# The Five Miracles of Mirror Descent

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This paper is a summary of the educational materials and lectures from Professor Sebastian Bubeck, enhanced by Claire Boyer's comprehensive notes, and structured according to Tomer Koren's course on Optimization for Computer Science.

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# Mathematical Background

## 0.1 Multivariable Calculus

**Definition 0.1.1.** Diffrentiability, single variable

Let  $f:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function. We say that f is differentiable at  $x_0\in(a,b)$  if

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} \tag{1}$$

exists. If f is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then  $f'(x_0)$  is the derivative of f at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 0.1.2.** Diffrentiability, single variable (alternative)

Let  $f:(a,b)\to\mathbb{R}$  be a function. We say that f is differentiable at  $x_0\in(a,b)$  if there exists a number m such that:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + m \cdot h + E(h) \text{ where } \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{E(h)}{h} = 0$$
 (2)

If f is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then  $f'(x_0) = m$  is the derivative of f at  $x_0$ .

**Definition 0.1.3.** Diffrentiability, multivariable

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. We say that f is differentiable at  $x_0$  if there exists a vector  $m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) - m \cdot h}{||h||} = 0 \tag{3}$$

If f is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then m is the gradient of f at  $x_0$ , denoted  $\nabla f(x_0)$ .

Suppose the  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is a function.

**Definition 0.1.4.** Limit, multivariate function

We say that the limit of f at  $x_0$  is L if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for all x such that  $||x - x_0|| < \delta$ , we have  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

**Definition 0.1.5.** Diffrentiability, multivariable (alternative)

We say that f is differentiable at  $x_0$  if there exists a vector  $m \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + m^T \cdot h + E(h) \text{ where } \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{E(h)}{||h||} = 0$$
 (4)

If f is differentiable at  $x_0$ , then m is the gradient of f at  $x_0$ , denoted  $\nabla f(x_0)$ .

#### **Definition 0.1.6.** Partial Derivative

The partial derivative of f with respect to the i-th variable at x is:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h \cdot e_i) - f(x)}{h} \tag{5}$$

where  $e_i$  is the i-th standard basis vector.

#### **Theorem 0.1.1.** (Diffrentiability vs. Partial Derivatives)

If f is differentiable at x, then all partial derivatives of f exist at x and:

$$\nabla f(x) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(x)\right) \tag{6}$$

- If any partial derivative of f does not exist at x, then f is not differentiable at x.
- If all partial derivatives of f exist at x, then f may still not be differentiable at x and the vector  $m = \nabla f(x)$  is the only possible vector that satisfies the definition of differentiability.

#### **Definition 0.1.7.** Continuously Differentiable

We say that f is continuously differentiable or of class  $C^1$  if all partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous at every point in S.

**Theorem 0.1.2.** If f is continuously differentiable, then f is differentiable.

#### **Definition 0.1.8.** The directional derivative

For a given  $x \in S$  and a unit vector  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the directional derivative of f at x in the direction of u is:

$$\partial_u f(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x + h \cdot u) - f(x)}{h} \tag{7}$$

Equivalently,  $\partial_u f(x) = g'(0)$  where  $g(h) = f(x + h \cdot u)$ .

**Theorem 0.1.3.** If f is differentiable at x, then for all  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the directional derivative of f at x in the direction of u exists and is given by:

$$\partial_u f(x) = \nabla f(x) \cdot u \tag{8}$$

#### Theorem 0.1.4. Fermat's Theorem

If f is differentiable at x and x is a local minimum of f, then  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ .

**Theorem 0.1.5.** Suppose that  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at x. Then  $\nabla f(x)$  is orthogonal to the level set of f that passes through x.

#### Theorem 0.1.6. The mean value theorem

If  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable on the open interval between a and b, then there exists  $c \in [a,b]$  such that:

$$f(b) - f(a) = \nabla f(c) \cdot (b - a) \tag{9}$$

where  $[a, b] = a + t(b - a)|t \in [0, 1]$ .

