\lambda_{t+1}},
\]

hence \((8.2.44)\) holds. In addition, by \((8.2.50)\) and \((8.2.51)\) we have \(\lambda = \gamma = 1\) and \(\alpha_1 = 1\) in \((8.2.30)\), and that
\[
\beta p_t + q_t \geq q_t = \frac{6M}{T} > \frac{2M}{T+1} = \lambda M \alpha_t.
\]

Therefore \((8.2.30)\) also holds.

For the case when \(k > 1\), we can observe from \((8.2.52)\) that \(\Lambda_t = \frac{6}{(t+1)(t+2)}\) satisfies \((8.2.25)\), \(\alpha_t q_t / \Lambda_t \equiv 2M / k\), and that
\[
\alpha_t (1+p_t) / \Lambda_t = \frac{(t+1)(t+2)}{6} = \frac{\alpha_{t+1}p_{t+1}}{\lambda_{t+1}}.
\]

Therefore \((8.2.44)\) holds. Also, from \((8.2.50)\) and noting that \(k, T \geq 1\), we have
\[
\frac{3}{k} \geq \frac{3h}{2} = \frac{3L}{2} \left(1 - \frac{2}{(T+1)(T+2)}\right) \geq \frac{3L}{2} \left(1 - \frac{2}{2^3}\right) = \lambda_k. \quad (8.2.55)
\]

Applying the above relation to the definition of \(\beta_k\) in \((8.2.50)\) we have \((8.2.48)\). It now suffices to verify \((8.2.30)\) in order to apply Theorem 8.5. Applying \((8.2.50), (8.2.52), (8.2.55)\), and noting that \(k \geq 2\) and that \(\Lambda_T = 6/(T+1)(T+2)\) with \(T \geq 1\), we can verify in \((8.2.30)\) that
Applying the above two results regarding $\xi$ where the last inequality is due to the fact that $\frac{2}{T+1} \leq \frac{2}{T(T+1)} = 1 - \frac{2}{T(T+1)} = 1 - \frac{2\gamma}{\lambda}$, we have

\[ \beta \rho_i + q_i > q_i = \frac{2M}{T} \cdot \frac{\xi}{T+1} > \frac{2M\lambda}{T+1} \geq \lambda M \alpha. \]

Therefore, the conditions in (8.2.30) are satisfied.

We are now ready to apply Theorem 8.5. In particular, noting that $\alpha(1 + p_i) \equiv 1$ from (8.2.51) and (8.2.52), we obtain from (8.2.49) (with $u = x^* \epsilon$) that

\[ \phi(x_k) - \phi^* \leq \Gamma \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i (V(x_{i-1},x^*) - V(x_i,x^*)), \tag{8.2.56} \]

where

\[ \xi_i := \frac{\lambda_i (\beta_i + \alpha_i \eta_i t_i)}{I_i}, \tag{8.2.57} \]

Substituting (8.2.50) and (8.2.51) to (8.2.57), and noting that $I_i = 2 / (i(i + 1))$ by (8.2.47), we have

\[ \xi_1 = \beta_1 + \alpha T q T = 3L + \frac{12M}{T(T+1)}, \quad \text{and} \]

\[ \xi_i = \frac{\lambda_i \beta_i + \lambda_i \alpha T q T}{I_i} = 3L + \frac{12M}{T(T+1)} \frac{(2T+2)}{T_i(T_i+2)} \frac{2}{I_i + 2} \frac{6M}{I_i + 2} \frac{M}{T_i + 1} \equiv 3L + \frac{12M}{T(T+1)}, \forall i > 1. \]

Applying the above two results regarding $\xi_i$ to (8.2.56), and noting that $\xi_1 > \xi_2$, we have

\[
\phi(x_k) - \phi^*
\leq \Gamma_k \left[ \xi_1 (V(x_0,x^*) - V(x_1,x^*)) + \sum_{i=2}^{k} \xi_i (V(x_{i-1},x^*) - V(x_i,x^*)) \right]
= \Gamma_k \left[ \xi_1 (V(x_0,x^*) - V(x_1,x^*)) + \xi_2 (V(x_1,x^*) - V(x_2,x^*)) \right]
\leq \Gamma_k \xi_1 V(x_0,x^*)
= \frac{2}{k(k+1)} \left( 3L + \frac{12M}{T(T+1)} \right) V(x_0,x^*)
\leq \frac{2M}{T(T+1)} V(x_0,x^*),
\]

where the last inequality is due to the fact that $T \geq \sqrt{M/L}$.

From the above inequality, the number of calls to the ProxAG procedure for computing an $\epsilon$-solution of (8.2.8) is bounded by $N_f$ in (8.2.53). This is also the bound for the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$. Moreover, the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla h$ is bounded by

\[ TN_f \leq \left( \sqrt{\frac{M}{T}} + 1 \right) N_f = \sqrt{\frac{30M V(x_0,x^*)}{\epsilon}} + \sqrt{\frac{30L V(x_0,x^*)}{\epsilon}} = N_h. \tag{8.2.58} \]

$\square$
8.2 Accelerated gradient sliding

In the above corollary, the constant factors in (8.2.53) and (8.2.54) are both given by $\sqrt{30}$. In the following corollary, we provide a slightly different set of parameters for Algorithm 8.4 that results in a tighter constant factor for (8.2.53).

**Corollary 8.6.** Consider problem \((8.2.8)\) with the Lipschitz constants in \((8.2.2)\) and \((8.2.9)\) satisfying \(M \geq L\). Suppose that the parameters in the first call to the ProxAG procedure \((k = 1)\) are set to
\[
\alpha_t = \frac{2}{t+1}, \quad p_t = \frac{t-1}{2}, \quad \text{and} \quad q_t = \frac{7LT(T+1)}{4t}, \quad (8.2.59)
\]
and that the parameters in the \(k\)-th call \((k > 1)\) are set to
\[
p_t = p := \sqrt{\frac{M}{L}}, \quad \alpha_t \equiv \alpha := \frac{1}{p+1}, \quad \text{and} \quad q_t = 0. \quad (8.2.60)
\]
If the other parameters in Algorithm 8.4 satisfy
\[
\gamma_k = \frac{2}{k+1}, \quad T_k := \begin{cases} \sqrt{\frac{M}{L}}, & k = 1 \\ \frac{\ln(3)}{-\ln(1-\alpha)}, & k > 1, \end{cases} \quad (8.2.61)
\]
\[
\lambda_k := \begin{cases} 1, & k = 1 \\ \frac{\gamma_k}{1-(1-\alpha)^k}, & k > 1, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_k := \begin{cases} L, & k = 1 \\ \frac{9L\gamma_k}{2k\lambda_k}, & k > 1, \end{cases}
\]
where \(\alpha\) is defined in \((8.2.60)\), then the numbers of gradient evaluations of \(\nabla f\) and \(\nabla h\) performed by the AGS method to find an \(\varepsilon\)-solution to problem \((8.2.8)\) can be bounded by
\[
N_f := 3\sqrt{\frac{LV(s_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} \quad (8.2.62)
\]
and
\[
N_h := (1+\ln3)N_f \left(\sqrt{\frac{M}{L}} + 1\right) \leq 7 \left(\sqrt{\frac{MV(s_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} + \sqrt{\frac{LV(s_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}}\right), \quad (8.2.63)
\]
respectively.

**Proof.** Let us verify \((8.2.30), \(8.2.48), \text{and} \(8.2.44)\) first, so that we could apply Theorem 8.5. We consider the case when \(k = 1\) first. By the definition of \(\gamma_k\) and \(\beta_k\) in \((8.2.61)\), it is clear that \((8.2.48)\) is satisfied when \(k = 1\). Also, by \((8.2.59)\) we have that \(A_t = 2/(t(t+1))\) in \((8.2.25)\),
\[
\frac{\alpha_t}{A_t} = \frac{7LT(T+1)}{4t}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\alpha_t(1+p_t)}{A_t} = \frac{t(t+1)}{2} = \frac{\alpha_{t+1}p_{t+1}}{A_{t+1}},
\]
hence (8.2.44) also holds. Moreover, by (8.2.59) and (8.2.61), we can verify in (8.2.30) that
\[ \lambda = \gamma = 1, \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha_t) = 0 = 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\lambda}, \]
and
\[ \beta \rho_t + q_t \geq q_t > \frac{7Lx^2}{4t} = \frac{8M}{\delta} > M\alpha_t. \]
Therefore the relations in (8.2.30) are all satisfied.

Now we consider the case when \( k > 1 \). By (8.2.25) and (8.2.60), we observe that \( \Lambda_t = (1 - \alpha)^t \) for all \( t \geq 1 \). Moreover, from the definition of \( T_k \) in (8.2.61), we can also observe that
\[ (1 - \alpha)^T_k \leq \frac{1}{3}. \]
Four relations can be derived based on the aforementioned two observations, (8.2.60), and (8.2.61). First,
\[ \alpha_t q_t \frac{\Lambda_t}{\Lambda_t} \equiv 0, \alpha_t (1 + \rho_t) \frac{\Lambda_t}{\Lambda_t} = \frac{\alpha_t (1 + p_t)}{\Lambda_t}, \]
which verifies (8.2.44). Second,
\[ \beta_k = \frac{9L(1 - (1 - \alpha)^T_k)}{2k} \geq \frac{3L}{k} > L\gamma_k, \]
which leads to (8.2.48). Third, noting that \( k \geq 2 \), we have
\[ \frac{1}{1 - \Lambda_t (1 - \alpha)} = \lambda_k = \frac{\gamma}{1 - \alpha}\frac{\Lambda_t (1 - \alpha)}{\Lambda_t} \leq \frac{3}{2} = \frac{3}{k+1} \leq 1. \]
Fourth,
\[ B_k \rho = \frac{9L\gamma_k p(p+1)}{2k\lambda_k^2 M} = \frac{9Lp(p+1)(1 - (1 - \alpha)^2)}{2k\lambda_k^2 M} \]
\[ = \frac{9(k+1)}{4k} \cdot \left( \frac{Lp(p+1)}{M} \right) \cdot (1 - (1 - \alpha)^2)^2 \]
\[ > \frac{9}{4} \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{4}{9} = 1. \]
The last two relations imply that (8.2.30) holds.

Summarizing the above discussions regarding both the cases \( k = 1 \) and \( k > 1 \), applying Theorem 8.5, and noting that \( \alpha_t (1 + p_t) \equiv 1 \), we have
\[ \phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \leq \Gamma_k \sum_{i=1}^{k} \xi_i (V(x_{i-1}, u) - V(x_i, u)), \forall u \in X, \quad (8.2.64) \]
where
\[ \xi_i := \frac{\lambda_i (\beta_i + \alpha_i q_t)}{\gamma_t}. \]
It should be observed from the definition of $\gamma_k$ in (8.2.61) that $\Gamma_i := \frac{2}{i(i+1)}$ satisfies (8.2.47). Using this observation, applying (8.2.59), (8.2.60), and (8.2.61) to the above equation we have

$$\xi_1 = \beta_1 + \alpha T_1 q T_1 = L + \frac{7L}{2} = \frac{9L}{2}$$

and

$$\xi_i = \frac{\lambda_i \beta_i}{T_i} \equiv \frac{9L}{2}, \forall i > 1.$$ 

Therefore, (8.2.64) becomes

$$\phi(x_k) - \phi(u) \leq \frac{9L}{k(k+1)}(V(x_0, u) - V(x_k, u)) \leq \frac{9L}{k(k+1)}V(x_0, u). \tag{8.2.65}$$

Setting $u = x^*$ in the above inequality, we observe that the number of calls to the ProxAG procedure for computing an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.2.8) is bounded by $N_f$ in (8.2.62). This is also the bound for the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$.

Moreover, by (8.2.60), (8.2.61), and (8.2.62) we conclude that the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla h$ is bounded by

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N_f} T_k = T_1 + \sum_{k=2}^{N_f} T_k \leq \left(\sqrt{\frac{8M}{L}} + 1\right) + (N_f - 1) \left(\frac{\ln 3}{-\ln(1-\alpha)} + 1\right)$$

$$\leq \left(\sqrt{\frac{8M}{L}} + 1\right) + (N_f - 1) \left(\frac{\ln 3}{\alpha} + 1\right)$$

$$= \left(\sqrt{\frac{8M}{L}} + 1\right) + (N_f - 1) \left(\left(\sqrt{\frac{M}{L}} + 1\right) \ln 3 + 1\right)$$

$$< (1 + \ln 3)N_f \left(\sqrt{\frac{M}{L}} + 1\right)$$

$$< 7 \left(\sqrt{\frac{MV(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}} + \sqrt{\frac{L V(x_0, x^*)}{\varepsilon}}\right).$$

Here the second inequity is from the property of logarithm functions that $-\ln(1-\alpha) \geq \alpha$ for $\alpha \in [0, 1)$. \hfill \square

Since $M \geq L$ in (8.2.2) and (8.2.9), the results obtained in Corollaries 8.5 and 8.6 indicate that the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and $\nabla h$ that Algorithm 8.4 requires for computing an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.2.8) can be bounded by $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{L/\varepsilon})$ and $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{M/\varepsilon})$, respectively. Such a result is particularly useful when $M$ is significantly larger, e.g., $M = \mathcal{O}(L/\varepsilon)$, since the number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ would not be affected at all by the large Lipschitz constant of the whole problem. It is interesting to compare the above result with the best known so-far complexity bound under the traditional black-box oracle assumption. If we treat problem (8.2.8) as a general smooth convex optimization and study its oracle complexity, i.e., under...
the assumption that there exists an oracle that outputs $\nabla \phi(x)$ for any test point $x$ (and $\nabla \phi(x)$ only), it has been shown that the number of calls to the oracle cannot be smaller than $O(\sqrt{(L+M)/\epsilon})$ for computing an $\epsilon$-solution. Under such “single oracle” assumption, the complexity bounds in terms of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and $\nabla h$ are intertwined, and a larger Lipschitz constant $M$ will result in more gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$, even though there is no explicit relationship between $\nabla f$ and $M$.

However, the results in Corollaries 8.5 and 8.6 suggest that we can study the oracle complexity of problem (8.2.8) based on the assumption of two separate oracles: one oracle $O_f$ to compute $\nabla f$ for any test point $x$, and the other one $O_h$ to compute $\nabla h(y)$ for any test point $y$. In particular, these two oracles do not have to be called at the same time, and hence it is possible to obtain separate complexity bounds $O(\sqrt{L/\epsilon})$ and $O(\sqrt{M/\epsilon})$ on the number of calls to $O_f$ and $O_h$, respectively.

We now consider a special case of (8.2.8) where $f$ is strongly convex. More specifically, we assume that there exists $\mu > 0$ such that

$$\mu V(u, x) \leq f(x) - I_f(u, x) \leq \frac{L}{2} \|x - u\|^2, \quad \forall x, u \in X. \quad (8.2.66)$$

Under the above assumption, we develop a multi-stage AGS algorithm that can skip computation of $\nabla f$ from time to time, and compute an $\epsilon$-solution of (8.2.8) with

$$O \left( \sqrt{\frac{1}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \quad (8.2.67)$$

gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ (see Algorithm 8.5). It should be noted that, under the traditional black-box setting, where one could only access $\nabla \psi(x)$ for each inquiry $x$, the number of evaluations of $\nabla \psi(x)$ required to compute an $\epsilon$-solution is bounded by

$$O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L+M}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right). \quad (8.2.68)$$

**Algorithm 8.5** The multi-stage accelerated gradient sliding (M-AGS) algorithm

Choose $v_0 \in X$, accuracy $\epsilon$, iteration limit $N_0$, and initial estimate $\Delta_0$ such that $\phi(v_0) - \phi^* \leq \Delta_0$.

for $s = 1, \ldots, S$

1. Run the AGS algorithm with $x_0 = v_{s-1}$, $N = N_0$, and parameters in Corollary 8.6, and let $v_s = \overline{x}_N$.

end for

Output $v_S$.

Theorem 8.6 below describes the main convergence properties of the M-AGS algorithm.

**Theorem 8.6.** Suppose that $M \geq L$ in (8.2.9) and (8.2.66). If the parameters in Algorithm 8.5 are set to
\[ N_0 = 3 \sqrt{\frac{M}{\mu}} \text{ and } S = \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1 \right\}, \] (8.2.69)
then its output \( v_S \) must be an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.2.1). Moreover, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and \( \nabla h \) performed by Algorithm 8.5 can be bounded by
\[ N_f := 3 \sqrt{\frac{M}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1 \right\} \] (8.2.70)
and
\[ N_h := (1 + \ln 3)N_f \left( \sqrt{\frac{M}{\mu}} + 1 \right) \]
\[ < 9 \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} + \sqrt{\frac{M}{\mu}} \right) \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{\Delta_0}{\varepsilon}, 1 \right\}, \] (8.2.71)
respectively.

