

# Stochastic optimization

## Stochastic gradient descent

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# Motivation

The recent years have seen a huge success of machine learning, and a renewed interest in the stochastic gradient algorithm, and the development of various variants.

The stochastic gradient algorithm is a special case of the stochastic approximation method, which was first introduced in 1951, and can be seen as an alternative to the sample-path approach.

The first part of these slides is based on S. Bhatnagar, H.L. Prasad, L.A. Prashanth, “Stochastic Recursive Algorithms for Optimization Simultaneous Perturbation Methods”, Springer-Verlag, 2013.

## Robbins–Monro algorithm

Introduced in 1951, initially as a root-finding problem.

It can be easily extended to unconstrained optimization using first-order condition as a necessary condition to the problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$$

is

$$\nabla_x f(x) = 0.$$

We therefore search for a zero of the gradient of  $f(x)$ .

We can also restrain the feasible domain to  $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$\min_{x \in \Theta} f(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)]$$

In this case, we have to assume that  $f$  reaches its minimum in the interior of  $\Theta$ .

## Problem in expectation

We consider here

$$f(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)]$$

where the support of  $\xi$  is  $\Xi$ .

The problem to solve is

$$\nabla_x \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)] = 0$$

We assume here that we can exchange the expectation and derivation operators, i.e.

$$\nabla_x \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)] = \mathbb{E}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi)]$$

# Stochastic approximation

Also known as the **stochastic gradient descent (SGD) method**.

Choose a starting point  $x_1$ .

$k \leftarrow 1$

**while** Stopping criteria not satisfied **do**

    Draw  $\xi_k$  from  $\xi$ .

    Select a step length  $\alpha_k$ .

    Compute

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla_x Y(x_k, \xi_k).$$

$k \leftarrow k + 1$

**end while**

$\alpha_k$  is also called the **learning rate**.

## Assumptions

Assume a unique minimizer  $x^*$ , and

**A.1**  $f(x)$  is continuously differentiable and its gradient is Lipschitz continuous with Lipschitz constant  $L > 0$ , i.e.  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,

$$\|\nabla_x f(x) - \nabla_x f(y)\|_2 \leq L\|x - y\|_2$$

**A.2** The iterates remain a.s. bounded, i.e.

$$\sup_k \|x_k\| < \infty \text{ almost surely.}$$

**A.3** There exist scalars  $M \geq 0$  and  $M_V \geq 0$  s.t.  $\forall k$ ,

$$\text{Var}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_k)] \leq M + M_V \|\nabla_x f(x_k)\|_2^2$$

**A.4** The sequence  $\alpha_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , satisfies

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 < \infty.$$

## Assumptions: notes

- In A.3,  $\text{Var}_{\xi_k}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_k)]$  does not refer to the covariance matrix of  $\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_k)$ .
- Variance of a random vector  $g(\xi_k)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}_{\xi_k}[g] &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \|g - \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g]\|^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \|g\|^2 \right] - (\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[\|g\|])^2.\end{aligned}$$

- A well-known consequence of the Lipschitz continuity assumption A.1 is

$$f(x) \leq f(y) + \nabla f(y)^T (x - y) + \frac{L}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2,$$

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

# Step lengths

Consider the sequence of step lengths, also called **positive gains sequence**  $\{\alpha_k \mid k \geq 1\}$ .

This sequence satisfies the previous assumption in particular with

- $\alpha_k = \alpha/k$ , given  $\alpha > 0$ .
- $\alpha_k = \alpha/k^\beta$ ,  $\forall k \geq 1$ , given  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta \in (0.5, 1)$ .
- $\alpha_k = \alpha(\ln k)/k$ ,  $\forall k \geq 2$ , given  $\alpha_1 = \alpha > 0$ .
- $\alpha_k = \alpha/(k \ln k)$ ,  $\forall k \geq 2$ , given  $\alpha_1 = \alpha > 0$ .