0.2. TAYLOR SERIES 3

#### **Definition 0.1.9.** Second-order partial derivatives

Suppose that f is a  $C^1$  function. If the partial derivatives of f are differentiable, then the second-order partial derivatives of f are:

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} \right) \tag{10}$$

Equivalently,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial i \partial j} = \partial_j \partial_j f$ . If i = j we denote  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i^2}$  or  $(\partial_i^2 f)$ 

#### **Definition 0.1.10.** The $C^2$ class

We say that f is of class  $C^2$  if all second-order partial derivatives of f exist and are continuous.

**Theorem 0.1.7.** Clairaut's Theorem If f is of class  $C^2$ , then  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_i}$ .

#### **Definition 0.1.11.** Hessian Matrix

The Hessian matrix of f at x is the matrix of second-order partial derivatives of f at x:

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(11)$$

**Corollary.** The interpretation of the Hessian matrix Let  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a unit vector. then

$$\partial_{uu}^2 f(x) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n \partial_{ij} f(x) u_i u_j = u^T \nabla^2 f(x) u$$
(12)

# 0.2 Taylor series

#### **Definition 0.2.1.** Taylor Series

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function that is k times differentiable at  $x_0$ . Then the Taylor series of f at  $x_0$  is given by:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x - x_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!}(x - x_0)^k + R_k(x)$$
(13)

where  $R_k(x) = \frac{f^{(k+1)}(c)}{(k+1)!}(x-x_0)^{k+1}$  for some c between x and  $x_0$ .

#### **Definition 0.2.2.** Taylor Series for Multivariable Functions (k=2)

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function that is  $C^2$  at  $x_0$ . Then for any h such that  $x_0 + h \in S$ , there exists  $\theta \in [0,1]$  such that:

$$f(x_0 + h) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0) \cdot h + \frac{1}{2} h^T \nabla^2 f(x_0 + \theta h) h$$
 (14)

### 0.3 Algebraic Structures and Their Properties

#### 0.3.1 Properties

#### Definition 0.3.1. Closure

An operation \* on a set G is said to have the property of closure if for every  $a, b \in G$ , the result a\*b is also in G.

#### Definition 0.3.2. Commutativity

An operation \* on a set G is commutative if for every  $a, b \in G$ , we have a \* b = b \* a.

#### Definition 0.3.3. Associativity

An operation \* on a set G is associative if for every  $a, b, c \in G$ , we have (a\*b)\*c = a\*(b\*c).

#### **Definition 0.3.4.** *Identity*

An operation \* on a set G has an identity element if there exists an element  $e \in G$  such that for every  $a \in G$ , a \* e = e \* a = a.

#### Definition 0.3.5. Inverse

An operation \* on a set G has inverses if for every  $a \in G$ , there exists an element  $b \in G$  such that a\*b=b\*a=e, where e is the identity element.

#### 0.3.2 Structures

#### Group

#### Definition 0.3.6. Group

A group is a set G along with an operation \* such that the following properties hold: closure, commutativity, associativity, identity, and inverse.

#### **Example.** Examples of groups:

- 1.  $(\mathbb{R},+)$  is a group.
- 2.  $(\mathbb{Z},+)$  is a group.
- 3. Non-zero reals, complex, and rational numbers are groups under multiplication.

#### Ring

#### Definition 0.3.7. Ring

A ring is a set R along with two operations  $(+, \times)$  such that the following properties hold: closure, commutativity for +, associativity for both, distributivity, identity for +, and inverse for +.

#### **Example.** Examples of rings:

- 1.  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \times)$  is a ring.
- 2.  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$  is a ring.
- 3. The set of odd integers is not a ring because it is not closed under addition.

#### Field

#### Definition 0.3.8. Field

A field is a set F along with two operations  $(+, \times)$  such that the following properties hold: closure, commutativity, associativity, distributivity, identity for both, inverse for both, and no divisors of zero.

#### **Example.** Examples of fields:

- 1.  $(\mathbb{R}, +, \times)$  is a field.
- 2.  $(\mathbb{Q}, +, \times)$  is a field.
- 3.  $(\mathbb{C}, +, \times)$  is a field.
- 4.  $(\mathbb{Z}_p, +, \times)$  for a prime p is a field.