**Proof.** With input \( x_0 = v_{s-1} \) and \( N = N_0 \), we conclude from (8.2.65) in the proof of Corollary 8.6 (with \( u = x^* \) a solution to (8.2.8)) that
\[ \phi(x_N) - \phi^* \leq \frac{9L}{N_0(N_0+1)} V(x_0, x^*) \leq \frac{\mu}{2} V(x_0, x^*), \]
where the last inequality follows from (8.2.69). Using the facts that the input of the AGS algorithm is \( x_0 = v_{s-1} \) and that the output is set to \( v_s = x_N \), we conclude
\[ \phi(v_s) - \phi^* \leq \frac{\mu}{2} V(v_{s-1}, x^*) \leq \frac{1}{2} (\phi(v_{s-1}) - \phi^*), \]
where the last inequality is due to the strong convexity of \( \phi(\cdot) \). It then follows from the above relation, the definition of \( \Delta_0 \) in Algorithm 8.5, and (8.2.69) that
\[ \phi(v_S) - \phi^* \leq \frac{1}{2^S} (\phi(v_0) - \phi^*) \leq \frac{\Delta_0}{2^S} \leq \varepsilon. \]
Comparing Algorithms 8.4 and 8.5, we can observe that the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) in Algorithm 8.5 is bounded by \( N_0 S \), and hence we have (8.2.70). Moreover, comparing (8.2.62) and (8.2.63) in Corollary 8.6, we conclude (8.2.71). \[ \square \]

In view of Theorem 8.6, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla h \) required by the M-AGS algorithm to compute an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of (8.2.8) is the same as the traditional result (8.2.68). However, by skipping the gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) from time to time in the M-AGS algorithm, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) is improved from (8.2.68) to (8.2.67). Such an improvement becomes more significant as the ratio \( M/L \) increases.
8.2.2 Composite bilinear saddle point problems

Our goal in this section is to show the advantages of the AGS method when applied to our motivating problem, i.e., the composite bilinear saddle point problem in (8.2.1). In particular, we show in Section 8.2.2.1 that the AGS algorithm can be used to solve (8.2.1) by incorporating the smoothing technique discussed in Section 3.6 and derive new complexity bounds in terms of the number of gradient computations of $\nabla f$ and operator evaluations of $A$ and $A^T$. Moreover, we demonstrate in Section 8.2.2.2 that even more significant saving on gradient computation of $\nabla f$ can be obtained when $f$ is strongly convex in (8.2.1) by incorporating the multi-stage AGS method.

8.2.2.1 Saddle point problems

Our goal in this section is to extend the AGS algorithm from composite smooth optimization to nonsmooth optimization. By incorporating the smoothing technique in Section 3.6, we can apply AGS to solve the composite saddle point problem (8.2.1). Throughout this section, we assume that the dual feasible set $Y$ in (8.2.1) is bounded, i.e., there exists $y_0 \in Y$ such that

$$D_Y := \max_{v \in Y} W(y_0, v)^{1/2}$$

(8.2.72)
is finite, where $W(\cdot, \cdot)$ is the prox-function associated with $Y$ with modulus 1.

Let $\psi_\rho$ be the smooth approximation of $\psi$ defined in (8.2.3). It can be easily shown that

$$\psi_\rho(x) \leq \psi(x) \leq \psi_\rho(x) + \rho D_Y^2, \forall x \in X.$$  

(8.2.73)

Therefore, if $\rho = \epsilon / (2D_Y^2)$, then an $(\epsilon / 2)$-solution to (8.2.3) is also an $\epsilon$-solution to (8.2.1). Moreover, it follows that problem (8.2.3) is given in the form of (8.2.8) (with $h(x) = h_\rho(x)$) and satisfies (8.2.9) with $M = ||A||^2 / \rho$. Using these observations, we are ready to summarize the convergence properties of the AGS algorithm for solving problem (8.2.1).

**Proposition 8.5.** Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given and assume that $2\|A\|^2 D_Y^2 > \epsilon L$. If we apply the AGS method in Algorithm 8.4 to problem (8.2.3) (with $h = h_\rho$ and $\rho = \epsilon / (2D_Y^2)$), in which the parameters are set to (8.2.59)–(8.2.61) with $M = \|A\|^2 / \rho$, then the total number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and linear operator evaluations of $A$ (and $A^T$) in order to find an $\epsilon$-solution of (8.2.1) can be bounded by

$$N_f := 3 \left( \sqrt{\frac{2LV(y_0, x^*)}{\epsilon}} \right)$$

(8.2.74)
\[ N_A := 14 \left( \sqrt{\frac{2LV(x_0,x^*)}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{2\|A\|D_f \sqrt{V(x_0,x^*)}}{\varepsilon} \right), \]  

(8.2.75)

respectively.

**Proof.** By (8.2.73) we have \( \psi^* \leq \psi \) and \( \psi(x) \leq \psi(x) + \rho D_f^2 \) for all \( x \in X \), and hence

\[ \psi(x) - \psi^* \leq \psi(x) - \psi^* + \rho D_f^2, \forall x \in X. \]

Using the above relation and the fact that \( \rho = \varepsilon / (2D_f^2) \) we conclude that if \( \psi(x) - \psi^* \leq \varepsilon / 2 \), then \( x \) is an \( \varepsilon \)-solution to (8.2.1). To finish the proof, it suffices to consider the complexity of AGS for computing an \( \varepsilon / 2 \)-solution of (8.2.3). By Corollary 8.6, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) is bounded by (8.2.74). Note that the evaluation of \( \nabla h_\rho \) is equivalent to 2 evaluations of linear operators: one computation of form \( Ax \) for computing the maximizer \( y^*(x) \) for problem (8.2.4), and one computation of form \( A^T y^*(x) \) for computing \( \nabla h_\rho(x) \). Using this observation, and substituting \( M = \|A\|^2 / \rho \) to (8.2.63), we conclude (8.2.75). \( \square \)

According to Proposition 8.5, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) and linear operator evaluations of both \( A \) and \( A^T \) are bounded by

\[ \mathcal{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon}} \right) \]  

(8.2.76)

and

\[ \mathcal{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{\|A\|}{\varepsilon} \right) \]  

(8.2.77)

respectively, for computing an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of the saddle point problem (8.2.1). Therefore, if \( L \leq \mathcal{O}(\|A\|^2 / \varepsilon) \), then the number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) will not be affected by the dominating term \( \mathcal{O}(\|A\| / \varepsilon) \). This result significantly improves the best known so-far complexity results for solving the bilinear saddle point problem (8.2.1). Specifically, it improves the complexity regarding number of gradient computations of \( \nabla f \) from \( \mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon) \) associated with the smoothing technique or primal-dual type methods to \( \mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon}) \), and also improves the complexity regarding operator evaluations involving \( A \) from \( \mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon^2) \) associated with the gradient sliding methods to \( \mathcal{O}(1/\varepsilon) \).

**8.2.2.2 Strongly convex composite saddle point problems**

In this subsection, we still consider the SPP in (8.2.1), but assume that \( f \) is strongly convex (i.e., (8.2.66) holds). In this case, it has been shown previously in the literature that \( \mathcal{O}(\|A\| / \sqrt{\varepsilon}) \) first-order iterations, each one of them involving the computation of \( \nabla f \), and the evaluation of \( A \) and \( A^T \), are needed in order to compute an \( \varepsilon \)-solution of...
(8.2.1) (e.g., Section 3.6). However, we demonstrate in this subsection that the complexity with respect to the gradient evaluation of $\nabla f$ can be significantly improved from $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$ to $\mathcal{O}(\log(1/\epsilon))$.

Such an improvement can be achieved by properly restarting the AGS method applied to solve a series of smooth optimization problem of form (8.2.3), in which the smoothing parameter $\rho$ changes over time. The proposed multi-stage AGS algorithm with dynamic smoothing is stated in Algorithm 8.6.

**Algorithm 8.6** The multi-stage AGS algorithm with dynamic smoothing

Choose $v_0 \in X$, accuracy $\epsilon$, smoothing parameter $\rho_0$, iteration limit $N_0$, and initial estimate $\Delta_0$ of (8.2.1) such that $\psi(v_0) - \psi^* \leq \Delta_0$.

for $s = 1, \ldots, S$

Run the AGS algorithm to problem (8.2.3) with $\rho = 2^{-s/2}\rho_0$ (where $h = h_\rho$ in AGS). In the AGS algorithm, set $x_0 = v_{s-1}$, $N = N_0$, and parameters in Corollary 8.6, and let $v_s = x_N$.

end for

Output $v_S$.

Theorem 8.7 describes the main convergence properties of Algorithm 8.6.

**Theorem 8.7.** Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given and suppose that the Lipschitz constant $L$ in (8.2.66) satisfies

$$D_Y^2 \|A\|^2 \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}}, 1 \right\} \geq 2\Delta_0 L.$$ 

If the parameters in Algorithm 8.6 are set to

$$N_0 = 3\sqrt{\frac{2L}{\mu}}, \quad S = \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\}, \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_0 = \frac{4\Delta_0}{D_Y^2 2^{5/2}},$$

then the output $v_S$ of this algorithm must be an $\epsilon$-solution (8.2.1). Moreover, the total number of gradient evaluations of $\nabla f$ and operator evaluations involving $A$ and $A^T$ performed by Algorithm 8.6 can be bounded by

$$N_f := 3\sqrt{\frac{2L}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\}$$

and

$$N_A := 18\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\} + \frac{56D_Y \|A\|}{\sqrt{\mu}\Delta_0} \cdot \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}}, 1 \right\},$$

respectively.

**Proof.** Suppose that $x^*$ is an optimal solution to (8.2.1). By (8.2.65) in the proof of Corollary 8.6, in the $s$-th stage of Algorithm 8.6 (calling AGS with input $x_0 = v_{s-1}$, output $v_s = x_N$, and iteration number $N = N_0$), we have
where we used the relation \( M \psi \leq \psi_0 (x^*) - \psi_p (x^*) \leq \frac{\sqrt{L}}{N_0 (N_0 + 1)} V(x_0, x^*) \leq \frac{L}{2} V(x_0, x^*) = \frac{L}{2} V(v_{s-1}, x^*) \), where the last two inequalities follow from (8.2.78), respectively. Moreover, by (8.2.73) we have \( \psi(v_s) \leq \psi_p (v_s) + \rho D^2 \) and \( \psi^* = \psi(x^*) \geq \psi_p (x^*) \), hence

\[
\psi(v_s) - \psi^* \leq \psi_p (v_s) - \psi_p (x^*) + \rho D^2 \psi x.
\]

Combining the above two equations and using the strong convexity of \( \psi(\cdot) \), we have

\[
\psi(v_s) - \psi^* \leq \frac{L}{2} V(v_{s-1}, x^*) + \rho D^2 \psi x \leq \frac{1}{2} [\psi(v_{s-1}) - \psi^*] + \frac{1}{2} [\psi(v_{s-1}) - \psi^*] + 2^{-s/2} \rho_0 D^2 \psi x,
\]

where the last equality is due to the selection of \( \rho \) in Algorithm 8.6. Reformulating the above relation as

\[
2^s [\psi(v_s) - \psi^*] \leq 2^{s-1} [\psi(v_{s-1}) - \psi^*] + 2^{s/2} \rho_0 D^2 \psi x,
\]

and summing the above inequalities from \( s = 1, \ldots, S \), we have

\[
2^S (\psi(v_S) - \psi^*) \leq A_0 + \rho_0 D^2 \sum_{s=1}^{S} 2^{s/2} = A_0 + \rho_0 D^2 \sum_{s=1}^{S} \frac{\sqrt{2(s/2-1)}}{\sqrt{2-1}} < A_0 + \frac{\rho_0 D^2}{2} 2^{S/2} = 15 A_0,
\]

where the first inequality follows from the fact that \( \psi(v_0) - \psi^* \leq A_0 \) and the last equality is due to (8.2.78). By (8.2.78) and the above result, we have \( \psi(v_S) - \psi^* \leq \epsilon \).

Comparing the descriptions of Algorithms 8.4 and 8.6, we can clearly see that the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) in Algorithm 8.6 is given by \( N_0 S \), hence we have (8.2.79).

To complete the proof it suffices to estimate the total number of operator evaluations involving \( A \) and \( A^T \). Note that in the \( s \)-th stage of Algorithm 8.6, the number of operator evaluations involving \( A \) is equivalent to twice the number of evaluations of \( \nabla h_A \) in the AGS algorithm, which, in view of (8.2.63) in Corollary 8.6, is given by

\[
2 (1 + \ln 3) N \left( \frac{\sqrt{L}}{\epsilon} + 1 \right)
= 2 (1 + \ln 3) N \left( \sqrt{\frac{\|A\|^2}{\rho L}} + 1 \right) = 2 (1 + \ln 3) N_0 \left( \sqrt{\frac{2^{s/2} \|A\|^2}{\rho_0 L}} + 1 \right),
\]

where we used the relation \( M = \|A\|^2 / \rho \) (see Section 8.2.1) in the first equality and relations \( \rho = 2^{-s/2} \rho_0 \) and \( N = N_0 \) from Algorithm 8.6 in the last equality. It then follows from the above result and (8.2.78) that the total number of operator evaluations involving \( A \) in Algorithm 8.6 can be bounded by
\[
\sum_{s=1}^{S} 2(1 + \ln 3)N_0 \left( \frac{\sqrt{2^{1/2}\|A\|^2}}{\rho_0L} + 1 \right) \\
= 2(1 + \ln 3)N_0 S + \frac{2(1 + \ln 3)N_0 A}{\sqrt{\rho_0L}} \sum_{s=1}^{S} 2^{s/4} \\
= 2(1 + \ln 3)N_0 S + \frac{3\sqrt{2(1 + \ln 3)}D_Y \|A\|^2/4}{\sqrt{\mu\Delta_0}} \cdot \frac{2^{1/4}(2^{3/4} - 1)}{2^{3/4} - 1} \\
< 2(1 + \ln 3)N_0 S + \frac{56D_Y \|A\|}{\sqrt{\mu\Delta_0}} \cdot 2^{S/2} \\
< 18 \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log_2 \max \left\{ \frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}, 1 \right\} + \frac{56D_Y \|A\|}{\sqrt{\mu\Delta_0}} \cdot \max \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{15\Delta_0}{\epsilon}}, 1 \right\}.
\]

By Theorem 8.7, the total number of operator evaluations involving \( A \) performed by Algorithm 8.6 to compute an \( \epsilon \)-solution of (8.2.8) can be bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} + \frac{\|A\|}{\sqrt{\mu\Delta_0}} \right),
\]

which matches with the best-known complexity result (e.g., Section 3.6). However, the total number of gradient evaluations of \( \nabla f \) is now bounded by

\[
\mathcal{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} \right),
\]

which drastically improves existing results from \( \mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{\epsilon}) \) to \( \mathcal{O}(\log(1/\epsilon)) \).

### 8.3 Communication sliding and decentralized optimization

In this section, we consider the following decentralized optimization problem which is cooperatively solved by the network of \( m \) agents:

\[
f^* := \min_x f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x) \tag{8.3.1}
\]

\[
s.t. \quad x \in X, \quad X := \cap_{i=1}^{m} X_i,
\]

where \( f_i : X_i \to \mathbb{R} \) is a convex and possibly nonsmooth objective function of agent \( i \). Note that \( f_i \) and \( X_i \) are private and only known to agent \( i \). Throughout the paper, we assume the feasible set \( X \) is nonempty.

In this section, we also consider the situation where one can only have access to noisy first-order information (function values and subgradients) of the functions \( f_i \), \( i = 1, \ldots, m \). This happens, for example, when the function \( f_i \)'s are given in the form of expectation, i.e.,

\[
f_i(x) := \mathbb{E}_{\xi_i}[F_i(x; \xi_i)], \tag{8.3.2}
\]
where the random variable $\xi_i$ models a source of uncertainty and the distribution $\mathbb{P}(\xi_i)$ is not known in advance. As a special case of (8.3.2), $f_i$ may be given as the summation of many components, i.e.,

$$f_i(x) := \sum_{j=1}^{l_i} f_{ij}(x),$$

where $l_i \geq 1$ is a large number. Stochastic optimization problem of this type has great potential of applications in data analysis, especially in machine learning. In particular, problem (8.3.2) corresponds to the minimization of generalized risk and is particularly useful for dealing with online (streaming) data distributed over a network, while problem (8.3.3) aims at the collaborative minimization of empirical risk.