## Properties

- Very cheap iteration: gradient w.r.t. just one observation. No function evaluation.
- Reminder:  $d$  is a descent direction for  $f$  at  $x$  if

$$d^T \nabla_x f(x) < 0$$

- SGD is not a descent method as we can have  $-\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i)^T \mathbb{E}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi)] \geq 0$  with  $\nabla_x f(x) \neq 0$ .
- Descent in expectation: if  $\nabla_x f(x) \neq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[-\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i)^T \mathbb{E}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi)]] \\ &= -\nabla_x \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi_i)]^T \nabla_x \mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)] \\ &= -\nabla_x f(x)^T \nabla_x f(x) < 0 \end{aligned}$$

## Mini-batch method

Replace  $\nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i)$  by

$$\frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i).$$

At each iteration, we take  $n_k$  new draws.

The cost per iteration is  $n_k$  times bigger, but

- it is a better estimate of the gradient
- the computation of the mini-batch can exploit parallelism

## Batch method

Assume for now that the support  $\Xi$  is finite, of cardinality  $n$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[Y(x, \xi)] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Y(x, \xi_i), \quad \mathbb{E}[\nabla_x Y(x, \xi)] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i)$$

Batch method:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_x Y(x, \xi_i).$$

In other words, we use all the observations to compute the true gradient.

Often,  $n$  is very large, and we prefer to work with  $n_k \ll n$ .

## Stochastic approximation

We can generalize the expression of the stochastic approximation iteration using an estimator of the gradient of  $f$  at  $x_k$ :

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla \hat{f}(x_k).$$

As before, the gradient estimator can usually be taken as  $\nabla Y(x_k, \xi_k)$ , where  $(\xi_k, k \geq 1)$  are i.i.d.

In that case, if  $f(\cdot)$  is smooth, has a unique global minimizer  $x^*$ , and  $\alpha_k = \alpha/k$  with  $\alpha > 0$  sufficiently large, then under additional nonrestrictive conditions,

$$\sqrt{n}(x_n - x^*) \Rightarrow N(0, \Lambda),$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , for a certain  $d \times d$  matrix  $\Lambda$ .

# Convergence speed: stochastic boundedness

Source:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big\\_O\\_in\\_probability\\_notation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_in_probability_notation)

We would like to measure how fast we converge to the solution, knowing that we generate a sequence of realizations of random variables.

## Stochastic boundedness

The notation

$$X_n = O_p(a_n),$$

means that the set of values  $X_n/a_n$  is stochastically bounded:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists M > 0, N > 0 \text{ such that } P[|X_n/a_n| > M] < \epsilon \forall n > N.$$

## $O_p(\cdot)$ vs $o_p(\cdot)$

Thus,  $X_n = O_p(1)$  iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N_{\epsilon}, \delta_{\epsilon} \text{ such that } P[|X_n| \geq \delta_{\epsilon}] \leq \epsilon \quad \forall n > N_{\epsilon}.$$

### Convergence in probability

$X_n = o_p(1)$  iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \delta > 0 \exists N_{\epsilon, \delta} \text{ such that } P[|X_n| \geq \delta] \leq \epsilon \quad \forall n > N_{\epsilon, \delta}.$$

Therefore

$$X_n = o_p(1) \Rightarrow X_n = O_p(1).$$

The reverse does not hold.

More generally,  $X_n = o_p(a_n)$  iff  $X_n/a_n = o_p(1)$ , i.e.

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[|X_n/a_n| \geq \epsilon] = 0.$$

## Complexity

Source: Kim, Pasupathy, and Henderson, “A Guide to Sample Average Approximation”, in “Handbook of Simulation Optimization”, edited by Michael C. Fu, Springer, 2015.

If the number of iterations completed in  $c$  units of computer time,  $n(c)$  grows roughly linearly in  $c$  (as would be the case if, e.g., sample gradients are computed in constant time).