#### **Vector Space**

#### **Definition 0.3.9.** Vector Space

A vector space is a set V along with an operation + on V and a scalar multiplication  $\cdot$  on V such that the following properties hold: closure, commutativity for +, associativity for both + and scalar multiplication, distributivity, identity for both, and inverse for +.

#### **Example.** Examples of vector spaces:

- 1.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space.
- 2. The space  $M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{F})$  of  $m \times n$  matrices over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is a vector space.
- 3. The set of all continuous functions over some interval is a vector space.
- 4. The space of all differentiable functions over a certain interval is a vector space.

#### 0.3.3 Hilbert Spaces

#### Definition 0.3.10. Inner Product

An inner product on a vector space V is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies:

- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in V$ .
- $\langle x, x \rangle > 0$  for all  $x \in V$  and  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  if and only if x = 0.
- $\langle x, \alpha y + \beta z \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle + \beta \langle x, z \rangle$  for all  $x, y, z \in V$  and  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# 0.4 Important subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$

#### **Definition 0.4.1.** Open set

A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if for all  $x \in S$ , there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq S$ .

#### **Definition 0.4.2.** Closed set

A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is closed if its complement is open.

#### **Definition 0.4.3.** *Interior point*

A point  $x \in S$  is an interior point of S if there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $B(x, \epsilon) \subseteq S$ .

#### Corollary 0.4.1. Open set characterization

A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open if and only if every point in S is an interior point of S.

#### **Definition 0.4.4.** Boundary point

A point  $x \in S$  is a boundary point of S if for all  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $B(x, \epsilon) \cap S \neq \emptyset$  and  $B(x, \epsilon) \cap S^c \neq \emptyset$ .

#### **Definition 0.4.5.** *Half-space*

A half-space in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^Tx \leq b\}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Definition 0.4.6. Hyperplane

A hyperplane in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : a^Tx = b\}$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

#### **Definition 0.4.7.** Polyhedron (Polyhedra)

A polyhedron in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a set of the form  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax \leq b\}$  for some  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Equivalently, a polyhedron is the intersection of finitely many half-spaces.

#### **Definition 0.4.8.** Polytope

A polytope in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a bounded polyhedron - i.e., there exists r > 0 such that  $\forall x \in \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax \leq b\} \implies ||x|| \leq r$ . Equivalently, a polytope is the convex hull of finitely many points.

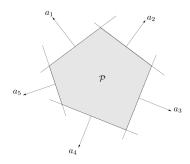


Figure 1: Polytope

#### **Definition 0.4.9.** Convex set

A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if for all  $x, y \in S$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , we have  $\lambda t + (1 - \lambda)y \in S$ .

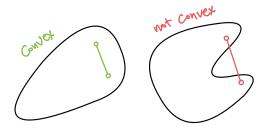


Figure 2: Convex set

#### Definition 0.4.10. Convex hull

The convex hull of a set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is the smallest convex set that contains S.

#### **Definition 0.4.11.** Conic combination

A point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a conic combination of  $y_1, \ldots, y_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  if there exist  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k \geq 0$  such that  $x = \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i y_i$ .

#### Definition 0.4.12. Conic hull

The conic hull of a finite set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all conic combinations of points in S.

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#### **Definition 0.4.13.** Convex cone

A set  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a convex cone if for all  $x \in S$  and  $\lambda \geq 0$ , we have  $\lambda x \in S$ .



(a) Convex cone that is not a conic hull of finitely (b) Convex cone genrated by the conic combination many generators.

of three black vectors (conic hull).