Currently the dominant approach to solve (8.3.1) is to collect all agents’ private data on a server (or cluster) and to apply centralized machine learning techniques. However, this centralization scheme would require agents to submit their private data to the service provider without much control on how the data will be used, in addition to incurring high setup cost related to the transmission of data to the service provider. Decentralized optimization provides a viable approach to deal with these data privacy related issues. Each network agent $i$ is associated with the local objective function $f_i(x)$ and all agents intend to cooperatively minimize the system objective $f(x)$ as the sum of all local objective $f_i$’s in the absence of full knowledge about the global problem and network structure. A necessary feature in decentralized optimization is, therefore, that the agents must communicate with their neighboring agents to propagate the distributed information to every location in the network.

Many of current studies on optimization over networks have been focused on incremental gradient methods (see Section 5.2). All of these incremental methods are not fully decentralized in a sense that they require a special star network topology in which the existence of a central authority is necessary for operation. To consider a more general distributed network topology without a central authority, one can possibly generalize the subgradient descent methods by requiring each node to compute a local subgradient and followed by the communication with neighboring agents iteratively. However, subgradient methods converge slowly, achieving an rate of convergence as $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ to obtain an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution, i.e., a point $\hat{x} \in X$, s.t.,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\hat{x}) - f^*] \leq \varepsilon.$$ 

While the subgradient computation at each step can be inexpensive, due to the fact that one iteration in decentralized optimization is equivalent to at least one communication round among agents, these methods can incur a significant latency for solving (8.3.1). In fact, CPUs in these days can read and write the memory at over 10 - 100 GB per second whereas communication over TCP/IP is about 100 MB per second. Therefore, the gap between intra-node computation and inter-node communication is about 3 orders of magnitude. The communication start-up cost itself is also not negligible as it usually takes a few milliseconds. Improvements on communication complexity can be obtained when the objective function (8.3.1) is smooth and/or strongly convex.

Besides subgradient based methods, another well-known type of decentralized algorithms relies on dual methods, where at each step for a fixed dual variable, the primal variables are solved to minimize some local Lagrangian related function,
then the dual variables associated with the consistency constraints are updated accordingly. In particular, decentralized alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) algorithms have received much attention recently. For relatively simple convex functions $f_i$, the decentralized ADMM has been shown to require $O(1/\varepsilon)$ communications. An improved $O(\log 1/\varepsilon)$ complexity bound on communication rounds can be achieved for decentralized ADMM if stronger assumptions, i.e., smoothness and strong convexity, are imposed on $f_i$. Although dual type methods usually require fewer numbers of iterations (hence, fewer communication rounds) than the subgradient based methods, the local Lagrangian minimization problem associated with each agent cannot be solved efficiently in many cases, especially when the problem is constrained.

While decentralized algorithms for solving deterministic optimization problems have been extensively studied during the past few years, there exists only limited research on decentralized stochastic optimization, for which only noisy gradient information of functions $f_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, in (8.3.1) can be easily computed. Existing decentralized stochastic first-order methods for problem (8.3.1) require $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ inter-node communications and intra-node gradient computations to obtain an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution for solving general convex problems. When the objective functions are strongly convex, multiagent mirror descent method for decentralized stochastic optimization can achieve an $O(1/\varepsilon)$ complexity bound. All these previous works in decentralized stochastic optimization suffered from high communication costs due to the coupled scheme for stochastic subgradient evaluation and communication, i.e., each evaluation of stochastic subgradient will incur one round of communication.

Inspired the gradient sliding methods in Section 8.1, the main goal of this section is to develop dual based decentralized algorithms for solving (8.3.1) which are communication efficient and have local subproblems approximately solved by each agent through the utilization of (noisy) first-order information of $f_i$. More specifically, we will provide a theoretical understanding on how many rounds of inter-node communications and intra-node (stochastic) subgradient computations of $f_i$ are required in order to find a certain approximate solution of (8.3.1) in which $f_i$’s are convex or strongly convex, but not necessarily smooth, and their exact first-order information is not necessarily computable.

More specifically, we first introduce a new decentralized primal-dual type method, called decentralized communication sliding (DCS), where the agents can skip communications while solving their local subproblems iteratively through successive linearizations of their local objective functions. We show that agents can still find an $\varepsilon$-optimal solution in $O(1/\varepsilon)$ (resp., $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$) communication rounds while maintaining the $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ (resp., $O(1/\varepsilon)$) bound on the total number of intra-node subgradient evaluations when the objective functions are general convex (resp., strongly convex). The bounds on the subgradient evaluations are actually comparable to those optimal complexity bounds required for centralized nonsmooth optimization under certain conditions on the target accuracy, and hence are not improvable in general.

We then present a stochastic decentralized communication sliding method, denoted by SDCS, for solving stochastic optimization problems and show complexity
bounds similar to those of DCS on the total number of required communication rounds and stochastic subgradient evaluations. In particular, only $O(1/\varepsilon)$ (resp., $O(1/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$) communication rounds are required while agents perform up to $O(1/\varepsilon^2)$ (resp., $O(1/\varepsilon)$) stochastic subgradient evaluations for general convex (resp., strongly convex) functions. Only requiring the access to stochastic subgradient at each iteration, SDCS is particularly efficient for solving problems with $f_i$ given in the form of (8.3.2) and (8.3.3). In the former case, SDCS requires only one realization of the random variable at each iteration and provides a communication-efficient way to deal with streaming data and decentralized machine learning. In the latter case, each iteration of SDCS requires only one randomly selected component, leading up to a factor of $O(l)$ savings on the total number of subgradient computations over DCS.

To fix notation, all vectors are viewed as column vectors, and for a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we use $x^\top$ to denote its transpose. For a stacked vector of $x_i$'s, we often use $(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ to represent the column vector $[x_1^\top, \ldots, x_m^\top]^\top$. We denote by $\mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{1}$ the vector of all zeros and ones whose dimensions vary from the context. The cardinality of a set $S$ is denoted by $|S|$. We use $I_d$ to denote the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$. We use $A \otimes B$ for matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$ to denote their Kronecker product of size $\mathbb{R}^{m_1 n_2 \times m_2 n_1}$. For a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, we use $A_{ij}$ to denote the entry of $i$-th row and $j$-th column. For any $m \geq 1$, the set of integers $\{1, \ldots, m\}$ is denoted by $[m]$.

### 8.3.1 Problem formulation

In Subsections 8.3.1.1 and 8.3.1.2 we introduce the saddle point reformulation of (8.3.1) and define appropriate gap functions which will be used for the convergence analysis of our algorithms. Moreover, in Subsection 8.3.1.3 we provide a brief review on the distance generating function and prox-function.

#### 8.3.1.1 Problem Formulation

Consider a multiagent network system whose communication is governed by an undirected graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{E})$, where $\mathcal{N} = [m]$ indexes the set of agents, and $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{N}$ represents the pairs of communicating agents. If there exists an edge from agent $i$ to $j$ which we denote by $(i, j)$, agent $i$ may send its information to agent $j$ and vice versa. Thus, each agent $i \in \mathcal{N}$ can directly receive (resp., send) information only from (resp., to) the agents in its neighborhood

$$N_i = \{j \in \mathcal{N} \mid (i, j) \in \mathcal{E}\} \cup \{i\},$$

where we assume that there always exists a self-loop $(i, i)$ for all agents $i \in \mathcal{N}$. Then, the associated Laplacian $L \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ of $\mathcal{G}$ is $L := D - A$ where $D$ is the diagonal degree matrix, and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is the adjacency matrix with the property that $A_{ij} = 1$ if and only if $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ and $i \neq j$, i.e.,
We consider a reformulation of problem (8.3.1) which will be used in the development of our decentralized algorithms. We introduce an individual copy $x_i$ of the decision variable $x$ for each agent $i \in \mathcal{N}$ and impose the constraint $x_i = x_j$ for all pairs $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$. The transformed problem can be written compactly by using the Laplacian matrix $L$:

\[
\begin{align*}
L_{ij} &= \begin{cases} 
|N_i| - 1 & \text{if } i = j \\
-1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and } (i, j) \in \mathcal{E} \\
0 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases} 
\end{align*}
\]

(8.3.5)

We introduce an individual copy $x_i$ of the decision variable $x$ for each agent $i \in \mathcal{N}$ and impose the constraint $x_i = x_j$ for all pairs $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$. The transformed problem can be written compactly by using the Laplacian matrix $L$:

\[
\begin{align*}
\min_{x} & \quad F(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x_i) \\
\text{s.t.} & \quad Lx = 0, \quad x_i \in X_i, \text{ for all } i = 1, \ldots, m,
\end{align*}
\]

(8.3.6)

where $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in X_1 \times \ldots \times X_m$, $F : X_1 \times \ldots \times X_m \to \mathbb{R}$, and $L = L \otimes I_d \in \mathbb{R}^{md \times md}$. The constraint $Lx = 0$ is a compact way of writing $x_i = x_j$ for all agents $i$ and $j$ which are connected by an edge. By construction, $L$ is symmetric positive semidefinite and its null space coincides with the “agreement” subspace, i.e., $L 1 \mathbf{1} = 0$ and $1 ^\top L = 0$. To ensure each node gets information from every other node, we need the following assumption.

**Assumption 18** The graph $\mathcal{G}$ is connected.

Under Assumption 18, problem (8.3.1) and (8.3.6) are equivalent. We let Assumption 18 be a blanket assumption for the rest of the paper.

We next consider a reformulation of the problem (8.3.6) as a saddle point problem. By the method of Lagrange multipliers, problem (8.3.6) is equivalent to the following saddle point problem:

\[
\begin{align*}
\min_{x \in X} \max_{y \in \mathbb{R}^{md}} & \quad F(x) + \langle Lx, y \rangle
\end{align*}
\]

(8.3.7)

where $X := X_1 \times \ldots \times X_m$ and $y = (y_1, \ldots, y_m) \in \mathbb{R}^{md}$ are the Lagrange multipliers associated with the constraints $Lx = 0$. We assume that there exists an optimal solution $x^* \in X$ of (8.3.6) and that there exists $y^* \in \mathbb{R}^{md}$ such that $(x^*, y^*)$ is a saddle point of (8.3.7). In fact, since our objective function $F(x)$ is convex, strong duality holds if constraint qualification (CQ) condition holds. In particular, CQ condition states that there exists $\bar{x} \in X$ such that $L \bar{x} = 0$, which is implied by the assumption that there exists an optimal solution to (8.3.6).

### 8.3.1.2 Gap Functions: Termination Criteria

Given a pair of feasible solutions $z = (x, y)$ and $\bar{z} = (\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ of (8.3.7), we define the **primal-dual gap function** $Q(z; \bar{z})$ by

\[
Q(z; \bar{z}) := F(x) + \langle Lx, y \rangle - [F(\bar{x}) + \langle L\bar{x}, \bar{y} \rangle]
\]

(8.3.8)
Sometimes we also use the notations \( Q(z; \tilde{z}) := Q(x, y; \tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \) or \( Q(z; \tilde{z}) := Q(x, y; \tilde{z}) = Q(z, \tilde{z}) \). One can easily see that \( Q(z^*; x) \leq 0 \) and \( Q(z; z^*) \geq 0 \) for all \( z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \), where \( z^* = (x^*, y^*) \) is a saddle point of (8.3.7). For compact sets \( X \subset \mathbb{R}^{md} \), \( Y \subset \mathbb{R}^{md} \), the gap function

\[
\sup_{z \in X \times Y} Q(z; \tilde{z}) \tag{8.3.9}
\]

measures the accuracy of the approximate solution \( z \) to the saddle point problem (8.3.7).

However, the saddle point formulation (8.3.7) of our problem of interest (8.3.1) may have an unbounded feasible set. We adopt the perturbation-based termination criterion and propose a modified version of the gap function in (8.3.9). More specifically, we define

\[
g_Y(s, z) := \sup_{\tilde{y} \in Y} Q(z; x^*, \tilde{y}) - \langle s, \tilde{y} \rangle, \tag{8.3.10}
\]

for any closed set \( Y \subset \mathbb{R}^{md} \), \( z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \) and \( s \in \mathbb{R}^{md} \). If \( Y = \mathbb{R}^{md} \), we omit the subscript \( Y \) and simply use the notation \( g(s, z) \).

This perturbed gap function allows us to bound the objective function value and the feasibility separately. We first define the following terminology.

**Definition 8.1.** A point \( x \in X \) is called an \((\epsilon, \delta)\)-solution of (8.3.6) if

\[
F(x) - F(x^*) \leq \epsilon \text{ and } \|Lx\| \leq \delta. \tag{8.3.11}
\]

We say that \( x \) has primal residual \( \epsilon \) and feasibility residual \( \delta \).

Similarly, a stochastic \((\epsilon, \delta)\)-solution of (8.3.6) can be defined as a random point \( \hat{x} \in X \) s.t. \( \mathbb{E}[|F(\hat{x}) - F(x^*)|] \leq \epsilon \) and \( \mathbb{E}[\|L\hat{x}\|] \leq \delta \) for some \( \epsilon, \delta > 0 \). Note that for problem (8.3.6), the feasibility residual measures the disagreement among the local copies \( x_i \), for \( i \in \mathcal{N} \).

In the following proposition, we establish the relationship between the perturbed gap function (8.3.10) and the approximate solutions to problem (8.3.6). Although the proposition was originally developed for deterministic cases, the extension of this to stochastic cases is straightforward.

**Proposition 8.6.** For any \( Y \subset \mathbb{R}^{md} \) such that \( 0 \in Y \), if \( g_Y(Lx, z) \leq \epsilon < \infty \) and \( \|Lx\| \leq \delta \), where \( z = (x, y) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \), then \( x \) is an \((\epsilon, \delta)\)-solution of (8.3.6). In particular, when \( Y = \mathbb{R}^{md} \), for any \( s \) such that \( g(s, z) \leq \epsilon < \infty \) and \( \|s\| \leq \delta \), we always have \( s = Lx \).

**Proof.** TBD

### 8.3.1.3 Prox-function

We assume that the individual constraint set \( X_i \) for each agent in problem (8.3.1) are equipped with norm \( \| \cdot \|_{X_i} \), and their associated prox-functions associated with the
distance generating function $\omega_i$ are given by $V_i(\cdot, \cdot)$. Moreover, we assume that each $V_i(\cdot, \cdot)$ shares the same strongly convex modulus $\nu = 1$, i.e.,

$$V_i(x_i, u_i) \geq \frac{1}{2} \| x_i - u_i \|_X^2, \quad \forall x_i, u_i \in X_i, ~ i = 1, \ldots, m. \quad (8.3.12)$$

We define the norm associated with the primal feasible set $X = X_1 \times \ldots \times X_m$ of (8.3.7) as follows:

$$\| x \|_X^2 \equiv \| x \|_X^2 := \sum_{i=1}^m \| x_i \|_{X_i}^2, \quad (8.3.13)$$

where $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in X$ for any $x_i \in X_i$. Therefore, the corresponding prox-function $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ can be defined as

$$V(x, u) := \sum_{i=1}^m V_i(x_i, u_i), \quad \forall x, u \in X. \quad (8.3.14)$$

Note that by (8.3.12) and (8.3.13), it can be easily seen that

$$V(x, u) \geq \frac{1}{2} \| x - u \|_X^2, \quad \forall x, u \in X. \quad (8.3.15)$$

Throughout the paper, we endow the dual space where the multipliers $y$ of (8.3.7) reside with the standard Euclidean norm $\| \cdot \|_2$, since the feasible region of $y$ is unbounded. For simplicity, we often write $\| y \|_1$ instead of $\| y \|_2$ for a dual multiplier $y \in \mathbb{R}^{md}$.

Given the prox-function $V_i$, we assume that the objective functions associated with agent $i$ satisfy

$$\mu V_i(y, x) \leq f_i(x) - f_i(y) - \langle f'_i(y), x - y \rangle \leq M \| x - y \|, \quad \forall x, y \in X_i, \quad (8.3.16)$$

for some $M, \mu > 0$ and $f'_i(y) \in \partial f_i(y)$, where $\partial f_i(y)$ denotes the subdifferential of $f_i$ at $y$, and $X_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is a closed convex constraint set of agent $i$. Clearly, $f'_i$'s are strongly convex if $\mu > 0$.