A time-changed version of the CLT establishes that the resulting SA estimator has an error

$$x_{n(c)} - x^* = O_p(c^{-1/2}).$$

Equivalently, the computational effort required to obtain an error of order  $\epsilon$  with SA is  $O_p(\epsilon^{-2})$ .

The performance of the recursion is highly dependent on the gain sequence  $\{\alpha_n\}$ .

## Polyak–Ruppert averaging

Within the context of the SA iterative scheme, the fastest achievable convergence rate is  $O_p(c^{-1/2})$ .

This rate can be achieved under the “Polyak–Ruppert averaging”.

- step-size sequence:  $a_n = a/n^\gamma$  for some  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$
- estimator of  $x^*$ :

$$\bar{x}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i.$$

Under mild conditions, the Polyak–Ruppert averaging scheme enjoys a CLT, although with a different covariance matrix  $\Lambda$ .

This happens irrespective of the value of the constant  $a > 0$  (but the choice of  $a$  affects the small-sample performance). The Polyak–Ruppert averaging scheme also has other optimality properties related to the matrix  $\Lambda$ .



# Order of Convergence

Denote the numerical procedure acting on the sample function  $f_n(x)$  by the mapping  $A(x) : \Theta \rightarrow \Theta$ .

Let  $A_k(x)$  represent the iterate obtained after  $k$  successive applications of the  $A(\cdot)$  on the initial iterate  $x$ .

Assume that the function  $f_n(x)$  attains its infimum  $v_n^* := \inf\{f_n(x) : x \in \Theta\}$  and that  $f_n(A_k(x)) \rightarrow v_n^*$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ . Also, to avoid trivialities, assume that  $f_n(A_{k+1}(x))$  is different from  $v_n^*$  for all  $k$ .

# Sublinear convergence

Denote

$$Q_t = \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|f_n(A_{k+1}(x)) - v_n^*|}{|f_n(A_k(x)) - v_n^*|^t}.$$

## Definition

$A(x) : \Theta \rightarrow \Theta$  is said to exhibit  $p^{th}$ -order sublinear convergence if  $Q_1 \geq 1$ , and

$$\exists p, s > 0 \text{ such that } p = \sup\{r : f_n(A_k(x)) - v_n^* \leq s/k^r, \forall x \in \Theta\}.$$

# Linear convergence

## Definition

The numerical procedure  $A(x) : \Theta \rightarrow \Theta$  is said to exhibit linear convergence if  $Q_1 \in (0, 1)$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ .

The definition of linear convergence implies that there exists a constant  $\beta$  satisfying  $f_n(A(x)) - v_n^* \leq \beta(f_n(x) - v_n^*)$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ . The projected gradient method with Armijo steps when executed on certain smooth problems exhibits a linear convergence rate.

# Superlinear convergence

## Definition

The numerical procedure  $A(x) : \Theta \rightarrow \Theta$  is said to exhibit superlinear convergence if  $Q_1 = 0$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ . The convergence is said to be  $p^{\text{th}}$ -order superlinear if  $Q_1 = 0$  and  $\sup\{t : Q_t = 0\} = p < \infty$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ .

When  $f_n(x)$  is strongly convex and twice Lipschitz continuously differentiable with observable derivatives, Newton method is second-order superlinear. For settings where the derivative is unobservable, there is a slight degradation in the convergence rate, but Newton method remains superlinear.

# Convergence rate for the SAA method

## Theorem

*Assumptions:*

1.  $E[Y^2(x, \xi)] < \infty$  for all  $x \in \Theta$ .
2. The function  $Y(x, \xi)$  is Lipschitz w.p.1, with Lipschitz constant  $K(\xi)$ , and  $\mathbb{E}[K(\xi)] < \infty$ .
3. The function  $f_n(x)$  attains its infimum on  $\Theta$  for each  $n$  w.p.1.