#### **Definition 0.4.14.** Normal cone

The normal cone to a set S at a point x is defined as

$$N_S(x) = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : \langle v, y - x \rangle \le 0 \text{ for all } y \in S \}$$
 (15)

#### **Definition 0.4.15.** Tangent cone

The tangent cone to a set S at a point x is defined as

$$T_S(x) = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n : \lim_{t \to 0^+} \frac{x + tv - x}{t} \in S \}$$
 (16)

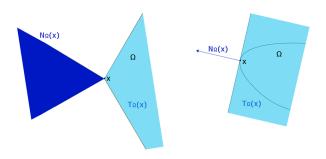


Figure 4: Normal and tangent cones

#### Theorem 0.4.1. Normal cone of polyhedron

The normal cone to a polyhedron  $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall j \in [m] \mid a_j \cdot x \leq b_j\}$  at a point x is given by

$$N_S(x) = \{ \sum_j \lambda_j a_j : \lambda_j \ge 0 \text{ and } a_j \cdot x = b_j \}$$
(17)

### 0.5 Convexity

#### 0.5.1 Definitions and Fundamental Theorems

**Definition 0.5.1.** (Convex function): A function  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  defined on a convex set S is convex if, for all  $x, y \in S$  and  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \le \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y).$$

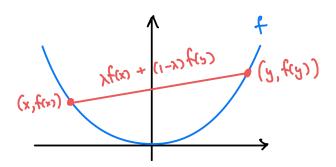


Figure 5: Convex function

**Theorem 0.5.1.** (Characterization via epigraph): A function  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if and only if its epigraph  $\{(x,t) \in S \times \mathbb{R} : f(x) \leq t\}$  is a convex set.

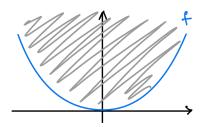


Figure 6: Epigraph of a convex function

**claim 0.5.1.** (Convexity of sublevel sets): If  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex, then the sublevel set  $S_t = \{x \in S: f(x) \leq t\}$  is convex for any  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

#### 0.5.2 Inequalities and Characterizations

**Theorem 0.5.2.** (Jensen's inequality): If f is a convex function, then for any  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S$  and any non-negative weights  $\alpha_i$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i = 1$ ,

$$f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i x_i\right) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i f(x_i).$$

**Theorem 0.5.3.** (First-order characterization, aka "the gradient inequality"): If f is a differentiable convex function on an open set S, then for all  $x, y \in S$ ,

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{\top} (y - x).$$

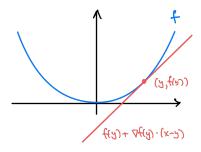


Figure 7: First-order characterization of convexity

**Definition 0.5.2.** Bergman divergence (distance)

The Bergman divergence between two points  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$D_f(x,y) = f(x) - f(y) - \nabla f(y)^{\top} (x - y)$$
(18)

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**Theorem 0.5.4.** (Jensen's inequality, generalized for expectation): If f is a convex function and X is a random variable over S, then

$$f(\mathbb{E}[X]) \le \mathbb{E}[f(X)].$$

**Theorem 0.5.5.** (Second-order characterization of convexity): A twice differentiable function f is convex on an open set S if and only if the Hessian matrix of f is positive semidefinite at every point in S.

#### 0.5.3 Optimization and Projection

**Definition 0.5.3.** (Convex optimization): The problem of minimizing a convex function over a convex set.

**Theorem 0.5.6.** (Optimality conditions, unconstrained): If f is convex and differentiable,  $x^*$  is a local minimum of  $f \Leftrightarrow x^*$  is a global minimum of  $f \Leftrightarrow \nabla f(x^*) = 0$ .

**Theorem 0.5.7.** (Optimality conditions, constrained): If f is differentiable and C is a convex set,  $x^*$  is a local minimum of f on C if and only if  $\langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x \in C$ .

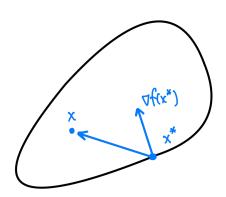


Figure 8: Optimality conditions, constrained

Corollary 0.5.1. Optimality conditions, constrained (alternative) If f is differentiable and C is a convex set, then  $x^*$  is a local minimum of f on C if and only if  $-\nabla f(x^*) \in N_C(x^*)$ .

**Definition 0.5.4.** (Projection): The projection of a point x onto a convex set S is defined as  $\Pi_S(x) = \arg\min_{y \in S} \|y - x\|$ .