### 8.3.2 Decentralized communication sliding

In this section, we introduce a primal-dual algorithmic framework, namely, the decentralized communication sliding (DCS) method, for solving the saddle point problem (8.3.7) in a decentralized fashion. Moreover, we will establish complexity bounds on the required number of inter-node communication rounds as well as the total number of required subgradient evaluations. Throughout this section, we consider the deterministic case where exact subgradients of $f'_i$'s are available.

---

1 We can define the norm associated with $X$ in a more general way, e.g., $\| x \|_X^2 := \sum_{i=1}^m p_i \| x_i \|_{X_i}^2$, $\forall x = (x_1, \ldots, x_m) \in X$, for some $p_i > 0$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Accordingly, the prox-function $V(\cdot, \cdot)$ can be defined as $V(x, u) := \sum_{i=1}^m p_i V_i(x_i, u_i), \forall x, u \in X$. This setting gives us flexibility to choose $p_i$'s based on the information of individual $X_i$'s, and the possibility to further refine the convergence results.
8.3.2.1 The DCS Algorithm

The basic scheme of the DCS algorithm is inspired by the primal-dual method in Section 3.6. When applied to our saddle point reformulation defined in (8.3.7), for any given initial points \( x^0 = x^{-1} \in X \) and \( y^0 \in \mathbb{R}^m \), and certain nonnegative parameters \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \tau_k \} \) and \( \{ \eta_k \} \), the primal-dual method updates \((x^k, y^k)\) according to

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{x}^k &= \alpha_k (x^{k-1} - x^{k-2}) + x^{k-1}, \\
y^k &= \arg\min_{y \in \mathbb{R}^m} \langle -L\hat{x}^k, y \rangle + \frac{\tau_k}{2} \| y - y^{k-1} \|^2, \\
x^k &= \arg\min_{x \in X} \left\{ \Phi^k(x) := \langle Ly^k, x \rangle + F(x) + \eta_k V(x^{k-1}, x) \right\}.
\end{align*}
\] (8.3.17) (8.3.18) (8.3.19)

In each iteration of the primal-dual method, only the computation of the matrix-vector products \( L\hat{x}^k \) and \( Ly^k \) will involve the communication among different agents, while the other computations such as the updating of \( \hat{x}^k \), \( y^k \) and \( x^k \) can be performed separately by each agent. Under the assumption that the subproblem (8.3.19) can be easily solved, we can show that by properly choosing the algorithmic parameters \( \alpha_k \), \( \tau_k \) and \( \eta_k \) one can find an \( \epsilon \)-solution, i.e., a point \( \bar{x} \in X \) such that \( F(\bar{x}) - F(x^*) \leq \epsilon \) and \( \| L\bar{x} \| \leq \epsilon \), within \( \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon) \) iterations. This implies that one can find such an \( \epsilon \)-solution in \( \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon) \) rounds of communication, which already improves the existing \( \mathcal{O}(1/\epsilon^2) \) communication complexity for decentralized nonsmooth optimization. However, such a communication complexity bound is not quite meaningful because \( F \) is a general nonsmooth convex function and it is often difficult to solve the primal subproblem (8.3.19) explicitly.

One natural way to address this issue is to approximately solve (8.3.19) through an iterative subgradient descent method. Inside this iterative subgradient descent method, we do not need to re-compute the matrix-vector products \( L\hat{x}^k \) and \( Ly^k \), and hence no communication cost is involved. However, a straightforward pursuit of this approach, i.e., to solve the subproblem accurately enough at each iteration, does not necessarily yield the best complexity bound in terms of the total number of subgradient computations. To achieve the best possible complexity bounds in terms of both subgradient computation and communication, the proposed DCS method (along with its analysis) are in fact more complicated than the aforementioned inexact primal-dual method in the following two aspects. Firstly, while in most inexact first-order methods one usually computes only one approximate solution of the subproblems, in the proposed DCS method we need to generate a pair of closely related approximate solutions \( x^k = (x^k_1, \ldots, x^k_m) \) and \( \hat{x}^k = (\hat{x}^k_1, \ldots, \hat{x}^k_m) \) to the subproblem in (8.3.19). Secondly, we need to modify the primal-dual method in a way such that one of these sequence (i.e., \( \{ \hat{x}^k \} \)) will be used in the extrapolation step in (8.3.17), while the other sequence \( \{ x^k \} \) will act as the prox-center in \( V(x^{k-1}, x) \) (see (8.3.19)).

We formally describe our DCS method in Algorithm 8.7. An outer iteration of the DCS algorithm occurs whenever the index \( k \) in Algorithm 8.7 is incremented by 1. More specifically, each primal estimate \( x^k \) is locally initialized from some arbitrary
Algorithm 8.7 DCS from agent $i$’s perspective

Let $x^0_i = x^{-1}_i = r^0_i \in X_i$, $y^0_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for $i \in [m]$ and the nonnegative parameters $\{ \alpha_k \}$, $\{ \tau_k \}$, $\{ \eta_k \}$ and $\{ T_k \}$ be given.

for $k = 1, \ldots, N$ do

Update $z^k_i = (\bar{x}^k_i, \bar{y}^k_i)$ according to

$$
\bar{x}^k_i = \alpha_k (\bar{x}^{k-1}_i - \bar{x}^{k-2}_i) + \bar{x}^{k-1}_i, \quad (8.3.20)
$$

$$
\bar{y}^k_i = \sum_{j \in N_i} L_{ij} \bar{x}^k_j, \quad (8.3.21)
$$

$$
y^k_i = \arg\min_{y_i \in \mathbb{R}^d} \langle -v^k_i, y_i \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} \| y_i - y^{k-1}_i \|_2^2 = y^{k-1}_i + \frac{\beta}{2} v^k_i, \quad (8.3.22)
$$

$$
w^k_i = \sum_{j \in N_i} L_{ij} \bar{y}^k_j, \quad (8.3.23)
$$

$$(\bar{x}^k_i, \bar{y}^k_i) = \text{CS}(f_i, X_i, V_i, T_i, \eta_k, w^k_i, x^{k-1}_i). \quad (8.3.24)
$$

end for

return $z^N_i = (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k z^k_i$

The CS (Communication-Sliding) procedure called at (8.3.24) is stated as follows.

procedure: $(x, \bar{x}) = \text{CS}(\phi, U, V, T, \eta, w, x)$

Let $u^0 = \bar{u}^0 = \bar{x}$ and the parameters $\{ \beta_k \}$ and $\{ \lambda_k \}$ be given.

for $t = 1, \ldots, T$ do

$$
h^{-1} = \phi'(u^{-1}) \in \partial \phi(u^{-1}), \quad (8.3.25)
$$

$$
\bar{u}^t = \arg\min_{u \in U} \left[ \langle w + h^{-1}, u \rangle + \eta V(x, u) + \eta \beta V(u^{-1}, u) \right]. \quad (8.3.26)
$$

end for

Set

$$
\bar{u}^T := (\sum_{k=1}^T \lambda_k)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^T \lambda_k \bar{u}^k. \quad (8.3.27)
$$

Set $x = u^T$ and $\bar{z} = \bar{u}^T$.

end procedure

Point in $X_i$ and $x^{-1}_i$ and $r^0_i$ are also set to be the same value. At each time step $k \geq 1$, each agent $i \in \mathcal{N}$ computes a local prediction $\bar{x}_i^k$ using these three previous primal iterates (ref. (8.3.20)), and sends it to all of the nodes in its neighborhood, i.e., to all agents $j \in N_i$. In (8.3.21)-(8.3.22), each agent $i$ then calculates the neighborhood disagreement $v^k_i$ using the messages received from agents in $N_i$, and updates the dual subvector $y^k_i$. Then, another round of communication occurs in (8.3.23) when calculating $w^k_i$ based on these updated dual variables. Therefore, each outer iteration $k$ involves two communication rounds, one for the primal estimates and the other for the dual variables. Lastly, each agent $i$ approximately solves the proximal projection subproblem (8.3.19), i.e.,

$$
\arg\min_{u \in U} \langle w, u \rangle + \phi(u) + \eta V(x, u) \quad (8.3.28)
$$

with $u = x_i$, $U = X_i$, $w = w^k_i$, $\phi = f_i$, $\eta = \eta_k$ and $V = V_i$, by calling the CS procedure for $T = T_k$ iterations in (8.3.24).
Each iteration performed by the CS procedure, referred to as an inner iteration of the DCS method, is equivalent to a subgradient descent step applied to (8.3.28). More specifically, each inner iteration consists of the computation of the subgradient \( \phi'(u^{t-1}) \) in (8.3.25) and the solution of the projection subproblem in (8.3.26). Note that the objective function of (8.3.26) consists of two parts: 1) the inner product of \( u \) and the summation of \( w \) and the current subgradient \( \phi'(u^{t-1}) \); and 2) two Bregman distances requiring that the new iterate lies near \( x \) and \( u^{t-1} \). By using the definition of Bregman distance, we can see that (8.3.26) is equivalent to

\[
    u^t = \arg\min_{u \in U} \left[ \langle w + h^{t-1} - \eta \nabla \omega(x) - \eta \beta \nabla \omega(u^{t-1}), u \rangle + \eta (1 + \beta_t) \omega(u) \right].
\]

Similar to mirror-descent type methods, we assume that this problem is easy to solve. Also observe that the same dual information \( w = w^t \) (see (8.3.23)) has been used throughout the \( T = T_k \) iterations of the CS procedure, and hence no additional communication is required within the procedure, which explains the name of the DCS method.

Observe that the DCS method, in spirit, has been inspired by the gradient sliding method (Section 8.1). However, the gradient sliding method focuses on how to save communication rounds (or matrix-vector products) for decentralized optimization, and its algorithmic scheme is also quite different from the DCS method. It should also be noted that the description of the algorithm is only conceptual at this moment since we have not specified the parameters \( \{\alpha_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{\tau_k\}, \{T_k\}, \{\beta_t\} \) and \( \{\lambda_t\} \) yet. We will later instantiate this generic algorithm when we state its convergence properties.

### 8.3.2.2 Convergence of DCS on General Convex Functions

We now establish the main convergence properties of the DCS algorithm. More specifically, we provide in Lemma 8.3 an estimate on the gap function defined in (8.3.8) together with stepsize policies which work for the general nonsmooth convex case with \( \mu = 0 \) (cf. (8.3.16)). The proof of this lemma can be found in Section 8.3.5.

**Lemma 8.3.** Let the iterates \( \hat{x}^k, \hat{y}^k \), \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) be generated by Algorithm 8.7 and \( \hat{x}^N \) be defined as \( \hat{x}^N := (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k(\hat{x}^k, \hat{y}^k) \). If the objective \( f_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), are general nonsmooth convex functions, i.e., \( \mu = 0 \) and \( M > 0 \), let the parameters \( \{\alpha_k\}, \{\theta_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{\tau_k\} \) and \( \{T_k\} \) in Algorithm 8.7 satisfy

\[
    \theta_k \frac{(T_k+1)(T_k+2)\eta_k}{T_k(T_k+3)} \leq \theta_{k-1} \frac{(T_{k-1}+1)(T_{k-1}+2)\eta_{k-1}}{T_{k-1}(T_{k-1}+3)}, \quad k = 2, \ldots, N, \tag{8.3.29}
\]

\[
    \alpha_k \theta_k = \theta_{k-1}, \quad k = 2, \ldots, N, \tag{8.3.30}
\]

\[
    \theta_k \tau_k = \theta_1 \tau_1, \quad k = 2, \ldots, N, \tag{8.3.31}
\]

\[
    \alpha_k \|L\|^2 \leq \eta_{k-1} \tau_k, \quad k = 2, \ldots, N, \tag{8.3.32}
\]

\[
    \theta_N \|L\|^2 \leq \theta_1 \tau_1 \eta_N, \tag{8.3.33}
\]
and the parameters \( \{ \lambda_t \} \) and \( \{ \beta_t \} \) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 be set to
\[
\lambda_t = t + 1, \quad \beta_t = \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\] (8.3.34)

Then, we have for all \( z := (x, y) \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \)
\[
Q(\hat{z}^N, z) \leq (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \left[ \frac{(T_1 + 1)(T_1 + 2)\theta_k}{T_1(T_1 + 3)} \mathbf{V}(x^0, x) + \frac{\theta_k \tau_k}{2} \| y^0 \|^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{4mM^2 \theta_k}{\eta_k(\tau_k + 3)} \right],
\] (8.3.35)

where \( \hat{s} := \theta_k L(\hat{x}^N - x^{N-1}) + \theta_k \tau_k (y^N - y^0) \) and \( Q \) is defined in (8.3.8). Furthermore, for any saddle point \((x^*, y^*)\) of (8.3.7), we have
\[
\frac{\theta_k}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{\| L \|^2}{2 \theta_k \eta_k} \right) \max \{ \eta_k \| x^N - x^{N-1} \|^2, \tau_k \| y^* - y^N \|^2 \} \leq \frac{(T_1 + 1)(T_1 + 2)\theta_k}{T_1(T_1 + 3)} \mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_k \tau_k}{2} \| y^* - y^0 \|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{4mM^2 \theta_k}{\eta_k(\tau_k + 3)}.
\] (8.3.36)

In the following theorem, we provide a specific selection of \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \theta_k \}, \{ \eta_k \}, \{ \tau_k \} \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) satisfying (8.3.29)-(8.3.33). Using Lemma 8.3 and Proposition 8.6, we also establish the complexity of the DCS method for computing an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution of problem (8.3.6) when the objective functions are general convex.

**Theorem 8.8.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (8.3.6), the parameters \( \{ \lambda_t \} \) and \( \{ \beta_t \} \) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 be set to (8.3.34), and suppose that \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \theta_k \}, \{ \eta_k \}, \{ \tau_k \} \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) are set to
\[
\alpha_k = \theta_k = 1, \quad \eta_k = 2\| L \|, \quad \tau_k = \| L \|, \quad \text{and} \quad T_k = \left\lceil \frac{mM^2 N}{\| L \|^2 \delta} \right\rceil, \quad \forall k = 1, \ldots, N, \quad (8.3.37)
\]
for some \( \delta > 0 \). Then, for any \( N \geq 1 \), we have
\[
F(\hat{x}^N) - F(x^*) \leq \frac{\| L \|}{N} \left[ 3\mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{2} \| y^0 \|^2 + 2\delta \right]
\] (8.3.38)

and
\[
\| L \hat{x}^N \| \leq \frac{\| L \|}{N} \left[ 3\sqrt{6\mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*)} + 4\delta + 4\| y^* - y^0 \| \right], \quad (8.3.39)
\]
where \( \hat{x}^N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \hat{x}^k \), and \( y^* \) is an arbitrary dual optimal solution.

**Proof.** It is easy to check that (8.3.37) satisfies conditions (8.3.29)-(8.3.33). Particularly,
\[
\frac{(T_1 + 1)(T_1 + 2)}{T_1(T_1 + 3)} = 1 + \frac{2}{T_1^2 + 3T_1} \leq \frac{3}{2}.
\]

Therefore, by plugging in these values to (8.3.35), we have
\[
Q(\hat{z}^N, x^*, y) \leq \frac{\| L \|}{N} \left[ 3\mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{2} \| y^0 \|^2 + 2\delta \right] + \frac{1}{N} \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle.
\] (8.3.40)
Letting $\hat{s}^N = \frac{1}{N}\hat{s}$, then from (8.3.36), we have

$$\|\hat{s}^N\| \leq \frac{\|L\|}{N} \left[ \|\hat{x}^N - x^{N-1}\| + \|y^N - y^*\| + \|y^* - y^0\| \right].$$

Furthermore, by (8.3.40), we have

$$g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{z}^N) \leq \frac{\|L\|}{N} \left[ 3\sqrt[3]{6V(x^0, x^*)} + \|y^* - y^0\|^2 + 4\tilde{D} + \|y^* - y^0\| \right].$$

Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above two inequalities, the results in (8.3.38) and (8.3.39) follow immediately.

We now make some remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 8.8. Firstly, even though one can choose any $\tilde{D} > 0$ (e.g., $\tilde{D} = 1$) in (8.3.37), the best selection of $\tilde{D}$ would be $V(x^0, x^*)$ so that the first and third terms in (8.3.40) are about the same order. In practice, if there exists an estimate $D_X > 0$ s.t.

$$V(x_1, x_2) \leq D_X^2, \forall x_1, x_2 \in X,$$

then we can set $\tilde{D} = D_X$.