Let  $c = n \times k$  and  $n/c^{1/(2p+1)} \rightarrow a$  as  $c \rightarrow \infty$ , with  $a \in (0, \infty)$ . Then, if the numerical procedure exhibits  $p^{\text{th}}$ -order sublinear convergence,

$$c^{p/(2p+1)} \left( f_n(A^k(x)) - v^* \right) = O_p(1)$$

as  $c \rightarrow \infty$ .

## Convergence rate for the SAA method

**Main insight:** the maximum achievable convergence rate with the SAA method, is  $O_p(c^{-p/(2p+1)})$  when the numerical procedure in use exhibits  $p^{th}$ -order sublinear convergence.

It is also possible to show that the corresponding rates when using linearly convergent and  $p^{th}$ -order superlinearly convergent procedures are  $O_p((c/\log c)^{-1/2})$  and  $O_p((c/\log \log c)^{-1/2})$ , respectively.

None of the families of numerical procedures considered are capable of attaining the canonical convergence rate  $O_p(c^{-1/2})$ .

## The generic SG method

Source:

- Léon Bottou, Frank E. Curtis, and Jorge Nocedal, Optimization Methods for Large-Scale Machine Learning, SIAM Review 60(2), 2018, pp. 223–311, <https://doi.org/10.1137/16M1080173>
- Léon Bottou, Frank E. Curtis, and Jorge Nocedal, Optimization Methods for Machine Learning Part II – The theory of SG, <https://icml.cc/Conferences/2016/tutorials/part-2.pdf>

We generalize the stochastic gradient method with the update

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}_k, \xi_k).$$

instead of

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} Y(\mathbf{x}_k, \xi_k).$$

# The generic SG method

The function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  could be

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} R(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(x; \xi)] & \text{the expected risk,} \\ R_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\xi=1}^n Y(x; \xi) & \text{the empirical risk.} \end{cases}$$

The stochastic vector could be

$$g(x; \xi_k) = \begin{cases} \nabla_x Y(x_k, \xi_k) & \text{(one realization)} \\ \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \nabla_x Y(x_k, \xi_k) & \text{(minibatch)} \\ B_k \frac{1}{n_k} \sum_{i=1}^{n_k} \nabla_x Y(x_k, \xi_k) & \text{(rescaled minibatch)} \end{cases}$$



# Stochastic processes

While we assume the draws  $\xi_i, i = 1, 2, \dots$  are i.i.d., it is possible to extend the results to the situation where  $\{\xi_i, i = 1, 2, \dots\}$  form an adapted stochastic process, where each  $\xi_i$  can depend on the previous ones.

# Active learning

- In active learning,  $g(x_k; \xi_k)$  produces a multinomial distribution on the training examples in a manner that depends on the current solution  $x_k$ .
- $\xi_k$  is then transformed to draw from this distribution.

Active learning is not covered here, but again, the results can be extended to this situation.

# Smoothness

## Theorem

*Under Assumption A.1 (Lipschitz continuity),  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ , the iterates of the SG method satisfy*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{k+1})] - f(x_k) \\ \leq -\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 L \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2]. \end{aligned}$$

- $\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)]$ : **expected decrease**;
- $\frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 L \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2]$ : **noise**.

## Smoothness: proof

From A.1, we have

$$f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k) \leq \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{L}{2} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|_2^2.$$

Since  $x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k, \xi_k)$ , this leads to

$$f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k) \leq -\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T g(x_k, \xi_k) + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2.$$

This implies

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{k+1}) - f(x_k)] \leq \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ -\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T g(x_k, \xi_k) + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2 \right]$$

or

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{k+1})] - f(x_k) \leq -\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2].$$

## Assumption A.5: first and second moment limits

The SG method applied to  $f(\cdot)$  satisfies

- a) The sequence of iterates  $\{x_k\}$  is contained in an open set over which  $f \geq f_{lb}$ .
- b)  $\exists \mu, \mu_G$  such that  $0 < \mu < \mu_G$  and  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(x_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] &\geq \mu \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2, \\ \|\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)]\|_2 &\leq \mu_G \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2.\end{aligned}$$