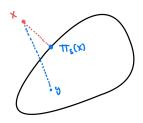


Figure 9: Projection

#### Theorem 0.5.8. Generalized cosine theorem

Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  be convex and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . Then the projection  $\Pi_S[x]$  is unique and satisfies:

$$||x - \Pi_S[x]||^2 + ||\Pi_S[x] - y||^2 \le ||x - y||^2, \quad \forall y \in S.$$
(19)

In particular:

$$\|\Pi_S[x] - y\| \le \|x - y\|, \quad \forall y \in S.$$
 (20)

# 0.6 Properties of Convex Functions

#### **Definition 0.6.1.** L - Lipschitz continuous

A function  $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$  is L-Lipschitz continuous if for all  $x, y \in S$ ,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L||x - y||$$
 (21)

#### Theorem 0.6.1. Convexity and Lipschitz continuity

If f is convex, differentiable and L-Lipschitz continuous, then  $||\nabla f(x)|| \leq L$  for all  $x \in S$ .

#### Definition 0.6.2. Smooth function

A differentiable function f is  $\beta$ -smooth over  $S \subseteq domf$  if for all  $x, y \in S$ :

$$-\frac{\beta}{2}||y-x||^2 \le f(y) - f(x) - \nabla f(x) \cdot (y-x) \le \frac{\beta}{2}||y-x||^2.$$

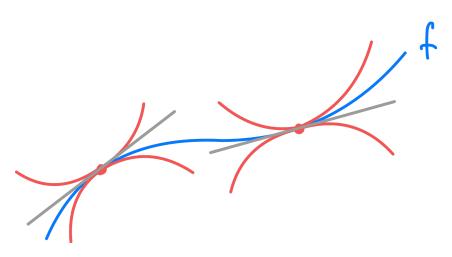


Figure 10: Smooth function

### Theorem 0.6.2. Lipschitz gradient interpretation

Let f be differentiable and let  $S \subseteq domf$  be convex and closed. Suppose that

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \le \beta \|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in S.$$

Then f is  $\beta$ -smooth over S.

## Theorem 0.6.3. Second-order characterization of smoothness

Let f be  $C^2$  and let  $S \subseteq domf$  be convex and closed. Then f is  $\beta$ -smooth over S if and only if

$$-\beta I \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq \beta I, \quad \forall x \in S.$$

### Lemma 0.6.1. The Descent Lemma

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $\beta$ -smooth, and let  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

• For  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ ,  $x^+ = x - \eta \nabla f(x)$ , we have

$$f(x^+) - f(x) \le -\frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$$
.

• For  $x^* \in \arg\min_x f(x)$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{2\beta} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 \le f(x) - f(x^*).$$

#### **Basic Facts:**

- An affine function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}, f(x) = a^{\top}x + b$ , is 0-smooth.
- A quadratic function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^{\top}Ax + b^{\top}x + c$ , is  $\lambda_{\max}(A)$ -smooth.
- A linear combination of smooth functions is smooth with an appropriate parameter.
- A convex combination of  $\beta$ -smooth functions is  $\beta$ -smooth.

#### **Definition 0.6.3.** Strong convexity

A function f is  $\alpha$ -strongly convex (for  $\alpha \geq 0$ ) over a convex and closed set  $S \subseteq domf$  if for any  $x \in S$ , there exists  $g_x \in \partial f(x)$  such that:

$$\forall y \in S, \quad f(y) \ge f(x) + g_x \cdot (y - x) + \frac{\alpha}{2} ||y - x||^2.$$

In particular, a differentiable f is  $\alpha$ -strongly convex over S if for any  $x \in S$ ,

$$\forall y \in S, \quad f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x) + \frac{\alpha}{2} ||y - x||^2.$$