Secondly, the complexity of the DCS method directly follows from (8.3.38) and (8.3.39). For simplicity, let us assume that $X$ is bounded, $\tilde{D} = D_X^2$ and $y^0 = 0$. We can see that the total number of inter-node communication rounds and intra-node subgradient evaluations required by each agent for finding an $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-solution of (8.3.5) can be bounded by

$$O \left\{ \|L\| \max \left( \frac{D_X^2}{\varepsilon}, \frac{\|x^0\|}{\delta^2} \right) \right\} \text{ and } O \left\{ mM^2 \max \left( \frac{D_X^2}{\varepsilon^2}, \frac{\|x^0\|^2}{\delta^2} \right) \right\},$$

respectively. In particular, if $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$ satisfy

$$\frac{\varepsilon}{\delta} \leq \frac{D_X^2}{\|x^0\|},$$

then the previous two complexity bounds in (8.3.42), respectively, reduce to

$$O \left\{ \frac{\|L\| D_X^2}{\varepsilon} \right\} \text{ and } O \left\{ \frac{mM^2 D_X^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right\}.$$

Thirdly, it is interesting to compare DCS with the centralized mirror descent method (Section 3.2) applied to (8.3.1). In the worst case, the Lipschitz constant of $f$ in (8.3.1) can be bounded by $M_f \leq mM$, and each iteration of the method will incur $m$ subgradient evaluations. Hence, the total number of subgradient evaluations performed by the mirror descent method for finding an $\varepsilon$-solution of (8.3.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x} \in X$ such that $f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \varepsilon$, can be bounded by

$$O \left\{ \frac{m^3 M^2 D_X^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right\}.$$
where $D_X^2$ characterizes the diameter of $X$, i.e., $D_X^2 := \max_{x_1, x_2 \in X} V(x_1, x_2)$. Noting that $D_X^2 / D_X^2 = O(1/m)$, and that the second bound in (8.3.44) states only the number of subgradient evaluations for each agent in the DCS method, we conclude that the total number of subgradient evaluations performed by DCS is comparable to the classic mirror descent method as long as (8.3.43) holds and hence not improvable in general.

Finally, observe that the parameter setting (8.3.37) requires the knowledge of the norm of Laplacian matrix $L$, i.e., $\|L\| = \max_{\|x\| \leq 1} \{\|Lx\|_2\}$. If we use $L_2$-norm for the primal space, $\|L\|$ will be the maximum eigenvalue of $L$. We can estimate it using power iteration method or simply bound it by the maximum degree of the graph. If we use $l_1$-norm in the primal space, then $\|L\|$ will be the $L_{1,2}$-norm for $\|L\|$, i.e., $\|L\| = \|L\|_{1,2} = (\sum_{i=1}^{md} \|L_i\|_1)^1/2 = 2\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{m} \deg_j^2}$, where $L_i$’s denote the row vectors of $L$ and $\deg_j$ denotes the degree of node $j$. The estimation of $\|L\|$ will involve a few rounds of communication, however, these initial setup costs are independent of the target accuracy $\epsilon$ of the solution. It should also be noted that the number of inner iterations $T_k$ given in (8.3.37) is fixed as a constant in order to achieve the best complexity bounds. In practice, it is reasonable to choose $T_k$ dynamically so that a smaller number of inner iterations will be performed in the first few outer iterations. One simple strategy would be to set

$$T_k = \min \left( c_k, \left[ \frac{mM^2N}{\|L\|^2 D} \right] \right)$$

for some constant $c > 0$. While theoretically such a selection of $T_k$ will result in slightly worse complexity bounds (up to an $O(\log(1/\epsilon))$ factor) in terms of subgradient computations and communication rounds, it may improve the practical performance of the DCS method especially in the beginning of the execution of this method.

### 8.3.2.3 Boundedness of $\|y^*\|$

In this subsection, we will provide a bound on the optimal dual multiplier $y^*$. By doing so, we show that the complexity of DCS algorithm (as well as the stochastic DCS algorithm in Section 8.3.3) only depends on the parameters for the primal problem along with the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of $L$ and the initial point $y^0$, even though these algorithms are intrinsically primal-dual type methods.

**Theorem 8.9.** Suppose that $f_i$’s are Lipschitz continuous, i.e., the subgradients of $f_i$ are bounded by a constant $M_f$ w.r.t. $\|\cdot\|_2$. Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (8.3.6). Then there exists an optimal dual multiplier $y^*$ for (8.3.7) s.t.

$$\|y^*\|_2 \leq \frac{\sqrt{mM_f}}{\sigma_{\min}(L)},$$

where $\sigma_{\min}(L)$ denotes the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of $L$. 

Proof. Since we only relax the linear constraints in problem (8.3.6) to obtain the Lagrange dual problem (8.3.7), it follows from the strong Lagrange duality and the existence of $x^*$ to (8.3.6) that an optimal dual multiplier $y^*$ for problem (8.3.7) must exist. It is clear that

$$y^* = y_N^* + y_C^*,$$

where $y_N^*$ and $y_C^*$ denote the projections of $y^*$ over the null space and the column space of $L^T$, respectively.

We consider two cases. Case 1) $y_C^* = 0$. Since $y_N^*$ belongs to the null space of $L^T$, $L^T y^* = L^T y_N^* = 0$, which implies that for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $cy^*$ is also an optimal dual multiplier of (8.3.7). Therefore, (8.3.46) clearly holds, because we can scale $y^*$ to an arbitrary small vector.

Case 2) $y_C^* \neq 0$. Using the fact that $L^T y^* = L^T y_C^*$ and the definition of a saddle point of (8.3.7), we conclude that $y_C^*$ is also an optimal dual multiplier of (8.3.7). Since $y_C^*$ in the column space of $L$, we have

$$||L^T y_C^*||_2^2 = (y_C^*)^T L L^T y_C^* = (y_C^*)^T U^T A U y_C^* \geq \lambda_{\min}(L L^T) ||U y_C^*||_2^2 = \sigma_{\min}(L) ||y_C^*||_2^2,$$

where $U$ is an orthonormal matrix whose rows consist of the eigenvectors of $L L^T$, $A$ is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal elements are the corresponding eigenvalues, $\lambda_{\min}(L L^T)$ denotes the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of $L L^T$, and $\sigma_{\min}(L)$ denotes the smallest nonzero eigenvalue of $L$. In particular,

$$||y_C^*||_2 \leq \frac{||L^T y_C^*||_2}{\sigma_{\min}(L)} (8.3.47)$$

Moreover, if we denote the saddle point problem defined in (8.3.7) as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}(x, y) := F(x) + \langle Lx, y \rangle.$$

By the definition of a saddle point of (8.3.7), we have $\mathcal{L}(x^*, y_C^*) \leq \mathcal{L}(x, y_C^*)$, i.e.,

$$F(x^*) - F(x) \leq \langle -L^T y_C^*, x - x^* \rangle.$$

Hence, from the definition of subgradients, we conclude that $-L^T y_C^* \in \partial F(x^*)$, which together with the fact that $f_i$’s are Lipschitz continuous implies that

$$||L^T y_C^*||_2 = ||(f_1'(x_1^*), f_2'(x_2^*), \ldots, f_m'(x_m^*))||_2 \leq \sqrt{m M_f}.$$

Our result in (8.3.46) follows immediately from the above relation, (8.3.47) and the fact that $y_C^*$ is also an optimal dual multiplier of (8.3.7).

Observe that our bound for the dual multiplier $y^*$ in (8.3.46) contains only the primal information. Given an initial dual multiplier $y^0$, this result can be used to provide an upper bound on $\|y^0 - y^*\|$ in Theorems 8.8-8.12 throughout this paper. Note also that we can assume $y^0 = 0$ to simplify these complexity bounds.
8.3.2.4 Convergence of DCS on Strongly Convex Functions

In this subsection, we assume that the objective functions $f_i$'s are strongly convex (i.e., $\mu > 0$ (8.3.16)).

We next provide in Lemma 8.4 an estimate on the gap function defined in (8.3.8) together with stepsize policies which work for the strongly convex case. The proof of this lemma can be found in Section 8.3.5.

**Lemma 8.4.** Let the iterates $(\hat{x}^k, \hat{y}^k)$, $k = 1, \ldots, N$ be generated by Algorithm 8.7 and $\hat{x}^N$ be defined as $\hat{x}^N := \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k\right)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k(\hat{x}^k, \hat{y}^k)$. If the objective $f_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$ are strongly convex functions, i.e., $\mu > 0$, let the parameters $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\theta_k\}$, $\{\eta_k\}$ and $\{\tau_k\}$ in Algorithm 8.7 satisfy (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and

$$\theta_k \eta_k \leq \theta_{k-1}(\mu + \eta_{k-1}), \quad k = 2, \ldots, N,$$

and the parameters $\{\lambda_t\}$ and $\{\beta_t\}$ in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 be set to

$$\lambda_t = t, \quad \beta_t^{(k)} = \left(\frac{(t+1)\mu}{2\theta_k}\right)^{\frac{t-1}{t}}, \quad \forall t \geq 1.$$

Then, we have for all $z \in \mathbb{X} \times \mathbb{R}^{md}$

$$Q(\hat{x}^N; z) \leq \left(\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k\right)^{-1} \left[\theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x) + \frac{\theta_1 \tau_1}{2} \|y^0\|^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle\right. + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2m^2 \theta_0}{2(t+1)\theta_k (t+1)(\mu + \eta_{t-1})} \left.t^{rac{t-1}{t}}\right],$$

(8.3.50)

where $\hat{s} := \theta_0 L(\hat{x}^N - x^{N-1}) + \theta_1 \tau_1 (y^N - y^0)$ and $Q$ is defined in (8.3.8). Furthermore, for any saddle point $(x^*, y^*)$ of (8.3.7), we have

$$\frac{\theta_0 \tau}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\|L\|^2}{4\eta_0 \eta_N}\right) \max\{\eta_N \|x_N - x^{N-1}\|^2, \eta_N \|y^N - y^0\|^2\} \leq \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_1 \tau_1}{2} \|y^* - y^0\|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2m^2 \theta_0}{2(t+1)(t+1)(\mu + \eta_{t-1})} t^{rac{t-1}{t}} \eta_k.$$

(8.3.51)

In the following theorem, we provide a specific selection of $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\theta_k\}$, $\{\eta_k\}$, $\{\tau_k\}$ and $\{T_k\}$ satisfying (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and (8.3.48). Also, by using Lemma 8.4 and Proposition 8.6, we establish the complexity of the DCS method for computing an $(\epsilon, \delta)$-solution of problem (8.3.6) when the objective functions are strongly convex. The choice of variable stepsizes rather than using constant stepsizes will accelerate its convergence rate.

**Theorem 8.10.** Let $x^*$ be an optimal solution of (8.3.6), the parameters $\{\lambda_t\}$ and $\{\beta_t\}$ in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 be set to (8.3.49) and suppose that $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\theta_k\}$, $\{\eta_k\}$, $\{\tau_k\}$ and $\{T_k\}$ are set to

$$\alpha_k = \frac{k}{k+1}, \quad \theta_k = k + 1, \quad \eta_k = \frac{k}{2}, \quad \tau_k = \frac{4\|L\|^2}{(k+1)\mu}, \quad \text{and}$$

$$T_k = \sqrt{\frac{2m^2 MN}{B^2}} \max\left\{\sqrt{\frac{2m^2}{B^2}}, 1\right\}.$$
Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above two inequalities, the results in (8.3.53) and (8.3.54) follow immediately.

Therefore, by plugging in these values to (8.3.50), we have

\[ 8.3.54 \]

where \( \mathbf{s}^N = \frac{2}{N(N+3)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (k+1) \hat{k} \), and \( y^* \) is an arbitrary dual optimal solution.

**Proof.** It is easy to check that (8.3.52) satisfies conditions (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and (8.3.48). Moreover, we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2mM^2 \theta_k}{T_k(T_k+1)} \frac{1}{(t+1)\mu+(t-1)\eta_k} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{2mM^2 \theta_k}{T_k(T_k+1)\mu} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2t}{(t+1)+(t-1)k} \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{2mM^2 \theta_k}{T_k(T_k+1)\mu} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{t=2}^{T_k} \frac{1}{(t-1)(k+1)} \right) \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{mM^2(k+1)}{T_k(T_k+1)\mu} + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{8mM^2(k+1)}{T_k(T_k+1)\mu} \leq 2\mu \hat{D}.
\]

Therefore, by plugging in these values to (8.3.50), we have

\[ 8.3.55 \]

Furthermore, from (8.3.51), we have for \( N \geq 2 \)

\[ 8.3.56 \]

Let \( \mathbf{s}^N := \frac{2}{N(N+3)} \hat{s} \), then by using (8.3.56), we have for \( N \geq 2 \)

\[ 8.3.57 \]

From (8.3.55), we further have

\[ 8.3.58 \]

Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above two inequalities, the results in (8.3.53) and (8.3.54) follow immediately.
We now make some remarks about the results obtained in Theorem 8.10. Firstly, similar to the general convex case, the best choice for $\tilde{D}$ (cf. (8.3.52)) would be $V(x^0, x^*)$ so that the first and the third terms in (8.3.55) are about the same order. If there exists an estimate $D_X > 0$ satisfying (8.3.41), we can set $\tilde{D} = D_X^2$.

Secondly, the complexity of the DCS method for solving strongly convex problems follows from (8.3.53) and (8.3.54). For simplicity, let us assume that $X$ is bounded, $\tilde{D} = D_X^2$ and $y^0 = 0$. We can see that the total number of inter-node communication rounds and intra-node subgradient evaluations performed by each agent for finding an $(\epsilon, \delta)$-solution of (8.3.6) can be bounded by

$$O\left\{ \max\left( \sqrt{\frac{\mu D_X^2}{\epsilon}}, \sqrt{\frac{\|L\|}{\delta} \left( D_X + \frac{\|L\|\|y^*\|}{\delta} \right)} \right) \right\}$$

and

$$O\left\{ \frac{mM^2}{\mu} \max\left( \frac{1}{\epsilon}, \frac{\|L\|}{\mu \delta} \left( \frac{1}{D_X^2} + \frac{\|L\|\|y^*\|}{\mu D_X^2} \right) \right) \right\},$$

respectively. In particular, if $\epsilon$ and $\delta$ satisfy

$$\frac{\epsilon}{\delta} \leq \frac{\mu^2 D_X^2}{\|L\| \|y^*\|},$$

then the complexity bounds in (8.3.57), respectively, reduce to

$$O\left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\mu D_X^2}{\epsilon}} \right\}$$

and

$$O\left\{ \frac{mM^2}{\mu \epsilon} \right\},$$

Thirdly, we compare DCS method with the centralized mirror descent method (Section 3.2) applied to (8.3.1). In the worst case, the Lipschitz constant and strongly convex modulus of $f$ in (8.3.1) can be bounded by $M_f \leq mM$, and $\mu_f \geq m\mu$, respectively, and each iteration of the method will incur $m$ subgradient evaluations. Therefore, the total number of subgradient evaluations performed by the mirror descent method for finding an $\epsilon$-solution of (8.3.1), i.e., a point $\bar{x} \in X$ such that $f(\bar{x}) - f^* \leq \epsilon$, can be bounded by

$$O\left\{ \frac{mM^2}{\mu \epsilon} \right\}.$$

Observed that the second bound in (8.3.59) states only the number of subgradient evaluations for each agent in the DCS method, we conclude that the total number of subgradient evaluations performed by DCS is comparable to the classic mirror descent method as long as (8.3.58) holds and hence not improvable in general for the nonsmooth strongly convex case.

### 8.3.3 Stochastic decentralized communication sliding

In this section, we consider the stochastic case where only the noisy subgradient information of the functions $f_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, is available or easier to compute. This
situation happens when the function $f_i$’s are given either in the form of expectation or as the summation of lots of components. This setting has attracted considerable interest in recent decades for its applications in a broad spectrum of disciplines including machine learning, signal processing, and operations research. We present a stochastic communication sliding method, namely the stochastic decentralized communication sliding (SDCS) method, and show that the similar complexity bounds as in Section 8.3.2 can still be obtained in expectation or with high probability.

### 8.3.3.1 The SDCS Algorithm

The first-order information of the function $f_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$, can be accessed by a stochastic oracle (SO), which, given a point $u' \in X$, outputs a vector $G_i(u', \xi'_i)$ such that

$$
E[G_i(u', \xi'_i)] = f'_i(u') \in \partial f_i(u'),
$$

$$
E[\|G_i(u', \xi'_i) - f'_i(u')\|^2] \leq \sigma^2,
$$

where $\xi'_i$ is a random vector which models a source of uncertainty and is independent of the search point $u'$, and the distribution $P(\xi_i)$ is not known in advance. We call $G_i(u', \xi'_i)$ a stochastic subgradient of $f_i$ at $u'$.

The SDCS method can be obtained by simply replacing the exact subgradients in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 with the stochastic subgradients obtained from SO. This difference is described in Algorithm 8.8.

**Algorithm 8.8 SDCS**

The projection step (8.3.25)-(8.3.26) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.7 is replaced by

$$
h^{t-1} = H(u^{t-1}, \xi^{t-1}),
$$

$$
u' = \arg\min_{u \in U} \left[w + h^{t-1}, u) + \eta V(x, u) + \eta \beta V(u^{t-1}, u)\right],
$$

where $H(u^{t-1}, \xi^{t-1})$ is a stochastic subgradient of $\phi$ at $u^{t-1}$.

We add a few remarks about the SDCS algorithm. Firstly, as in DCS, no additional communications of the dual variables are required when the subgradient projection (8.3.64) is performed for $T_k$ times in the inner loop. This is because the same $w_i^{k'}$ has been used throughout the $T_k$ iterations of the Stochastic CS procedure. Secondly, the problem will reduce to the deterministic case if there is no stochastic noise associated with the SO, i.e., when $\sigma = 0$ in (8.3.62). Therefore, in Section 8.3.5, we investigate the convergence analysis for the stochastic case first and then simplify the analysis for the deterministic case by setting $\sigma = 0$. 
8.3.3.2 Convergence of SDCS on General Convex Functions

We now establish the main convergence properties of the SDCS algorithm. More specifically, we provide in Lemma 8.5 an estimate on the gap function defined in (8.3.8) together with stepsize policies which work for the general convex case with \( \mu = 0 \) (cf. (8.3.16)). The proof of this lemma can be found in Section 8.3.5.

**Lemma 8.5.** Let the iterates \( \{\hat{x}^k, y^k\} \) for \( k = 1, \ldots, N \) be generated by Algorithm 8.8, \( \hat{z}^N \) be defined as \( \hat{z}^N := \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{\eta_k} \right)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k (\hat{x}^k, y^k) \), and Assumptions (8.3.61)-(8.3.62) hold. If the objective \( f \) [Equation (8.3.8)]

\[
\text{hold. If the objective } f, \text{ and } g \text{ are general nonsmooth convex functions, i.e., } \mu = 0 \text{ and } M > 0, \text{ let the parameters } \{\alpha_k\}, \{\theta_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{\tau_k\} \text{ and } \{T_k\} \text{ in Algorithm 8.8 satisfy (8.3.29)-(8.3.33), and the parameters } \{\lambda_k\} \text{ and } \{\beta_k\} \text{ in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.8 be set as (8.3.34). Then, for all } z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^m.,
\]

\[
Q(\hat{z}^N; z) \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{1}{\eta_k} \right)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{(T_1 + 1)\eta_1 \eta_{T}}{\tau_{T}(T_{T} + 3)} V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_1 \eta_1}{2} \|y^0\|^2 \right\} + \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{2\theta_k}{\eta_k} \right) \left( t + 1 \right) \left\{ \delta_i^{-1, k} \left( x_i^k - u_i^k \right) + \frac{4(M^2 + \|\delta_i^{-1, k}\|^2)}{\eta_k} \right\}.
\]

where \( s := \theta_0 L(\hat{x}^N - x^{N-1}) + \theta_1 \tau_1 (y^N - y^0) \) and \( Q \) is defined in (8.3.8). Furthermore, for any saddle point \( (x^*, y^*) \) of (8.3.7), we have

\[
\frac{\theta_0}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{\|L\|^2}{\sum_{k=1}^N \eta_k} \right) \max \left\{ \eta_N \|x_N - x^{N-1}\|^2, \tau_N \|y^* - y^N\|^2 \right\} \leq \left( \frac{(T_1 + 1)\eta_1 \eta_{T}}{\tau_{T}(T_{T} + 3)} V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_1 \eta_1}{2} \|y^0\|^2 \right) + \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{2\theta_k}{\eta_k} \right) \left( t + 1 \right) \left\{ \delta_i^{-1, k} \left( x_i^k - u_i^k, x_i^k - u_i^k \right) + \frac{4(M^2 + \|\delta_i^{-1, k}\|^2)}{\eta_k} \right\}.
\]

In the following theorem, we provide a specific selection of \( \{\alpha_k\}, \{\theta_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{\tau_k\} \) and \( \{T_k\} \) satisfying (8.3.29)-(8.3.33). Also, by using Lemma 8.5 and Proposition 8.6, we establish the complexity of the SDCS method for computing an \( (\epsilon, \delta) \)-solution of problem (8.3.6) in expectation when the objective functions are general convex.

**Theorem 8.11.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (8.3.6), the parameters \( \{\lambda_k\} \) and \( \{\beta_k\} \) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.8 be set as (8.3.34), and suppose that \( \{\alpha_k\}, \{\theta_k\}, \{\eta_k\}, \{\tau_k\} \) and \( \{T_k\} \) are set to

\[
\alpha_k = \theta_k = 1, \ \eta_k = 2\|L\|, \ \tau_k = \|L\|, \ \text{and } T_k = \left[ \frac{m(M^2 + \|\delta^{-1}\|^2)}{\|L\|^2} \right], \ \forall k = 1, \ldots, N,
\]

for some \( D > 0 \). Then, under Assumptions (8.3.61) and (8.3.62), we have for any \( N \geq 1 \)

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}^N) - F(x^*)] \leq \frac{\|L\|}{N} \left[ 3V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{1}{2} \|y^0\|^2 + 4D \right],
\]

and
Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above inequality and (8.3.71), the results in (8.3.68) follow immediately.

Proof. It is easy to check that (8.3.67) satisfies conditions (8.3.29)-(8.3.33). Moreover, by (8.3.10), we can obtain

\[ g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{z}^N) = \max_y Q(\hat{z}^N : x^*, y) - \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle \]

\[ \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{(T_1+1)(T_1+2)}{T_1(T_1+3)} \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_1 \right\} \]

\[ + \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left[ \left( t+1 \right) \langle \delta^{t-1,k}, x_i^* - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{4(M^2 + \| \delta^{t-1,k} \|^2)}{\eta_k} \right] \]

where \( s^N = \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \hat{s} \). Particularly, from Assumption (8.3.61) and (8.3.62),

\[ \mathbb{E}[\delta^{t-1,k}] = 0, \quad \mathbb{E}[\| \delta^{t-1,k} \|^2] \leq \sigma^2, \quad \forall i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}, \quad t \geq 1, \quad k \geq 1, \]

and from (8.3.67)

\[ \frac{(T_1+1)(T_1+2)}{T_1(T_1+3)} = 1 + \frac{2}{T_1+3} \leq \frac{3}{2}. \]

Therefore, by taking expectation over both sides of (8.3.70) and plugging in these values into (8.3.70), we have

\[ \mathbb{E}[g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{z}^N)] \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{(T_1+1)(T_1+2)}{T_1(T_1+3)} \hat{y}_1 \hat{y}_1 \right\} \]

\[ + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{m(M^2 + \sigma^2 \eta_k)}{(T_k+3)\eta_k} \leq \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \hat{s}^N - \hat{s} \|^2 + \| y^N - y^* \|^2 + 4\bar{D} \right] \right], \quad (8.3.71) \]

with

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| \hat{s}^N \|^2] = \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E}[\| \hat{s} \|^2] \leq \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \hat{s}^N - s^N \|^2 + \| y^N - y^* \|^2 + \| y^* - y^0 \|^2 \right]. \]

Note that from (8.3.66) and Jensen’s inequality, we have

\[ (\mathbb{E}[\| \hat{s}^N - x^{N-1} \|^2])^2 \leq \mathbb{E}[\| \hat{s}^N - x^{N-1} \|^2] \leq 6\mathbb{E}[\| x^0 - x^* \|^2] + \| y^* - y^0 \|^2 + 8\bar{D}, \]

\[ (\mathbb{E}[\| y^* - y^N \|^2])^2 \leq \mathbb{E}[\| y^* - y^N \|^2] \leq 12\mathbb{E}[\| x^0 - x^* \|^2] + 2\| y^* - y^0 \|^2 + 16\bar{D}. \]

Hence,

\[ \mathbb{E}[\| \hat{s}^N \|^2] \leq \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \hat{s}^N - s^N \|^2 + \| y^N - y^* \|^2 + \| y^* - y^0 \|^2 \right] \right]. \]

Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above inequality and (8.3.71), the results in (8.3.68) and (8.3.69) follow immediately. \( \blacksquare \)
We now make some observations about the results obtained in Theorem 8.11. Firstly, one can choose any $\bar{D} > 0$ (e.g., $\bar{D} = 1$) in (8.3.67), however, the best selection of $\bar{D}$ would be $V(x^0, x^*)$ so that the first and third terms in (8.3.71) are about the same order. In practice, if there exists an estimate $D_X > 0$ satisfying (8.3.41), we can set $\bar{D} = D_X^2$.

Secondly, the complexity of SDCS method immediately follows from (8.3.68) and (8.3.69). Under the above assumption, with $\bar{D} = D_X^2$ and $y^0 = 0$, we can see that the total number of inter-node communication rounds and intra-node subgradient evaluations required by each agent for finding a stochastic $(\varepsilon, \delta)$-solution of (8.3.6) can be bounded by

$$O\left\{ \frac{\|L\| \max(D_X^2, D_X + \|y^*\|)}{\varepsilon} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad O\left\{ m(M^2 + \sigma^2) \max\left( \frac{D_X^2}{\varepsilon^2}, \frac{D_X^2 + \|y^*\|^2}{\delta} \right) \right\},$$

respectively. In particular, if $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$ satisfy (8.3.43), the above complexity bounds, respectively, reduce to

$$O\left\{ \frac{\|L\| D_X^2}{\varepsilon} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad O\left\{ \frac{m(M^2 + \sigma^2) D_X^2}{\varepsilon^2} \right\}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (8.3.73)

In particular, we can show that the total number stochastic subgradients that SDCS requires is comparable to the mirror-descent stochastic approximation in Section 4.1. This implies that the sample complexity for decentralized stochastic optimization are still optimal (as the centralized one), even after we skip many communication rounds.

### 8.3.3.3 Convergence of SDCS on Strongly Convex Functions

We now provide in Lemma 8.6 an estimate on the gap function defined in (8.3.8) together with stepsize policies which work for the strongly convex case with $\mu > 0$ (cf. (8.3.16)). The proof of this lemma can be found in Section 8.3.5.

**Lemma 8.6.** Let the iterates $(\hat{x}^k, y^k)$, $k = 1, \ldots, N$ be generated by Algorithm 8.8, $\hat{x}^N$ be defined as $\hat{x}^N := (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k(\hat{x}^k, y^k)$, and Assumptions (8.3.61)-(8.3.62) hold. If the objective $f_i$, $i = 1, \ldots, m$ are strongly convex functions, i.e., $\mu, M > 0$, let the parameters $\{\alpha_k\}$, $\{\theta_k\}$, $\{\eta_k\}$ and $\{\tau_k\}$ in Algorithm 8.8 satisfy (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and (8.3.48), and the parameters $\{\lambda_k\}$ and $\{\beta_k\}$ in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.8 be set as (8.3.49). Then, for all $z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md}$,

$$Q(\hat{x}^N; z) \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \right)^{-1} \left\{ \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x) + \frac{\theta_1 \tau_1}{2} \|y^0\|^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle \right\} \hspace{1cm} (8.3.74)$$

$$+ \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{2\theta_t}{q_t(q_t + 1)} \left\{ \langle \delta_t^{-1} \delta_i, x_i - u_t^{-1} \rangle + \frac{2t(M^2 + \|\delta_t^{-1} \delta_i\|^2)}{\mu + (t-1)\eta_k} \right\},$$
where \( \hat{s} := \theta_{k}\mathbf{L}(\hat{x}^N - x^{N-1}) + \theta_{1}\tau_{i}(y^{N} - y^{0}) \) and \( Q \) is defined in (8.3.8). Furthermore, for any saddle point \((x^*, y^*)\) of (8.3.7), we have

\[
\frac{\eta}{\tau} \left(1 - \frac{\|L\|^2}{\eta \tau \xi} \right) \max \left\{ \eta \|x^N - x^{N-1}\|^2, \tau \|y^* - y^N\|^2 \right\} \geq \frac{\alpha_{k}}{\tau} \eta_{k} \mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_{1}}{\tau \eta_{k}} \|y^0\|^2 \\
+ \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2\theta_{k}}{\tau_{(k+1)}} \left[ (\frac{\theta_{(k+1)}}{\eta_{(k+1)}})^{1\frac{1}{k+1}} x_{(k+1)} - u_{(k+1)}^{1\frac{1}{k+1}} \right] \right].
\]  

(8.3.75)

In the following theorem, we provide a specific selection of \( \{\alpha_{k}\}, \{\theta_{k}\}, \{\eta_{k}\}, \{\tau_{k}\} \) satisfying (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and (8.3.29). Also, by using Lemma 8.6 and Proposition 8.6, we establish the complexity of the DCS method for computing an \((\varepsilon, \delta)\)-solution of problem (8.3.6) in expectation when the objective functions are strongly convex. Similar to the deterministic case, we choose variable stepsizes rather than constant stepsizes.

**Theorem 8.12.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (8.3.6), the parameters \( \{\lambda_{k}\} \) and \( \{\beta_{k}\} \) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.8 be set as (8.3.49), and suppose that \( \{\alpha_{k}\}, \{\theta_{k}\}, \{\eta_{k}\}, \{\tau_{k}\} \) and \( T_{k} \) are set to

\[
\alpha_{k} = \frac{k}{k+1}, \quad \theta_{k} = k + 1, \quad \eta_{k} = k_{\mu}, \quad \tau_{k} = \frac{4\|L\|^2}{(t+1)\mu}, \text{ and } \quad T_{k} = \left\lfloor \sqrt{\frac{m(M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\mu}} \right\rfloor, \quad \forall k = 1, \ldots, N,
\]

for some \( \tilde{D} > 0 \). Then, under Assumptions (8.3.61) and (8.3.62), we have for any \( N \geq 2 \)

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}^N) - F(x^*)] \leq \frac{2}{N(N+1)} \left[ \mu \mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{2\|L\|^2}{\mu} \|y^0\|^2 + 2\mu \tilde{D} \right],
\]

(8.3.77)

and

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|\mathbf{L}x^N\|^2] \leq \frac{8\|L\|^2}{N(N+1)} \left[ 3\sqrt{2\tilde{D} + \mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*)} + \frac{7\|L\|^2}{\mu} \|y^* - y^0\|^2 \right],
\]

(8.3.78)

where \( \hat{x}^N = \frac{2}{N(N+1)} \sum_{k=1}^{N} (k+1)\hat{x}^k \), and \( y^* \) is an arbitrary dual optimal solution.

**Proof.** It is easy to check that (8.3.76) satisfies conditions (8.3.30)-(8.3.33) and (8.3.29). Similarly, by (8.3.10), Assumption (8.3.61) and (8.3.62), we can obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}[g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{s}^N)] \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_{k} \right)^{-1} \left\{ \theta_{1}\eta_{1} \mathbf{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\theta_{1}}{\tau \eta_{1}} \|y^0\|^2 \\
+ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2\theta_{k}}{\tau_{(k+1)}} \left[ \frac{2\|L\|^2 + \sigma^2}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_{k}} \right] \right\},
\]

(8.3.79)

where \( s^N = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_{k} \right)^{-1} \hat{s} \). Particularly, from (8.3.76), we have

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{4m(M^2 + \sigma^2)\theta_{k}}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_{k}} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{4m(M^2 + \sigma^2)\theta_{k} T_k}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_{k}} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2\theta_{k}}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_{k}}
\]

(8.3.79)
Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above inequality and (8.3.80), the results in (8.3.77) follow immediately. Therefore, by plugging in these values into (8.3.79), we have

\[ E[g(s^N, \hat{z}^N)] \leq \frac{2}{N(N+3)} \left[ \mu V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^0\|^2 + 2\mu \hat{D} \right], \quad (8.3.80) \]

with

\[ \frac{1}{N+3} E[|s^N|] \leq \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{N(N+3)} E[|s|] \]

\[ \leq \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{N(N+3)} \left[ (N+1)\|s^N - x^{N-1}\| + \frac{4\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} (\|y^N - y^*\| + \|y^* - y^0\|) \right]. \]

Note that from (8.3.75), we have, for any \( N \geq 2, \)

\[ E[|s^N - x^{N-1}|^2] \leq \frac{8}{(N+1)(N+2)} \left[ V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^0 - y^*\|^2 + 2\hat{D} \right], \]

\[ E[|y^* - y^0|^2] \leq \frac{N\mu}{(N-1)|\Theta|} \left[ \mu V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^0 - y^*\|^2 + 2\mu \hat{D} \right]. \]

Hence, in view of the above three relations and Jensen’s inequality, we obtain

\[ E[|s^N|] \leq \frac{8\|\hat{s}\|}{N(N+3)} \left[ 3\sqrt{2\hat{D} + V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{2\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^0 - y^*\|^2 + \frac{4\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^* - y^0\|} \right] \]

\[ \leq \frac{8\|\hat{s}\|}{N(N+3)} \left[ 3\sqrt{2\hat{D} + V(x^0, x^*) + \frac{7\|\hat{s}\|}{\mu} \|y^* - y^0\|} \right]. \]

Applying Proposition 8.6 to the above inequality and (8.3.80), the results in (8.3.77) and (8.3.78) follow immediately.

We now make some observations about the results obtained in Theorem 8.12. Firstly, similar to the general convex case, the best choice for \( \hat{D} \) (cf. (8.3.76)) would be \( V(x^0, x^*) \) so that the first and the third terms in (8.3.80) are about the same order. If there exists an estimate \( D_X > 0 \) satisfying (8.3.41), we can set \( \hat{D} = D_X^2 \).

Secondly, the complexity of SDCS method for solving strongly convex problems follows from (8.3.77) and (8.3.78). Under the above assumption, with \( \hat{D} = D_X^2 \) and \( y^0 = 0 \), the total number of inter-node communication rounds and intra-node subgradient evaluations performed by each agent for finding a stochastic (\( \varepsilon, \delta \))-solution of (8.3.6) can be bounded by

\[ O' \left\{ \max \left( \frac{\sqrt{\mu D_X^2}}{\varepsilon}, \sqrt{\frac{\|\hat{s}\|}{\delta} (D_X + \frac{\|\hat{s}\| y^*\|}{\mu})} \right) \right\} \quad \text{and} \]

\[ O' \left\{ \frac{\mu (M^2 + \sigma^2)}{\mu} \max \left( \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2} \frac{\|\hat{s}\|}{\delta} \left( \frac{\|\hat{s}\| y^*\|}{D_X \mu} \right) \right) \right\}, \quad (8.3.81) \]

respectively. In particular, if \( \varepsilon \) and \( \delta \) satisfy (8.3.58), the above complexity bounds, respectively, reduce to
We can see that the total number of stochastic subgradient computations is comparable to the optimal complexity bound obtained in Section 4.2 for stochastic strongly convex case in the centralized case.

### 8.3.4 High probability results

All of the results stated in Section 8.3.3.2-8.3.3.3 are established in terms of expectation. In order to provide high probability results for SDCS method, we additionally need the following “light-tail” assumption:

\[ \mathbb{E}\left[ \exp\left\{ \left| G_i(u', \xi'_t) - f_i'(u') \right| / \sigma^2 \right\} \right] \leq 1. \]  
(8.3.83)

Note that (8.3.83) is stronger than (8.3.62), since it implies (8.3.62) by Jensen’s inequality. Moreover, we also assume that there exists \( \bar{V}(x^*) \) s.t.

\[ \bar{V}(x^*) := \sum_{i=1}^m \bar{V}_i(x_i^*) := \sum_{i=1}^m \max_{x_i \in X_i} \bar{V}_i(x_i^*, x_i). \]  
(8.3.84)

The following theorem provides a large deviation result for the gap function \( g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{z}^N) \) when our objective functions \( f_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \) are general nonsmooth convex functions.

**Theorem 8.13.** Let \( x^* \) be an optimal solution of (8.3.6), Assumptions (8.3.61), (8.3.62) and (8.3.83) hold, the parameters \( \{ \alpha_k \}, \{ \eta_k \}, \{ \tau_k \} \) and \( \{ T_k \} \) in Algorithm 8.8 satisfy (8.3.29)-(8.3.33), and the parameters \( \{ \lambda_t \} \) and \( \{ \beta_t \} \) in the CS procedure of Algorithm 8.8 be set as (8.3.34). In addition, if \( X_i \)'s are compact, then for any \( \zeta > 0 \) and \( N \geq 1 \), we have

\[ \text{Prob}\left\{ g(\hat{s}^N, \hat{z}^N) \geq B_d(N) + \zeta B_p(N) \right\} \leq \exp\left\{ -\zeta^2 / 3 \right\} + \exp\{ -\zeta \}, \]  
(8.3.85)

where

\[ B_d(N) := (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \left\{ \frac{(T_1+1)(T_1+2) \bar{\theta}_1 \bar{\eta}_1}{T_1(T_1+1)} \bar{V}(x^0, x^*) + \frac{\bar{\theta}_1 \bar{\tau}_1}{2} \left\| y^0 \right\|^2 + \sum_{k=1}^N \frac{8m(M^2 + \sigma^2) \bar{\theta}_k}{\theta_k \lambda_k} \right\}, \]  
(8.3.86)

and

\[ B_p(N) := (\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k)^{-1} \left\{ \sigma \left[ 2 \bar{V}(x^*) \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \left( \frac{\theta_k \lambda_k}{\bar{\lambda}_0 \bar{\eta}^2} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2} \right\}. \]
which together with (8.3.87) then imply that

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m}} \frac{\sigma^2 \theta_i \lambda_i}{(\sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_j) \eta_i \bar{h}} \leq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{T^i} \left( \frac{2}{T^i(T^i+3)} \right) (T^i+1)^2}{T^i(T^i+3)} \leq \frac{8}{3T^i},
\]

which together with (8.3.87) then imply that

\[
\mathcal{R}_p(N) \leq \frac{1}{N} \left\{ \sigma \left[ 2 \bar{V}(x^*) \sum_{k=1}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i} \right]^{1/2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i} \frac{8 \sigma^2}{3T^i} \right\} \leq \frac{4||L||}{N} \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{\bar{V}(x^*)}{3m}} + D \right\} \leq \frac{8||L||\bar{V}(x^*)}{N}.
\]

Hence, (8.3.88) follows from the above relation, (8.3.85) and Proposition 8.6. Note that from (8.3.66) and plugging in (8.3.67) with \( \bar{D} = \bar{V}(x^*) \), we obtain

\[
||s^N||^2 = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_i} \right)^{-2} ||s||^2 \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \theta_i} \right)^{-2} \left\{ 3 \theta_i^2 ||L||^2 ||\bar{s}^N - x^{N-1}||^2 + 3 \theta_i^2 \tau_i^2 (||y^N - y^* ||^2 + ||y^* - y^0||^2) \right\} \leq \frac{3||L||^2}{N^2} \left( 18\bar{V}(x^0, x^*) + 4||y^* - y^0||^2 \right).
\]
which establish the convergence results of the deterministic and stochastic decentral-
ized communication sliding methods, respectively. After introducing some general
results about these algorithms, we provide the proofs for Lemma 8.3-8.6 and Theorem
8.13.

This section is devoted to the proof of the main lemmas in Section 8.3.2 and 8.3.3,
which in view of Proposition 8.6 immediately implies (8.3.89).

8.3.5 Convergence analysis

Before we provide proofs for Lemma 8.3-8.6, we first need to present a result
which summarizes an important convergence property of the CS procedure. It needs
to be mentioned that the following proposition states a general result holds for
CS procedure performed by individual agent \( i \in \mathcal{N} \). For notation convenience, we
use the notations defined in CS procedure (cf. Algorithm 8.7).

**Proposition 8.7.** If \( \{\beta_t\} \) and \( \{\lambda_t\} \) in the CS procedure satisfy

\[
\lambda_{t+1}(\eta \beta_{t+1} - \mu) \leq \lambda_t(1 + \beta_t) \eta, \quad \forall t \geq 1.
\]

then, for \( t \geq 1 \) and \( u \in U \),

\[
(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t)^{-1} \left[ \eta(1 + \beta_T) \lambda_T V(u^T, u) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t (\delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1}) \right] + \Phi(u^T) - \Phi(u)
\]

\[
\leq (\sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t)^{-1} \left[ (\eta \beta_1 - \mu) \lambda_1, V(u^0, u) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left( \frac{(M + \|\delta^{t-1}\|^2_2)}{2\eta \beta_t} \right) \lambda_t \right],
\]

where \( \Phi \) is defined as

\[
\Phi(u) := \langle w, u \rangle + \phi(u) + \eta V(x, u)
\]

and \( \delta_t := \phi'(u_t) - h_t \).

**Proof.** Noticing that \( \phi := f_i \) in the CS procedure, we have by (8.3.16)

\[
\phi(u^t) \leq \phi(u^{t-1}) + \langle \phi'(u^{t-1}), u^t - u^{t-1} \rangle + M \|u^t - u^{t-1}\|
\]

\[
= \phi(u^{t-1}) + \langle \phi'(u^{t-1}), u - u^{t-1} \rangle + \langle \phi'(u^{t-1}), u^t - u \rangle + M \|u^t - u^{t-1}\|
\]

\[
\leq \phi(u) - \mu V(u^{t-1}, u) + \langle \phi'(u^{t-1}), u^t - u \rangle + M \|u^t - u^{t-1}\|,
\]

Hence, similarly, we have

\[
\text{Prob}\left\{ \|\delta^T\|^2 \geq \frac{18\|L\|^2}{\eta^2} \left[ (7 + 8\zeta) \tilde{V}(x^*) + \frac{3}{2} \|y^* - y^0\|^2 \right] \right\} \leq \exp\{-\zeta^2/3\} + \exp\{-\zeta\},
\]

which in view of Proposition 8.6 immediately implies (8.3.89).
where \( \phi'(u^{t-1}) \in \partial \phi(u^{t-1}) \) and \( \partial \phi(u^{t-1}) \) denotes the subdifferential of \( \phi \) at \( u^{t-1} \). By applying Lemma 3.5 to \((8.3.26)\), we obtain

\[
(w + k^{t-1}, u' - u) + \eta V(x, u') - \eta V(x, u) \\
\leq \eta \beta V(u^{t-1}, u) - \eta (1 + \beta_t) V(u', u) - \eta \beta V(u^{t-1}, u'), \forall u \in U.
\]

Combining the above two relations, we conclude that

\[
\langle w, u' - u \rangle + \phi(u') - \phi(u) + \langle \delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1} \rangle + \eta V(x, u') - \eta V(x, u) \tag{8.3.4}
\]

\[
\leq (\eta \beta_t - \mu) V(u^{t-1}, u) - \eta (1 + \beta_t) V(u', u) + \langle \delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1} \rangle + M \|u' - u^{t-1}\| - \eta \beta V(u^{t-1}, u'), \forall u \in U. \tag{8.3.5}
\]

Moreover, by Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, \((8.3.12)\), and the simple fact that \(-at^2/2 + bt \leq b^2/(2a)\) for any \(a > 0\), we have

\[
\langle \delta^{t-1}, u' - u^{t-1} \rangle + M \|u' - u^{t-1}\| - \eta \beta V(u^{t-1}, u') \\
\leq (\|\delta^{t-1}\| + M) \|u' - u^{t-1}\| - \frac{\eta \beta}{2} \|u' - u^{t-1}\|^2 \leq \frac{(M + \|\delta^{t-1}\|)^2}{2\eta \beta}.
\]

From the above relation and the definition of \( \Phi(u) \) in \((8.3.3)\), we can rewrite \((8.3.4)\) as,

\[
\Phi(u') - \Phi(u) + \langle \delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1} \rangle \\
\leq (\eta \beta_t - \mu) V(u^{t-1}, u) - \eta (1 + \beta_t) V(u', u) + \frac{(M + \|\delta^{t-1}\|)^2}{2\eta \beta}, \forall u \in U.
\]

Multiplying both sides by \( \lambda_t \) and summing up the resulting inequalities from \( t = 1 \) to \( T \), we obtain

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t \left[ \Phi(u') - \Phi(u) + \langle \delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1} \rangle \right] \\
\leq \sum_{t=1}^{T} \left[ (\eta \beta_t - \mu) \lambda_t V(u^{t-1}, u) - \eta (1 + \beta_t) \lambda_t V(u', u) \right] + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{(M + \|\delta^{t-1}\|)^2 \lambda_t}{2\eta \beta}.
\]

Hence, in view of \((8.3.1)\), the convexity of \( \Phi \) and the definition of \( \tilde{u}^T \) in \((8.3.27)\), we have

\[
\Phi(\tilde{u}^T) - \Phi(u) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t^{-1} \lambda_t \langle \delta^{t-1}, u - u^{t-1} \rangle \\
\leq (\sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t^{-1})^{-1} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \lambda_t^{-1} \left[ (\eta \beta_t - \mu) \lambda_t V(u^0, u) - \eta (1 + \beta_t) \lambda_t V(u^T, u) + \frac{(M + \|\delta^{t-1}\|)^2 \lambda_t}{2\eta \beta} \right],
\]
which implies (8.3.2) immediately.

As a matter of fact, the SDCS method covers the DCS method as a special case when \( \delta_t = 0, \forall t \geq 0 \). Therefore, we investigate the proofs for Lemma 8.5 and 8.6 first and then simplify them for the proofs for Lemma 8.3 and 8.4. We now provide a proof for Lemma 8.5, which establishes the convergence property of SDCS method for solving general convex problems.

**Proof of Lemma 8.5**

When \( f_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \), are general convex functions, we have \( \mu = 0 \) and \( M > 0 \) (cf. (8.3.16)). Therefore, in view of \( \phi := f_i \) and \( \lambda_t \) and \( \beta_t \) defined in (8.3.34) satisfying condition (8.3.1) in the CS procedure, equation (8.3.2) can be rewritten as the following:

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t \left[ \eta_t (1 + \beta_t \delta_t) \lambda_t V_i (u_t', u_t) + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t (\delta_t^{-1}, u_t - u_t^{-1}) + \Phi_t (u_t) - \Phi_t (u_t) \right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t \left[ \eta_t \lambda_t V_i (u_t', u_t) + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{(M + \|\delta_t^{-1}\|^2) \lambda_t}{2 \eta_t} \right], \forall u_t \in X_i.
\]

In view of the above relation, the definition of \( \Phi^k \) in (8.3.19), and the input and output settings in the CS procedure, it is not difficult to see that, for any \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
\Phi^k (x^k) - \Phi^k (x) + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t \left[ \eta_t (1 + \beta_t \delta_t) \lambda_t V_i (x^k, x) + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t (\delta_t^{-1}, x - u_t^{-1}) \right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^{T} \lambda_t \left[ \eta_t \lambda_t V_i (x^k, x) + \sum_{i=1}^{T} \frac{(M + \|\delta_t^{-1}\|^2) \lambda_t}{2 \eta_t} \right], \forall x \in X.
\]

By plugging into the above relation the values of \( \lambda_t \) and \( \beta_t \) in (8.3.34), together with the definition of \( \Phi^k \) in (8.3.19) and rearranging the terms, we have,

\[
\langle L (\hat{x}^k, x), \hat{x}^k \rangle + F (\hat{x}^k) - F (x) \leq \frac{(T + 1) \|\hat{x}^k\|^2}{4 \eta_k} \left[ V (x^{k-1}, x) - V (x^k, x) \right] - \frac{1}{4 \eta_k} \left[ T \right]_{t=1}^{T} \left[ (t + 1) (\delta_t^{-1}, x - u_t^{-1}) \right] + \frac{2 (M + \|\delta_t^{-1}\|^2) \lambda_t}{\eta_k}, \forall x \in X.
\]

Moreover, applying Lemma 3.5 to (8.3.22), we have, for \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
\langle v_t, y_t - y_t^{-1} \rangle \leq \frac{1}{2} \left[ \|y_t - y_t^{-1}\|^2 + \|y_t - y_t^{-1}\|^2 + \|y_t^{-1} - y_t\|^2 \right], \forall y_t \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad (8.3.6)
\]

which in view of the definition of \( Q \) in (8.3.8) and the above two relations, then implies that, for \( k \geq 1 \), \( z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \).

---

2 We added the subscript \( i \) to emphasize that this inequality holds for any agent \( i \in N \) with \( \phi = f_i \). More specifically, \( \Phi_t (u_t) := \langle w_t, u_t \rangle + f_i (u_t) + \eta V_i (x_i, u_t) \).

3 We added the superscript \( k \) in \( \delta_t^{-1} \) to emphasize that this error is generated at the \( k \)-th outer loop.
\[Q(\hat{x}^k, y^k; z) = F(\hat{x}^k) - F(x) + (L\hat{x}^k, y) - (Lx, y^k)\]
\[\leq (L(\hat{x}^k - \bar{x}^k), y - y^k) + \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\eta_k}{T_k(T_k + 3)} \left[ V(x^{k-1}, x) - V(x^k, x) \right] - \eta_k V(x^{k-1}, \hat{x}^k) + \tau_k^2 \left[ \|y - y^k - 1\|_2^2 - \|y - y^k\|_2^2 - \|y^{k-1} - y^k\|_2^2 \right].\]  

Multiplying both sides of the above inequality by \(\theta_k\), and summing up the resulting inequalities from \(k = 1\) to \(N\), we obtain, for all \(z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md}\),
\[\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k Q(\hat{x}^k, y^k; z) \leq \sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \Delta_k \]
\[+ \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \frac{2\theta_k}{T_k(T_k + 3)} \left[ (t + 1) \langle \delta_{t-1,k}^t, x_t - u_{t-1}^t \rangle + \frac{2(M + \|\delta_{t-1,k}^t\|_2^2)}{\eta_k} \right], \quad (8.3.7)\]

where
\[\Delta_k := (L(\hat{x}^k - \bar{x}^k), y - y^k) + \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\eta_k}{T_k(T_k + 3)} \left[ V(x^{k-1}, x) - V(x^k, x) \right] \]
\[- \eta_k V(x^{k-1}, \hat{x}^k) + \tau_k^2 \left[ \|y - y^k - 1\|_2^2 - \|y - y^k\|_2^2 - \|y^{k-1} - y^k\|_2^2 \right]. \quad (8.3.8)\]

We now provide a bound on \(\sum_{k=1}^N \theta_k \Delta_k\). Observe that from the definition of \(\hat{x}^k\) in (8.3.17), (8.3.29) and (8.3.31) we have
\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k \Delta k \\
\leq \sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k \left( \langle L(x^k - x^{k-1}), y - y^k \rangle - \alpha_k \theta_k \langle L(x^k - x^{k-2}), y - y^{k-1} \rangle \right) \\
- \sum_{k=1}^{N} \left[ \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\theta_k \eta_k}{\sqrt{N}} \| x^0 - x \|_2^2 \right] \\
+ \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\theta_k \eta_k}{\sqrt{N}} \| x^0 - x \|_2^2.
\]

(a) ≤ \( \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^N \rangle - \theta_N \eta_N \langle v^N - v^{N-1}, x^N \rangle \)

(b) ≤ \( \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^N \rangle - \theta_N \eta_N \langle v^N - v^{N-1}, x^N \rangle \)

(c) ≤ \( \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^N \rangle - \theta_N \eta_N \langle v^N - v^{N-1}, x^N \rangle \)

(d) ≤ \( \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^N \rangle - \theta_N \eta_N \langle v^N - v^{N-1}, x^N \rangle \)

(e) ≤ \( \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^N \rangle - \theta_N \eta_N \langle v^N - v^{N-1}, x^N \rangle \)

where (a) follows from (8.3.30) and the fact that \( x^{-1} = x^0 \), (b) follows from the simple relation that \( b \langle u, v \rangle - a \| v \|^2 / 2 \leq b^2 \| u \|^2 / (2a) \), \( \forall a > 0 \), (8.3.30) and (8.3.15), (c) follows from (8.3.32), (d) follows from (8.3.31), \( \| y - y^0 \|^2 - \| y - y^N \|^2 = \| y^0 \|^2 - \| y^N \|^2 - 2 \langle y, y^0 - y^N \rangle \) and arranging the terms accordingly, (e) follows from (8.3.15) and the relation \( b \langle u, v \rangle - a \| v \|^2 / 2 \leq b^2 \| u \|^2 / (2a) \), \( \forall a > 0 \). Using the above bound in (8.3.7) we obtain

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k Q(\hat{x}^k, y^k, z) \leq \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\theta_k \eta_k}{\sqrt{N}} \| x^0 - x \|_2^2 + \frac{(T_k + 1)(T_k + 2)\theta_k \eta_k}{\sqrt{N}} \| y^0 \|_2^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle,
\]

for all \( z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^{md} \), where

\[
\hat{s} := \theta_N \langle L(x^N - x^{N-1}), y - y^0 \rangle.
\]
Our result in (8.3.65) immediately follows from the convexity of \( Q \). Furthermore, in view of (8.3.9)(c) and (8.3.7), we can obtain the following result,

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla \phi_{i} (\hat{x}^{k}, y^{k}; z) \leq \nabla \phi_{i} (L(\hat{x}^{N} - x^{N-1}), y - y^{N}) - \nabla \phi_{i} (z^{N-1}, \hat{x}^{N}) + \frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y - y^{0} \|^{2} - \frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y - y^{N} \|^{2} + \frac{(T_{1} + 1)(T_{1} + 2)\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{T_{1}(T_{1} + 3)} \nabla \phi (x_{0}^{0}, x) - \frac{(T_{N} + 1)(T_{N} + 2)\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{T_{N}(T_{N} + 3)} \nabla \phi (x^{N}, x) + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{\theta_{l}}{T_{l}(T_{l} + 3)} \left( t + 1 \right) \langle \delta_{l}^{i-1,k}, x_{l}^{i-1} - u_{l}^{i-1} \rangle + \frac{4(M^{2} + \| \delta_{l}^{i-1,k} \|^{2})}{\eta_{l}} \right].
\]

Therefore, in view of the fact that \( \sum_{k=1}^{N} \nabla \phi (\hat{x}^{k}, y^{k}; z) \geq 0 \) for any saddle point \( z^{*} = (x^{*}, y^{*}) \) of (8.3.7), and (8.3.15), by fixing \( z = z^{*} \) and rearranging terms, we obtain

\[
\frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| x^{N} - x^{N-1} \|^{2} \leq \frac{\theta_{N} \| L \|^{2}}{2\eta_{N}} \| y^{*} - y^{N} \|^{2} - \frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y^{N} - y^{0} \|^{2} + \frac{(T_{1} + 1)(T_{1} + 2)\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{T_{1}(T_{1} + 3)} \nabla \phi (x_{0}^{0}, x^{*}) + \frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y^{*} - y^{0} \|^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{\theta_{l}}{T_{l}(T_{l} + 3)} \left( t + 1 \right) \langle \delta_{l}^{i-1,k}, x_{l}^{i-1} - u_{l}^{i-1} \rangle + \frac{4(M^{2} + \| \delta_{l}^{i-1,k} \|^{2})}{\eta_{l}} \right],
\]

where the second inequality follows from the relation \( b(a, v) - a \| v \|^{2}/2 \leq b^{2} \| u \|^{2}/(2a), \forall a \geq 0 \).

Similarly, we obtain

\[
\frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y^{*} - y^{N} \|^{2} \leq \frac{\theta_{N} \| L \|^{2}}{2\eta_{N}} \| y^{N} - y^{0} \|^{2} + \frac{(T_{1} + 1)(T_{1} + 2)\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{T_{1}(T_{1} + 3)} \nabla \phi (x_{0}^{0}, x^{*}) + \frac{\theta_{N} \eta_{N}}{2} \| y^{0} - y^{0} \|^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{m} \frac{\theta_{l}}{T_{l}(T_{l} + 3)} \left( t + 1 \right) \langle \delta_{l}^{i-1,k}, x_{l}^{i-1} - u_{l}^{i-1} \rangle + \frac{4(M^{2} + \| \delta_{l}^{i-1,k} \|^{2})}{\eta_{l}} \right],
\]

from which the desired result in (8.3.66) follows.

The following proof of Lemma 8.6 establishes the convergence of SDCS method for solving strongly convex problems.

**Proof of Lemma 8.6**

When \( f_{i}, i = 1, \ldots, m \), are strongly convex functions, we have \( \mu, M > 0 \) (cf. (8.3.16)). Therefore, in view of Proposition 8.7 with \( \lambda_{i} \) and \( \beta_{i} \) defined in (8.3.49) satisfying condition (8.3.1), the definition of \( \Phi^{k} \) in (8.3.19), and the input and output settings in the CS procedure, we have for all \( k \geq 1 \) and for all \( x \in X \)

\[
\Phi^{k}(\hat{x}^{k}) - \Phi^{k}(x)
\]
By plugging into the above relation the values of \( \lambda_t \) and \( \beta_t^{(k)} \) in (8.3.49), together with the definition of \( \Phi \) in (8.3.19) and rearranging the terms, we have

\[
\langle L(\hat{x}^k - x), \hat{y}^k \rangle + F(\hat{x}^k) - F(x) \\
\leq \sum_{t=t_0}^{t_0+T} \eta_t \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( t \langle \delta_{i}^{t-1,k}, x_i - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{(M+\|\delta_i^{t-1,k}\|_1^2)\beta_t}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_t} \right) \right)
\]

where

\[
\sum_{t=t_0}^{t_0+T} \eta_t \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( t \langle \delta_{i}^{t-1,k}, x_i - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{(M+\|\delta_i^{t-1,k}\|_1^2)\beta_t}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_t} \right) \right)
\]

Since \( \tilde{\Delta}_t \) in (8.3.14) shares a similar structure with \( \Delta_t \) in (8.3.8), we can follow similar procedure as in (8.3.9) to simplify the RHS of (8.3.13). Note that the only difference of (8.3.14) and (8.3.8) is in the coefficient of the terms \( V(x^{k-1}, x) \) and \( V(x^k, x) \). Hence, by using condition (8.3.48) in place of (8.3.29), we obtain \( \forall z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^md \)

\[
\sum_{t=t_0}^{t_0+T} \theta_t \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( t \langle \delta_{i}^{t-1,k}, x_i - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{(M+\|\delta_i^{t-1,k}\|_1^2)\beta_t}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_t} \right) \right)
\]

where \( \hat{\delta}_{t} \) is defined in (8.3.10). Our result in (8.3.74) immediately follows from the convexity of \( Q \).

Following the same procedure as we obtain (8.3.11), for any saddle point \( z^* = (x^*, y^*) \) of (8.3.7), we have

\[
\frac{\theta_t \eta_t}{2} \| z^N - x^{N-1} \|^2 \\
\leq \frac{\theta_t \| z^N \|^2}{2\tau_N} + \theta_t \eta_t \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( t \langle \delta_{i}^{t-1,k}, x_i - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{(M+\|\delta_i^{t-1,k}\|_1^2)\beta_t}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_t} \right) \right)
\]

In view of (8.3.6), the above relation and the definition of \( Q \) in (8.3.8), and following the same trick that we used to obtain (8.3.7), we have, for all \( z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^md \),

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k Q(\hat{x}^k, \hat{y}^k; z) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{K} \theta_k \tilde{\Delta}_k
\]

where

\[
\tilde{\Delta}_k := \sum_{t=t_0}^{t_0+T} \theta_t \sum_{i=1}^{m} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( t \langle \delta_{i}^{t-1,k}, x_i - u_i^{t-1} \rangle + \frac{(M+\|\delta_i^{t-1,k}\|_1^2)\beta_t}{(t+1)\mu + (t-1)\eta_t} \right) \right)
\]

Our result in (8.3.74) immediately follows from the convexity of \( Q \).
When \( f \), \( m \) are general nonsmooth convex functions, we have \( \delta_t = 0 \), \( \mu = 0 \) and \( M > 0 \). Therefore, in view of (8.3.9), we have, \( \forall z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^m \),

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k Q(\hat{x}_k, y_k; z) \leq \frac{(T_1+1)(T_1+2)M^2}{4T_1^2} \| V(x^0, x) \| + \frac{\theta_1 M^2}{2} \| y^0 \| ^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{4mM^2 \theta_k}{T_1(T_1+1)\eta_2},
\]

where \( \hat{s} \) is defined in (8.3.10). Our result in (8.3.35) immediately follows from the convexity of \( Q \). Moreover, our result in (8.3.36) follows from setting \( \delta_{t-1,k} = 0 \) in (8.3.11) and (8.3.12).

**Proof of Lemma 8.4**

When \( f_i, i = 1, \ldots, m \) are strongly convex functions, we have \( \delta_t = 0 \) and \( \mu, M > 0 \). Therefore, in view of (8.3.15), we obtain, \( \forall z \in X \times \mathbb{R}^m \),

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{N} \theta_k Q(\hat{x}_k, y_k; z) \leq \theta_1 \eta_1 V(x^0, x) + \frac{\theta_1 M^2}{2} \| y^0 \| ^2 + \langle \hat{s}, y \rangle + \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{2mM^2 \theta_k}{T_1(T_1+1)\eta_2},
\]

where \( \hat{s} \) is defined in (8.3.10). Our result in (8.3.50) immediately follows from the convexity of \( Q \). Also, the result in (8.3.51) follows by setting \( \delta_{t-1,k} = 0 \) in (8.3.16).

We now provide a proof for Theorem 8.13 that establishes a large deviation result for the gap function.

**Proof of Theorem 8.13:**

Observe that by Assumption (8.3.61), (8.3.62) and (8.3.83) on the SO and the definition of \( u_i^{-1,k} \), the sequence \( \{ \langle \delta_{t-1,k}, x_i^0 - u_i^{-1,k} \rangle \} \) is a martingale-difference sequence. Denoting

\[
\gamma_{k,i} := \frac{\theta_i \lambda_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{L} \lambda_i},
\]

and using the large-deviation theorem for martingale-difference sequence and the fact that

\[
E[\exp\{\gamma_{k,i}^2 \langle \delta_{t-1,k}, x_i^0 - u_i^{-1,k} \rangle^2 / (2\gamma_{k,i} V(x_i^0) \sigma^2)\}]
\]
we conclude that, \(\forall \zeta > 0\),

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \gamma_{ij} \langle \delta_{i}^{(t-1,k)} - \delta_{i}^{(t-1,k)}, \sigma \rangle > \zeta \sqrt{2} \text{Exp} \left( x^{*} \right) \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \gamma_{ij} \right\} \\
\leq \exp \left\{ - \zeta^{2}/3 \right\}.
\]  \tag{8.3.17}

Now let \(S_{k,j} := \frac{\theta_{k} \lambda_{t}}{(\sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \gamma_{ij}) \eta_{i} \beta_{i}}\), and \(S := \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{k,i}\). By the convexity of exponential function, we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \left\{ \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{k,i} \| \delta_{i}^{(t-1,k)} \|^2 / \sigma^2 \right\} \right\} \\
\leq \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{k,i} \exp \{ \| \delta_{i}^{(t-1,k)} \|^2 / \sigma^2 \} \right\} \leq \exp \{ 1 \},
\]

where the last inequality follows from Assumption (8.3.83). Therefore, by Markov’s inequality, for all \(\zeta > 0\),

\[
\text{Prob} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{k,i} \| \delta_{i}^{(t-1,k)} \|^2 > (1 + \zeta) \sigma^2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{m} S_{k,i} \right\} \leq \exp \{ - \zeta \}.
\]  \tag{8.3.18}

Combing (8.3.17), (8.3.18), (8.3.65) and (8.3.10), our result in (8.3.85) immediately follows.

### 8.4 Exercises and notes

1. Suppose that in the gradient sliding method, the computational costs associated with gradient evaluation of \(\nabla f\) and subgradient evaluation of \(h\) are given by \(G\) and \(S\), respectively. Use such information to refine the selection of algorithmic parameters in this method.

2. Suppose that in the communication sliding method, the computational costs associated with one communication round and subgradient evaluation of \(\phi\) is given by \(C\) and \(S\), respectively. Use such information to refine the selection of algorithmic parameters in this method.

**Notes.** Lan first developed the gradient sliding method in [55]. The accelerated gradient sliding method was introduced by Lan and Ouyang in [58]. Lan, Lee and Zhou first presented in [30] the communication sliding algorithms for decentralized optimization over networks. Earlier developments for decentralized algorithms can be found, e.g., in [107, 106, 74, 92, 11, 40, 104, 71, 16, 72, 64].
References