- c)  $\exists M \geq 0, M_V \geq 0$  such that  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2] - (\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2])^2 \\ &\leq M + M_V \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2.\end{aligned}$$

## Assumption A.5: notes

- A.5 b) expresses that in expectation,  $g(x_k, \xi_k)$  is a sufficient descent direction.
  - True if  $\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] = H_k \nabla f(x_k)$  with  $H_k$  positive definite and bounded spectrum.
  - Particular case:  $H_k = I$ . Then A.5 b) holds with  $\mu = \mu_G = 1$ .
- A.5 c) is a direct generalization of A.3.
- From A.5 b) and A.5 c),

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2 \right] &\leq (\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2])^2 + M + M_V \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 \\ &\leq \mu_G^2 \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + M + M_V \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 \\ &= M + M_G \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2,\end{aligned}$$

with  $M_G = M_V + \mu_G^2 \geq \mu^2 > 0$ .

# Moments

## Theorem

*Under Assumptions A.1 and A.5,  $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,*

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{k+1})] - f(x_k) &\leq -\mu\alpha_k\|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 L \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} \left[ \|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2 \right] \\ &\leq -\alpha_k \left( \mu - \frac{1}{2}\alpha_k LM_G \right) \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 LM.\end{aligned}$$

- $(\mu - \frac{1}{2}\alpha_k LM_G) \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2$ : **expected decrease**;
- $\frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 LM$ : **noise**.

## Proof

We already proved

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{x+1})] - f(x_k) \leq -\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x_k, \xi_k)] + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2].$$

From A.5 b), this leads to

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{x+1})] - f(x_k) \leq -\alpha_k \mu \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2],$$

giving the first inequality. Since

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k} [\|g(x_k, \xi_k)\|_2^2] \leq M + M_G \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[f(x_{x+1})] - f(x_k) &\leq -\alpha_k \mu \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + \alpha_k^2 \frac{L}{2} \left( M + M_G \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 \right) \\ &= -\alpha_k \left( \mu - \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k L M_G \right) \|\nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 L M. \end{aligned}$$



## Strong convexity

Consider  $f(\cdot) \in C^2$  with a convex domain.

- Convexity:

$$\forall x, y \in \text{dom}(f), f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)$$

- Strong convexity

$$\exists c > 0, \forall x, y \in \text{dom}(f), f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{1}{2}c\|y - x\|_2^2.$$

Alternate definition if  $f(\cdot) \in C^2$ :

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq cI,$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix.

Implications of strong convexity:

- $\exists \mu > 0, \forall x, y \in \text{dom}(f), \|\nabla_x f(x) - \nabla_x f(y)\|_2 \geq \mu\|x - y\|_2$
- $\forall x \in \text{dom}(f), 2c(f(x) - f^*) \leq \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2$

## Strong convexity

- Simplify the theoretical analysis and provide the strongest results.
- We can use regularization to locally convexify the function.
- Strong local minimizer:  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that
$$f(x) > f(x^*) + \epsilon^* \|x - x^*\|_2, \forall x \in \mathcal{B}(x^*, \epsilon) \setminus \{x^*\}.$$
Therefore, a strong local minimizer is a strict local minimizer:  $\exists \epsilon > 0$  such that
$$f(x) > f(x^*), \forall x \in \mathcal{B}(x^*, \epsilon) \setminus \{x^*\}.$$
- If  $f(x)$  is locally strongly convex in  $\mathcal{B}(x^*)$ , any local minimizer  $x^*$  is a strong local minimizer.
- But a strong local minimizer does not imply local strong convexity. Exemple:
$$f(x) = x^4.$$

# Analysis

More details at:

- <https://icml.cc/2016/tutorials/part-2.pdf>
- <https://icml.cc/2016/tutorials/part-3.pdf>

We will refer to this material.