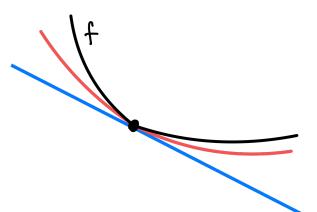


Figure 11: Strongly convex function

**Theorem 0.6.4.** Strong convexity, second-order characterization

Let f be  $C^2$  and let  $S \subseteq domf$  be convex and closed. Then f is  $\alpha$ -strongly convex over S if and only if

$$\forall x \in S, \quad \nabla^2 f(x) \succeq \alpha I.$$

**Theorem 0.6.5.** Usage of strong convexity

If a differentiable f is  $\alpha$ -strongly convex over a convex and closed  $S \subseteq domf$  with a minimum at  $x^* \in S$ , then

$$\forall x \in S, \quad \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x - x^*||^2 \le f(x) - f(x^*) \le \frac{1}{2\alpha} ||\nabla f(x)||^2.$$

In particular, the minimum of a strongly convex function is unique.

# 0.7 Important Inequalities

**Theorem 0.7.1.**  $1 + x \le e^x$ 

For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $1 + x \leq e^x$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f(x) = e^x - 1 - x$ . Then  $f'(x) = e^x - 1$  and  $f''(x) = e^x > 0$ . Thus, f is convex and f(0) = 0. Therefore,  $f(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

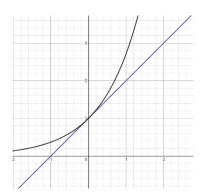


Figure 12:  $1 + x \le e^x$ 

# The First Miracle: Robustness

Let f be a convex function, and let  $x^*$  be a minimizer of f.

#### 1.1 Gradient Descent

**Definition 1.1.1.** Gradient Descent

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t) \tag{1.1}$$

It holds that:

$$f(x^*) \ge f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t) \cdot (x^* - x_t) \tag{1.2}$$

$$0 \le f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le \nabla f(x_t) \cdot (x_t - x^*) \tag{1.3}$$

#### 1.1.1 Analysis of the Gradient Descent Algorithm

$$||a||^2 = ||b||^2 + ||a - b||^2$$
  
$$||b||^2 = ||a||^2 - ||a - b||^2 = ||a||^2 - (||a||^2 - 2a \cdot b + ||b||^2) = 2a \cdot b - ||b||^2$$

Then we have:

$$||x^* - x_t||^2 - ||x^* - x_{t+1}||^2 = -2\eta(x^* - x_t) \cdot \nabla f(x_t) - \eta^2 ||\nabla f(x_t)||^2$$
$$= 2\eta(x_t - x^*) \cdot \nabla f(x_t) - \eta^2 ||\nabla f(x_t)||^2$$
$$\geq 2(f(x_t) - f(x^*)) - \eta^2 L^2$$

Where the last inequality follows from the convexity and the Lipschitz continuity of f.

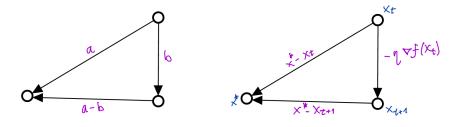


Figure 1.1: Gradient Descent

Then if we sum the above inequality from t = 1 to T, we get:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} (f(x_t) - f(x^*)) \le \frac{\|x_1 - x^*\|^2}{2\eta} + \frac{\eta L^2}{2} T$$

In fact, this is a specific case of the Fundamental Inequality of Optimization.

**Theorem 1.1.1.** Fundamental Inequality of Optimization (unconstrained version) Suppose  $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta g_t$  for all t, where  $g_1, \ldots, g_T \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are arbitrary vectors. Then for all  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$  it holds that

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} g_t \cdot (x_t - x^*) \le \frac{\|x_1 - x^*\|^2}{2\eta} + \frac{\eta}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \|g_t\|^2.$$

*Proof.* Fundamental Inequality of Optimization

The proof tracks  $||x_t - x^*||^2$  as a "potential". First write

$$||x_{t+1} - x^*||^2 = ||(x_t - x^*) - \eta g_t||^2 = ||x_t - x^*||^2 - 2\eta g_t \cdot (x_t - x^*) + \eta^2 ||g_t||^2,$$

that is,

posing eta

$$||x_t - x^*||^2 - ||x_{t+1} - x^*||^2 = 2\eta q_t \cdot (x_t - x^*) - \eta^2 ||q_t||^2.$$

Summing over t = 1, ..., T and telescoping terms, we obtain

$$||x_1 - x^*||^2 - ||x_{T+1} - x^*||^2 = 2\eta \sum_{t=1}^T g_t \cdot (x_t - x^*) - \eta^2 \sum_{t=1}^T ||g_t||^2.$$

Organizing terms, we conclude:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T} g_t \cdot (x_t - x^*) \le \frac{\|x_1 - x^*\|^2 - \|x_{T+1} - x^*\|^2}{2\eta} + \frac{\eta}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \|g_t\|^2.$$

# The Second Miracle: Potential Based

### 2.1 Experts Problem

At each time step, the player picks an action  $I_t \in [n]$  (we have n experts) and the adversary picks a loss vector  $l_t \in 0, 1^n$ . The player incurs loss  $l_t(I_t)$  and the goal is to minimize the regret:

$$Regret_T(i) = \sum_{t=1}^{T} (l_t(I_t) - l_t(i))$$
 (2.1)

We consider the case where in each time step the player chooses an action from a distribution  $\vec{p}$  over the n experts (a vector from the simplex):

$$\vec{p} \in \triangle_n = \{ \vec{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n_+ : p_i \ge 0, \sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1 \}$$

#### Approach 1: Gradient Descent

We can use gradient descent on  $f_t(\vec{p_t}) = \vec{l_t} \cdot \vec{p}$ , where  $\vec{l_t}$  is the loss vector at time t. It holds that  $\nabla f_t(\vec{p_t}) = \vec{l_t}$ . We can use the analysis of the gradient descent algorithm for gradient descent of convex functions varying in time.

Let  $q \in \triangle_n$  be any distribution. Then we have:

$$f_t(q) \ge f_t(\vec{p_t}) + \nabla f_t(q) \cdot (q - \vec{p_t}) \Longrightarrow$$
$$f_t(\vec{p_t}) - f_t(q) \le \nabla f_t(q) \cdot (\vec{p_t} - q)$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \|q - p_t\|^2 - \|q - p_{t+1}\|^2 &= -2\eta(q - p_t) \cdot \nabla f_t(p_t) - \eta^2 \|\nabla f_t(p_t)\|^2 \Longrightarrow \\ f_t(\vec{p}_t) - f_t(q) &\leq \nabla f_t(q) \cdot (\vec{p}_t - q) = \frac{1}{2\eta} \left( \|q - \vec{p}_t\|^2 - \|q - \vec{p}_{t+1}\|^2 \right) + \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f_t(\vec{p}_t)\|^2 \Longrightarrow \\ \sum_{t=1}^T \left( f_t(\vec{p}_t) - f_t(q) \right) &\leq \frac{1}{2\eta} \left( \|q - \vec{p}_1\|^2 - \|q - \vec{p}_{T+1}\|^2 \right) + \frac{\eta}{2} \sum_{t=1}^T \|\nabla f_t(\vec{p}_t)\|^2 \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2\eta} \|q - \vec{p}_1\|^2 + \frac{\eta}{2} \sum_{t=1}^T \|\nabla f_t(\vec{p}_t)\|^2 \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\eta} + \frac{\eta}{2} T n = \mathbf{O}(\sqrt{Tn}) \end{aligned}$$

We have used the facts that:

2: M

- Both q and  $\vec{p_1}$  are distributions, so  $||q \vec{p_1}||^2 \le 2$ .
- $\|\nabla f_t(\vec{p_t})\|^2 \le n$  (as the loss vector is in  $0, 1^n$ ).

we can see that in this case, the rate of convergence DO depend on the dimension of the problem, in contrast to the non-varying case. The fact that the rate of convergence DO NOT depend on the dimension of the problem in GD is one of the reasons why GD is so useful in practice.

### Approach 2: Multiplicative Weights Update (MWU)

### 2.2 Mirror Descent

Endow K with a Riemannian structure:  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_x$  for each  $x \in K$ . Before:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t) \to f(x + dx) \approx f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot dx \tag{2.2}$$

The Third Miracle:

The Fourth Miracle:

The Fifth Miracle: