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To cite this version:

HAL Id: hal-01993531
https://inria.hal.science/hal-01993531v4
Submitted on 4 Sep 2020

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Estimate Sequences for Stochastic Composite Optimization: Variance Reduction, Acceleration, and Robustness to Noise

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose a unified view of gradient-based algorithms for stochastic convex composite optimization by extending the concept of estimate sequence introduced by Nesterov. More precisely, we interpret a large class of stochastic optimization methods as procedures that iteratively minimize a surrogate of the objective, which covers the stochastic gradient descent method and variants of the incremental approaches SAGA, SVRG, and MISO/Finito/SDCA. This point of view has several advantages: (i) we provide a simple generic proof of convergence for all of the aforementioned methods; (ii) we naturally obtain new algorithms with the same guarantees; (iii) we derive generic strategies to make these algorithms robust to stochastic noise, which is useful when data is corrupted by small random perturbations. Finally, we propose a new accelerated stochastic gradient descent algorithm and a new accelerated SVRG algorithm that is robust to stochastic noise.

Keywords: convex optimization, variance reduction, stochastic optimization

1. Introduction

We consider convex composite optimization problems of the form

\[ \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \{ F(x) := f(x) + \psi(x) \}, \tag{1} \]

where \( f \) is convex and \( L \)-smooth\(^1\) and we call \( \mu \) its strong convexity modulus with respect to the Euclidean norm.\(^2\) The function \( \psi \) is convex lower semi-continuous and is not assumed to be necessarily differentiable. For instance, \( \psi \) may be the \( \ell_1 \)-norm, which is very popular in signal processing and machine learning for its sparsity-inducing properties (see Mairal et al., 2014 and references therein); \( \psi \) may also be the extended-valued indicator function of a convex set \( C \) that takes the value \( +\infty \) outside of \( C \) and 0 inside such that the previous setting encompasses constrained problems (see Hiriart-Urruty and Lemaréchal, 1996).

More specifically, we focus on stochastic objective functions, which are of utmost importance in machine learning, where \( f \) is an expectation or a finite sum of smooth functions

\[ f(x) = \mathbb{E}_\xi \left[ \tilde{f}(x, \xi) \right] \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x). \tag{2} \]

\(^1\) A function is \( L \)-smooth when it is differentiable and its derivative is Lipschitz continuous with constant \( L \).
\(^2\) Then, \( \mu = 0 \) means that the function is convex but not strongly convex.
On the left, $\xi$ is a random variable representing a data point drawn according to some distribution and $\tilde{f}(x,\xi)$ measures the fit of some model parameter $x$ to the data point $\xi$. Whereas the explicit form of the data distribution is unknown, we assume that we can draw random i.i.d. samples $\xi_1, \xi_2, \ldots$. Either an infinite number of such samples are available and the problem of interest is to minimize (1) with $f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\tilde{f}(x,\xi)]$, or one has access to a finite training set only, leading to the finite-sum setting on the right of (2), called empirical risk (Vapnik, 2000).

While the finite-sum setting is obviously a particular case of expectation with a discrete probability distribution, the deterministic nature of the resulting cost function drastically changes performance guarantees. In particular, when an algorithm is only allowed to access unbiased measurements of the objective function and gradient—which we assume is the case when $f$ is an expectation—it may be shown that the worst-case convergence rate in expected function value cannot be better than $O(1/k)$ in general, where $k$ is the number of iterations (Nemirovski et al., 2009; Agarwal et al., 2012). Such a sublinear rate of convergence is notably achieved by stochastic gradient descent (SGD) algorithms or their variants (see Bottou et al., 2018).

Even though this pessimistic result applies to the general stochastic case, linear convergence rates can be obtained for the finite-sum setting (Schmidt et al., 2017). Specifically, a large body of work in machine learning has led to many randomized incremental approaches obtaining linear convergence rates, such as SAG (Schmidt et al., 2017), SAGA (Defazio et al., 2014a), SVRG (Johnson and Zhang, 2013), Xiao and Zhang, (2014), SDCA (Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2016), MISO (Mairal, 2015), Katyusha (Allen-Zhu, 2017), MiG (Zhou et al., 2018), SARAH (Nguyen et al., 2017), directly accelerated SAGA (Zhou, 2019) or the method of Lan and Zhou (2018a). For non-convex objectives, recent approaches have also improved known convergence rates for finding first-order stationary points (Fang et al., 2018; Paquette et al., 2018; Lei et al., 2017), which is however beyond the scope of our paper. These algorithms have about the same cost per-iteration as the stochastic gradient descent method, since they access only a single or two gradients $\nabla f_i(x)$ at each iteration, and they may achieve lower computational complexity than accelerated gradient descent methods (Nesterov, 1983, 2004, 2013; Beck and Teboulle, 2009) in expectation. A common interpretation is to see these algorithms as performing SGD steps with an estimate of the full gradient that has lower variance (Xiao and Zhang, 2014).

In this paper, we are interested in providing a unified view of stochastic optimization algorithms, but we also want to investigate their robustness to random perturbations. Specifically, we may consider objective functions with an explicit finite-sum structure such as (2) when only noisy estimates of the gradients $\nabla f_i(x)$ are available. Such a setting may occur for various reasons. For instance, perturbations may be injected during training in order to achieve better generalization on new test data (Srivastava et al., 2014), perform stable feature selection (Meinshausen and Bühlmann, 2010), improve the model robustness (Zheng et al., 2016), or for privacy-aware learning (Wainwright et al., 2012).

Each training point indexed by $i$ is corrupted by a random perturbation $\rho_i$ and the resulting function $f$ may be written as

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x) \quad \text{with} \quad f_i(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\rho_i}[\tilde{f}_i(x, \rho_i)], \quad (3)$$
with convex terms $f_i(x)$ for each index $i$. Whereas (3) is a finite sum of functions, we now assume that one has now only access to unbiased estimates of the gradients $\nabla f_i(x)$ due to the stochastic nature of $f_i$. Then, all the aforementioned variance-reduction methods do not apply anymore and the standard approach to address this problem is to ignore the finite-sum structure and use SGD or one of its variants. At each iteration, an estimate of the full gradient is obtained by randomly drawing an index $\hat{i}$ in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ along with a perturbation. Typically, the variance of the gradient estimate then decomposes into two parts $\sigma^2 = \sigma_s^2 + \tilde{\sigma}^2$, where $\sigma_s^2$ is due to the random sampling of the index $\hat{i}$ and $\tilde{\sigma}^2$ is due to the random data perturbation. In such a context, variance reduction consists of building gradient estimates with variance $\tilde{\sigma}^2$, which is potentially much smaller than $\sigma^2$. The SAGA and SVRG methods were adapted for such a purpose by Hofmann et al. (2015), though the resulting algorithms have non-zero asymptotic error; the MISO method was adapted by Bietti and Mairal (2017) at the cost of a memory overhead of $O(np)$, whereas other variants of SAGA and SVRG were proposed by Zheng and Kwok (2018) for linear models in machine learning.

The framework we adopt is that of estimate sequences introduced by Nesterov (2004), which consists of building iteratively a quadratic model of the objective. Typically, estimate sequences may be used to analyze the convergence of existing algorithms, but also to design new ones, in particular with acceleration. Our construction is however slightly different than the original one since it is based on stochastic estimates of the gradients, and some classical properties of estimate sequences are satisfied only approximately. We note that estimate sequences have been used before for stochastic optimization (Lu and Xiao, 2015; Devolder, 2011; Lin et al., 2014), but not for the same generic purpose as ours.

Specifically, our paper makes to the following contributions:

- **We revisit many stochastic optimization algorithms dealing with composite convex problems; we consider variants of incremental methods such as SVRG, SAGA, SDCA, or MISO.** We provide a common convergence proof for these methods and show that they can be modified and become adaptive to the strong convexity constant $\mu$, when only a lower bound is available.

- **We provide improvements to the previous algorithms by making them robust to stochastic perturbations.** We analyze these approaches under a non-uniform sampling strategy $Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_n\}$ where $q_i$ is the probability of drawing example $i$ at each iteration. Typically, when the $n$ gradients $\nabla f_i$ have different Lipschitz constants $L_i$, the uniform distribution $Q$ yields complexities that depend on $L_Q = \max_i L_i$, whereas a non-uniform $Q$ may yield $L_Q = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i L_i$. For strongly convex problems, we propose approaches with the following worst-case iteration complexity for minimizing (3)—that is, the number of iterations to guarantee $\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \varepsilon$—is upper bounded by

$$O \left( \left( n + \frac{L_Q}{\mu} \right) \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right) + O \left( \frac{\rho_Q \tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu \varepsilon} \right),$$

where $L_Q = \max_i L_i/(q_i n)$ and $\rho_Q = 1/(n \min_i q_i) \geq 1$ (note that $\rho_Q = 1$ for uniform distributions). The term on the left corresponds to the complexity of the variance-reduction methods for a deterministic objective without perturbation, and $O(\tilde{\sigma}^2/\mu \varepsilon)$ is the optimal sublinear rate of convergence for a stochastic optimization problem when
the gradient estimates have variance $\tilde{\sigma}^2$. In contrast, a variant of stochastic gradient descent for composite optimization applied to (3) has worst-case complexity $O(\sigma^2/\mu\varepsilon)$, with potentially $\sigma^2 \gg \tilde{\sigma}^2$. Note that the non-uniform sampling strategy potentially reduces $L_Q$ and improves the left part, whereas it increases $\rho_Q$ and degrades the dependency on the noise $\tilde{\sigma}^2$. Whereas non-uniform sampling strategies for incremental methods are now classical (Xiao and Zhang, 2014; Schmidt et al., 2015), the robustness to stochastic perturbations has not been studied for all these methods and existing approaches such as (Hofmann et al., 2015; Bietti and Mairal, 2017; Zheng and Kwok, 2018) have various limitations as discussed earlier.

- We show that our construction of estimate sequence naturally leads to an accelerated stochastic gradient method for composite optimization as (Ghadimi and Lan, 2012, 2013; Hu et al., 2009), but simpler as our approach requires to maintain two sequences of iterates instead of three. The resulting complexity in terms of gradient evaluations for $\mu$-strongly convex objectives is

$$O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right) + O \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu\varepsilon} \right),$$

which has also been achieved by Ghadimi and Lan (2013); Aybat et al. (2019); Cohen et al. (2018). When the objective is convex, but non-strongly convex, we also provide a sublinear convergence rate for finite horizon. Given a budget of $K$ iterations, the algorithm returns an iterate $x_K$ such that

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_K) - F^*] \leq \frac{2L\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{(K+1)^2} + \sigma \sqrt{\frac{8\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{K+1}},$$

which is also optimal for stochastic first-order optimization (Ghadimi and Lan, 2012).

- We design a new accelerated algorithm for finite sums based on the SVRG gradient estimator, with complexity, for $\mu$-strongly convex functions,

$$O \left( \left( n + \sqrt{n \frac{L_Q}{\mu}} \right) \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right) + O \left( \frac{\rho_Q \tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu\varepsilon} \right),$$

where the term on the left is the classical optimal complexity for deterministic finite sums, which has been well studied when $\tilde{\sigma}^2 = 0$ (Arjevani and Shamir, 2016; Allen-Zhu, 2017; Zhou et al., 2018; Zhou, 2019; Kovalev et al., 2020). To the best of our knowledge, our algorithm is nevertheless the first to achieve such a complexity when $\tilde{\sigma}^2 > 0$. Most related to our work, the general case $\tilde{\sigma}^2 > 0$ was indeed considered recently by Lan and Zhou (2018b) in the context of distributed optimization, with an approach that was shown to be optimal in terms of communication rounds. Yet, when applied in the same context as ours (in a non-distributed setting), the complexity they achieve is suboptimal. Specifically, their dependence in $\tilde{\sigma}^2$ involves an additional logarithmic factor $O(\log(1/\mu\varepsilon))$ and the deterministic part is sublinear in $O(1/\varepsilon)$. 

4
When the problem is convex but not strongly convex, given a budget of $K$ greater than $O(n \log(n))$, the algorithm returns a solution $x_K$ such that

$$
E[F(x_K) - F^*] \leq \frac{18nLQ\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{(K + 1)^2} + 9\tilde{\sigma}\|x_0 - x^*\|\sqrt{\frac{\rho Q}{K + 1}},
$$

where the term on the right is potentially better than (4) for large $K$ when $\tilde{\sigma} \ll \sigma$ (see discussion above on full variance vs. variance due to stochastic perturbations).

When the objective is deterministic ($\tilde{\sigma} = 0$), the term (6) yields the complexity $O(\sqrt{nLQ}/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$, which is potentially better than the $O(n\sqrt{L}/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ complexity of accelerated gradient descent, unless $L$ is significantly smaller than $L_Q$.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the proposed framework based on stochastic estimate sequences; Section 3 is devoted to the convergence analysis and Section 4 introduces accelerated stochastic optimization algorithms; Section 5 presents various experiments to compare the effectiveness of the proposed approaches, and Section 6 concludes the paper.

We note that a short version of this paper was presented by (Kulunchakov and Mairal, 2019a) at the International Conference on Machine Learning (ICML) in 2019. This paper extends this previous work by (i) providing complexity results for convex but not strongly convex objectives ($\mu = 0$), (ii) extending the framework to variants of MISO/Finito/SDCA algorithms, in the context of non-accelerated incremental methods, (iii) providing more experiments with additional baselines and objective functions.

2. Proposed Framework Based on Stochastic Estimate Sequences

In this section, we present two generic stochastic optimization algorithms to address the composite problem (1). Then, we show their relation to variance-reduction methods.

2.1 A Classical Iteration Revisited

Consider an algorithm that performs the following updates:

$$
x_k \leftarrow \text{Prox}_{\eta_k \psi}[x_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k] \quad \text{with} \quad E[g_k|\mathcal{F}_{k-1}] = \nabla f(x_{k-1}),
$$

where $\mathcal{F}_{k-1}$ is the filtration representing all information up to iteration $k-1$, $g_k$ is an unbiased estimate of the gradient $\nabla f(x_{k-1})$, $\eta_k > 0$ is a step size, and $\text{Prox}_{\eta \psi}[.]$ is the proximal operator (Moreau, 1962) defined for any scalar $\eta > 0$ as the unique solution of

$$
\text{Prox}_{\eta \psi}[u] := \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ \eta \psi(x) + \frac{1}{2}\|x - u\|^2 \right\}.
$$

The iteration (A) is generic and encompasses many existing algorithms, which we review later. Key to our analysis, we are interested in a simple interpretation corresponding to the iterative minimization of strongly convex surrogate functions.
Interpretation with stochastic estimate sequence. Consider now the function

$$d_0(x) = d_0^* + \frac{\gamma_0}{2}\|x - x_0\|^2,$$  \hspace{1cm} (8)

with $\gamma_0 \geq \mu$ and $d_0^*$ is a scalar value that is left unspecified at the moment. Then, it is easy to show that $x_k$ in (A) minimizes the following quadratic function $d_k$ defined for $k \geq 1$ as

$$d_k(x) = (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}(x) + \delta_k \left( f(x_{k-1}) + g_k^\top(x - x_{k-1}) + \mu \frac{1}{2}\|x - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top(x - x_k) \right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (9)

where $\delta_k, \gamma_k$ satisfy the system of equations

$$\delta_k = \eta_k \gamma_k \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1} + \mu \delta_k,$$  \hspace{1cm} (10)

and

$$\psi'(x_k) = \frac{1}{\eta_k} (x_{k-1} - x_k) - g_k.$$

We note that $\psi'(x_k)$ is a subgradient in $\partial \psi(x_k)$. By simply using the definition of the proximal operator (7) and considering first-order optimality conditions, we indeed have that $0 \in x_k - x_{k-1} + \eta_k g_k + \eta_k \partial \psi(x_k)$ and $x_k$ coincides with the minimizer of $d_k$. This allows us to write $d_k$ in the generic form

$$d_k(x) = d_k^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2}\|x - x_k\|^2 \quad \text{for all } k \geq 0.$$

The construction (9) is akin to that of estimate sequences introduced by Nesterov (2004), which are typically used for designing accelerated gradient-based optimization algorithms. In this section, we are however not interested in acceleration, but instead in stochastic optimization and variance reduction. One of the main property of estimate sequences that we will use is their ability to behave asymptotically as a lower bound of the objective function near the optimum. Indeed, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*)] \leq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}(x^*)] + \delta_k F^* \leq \Gamma_k d_0(x^*) + (1 - \Gamma_k)F^*,$$  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where $\Gamma_k = \prod_{t=1}^k (1 - \delta_t)$ and $F^* = F(x^*)$. The first inequality comes from a strong convexity inequality since $\mathbb{E}[g_k^\top(x^* - x_{k-1})|F_{k-1}] = \nabla f(x_{k-1})^\top(x^* - x_{k-1})$, and the second inequality is obtained by unrolling the relation obtained between $\mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*)]$ and $\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}(x^*)]$. When $\Gamma_k$ converges to zero, the contribution of the initial surrogate $d_0$ disappears and $\mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*)]$ behaves as a lower bound of $F^*$.

Relation with existing algorithms. The iteration (A) encompasses many approaches such as ISTA (proximal gradient descent), which uses the exact gradient $g_k = \nabla f(x_{k-1})$ leading to deterministic iterates $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$ (Beck and Teboulle, 2009; Nesterov, 2013) or proximal variants of the stochastic gradient descent method to deal with a composite objective (see Lan, 2012, for instance). Of interest for us, the variance-reduced stochastic optimization approaches SVRG (Xiao and Zhang, 2014) and SAGA (Defazio et al., 2014a) also follow
the iteration (A) but with an unbiased gradient estimator whose variance reduces over time. Specifically, the basic form of these estimators is

$$g_k = \nabla f_{i_k}(x_{k-1}) - z_{k-1}^i + \tilde{z}_{k-1}$$ with $\tilde{z}_{k-1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{k-1}^i,$

(12)

where $i_k$ is an index chosen uniformly in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ at random, and each auxiliary variable $z_{k}^i$ is equal to the gradient $\nabla f_i(x_{k}^i)$, where $x_{k}^i$ is one of the previous iterates. The motivation is that given two random variables $X$ and $Y$, it is possible to define a new variable $Z = X - Y + E[Y]$ which has the same expectation as $X$ but potentially a lower variance if $Y$ is positively correlated with $X$. SVRG and SAGA are two different approaches to build such positively correlated variables. SVRG uses the same anchor point $\tilde{x}_k^i = \tilde{x}_k$ for all $i$, where $\tilde{x}_k$ is updated every $m$ iterations. Typically, the memory cost of SVRG is that of storing the variable $\tilde{x}_k$ and the gradient $\tilde{z}_k = \nabla f(\tilde{x}_k)$, which is thus $O(p)$. On the other hand, SAGA updates only $z_{k}^i = \nabla f_{i_k}(x_{k-1})$ at iteration $k$, such that $z_{k}^i = z_{k-1}^i$ if $i \neq i_k$. Thus, SAGA requires storing $n$ gradients. While in general the overhead cost in memory is of order $O(np)$, it may be reduced to $O(n)$ when dealing with linear models in machine learning (see Defazio et al., 2014a). Note that variants with non-uniform sampling of the indices $i_k$ have been proposed by Xiao and Zhang (2014); Schmidt et al. (2015).

In order to make our proofs consistent for all considered incremental methods, we analyze a variant of SVRG with a randomized gradient updating schedule (Hofmann et al., 2015). Remarkably, this variant was recently used in a concurrent work (Kovalev et al., 2020) to get the accelerated rate when $\sigma^2 = 0$.

### 2.2 A Less Classical Iteration with a Different Estimate Sequence

In the previous section, we have interpreted the classical iteration (A) as the iterative minimization of the stochastic surrogate (9). Here, we show that a slightly different construction leads to a new algorithm. To obtain a lower bound, we have indeed used basic properties of the proximal operator to obtain a subgradient $\psi'(x_k)$ and we have exploited the following convexity inequality $\psi(x) \geq \psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (x - x_k)$. Another natural choice to build a lower bound consists then of using directly $\psi(x)$ instead of $\psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (x - x_k)$, leading to the construction

$$d_k(x) = (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}(x) + \delta_k \left( f(x_{k-1}) + g_k^\top (x - x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x) \right),$$

(13)

where $x_{k-1}$ is assumed to be the minimizer of the composite function $d_{k-1}$, $\delta_k$ is defined as in Section 2.1, and $x_k$ is a minimizer of $d_k$. To initialize the recursion, we define then $d_0$ as

$$d_0(x) = c_0 + \frac{70}{2} \|x - \bar{x}_0\|^2 + \psi(x) \geq d_0^* + \frac{70}{2} \|x - x_0\|^2,$$

with $x_0 = \text{Prox}_{\psi/\gamma_0}[\bar{x}_0]$ is the minimizer of $d_0$ and $d_0^* = d_0(x_0) = c_0 + \frac{70}{2} \|x_0 - \bar{x}_0\|^2 + \psi(x_0)$ is the minimum value of $d_0$; $c_0$ is left unspecified since it does not affect the algorithm. Typically, one may choose $\bar{x}_0$ to be a minimizer of $\psi$ such that $x_0 = \bar{x}_0$. Unlike in the previous section, the surrogates $d_k$ are not quadratic, but they remain $\gamma_k$-strongly convex. It is also easy to check that the relation (11) still holds.
The corresponding algorithm. It is also relatively easy to show that the iterative minimization of the stochastic lower bounds (13) leads to the following iterations

\[ x_k \leftarrow (1-\mu_k)\hat{x}_{k-1} + \mu_k x_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k \text{ and } x_k = \text{Prox}_{\nabla \psi} \left[ \frac{x_k}{\eta_k} \right] \text{ with } \mathbb{E}[g_k|\mathcal{F}_{k-1}] = \nabla f(x_{k-1}). \] (B)

As we will see, the convergence analysis for algorithm (A) also holds for algorithm (B) such that both variants enjoy similar theoretical properties. In one case, the function \( \psi(x) \) appears explicitly, whereas a lower bound \( \psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)\frac{x}{x_k} \) is used in the other case. The introduction of the variable \( x_k \) allows us to write the surrogates \( d_k \) in the canonical form

\[ d_k(x) = c_k + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \| x - x_k \|^2 + \psi(x) \geq d_k^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \| x - x_k \|^2, \]

where \( c_k \) is constant and the inequality on the right is due to the strong convexity of \( d_k \).

Relation to existing approaches. The approach (B) is related to several optimization methods. When the objective is a deterministic finite sum, it is possible to relate the update (B) to the MISO (Mairal, 2015), and Finito (Defazio et al., 2014b) algorithms, even though they were derived from a significantly different point of view. This is also the case of a primal variant of SDCA (Shalev-Shwartz, 2016) For instance, SDCA is a dual coordinate ascent approach, whereas MISO and Finito are explicitly derived from the iterative surrogate minimization we adopt in this paper. As the links between (B) and these previous approaches are not obvious at first sight, we detail them in Appendix B.

2.3 Gradient Estimators and Algorithms

In this paper, we consider the iterations (A) and (B) with the following gradient estimators.

- exact gradient with \( g_k = \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \), when the problem is deterministic and we have an access to the full gradient;

- stochastic gradient, when we just assume that \( g_k \) has bounded variance. When \( f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\hat{f}(x, \xi)] \), a data point \( \xi_k \) is drawn at iteration \( k \) and \( g_k = \nabla \hat{f}(x, \xi_k) \).

- random-SVRG: for finite sums, we consider a variant of the SVRG gradient estimator with non-uniform sampling and a random update of the anchor point \( x_{k-1} \), proposed originally by Hofmann et al. (2015). Specifically, \( g_k \) is also an unbiased estimator of \( \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \), defined as

\[ g_k = \frac{1}{q_{ik}} \left( \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \hat{z}_{k-1} \right) + \hat{z}_{k-1}, \] (14)

where \( i_k \) is sampled from a distribution \( Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_n\} \) and \( \tilde{\nabla} \) denotes that the gradient is perturbed by a zero-mean noise variable with variance \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \). More precisely, if \( f_i(x) = \mathbb{E}_\rho[\hat{f}_i(x, \rho)] \) for all \( i \), where \( \rho \) is a stochastic perturbation, instead of accessing \( \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) \), we draw a perturbation \( \rho_k \) and observe

\[ \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) = \nabla \hat{f}_{ik}(x_{k-1}, \rho_k) = \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) + \nabla \hat{f}_{ik}(x_{k-1}, \rho_k) - \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}). \]
where the perturbation $\zeta_k$ has zero mean given $F_{k-1}$ and its variance is bounded by $\bar{\sigma}^2$. When there is no perturbation, we simply have $\tilde{\nabla} = \nabla$ and $\zeta_k = 0$.

Then, the variables $z_i^k$ and $\bar{z}_k$ also involve noisy estimates of the gradients:

$$z_i^k = \tilde{\nabla}f_i(\tilde{x}_k) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^k;$$

where $\tilde{x}_k$ is an anchor point that is updated on average every $n$ iterations. Whereas the classical SVRG approach (Xiao and Zhang, 2014) updates $\tilde{x}_k$ on a fixed schedule, we perform random updates: with probability $1/n$, we choose $\tilde{x}_k = x_k$ and recompute $\bar{z}_k = \tilde{\nabla}f(\tilde{x}_k)$; otherwise $\tilde{x}_k$ is kept unchanged. In comparison with the fixed schedule, the analysis with the random one is simplified and can be unified with that of SAGA/SDCA or MISO. The use of this estimator with iteration (A) is illustrated in Algorithm 1. It is then easy to modify it to use variant (B) instead.

In terms of memory, the random-SVRG gradient estimator requires to store an anchor point $\tilde{x}_k^{-1}$ and the average gradients $\bar{z}_k^{-1}$. The variables $z_i^k$ do not need to be stored; only the $n$ random seeds to produce the perturbations are kept into memory, which allows us to compute $z_i^k = \tilde{\nabla}f_i(\tilde{x}_k)$ at iteration $k$, with the same perturbation for index $i$ that was used to compute $\bar{z}_k^{-1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^k$ when the anchor point was last updated. The overall cost is thus $O(n + p)$.

**Algorithm 1** Variant (A) with random-SVRG estimator

1: **Input:** $x_0$ in $\mathbb{R}^p$; $K$ (number of iterations); $(\eta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ (step sizes); $\gamma_0 \geq \mu$ (if averaging);
2: **Initialization:** $\tilde{x}_0 = \hat{x}_0 = x_0$; $\bar{z}_0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\nabla}f_i(\tilde{x}_0)$;
3: for $k = 1, \ldots, K$ do
4: Sample $i_k$ according to the distribution $Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_n\}$;
5: Compute the gradient estimator, possibly corrupted by random perturbations:

$$g_k = \frac{1}{q_{i_k}n} \left( \tilde{\nabla}f_{i_k}(x_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla}f_{i_k}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right) + \bar{z}_{k-1};$$

6: Obtain the new iterate $x_k \leftarrow \text{Prox}_{\eta_k \psi}[x_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k]$;
7: With probability $1/n$,

$$\tilde{x}_k = x_k \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\nabla}f_i(\tilde{x}_k);$$

8: Otherwise, with probability $1 - 1/n$, keep $\tilde{x}_k = \tilde{x}_{k-1}$ and $\bar{z}_k = \bar{z}_{k-1}$;
9: **Optional:** Use the online averaging strategy using $\delta_k$ obtained from (10):

$$\hat{x}_k = (1 - \tau_k)\tilde{x}_{k-1} + \tau_k x_k \quad \text{with} \quad \tau_k = \min \left( \delta_k, \frac{1}{5n} \right);$$

10: **end for**
11: **Output:** $x_K$ or $\hat{x}_K$ if averaging.
• **SAGA**: The estimator has a form similar to (14) but with a different choice of variables $z_i^k$. Unlike SVRG that stores an anchor point $\tilde{x}_k$, the SAGA estimator requires storing and incrementally updating the $n$ auxiliary variables $z_i^k$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$, while maintaining the relation $\bar{z}_k = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^k$. We consider variants such that each time a gradient $\nabla f_i(x)$ is computed, it is corrupted by a zero-mean random perturbation with variance $\tilde{\sigma}^2$. The procedure is described in Algorithm 2 for variant (A) when using uniform sampling. When $\beta = 0$, we recover the original SAGA algorithm, whereas the choice $\beta > 0$ corresponds to a more general estimator that we will discuss next.

The case with non-uniform sampling is slightly different and is described in Algorithm 3; it requires an additional index $j_k$ for updating a variable $z_{j_k}^k$. The reason for that is to remove a difficulty in the convergence proof, a strategy also adopted by Schmidt et al. (2015) for a variant of SAGA with non-uniform sampling.

• **SDCA/MISO**: To put SAGA, MISO and SDCA under the same umbrella, we introduce a lower bound $\beta$ on the strong convexity constant $\mu$, and a correcting term involving $\beta$ that appears only when the sampling distribution $Q$ is not uniform:

$$g_k = \frac{1}{q_i^k n} \left( \nabla f_i^k(x_{k-1}) - z_{i_k}^k \right) + \bar{z}_{k-1} + \beta \left( 1 - \frac{1}{q_i^k n} \right) x_{k-1}. \tag{15}$$

It is then possible to show that when $Q$ is uniform and under the big data condition $L/\mu \leq n$ (used for instance by Mairal 2015; Defazio et al. 2014b; Schmidt et al. 2017) and with $\beta = \mu$, variant (B) combined with the estimator (15) yields the MISO algorithm, which performs similar updates as a primal variant of SDCA (Shalev-Shwartz, 2016). These links are highlighted in Appendix B.

The motivation for introducing the parameter $\beta$ in $[0, \mu]$ comes from empirical risk minimization problems, where the functions $f_i$ may have the form $f_i(x) = \phi(a_i^T x) + \frac{\beta}{2} \|x\|^2$, where $a_i$ in $\mathbb{R}^p$ is a data point; then, $\beta$ is a lower bound on the strong convexity modulus $\mu$, and $\nabla f_i(x) - \beta x$ is proportional to $a_i$ and can be stored with a single additional scalar value, assuming $a_i$ is already in memory.

**Summary of the new features.** As we combine different types of iterations and gradient estimators, we recover both known and new algorithms. Specifically, we obtain the following new features:

- **robustness to noise**: we introduce mechanisms to deal with stochastic perturbations and make all these previous approaches robust to noise.

- **adaptivity to the strong convexity when $\tilde{\sigma} = 0$**: Algorithms 1, 2, and 3 without averaging do not require knowing the strong convexity constant $\mu$ (it may only need a lower-bound $\beta$, which is often trivial to obtain).

- **new variants**: Whereas SVRG/SAGA were developed with the iterations (A) and MISO in the context of (B), we show that these gradient estimators are both compatible with (A) and (B), leading to new algorithms with similar guarantees.
3. Convergence Analysis and Robustness

We now present the convergence analysis for iterations (A) or (B). In Section 3.1, we present a generic convergence result. Then, in Section 3.2, we present specific results for the
variance-reduction approaches in including strategies to make them robust to stochastic noise. Acceleration is discussed in the next section.

3.1 Generic Convergence Result Without Variance Reduction

Key to our complexity results, the following proposition gives a first relation between the quantity $F(x_k)$, the surrogate $d_k$, $d_{k-1}$ and the variance of the gradient estimates.

**Proposition 1 (Key relation)** For either variant (A) or (B), when using the construction of $d_k$ from Sections 2.1 or 2.2, respectively, and assuming $\eta_k \leq 1/L$, we have for all $k \geq 1$,

$$
\delta_k(\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] - F^*) + \mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*) - d_k^*] \leq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}(x^*) - d_{k-1}^*] + \eta_k \delta_k \omega_k^2,
$$

where $F^*$ is the minimum of $F$, $x^*$ is one of its minimizers, and $\omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E}[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_k-1)\|^2]$. 

**Proof** We first consider the variant (A) and later show how to modify the convergence proofs to accommodate the variant (B).

$$
d_k^* = d_k(x_k) = (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}(x_k) + \delta_k \left( f(x_{k-1}) + g_k^\top(x_k - x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) \right)
$$

$$
\geq (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \delta_k \left( f(x_{k-1}) + g_k^\top(x_k - x_{k-1}) + \psi(x_k) \right)
$$

$$
\geq (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}^* + \delta_k \left( f(x_{k-1}) + g_k^\top(x_k - x_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2}\|x_k - x_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) \right)
$$

$$
\geq (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}^* + \delta_k f(x_k) + \delta_k (g_k - \nabla f(x_k))^\top(x_k - x_{k-1}),
$$

where the first inequality comes from Lemma 24—it is in fact an equality when considering Algorithm (A)—and the second inequality simply uses the assumption $\eta_k \leq 1/L$, which yields $\delta_k = \gamma_k \eta_k \leq \gamma_k/L$. Finally, the last inequality uses a classical upper-bound for $L$-smooth functions presented in Lemma 22. Then, after taking expectations,

$$
\mathbb{E}[d_k^*] \geq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[\langle g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \rangle^\top(x_k - x_{k-1})]
$$

$$
= (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[\langle g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \rangle^\top x_k]
$$

$$
= (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}\left[\langle g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \rangle^\top x_k - w_{k-1}\right],
$$

where we have defined the following quantity

$$
w_{k-1} = \text{Prox}_{\eta_k \psi}[x_{k-1} - \eta_k \nabla f(x_{k-1})].
$$

In the previous relations, we have used twice the fact that $\mathbb{E}[\langle (g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))^\top y | \mathcal{F}_{k-1} \rangle] = 0$, for all deterministic variable $y$ given $x_{k-1}$, such as $y = x_{k-1}$ or $y = w_{k-1}$. We may now use the non-expansiveness property of the proximal operator (Moreau, 1965) to control the quantity $\|x_k - w_{k-1}\|$, which gives us

$$
\mathbb{E}[d_k^*] \geq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] - \delta_k \mathbb{E}\left[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1})\| \|x_k - w_{k-1}\|\right]
$$

$$
\geq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] - \delta_k \eta_k \mathbb{E}\left[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1})\|^2\right]
$$

$$
= (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^*] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[f(x_k)] - \delta_k \eta_k \omega_k^2.
$$
This relation can now be combined with (11) when \( z = x^* \), and we obtain (16). It is also easy to see that the proof also works with variant (B). The convergence analysis is identical, except that we take \( w_{k-1} \) to be

\[
w_{k-1} = \text{Prox}_{\frac{\omega}{\gamma_k}} \left[ (1 - \mu \eta_k) \hat{x}_{k-1} + \mu \eta_k x_{k-1} - \eta_k \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \right],
\]

and the same result follows.

Then, without making further assumption on \( \omega_k \), we have the following general convergence result, which is a direct consequence of the averaging Lemma 30, inspired by Ghadimi and Lan (2012), and presented in Appendix A.3.

**Theorem 2 (General convergence result)** Under the same assumptions as in Proposition 1, we have for all \( k \geq 1 \), and either variant (A) or (B),

\[
E[\delta_k (F(x_k) - F^*) + d_k(x^*) - d_k^*] \leq \Gamma_k \left( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t \eta_t \omega_t^2}{\Gamma_t} \right),
\]

where \( \Gamma_k = \prod_{t=1}^{k} (1 - \delta_t) \). Then, by using the averaging strategy \( \hat{x}_k = (1 - \delta_k) \hat{x}_{k-1} + \delta_k x_k \) of Lemma 30, for any point \( \hat{x}_0 \) (possibly equal to \( x_0 \)), we have

\[
E \left[ F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + d_k(x^*) - d_k^* \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d_0^* + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t \eta_t \omega_t^2}{\Gamma_t} \right).
\]

Theorem 2 allows us to recover convergence rates for various algorithms. Note that the effect of the averaging strategy is to remove the factor \( \delta_k \) in front of \( F(x_k) - F^* \) on the left part of (17), thus improving the convergence rate by a factor \( 1/\delta_k \). Regarding the quantity \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* \), we have the following relations

- For variant (A), \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* = \frac{\gamma_0}{2} \| x^* - x_0 \|^2 \);

- For variant (B), this quantity may be larger and we may simply say that \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* = \frac{\gamma_0}{2} \| x^* - x_0 \|^2 + \psi(x^*) - \psi(x_0) - \psi'(x_0) \top (x_0 - x^*) \) for variant (B), where \( \psi'(x_0) = \gamma_0(x_0 - \bar{x}_0) \) is a subgradient in \( \partial \psi(x_0) \). Note that if \( \bar{x}_0 \) is chosen to be a minimizer of \( \psi \), then \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* = \frac{\gamma_0}{2} \| x^* - x_0 \|^2 + \psi(x^*) - \psi(x_0) \).

In the next section, we will focus on variance reduction mechanisms, which are able to improve the previous convergence rates by better exploiting the structure of the objective. By controlling the variance \( \omega_k \) of the corresponding gradient estimators, we will apply Theorem 2 to obtain convergence rates. Before that, we remark that it is relatively straightforward to use this theorem to recover complexity results for proximal SGD, both for the usual variant (A) or the new one (B). Since these results are classical, we present them in Appendix C. As a sanity check, we note that we recover the optimal noise-dependency (see Nemirovski et al., 2009), both for strongly convex cases, or when \( \mu = 0 \).
3.2 Faster Convergence with Variance Reduction

Stochastic variance-reduced gradient descent algorithms rely on gradient estimates whose
variance decreases as fast as the objective function value. Here, we provide a unified proof
of convergence for our variants of SVRG, SAGA, and MISO, and we show how to make
them robust to stochastic perturbations. Specifically, we consider the minimization of a
finite sum of functions as in (3), but, as explained in Section 2, each observation of the
gradient \( \nabla f_i(x) \) is corrupted by a random noise variable. The next proposition extends a
proof for SVRG (Xiao and Zhang, 2014) to stochastic perturbations, and characterizes the
variance of \( g_k \).

As we now consider finite sums, we introduce the quantity \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \), which is an upper-bound
on the noise variance due to stochastic perturbations for all \( x \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \) and for \( i \) in \{1, \ldots, n\}:

\[
E \left[ \| \tilde{\nabla} f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(x) \|^2 \right] \leq \tilde{\sigma}_i^2 \quad \text{with a related quantity } \tilde{\sigma}_i^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} \tilde{\sigma}_i^2,
\]

(19)

where the expectation is with respect to the gradient perturbation, and \( Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_n\} \)
is the sampling distribution. As having the variance to be bounded across the domain of \( x \)
may be a strong assumption, even though classical, we also introduce the quantity
\[
\tilde{\sigma}_{i,*}^2 = E \left[ \| \tilde{\nabla} f_i(x^*) - \nabla f_i(x^*) \|^2 \right] \quad \text{with a related quantity } \tilde{\sigma}_{i,*}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} \tilde{\sigma}_{i,*}^2,
\]

(20)

where \( x^* \) is a solution of the optimization problem. As we will show, in this section, our
complexity results for unaccelerated methods when \( \mu > 0 \) under the bounded variance
assumption \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 < +\infty \) will also hold when simply assuming \( \tilde{\sigma}_{i,*}^2 < +\infty \) at the cost of slightly
degrading the complexity by constant factors. The next proposition provides an upper-
bound on the variance of gradient estimators \( g_k \), which we have introduced earlier, as a first
step to use Theorem 2.

**Proposition 3 (Generic variance reduction with non-uniform sampling)**

Consider problem (1) when \( f \) is a finite sum of functions \( f = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \) where each \( f_i \) is
convex and \( L_i \)-smooth with \( L_i \geq \mu \). Then, the gradient estimates \( g_k \) of the random-SVRG
and MISO/SAGA/SDCA strategies defined in Section 2.3 satisfy

\[
E[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1})\|^2] \leq 4L_Q E[F(x_{k-1}) - F^*] + \frac{2}{n} E \left[ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n q_i} \| u_{k-1}^i - u^*_i \|^2 \right] + 3\rho_Q \tilde{\sigma}^2,
\]

(21)

where \( L_Q = \max_i L_i / (q_i n) \), \( \rho_Q = 1/(n \min_i q_i) \), and for all \( i \) and \( k \), \( u_{k-1}^i \) is equal to \( z_k^i \) without
noise—that is

\[
\begin{align*}
&u_{k-1}^i = \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}_k) \quad \text{for random-SVRG} \\
u_k^{i,j} = \nabla f_{j_k}(x_k) - \beta x_k \quad \text{and } \quad u_k^j = u_{k-1}^j \quad \text{if } \quad j \neq j_k \quad \text{for SAGA/MISO/SDCA},
\end{align*}
\]

and \( u^*_i = \nabla f_i(x^*) - \beta x^* \) (with \( \beta = 0 \) for random-SVRG).
If we additionally assume that each function \( f_i \) may be written as \( f_i(x) = E_x \left[ f_i(x, \xi) \right] \) where \( f_i(\cdot, \xi) \) is \( L_i \)-smooth with \( L_i \geq \mu \) for all \( \xi \), then

\[
E[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1})\|^2] \leq 16L_Q E[F(x_{k-1}) - F^*] + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{nq_i} \|u_{k-1}^i - u_k^i\|^2 + 6\rho_Q \sigma^2. \tag{22}
\]

In particular, choosing the uniform distribution \( q_i = 1/n \) gives \( L_Q = \max L_i \); choosing \( q_i = L_i / \sum_j L_j \) gives \( L_Q = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i L_i \), which may be significantly smaller than the maximum Lipschitz constant. We note that non-uniform sampling can significantly improve the dependency of the bound to the Lipschitz constants since the average \( \frac{1}{n} \sum_i L_i \) may be significantly smaller than the maximum \( \max_i L_i \), but it may worsen the dependency with the variance \( \sigma^2 \) since \( \rho_Q > 1 \) unless \( Q \) is the uniform distribution. The proof of the proposition is given in Appendix D.1.

For simplicity, we will present our complexity results in terms of \( \sigma^2 \). However, when the conditions for (22) are satisfied, it is easy to adapt all results of this section to replace \( \sigma^2 \) by \( \sigma^*_2 \), by paying a small price in terms of constant factors. Note that this substitution will not work for accelerated algorithms in the next section. The general convergence result is given next; it applies to both variants (A) and (B).

**Proposition 4 (Lyapunov function for variance-reduced algorithms)** Consider the same setting as Proposition 3. For either variant (A) or (B) with the random-SVRG or SAGA/SDCA/MISO gradient estimators defined in Section 2.3, when using the construction of \( d_k \) from Sections 2.1 or 2.2, respectively, and assuming \( \gamma_0 \geq \mu \) and \( (\eta_k)_{k \geq 0} \) is non-increasing with \( \eta_k \leq \frac{1}{12L_Q} \), we have for all \( k \geq 1 \),

\[
\frac{\delta_k}{6} E[F(x_k) - F^*] + T_k \leq (1 - \tau_k) T_{k-1} + 3\rho_Q \eta_k \delta_k \sigma^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \tau_k = \min \left( \delta_k, \frac{1}{5n} \right), \tag{23}
\]

where

\[
T_k = 5L_Q \eta_k \delta_k E[F(x_k) - F^*] + E[d_k(x^*) - d_k^*] + \frac{5\eta_k \delta_k}{2} E \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i} \|u_k^i - u_k^i\|^2 \right].
\]

The proof of the previous proposition is given in Appendix D.2. From the Lyapunov function, we obtain a general convergence result for the variance-reduced stochastic algorithms.

**Theorem 5 (Convergence of variance-reduced algorithms)** Consider the same setting as Proposition 4, which applies to both variants (A) and (B). Then, by using the averaging strategy of Lemma 30 with any point \( \hat{x}_0 \),

\[
E \left[ F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + \frac{6\rho_k T_k}{\delta_k} \right] \leq \Theta_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \frac{6\rho_k T_0}{\delta_k} + \frac{18\rho_Q \tau_k \sigma^2}{\delta_k} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \eta_t \delta_t \right), \tag{24}
\]

where \( \Theta_k = \prod_{t=1}^{k} (1 - \tau_t) \). Note that we also have

\[
T_0 \leq 10L_Q \eta_0 \delta_0 (F(x_0) - F^*) + d_0(x^*) - d_0^*.
\]
The proof is given in Appendix D.3. From this generic convergence theorem, we now study particular cases. The first corollary studies the strongly-convex case with constant step size.

**Corollary 6 (Variance-reduction, \( \mu > 0 \), constant step size independent of \( \mu \))**

Consider the same setting as in Theorem 5, where \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex, \( \gamma_0 = \mu \), and \( \eta_k = \frac{1}{12LQ} \). Then, for any point \( \hat{x}_0 \),

\[
E [F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + \alpha T_k] \leq \Theta_k (F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \alpha T_0) + \frac{3\rho Q \sigma^2}{2LQ} \tag{26}
\]

with \( \tau = \min \left( \frac{\mu}{12LQ}, \frac{1}{5\mu} \right) \), \( \Theta_k = (1 - \tau)^k \), and \( \alpha = 6 \min \left( 1, \frac{12LQ}{5\mu} \right) \). Note that \( T_k \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_k - x^*\|^2 \) and for Algorithm (A), we also have \( T_0 \leq (13/12)(F(x_0) - F^*) \).

The proof is given in Appendix D.4. This corollary shows that the algorithm achieves a linear convergence rate to a noise-dominated region and produces converging iterates \((x_k)_{k \geq 0}\) that do not require to know the strong convexity constant \( \mu \). It shows that all estimators we consider can become adaptive to \( \mu \). Note that the non-uniform strategy slightly degrades the dependency in \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \): indeed, \( L_Q / \rho_Q = \max_{i=1} L_i \) if \( Q \) is uniform, but if \( q_i = \max_i L_i / \sum_j L_j \), we have instead \( L_Q / \rho_Q = \min_{i=1} L_i \). The next corollary shows that a slightly better noise dependency can be achieved when the step sizes rely on \( \mu \).

**Corollary 7 (Variance-reduction, \( \mu > 0 \), constant step size depending on \( \mu \))**

Consider the same setting as Theorem 5, where \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex, \( \gamma_0 = \mu \), and \( \eta_k = \eta = \min \left( \frac{1}{12LQ}, \frac{1}{5\mu m} \right) \). Then, for all \( \hat{x}_0 \),

\[
E [F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + 6T_k] \leq \Theta_k (F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + 6T_0) + 18\rho_Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2. \tag{27}
\]

The proof follows similar steps as the proof of Corollary 6. after noting that we have \( \delta_k = \tau_k \) for all \( k \) for this particular choice of step size. We are now in shape to study a converging algorithm.

**Corollary 8 (Variance-reduction, \( \mu > 0 \), decreasing step sizes)**

Consider the same setting as Theorem 5, where \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex and target an accuracy \( \varepsilon \leq 24\rho_Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \), with \( \eta = \min \left( \frac{1}{12LQ}, \frac{1}{5\mu m} \right) \). Then, we use the constant step-size strategy of Corollary 7 with \( \hat{x}_0 = x_0 \), and stop the optimization when we find points \( \hat{x}_k \) and \( x_k \) such that \( E[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + 6T_k] \leq 24\rho_Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \). Then, we restart the optimization procedure with decreasing step-sizes \( \eta_k = \min \left( \frac{1}{12LQ}, \frac{1}{5\mu m}, \frac{2}{\mu(k+2)} \right) \) and generate a new sequence \((\hat{x}_k')_{k \geq 0}\). The resulting number of gradient evaluations to achieve \( E[F(\hat{x}_k') - F^*] \leq \varepsilon \) is upper bounded by

\[
O \left( n + \frac{LQ}{\mu} \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d_0^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right) + O \left( \frac{\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu \varepsilon} \right). \tag{28}
\]

Note that \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* \leq F(x_0) - F^* \) for variant (A).
The proof is given in Appendix D.5 and shows that variance-reduction algorithms may exhibit an optimal dependency on the noise level $\tilde{\sigma}^2$ when the objective is strongly convex. Next, we analyze the complexity of variant (A) when $\mu = 0$. Note that it is possible to conduct a similar analysis for variant (B), which exhibits a slightly worse complexity (as the corresponding quantity $d_0(x^*) - d_0$ is larger).

**Corollary 9 (Variance-reduced algorithms with constant step-size, $\mu = 0$)**

Consider the same setting as Theorem 5, where $f$ is convex and proceed in two steps. First, run one iteration of (A) with step-size $\frac{1}{12LQ}$ with the gradient estimator $\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{\nabla} f_i(x_0)$. Second, use the resulting point to initialize the variant (A) with the random-SVRG or SAGA/SDCA/MISO gradient estimators, with a constant step size $\eta \leq \frac{1}{12LQ}$, $\gamma_0 = \frac{1}{\eta}$, for a total of $K \geq 5n \log(5n)$ iterations. Then,

$$\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_K) - F^*) \leq \frac{9n}{\eta(K+1)}\|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + 36\eta\tilde{\sigma}^2\rho_Q.$$ 

If in addition we choose $\eta = \min \left( \frac{1}{12LQ}, \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|}{2\tilde{\sigma} \sqrt{n \rho_Q(K+1)}} \right)$,

$$\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_K) - F^*) \leq \frac{108nLQ}{(K+1)}\|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + 36\tilde{\sigma}\|x_0 - x^*\|\sqrt{\frac{\rho_Q n}{K+1}}.$$ (28)

The proof is provided in Appendix D.6. The second part of the corollary is not a practical result since the optimal step size depends on unknown quantities such as $\tilde{\sigma}^2$, but it allows us to highlight the best possible dependence between the budget of iterations $K$, the initial point $x_0$, and the noise $\tilde{\sigma}^2$. We will show in the next section that acceleration is useful to improve the previous complexity.

### 4. Accelerated Stochastic Algorithms

We now consider the following iteration, involving an extrapolation sequence $(y_k)_{k \geq 1}$, which is a classical mechanism from accelerated first-order algorithms (Beck and Teboulle, 2009; Nesterov, 2013). Given a sequence of step-sizes $(\eta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ with $\eta_k \leq 1/L$ for all $k \geq 0$, and some parameter $\gamma_0 \geq \mu$, we consider the sequences $(\delta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and $(\gamma_k)_{k \geq 0}$ that satisfy

$$\delta_k = \sqrt{\eta_k \gamma_k} \quad \text{for all } k \geq 0$$

$$\gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k) \gamma_{k-1} + \delta_k \mu \quad \text{for all } k \geq 1.$$  

Then, for $k \geq 1$, we consider the iteration

$$x_k = \text{Prox}_{\eta_k \psi} [y_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k] \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbb{E}[g_k | F_{k-1}] = \nabla f(y_{k-1})$$

$$y_k = x_k + \beta_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \quad \text{with} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\delta_k (1 - \delta_k) \eta_{k+1}}{\eta_k \delta_{k+1} + \eta_{k+1} \delta^2_k},$$  

where with constant step size $\eta_k = 1/L$, we recover a classical extrapolation parameter of accelerated gradient based methods (Nesterov, 2004). Traditionally, estimate sequences are
used to analyze the convergence of accelerated algorithms. We show in this section how to proceed for stochastic composite optimization and later, we show how to directly accelerate the random-SVRG approach we have introduced. Note that Algorithm (C) resembles the approaches introduced by Hu et al. (2009); Ghadimi and Lan (2012) but is simpler since our approach involves a single extrapolation step.

4.1 Convergence Analysis Without Variance Reduction

Consider then the stochastic estimate sequence for $k \geq 1$

$$d_k(x) = (1 - \delta_k)d_{k-1}(x) + \delta_k l_k(x),$$

with $d_0$ defined as in (8) and

$$l_k(x) = f(y_{k-1}) + g_k^\top (x - y_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - y_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (x - x_k),$$

and $\psi'(x_k) = \frac{1}{\eta_k}(y_{k-1} - x_k) - g_k$ is in $\partial \psi(x_k)$ by definition of the proximal operator. As in Section 2, $d_k(x^*)$ asymptotically becomes a lower bound on $F^*$ since (11) remains satisfied. This time, the iterate $x_k$ does not minimize $d_k$, and we denote by $v_k$ instead its minimizer, allowing us to write $d_k$ in the canonical form

$$d_k(x) = d_k^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|x - v_k\|^2.$$  

The first lemma highlights classical relations between the iterates $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$, $(y_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and the minimizers of the estimate sequences $d_k$, which also appears in (Nesterov, 2004, p. 78) for constant step sizes $\eta_k$. The proof is given in Appendix D.5.

**Lemma 10 (Relations between $y_k$, $x_k$ and $d_k$)** The sequences $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and $(y_k)_{k \geq 0}$ produced by Algorithm (C) satisfy for all $k \geq 0$, with $v_0 = y_0 = x_0$,

$$y_k = (1 - \theta_k)x_k + \theta_k v_k \quad \text{with} \quad \theta_k = \frac{\delta_k \gamma_k}{\gamma_k + \delta_{k+1} \mu}.$$  

Then, the next lemma is key to prove the convergence of Algorithm (C). Its proof is given in Appendix D.8.

**Lemma 11 (Key lemma for stochastic estimate sequences with acceleration)** Assuming $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and $(y_k)_{k \geq 0}$ are given by Algorithm (C). Then, for all $k \geq 1$,

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] \leq \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] + \left( \frac{L \eta_k^2}{2} - \eta_k \right) \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_k\|^2] + \eta_k \omega_k^2,$$

with $\omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E}[\|\nabla f(y_{k-1}) - g_k\|^2]$ and $\tilde{g}_k = g_k + \psi'(x_k)$.

Finally, we obtain the following convergence result.

**Theorem 12 (Accelerated stochastic optimization algorithm)** Under the assumptions of Lemma 10, we have for all $k \geq 1$,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ F(x_k) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|v_k - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_0}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_t \omega_t^2}{\Gamma_t} \right),$$

where, as before, $\Gamma_t = \sum_{i=1}^{t}(1 - \delta_i)$. 

18
Proof First, the minimizer $v_k$ of the quadratic surrogate $d_k$ may be written as
\[ v_k = \frac{1 - \delta_k}{\gamma_k} y_{k-1} v_{k-1} + \frac{\mu \delta_k}{\gamma_k} y_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k} \bar{g}_k = y_{k-1} + \frac{1 - \delta_k}{\gamma_k} (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) - \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k} \bar{g}_k. \]
Then, we characterize the quantity $d^*_k$:
\[
d^*_k = d_k(y_{k-1}) - \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|v_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 = (1 - \delta_k) d_{k-1}(y_{k-1}) + \delta_k l_k(y_{k-1}) - \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|v_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 = (1 - \delta_k) d^*_{k-1} + \left( \frac{\gamma_k(1 - \delta_k)(\gamma_k - (1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1})}{2\gamma_k} \right) \|y_{k-1} - v_{k-1}\|^2 + \delta_k l_k(y_{k-1}) - \delta_k \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 - \frac{\delta_k^2}{\gamma_k} \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k} \bar{g}_k^\top (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \geq (1 - \delta_k) d^*_{k-1} + \delta_k l_k(y_{k-1}) - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k} \bar{g}_k^\top (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}).
\]
Assuming by induction that $\mathbb{E}[d^*_{k-1}] \geq \mathbb{E}[F(x_{k-1})] - \xi_{k-1}$ for some $\xi_{k-1} \geq 0$, we have after taking expectation
\[
\mathbb{E}[d^*_k] \geq (1 - \delta_k)(\mathbb{E}[F(x_{k-1})] - \xi_{k-1}) + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2] + \frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\bar{g}_k^\top (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1})].
\]
Then, note that $\mathbb{E}[F(x_{k-1})] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(x_{k-1})] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] + \mathbb{E}[\bar{g}_k^\top (x_{k-1} - y_{k-1})]$, and
\[
\mathbb{E}[d^*_k] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2] + (1 - \delta_k) \mathbb{E}\left[ \bar{g}_k^\top \left( \frac{\delta_k\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k} (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) + (x_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \right) \right].
\]
By Lemma 10, we can show that the last term is equal to zero, and we are left with
\[
\mathbb{E}[d^*_k] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2].
\]
We may then use Lemma 11, which gives us
\[
\mathbb{E}[d^*_k] \geq \mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] - (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1} - \eta_k \omega_k^2 + \left( \eta_k - \frac{L\eta_k}{2} - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \right) \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2] \geq \mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] - \xi_k \quad \text{with} \quad \xi_k = (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1} + \eta_k \omega_k^2,
\]
where we used the fact that $\eta_k \leq 1/L$ and $\delta_k = \sqrt{\gamma_k} \eta_k$.

It remains to choose $d^*_0 = F(x_0)$ and $\xi_0 = 0$ to initialize the induction at $k = 0$ and we conclude that
\[
\mathbb{E}\left[ F(x_k) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|v_k - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*) - F^*] + \xi_k \leq \Gamma_k(d_0(x^*) - F^*) + \xi_k,
\]
which gives us (30) when noticing that \( \xi_k = \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{m \omega^2}{t} \).

Next, we specialize the theorem to various practical cases. For the corollaries below, we assume the variances \( (\omega^2_k)_{k \geq 1} \) to be upper bounded by \( \sigma^2 \).

**Corollary 13 (Proximal accelerated SGD with constant step-size, \( \mu > 0 \))** Assume that \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex, and choose \( \gamma_0 = \mu \) and \( \eta_k = 1/L \) with Algorithm (C). Then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}\right)^k \left(F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2}\|x_0 - x^*\|^2\right) + \frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}}. \tag{31}
\]

We now show that with decreasing step sizes, we obtain an algorithm with optimal complexity similar to (Ghadimi and Lan, 2013).

**Corollary 14 (Proximal accelerated SGD with decreasing step-sizes and \( \mu > 0 \))** Assume that \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex and that we target an accuracy \( \varepsilon \) smaller than \( 2\sigma^2/\sqrt{\mu L} \). First, use a constant step-size \( \eta_k = 1/L \) with \( \gamma_0 = \mu \) within Algorithm (C), leading to the convergence rate (31), until \( \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq 2\sigma^2/\sqrt{\mu L} \). Then, we restart the optimization procedure with decreasing step-sizes \( \eta_k = \min\left(\frac{1}{L}, \frac{4}{\mu(k+2)^2}\right) \) and generate a new sequence \( (\hat{x}_k)_{k \geq 0} \). The resulting number of gradient evaluations to achieve \( \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \varepsilon \) is upper bounded by

\[
O\left(\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu} \log \left(\frac{F(x_0) - F^*)}{\varepsilon}\right)}\right) + O\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon}\right).
\]

The proof is provided in Appendix D.9. We note that despite the “optimal” theoretical complexity, we have observed that Algorithm (C) with the parameters of Corollaries 13 and 14 could be relatively unstable, as shown in Section 5, due to the large radius \( \sigma^2/\sqrt{\mu L} \) of the noise region. When \( \mu \) is small, such a quantity may be indeed arbitrarily larger than \( F(x_0) - F^* \). Instead, we have found a minibatch strategy to be more effective in practice. When using a minibatch of size \( b = [L/\mu] \), the theoretical complexity becomes the same as SGD, given in Corollary 32, but the algorithm enjoys the benefits of easy parallelization.

**Corollary 15 (Proximal accelerated SGD with \( \mu = 0 \))** Assume that \( f \) is convex. Consider a step-size \( \eta \leq 1/L \) and run one iteration of Algorithm (A) with a stochastic gradient estimate. Use the resulting point to initialize Algorithm (C) still with constant step size \( \eta \), and choose \( \gamma_0 = 1/\eta \). Then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \frac{2\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{(1+K)^2} + \sigma^2 \eta (K + 1)
\]

If in addition we choose \( \eta = \min\left(\frac{1}{L}, \sqrt{\frac{2\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{\sigma^2}} \frac{1}{(K+1)^{3/2}}\right) \), then

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \frac{2L\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{(1+K)^2} + 2\|x_0 - x^*\|\sigma \sqrt{\frac{2}{1+K}}. \tag{32}
\]

The proof is given in Appendix D.10. These convergence results are relatively similar to those obtained in (Ghadimi and Lan, 2013) for a different algorithm and is optimal for convex functions.
Algorithm 4 Accelerated algorithm with random-SVRG estimator

1: **Input:** \( x_0 \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \) (initial point); \( K \) (number of iterations); \( (\eta_k)_{k\geq0} \) (step sizes); \( \gamma_0 \geq \mu; 
2: **Initialization:** \( \tilde{x}_0 = v_0 = x_0; \tilde{z}_0 = \nabla f(x_0); 
3: for \( k = 1, \ldots, K \) do 
4: Find \((\delta_k, \gamma_k)\) such that \( \gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1} + \delta_k\mu \) and \( \delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{5\eta_k\gamma_k}{3n}}; 
5: Choose \( y_{k-1} = \theta_k v_{k-1} + (1 - \theta_k)\tilde{x}_{k-1} \) with \( \theta_k = \frac{3n\delta_k - 5\mu\eta_k}{3 - 5\mu\eta_k}; 
6: Sample \( i_k \) according to the distribution \( Q = \{q_1, \ldots, q_n\}; 
7: Compute the gradient estimator, possibly corrupted by stochastic perturbations: 
   \( g_k = \frac{1}{q_k \gamma_k} \left( \tilde{\nabla} f_{i_k}(y_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{i_k}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right) + \tilde{z}_{k-1}; 
8: Obtain the new iterate \( x_k \leftarrow \text{Prox}_{\eta_k\psi}[y_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k]; 
9: Find the minimizer \( v_k \) of the estimate sequence \( d_k \): 
   \( v_k = \left( 1 - \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k} \right) v_{k-1} + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k} y_{k-1} + \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k \eta_k} (x_k - y_{k-1}); 
10: With probability \( 1/n \), update the anchor point 
    \( \tilde{x}_k = x_k \) and \( \tilde{z}_k = \tilde{\nabla} f(\tilde{x}_k); 
11: Otherwise, keep the anchor point unchanged \( \tilde{x}_k = \tilde{x}_{k-1} \) and \( \tilde{z}_k = \tilde{z}_{k-1}; 
12: end for 
13: **Output:** \( x_K \).

4.2 An Accelerated Algorithm with Variance Reduction

In this section, we show how to combine the previous methodology with variance reduction, and introduce Algorithm 4 based on random-SVRG. Then, we present the convergence analysis, which requires controlling the variance of the estimator in a similar manner to (Allen-Zhu, 2017), as stated in the next proposition. Note that the estimator does not require storing the seed of the random perturbations, unlike in the previous section.

**Proposition 16 (Variance reduction for random-SVRG estimator)** Consider problem (1) when \( f \) is a finite sum of functions \( f = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \) where each \( f_i \) is \( L_i \)-smooth with \( L_i \geq \mu \) and \( f \) is \( \mu \)-strongly convex. Then, the variance of \( g_k \) defined in Algorithm 4 satisfies 
\[
\omega_k^2 \leq 2LQ \left[ f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - f(y_{k-1}) - g_k^T (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \right] + 3\rho Q \bar{\sigma}^2.
\]

The proof is given in Appendix D.11. Then, we extend Lemma 11 that was used in the previous analysis to the variance-reduction setting.
Lemma 17 (Lemma for accelerated variance-reduced stochastic optimization)
Consider the iterates provided by Algorithm 4 and call $a_k = 2L_Q\eta_k$. Then,
\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] \leq \mathbb{E}[a_kF(\bar{x}_{k-1}) + (1 - a_k)l_k(y_{k-1})] + \mathbb{E}\left[a_k\tilde{g}_k^\top (y_{k-1} - \bar{x}_{k-1}) + \left(\frac{LQ^2\eta_k}{2} - \eta_k\right)\|\bar{g}_k\|^2\right] + 3\rho Q\eta_k\tilde{\sigma}^2.
\]
The proof of this lemma is given in Appendix D.12. With this lemma in hand, we may now state our main convergence result.

Theorem 18 (Convergence of the accelerated SVRG algorithm) Consider the iterates provided by Algorithm 4 and assume that the step sizes satisfy $\eta_k \leq \min\left(\frac{1}{3L_Q}, \frac{1}{15\gamma_k n}\right)$ for all $k \geq 1$. Then,
\[
\mathbb{E}\left[F(x_k) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2}\|v_k - x^\ast\|^2\right] \leq \Gamma_k \left(F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_0}{2}\|x_0 - x^\ast\|^2 + \frac{3\rho Q\tilde{\sigma}^2}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \eta_t\right).
\]
(33)

Proof Following similar steps as in the proof of Theorem 12, we have
\[
d_k^\ast \geq (1 - \delta_k)d_k^\ast + \delta_k l_k(y_{k-1}) - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k}\|\bar{g}_k\|^2 + \frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_k}{\gamma_k} \bar{g}_k^\top (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}).
\]
Assume now by induction that $\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}^\ast] \geq \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] - \xi_{k-1}$ for some $\xi_{k-1} \geq 0$ and note that $\delta_k \leq \frac{1 - a_k}{n}$ since $a_k = 2L_Q\eta_k \leq \frac{2}{n}$ and $\delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{5Q\gamma_k}{3n}} \leq \frac{1}{3n} \leq \frac{1 - a_k}{n}$. Then,
\[
\mathbb{E}[d_k^\ast] \geq (1 - \delta_k)(\mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] - \xi_{k-1}) + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2]
\]
\[
+ \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{g}_k^\top \left(\frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_k}{\gamma_k} (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1})\right)\right]
\]
\[
\geq \left(1 - \frac{1 - a_k}{n}\right) \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] + \left(\frac{1 - a_k}{n} - \delta_k\right) \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] + \delta_k \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2]
\]
\[
+ \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{g}_k^\top \left(\frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_k}{\gamma_k} (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1})\right)\right] - (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1}.
\]

Note that
\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(\bar{x}_{k-1})] \geq \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] + \mathbb{E}[\tilde{g}_k^\top (\bar{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1})].
\]

Then,
\[
\mathbb{E}[d_k^\ast] \geq \left(1 - \frac{1 - a_k}{n}\right) \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] + \frac{1 - a_k}{n} \mathbb{E}[l_k(y_{k-1})] - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[\|\bar{g}_k\|^2]
\]
\[
+ \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{g}_k^\top \left(\frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_k}{\gamma_k} (v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) + \left(\frac{1 - a_k}{n} - \delta_k\right) (\bar{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1})\right)\right] - (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1}.
\]

We may now use Lemma 17, which gives us
\[ \mathbb{E}[d_k] \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_{k-1})] + \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] + \left(\frac{1}{n} \left(\eta_k - \frac{L\eta_k^2}{2}\right) - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k}\right) \mathbb{E}[\|\tilde{g}_k\|^2] \\
+ \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{g}_k^T \left(\frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k}(v_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) + \left(\frac{1}{n} - \delta_k\right)(\bar{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1})\right)\right] - \xi_k, \tag{34} \]

with \( \xi_k = (1 - \delta_k)\xi_{k-1} + \frac{3\rho_Qn\delta_k^2}{n} \). Then, since \( \delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{5\eta_k\gamma_k}{3n}} \) and \( \eta_k \leq \frac{1}{3LQ} \),
\[ \frac{1}{n} \left(\eta_k - \frac{L\eta_k^2}{2}\right) - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} \geq \frac{5\eta_k}{6n} - \frac{\delta_k^2}{2\gamma_k} = 0, \]
and the term in (34) involving \( \|\tilde{g}_k\|^2 \) may disappear. Similarly, we have
\[ \frac{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}}{\delta_k(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1} + \gamma_k/n - \delta_k\gamma_k} = \frac{\delta_k\gamma_k - \delta_k^2\mu}{\gamma_k/n - \delta_k^2\mu} = \frac{3n\delta_k^3/5\eta_k - \delta_k^2\mu}{3\delta_k^2/5\eta_k - \delta_k^2\mu} = \frac{3n - 5\mu\eta_k}{3 - 5\mu\eta_k} = \theta_k, \]
and the term in (34) that is linear in \( \tilde{g}_k \) may disappear as well. Then, we are left with
\[ \mathbb{E}[d_k] \geq \mathbb{E}[F(\bar{x}_k)] - \xi_k. \]
Initializing the induction requires choosing \( \xi_0 = 0 \) and \( d_0^* = F(x_0) \). Ultimately, we note that \( \mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*) - F^*] \leq (1 - \delta_k)\mathbb{E}[d_{k-1}(x^*) - F^*] \) for all \( k \geq 1 \), and
\[ \mathbb{E}\left[F(\bar{x}_k) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_k}{2} \|x^* - y_k\|^2\right] \leq \mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*) - F^*] + \xi_k \leq \Gamma_k \left(F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{7\eta}{2} \|x^* - x_0\|^2\right) + \xi_k, \]
and we obtain (33).

We may now derive convergence rates of our accelerated SVRG algorithm under various settings. The proofs of the following corollaries, when not straightforward, are given in the appendix. The first corollary simply uses Lemma 27.

**Corollary 19 (Accelerated proximal SVRG - constant step size - \( \mu > 0 \))**

With \( \eta_k = \min\left(\frac{1}{3LQ}, \frac{1}{15\mu n}\right) \) and \( \gamma_0 = \mu \), the iterates produced by Algorithm 4 satisfy

- if \( \frac{1}{3LQ} \leq \frac{1}{15\mu n} \),
\[ \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{5\mu}{9LQn}}\right)^k \left(F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2\right) + \frac{3\rho_Q\sigma^2}{\sqrt{5\mu LQn}}; \]

- otherwise,
\[ \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{3n}\right)^k \left(F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2\right) + \frac{3\rho_Q\sigma^2}{5\mu n}. \]

The corollary uses the fact that \( \Gamma_k \sum_{t=1}^k \eta_t/\Gamma_t \leq \eta/\delta = \sqrt{3n\eta/5\mu} \) and thus the algorithm converges linearly to an area of radius \( 3\rho_Q\sigma^2\sqrt{3n\eta/5\mu} = O\left(\rho_Q\sigma^2 \min\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\eta LQ}}, \frac{1}{\mu}\right)\right) \), where as before, \( \rho_Q = 1 \) if the distribution \( Q \) is uniform. When \( \sigma^2 = 0 \), the corresponding algorithm achieves the optimal complexity for finite sums (Arjevani and Shamir, 2016). Interestingly, we see that here non-uniform sampling may hurt the convergence guarantees in some situations. Whenever \( \frac{1}{\max_i L_i} > \frac{1}{5\mu n} \), the optimal sampling strategy is indeed the uniform one. Next, we show how to obtain a converging algorithm in the next corollary.
Corollary 20 (Accelerated proximal SVRG - diminishing step sizes - $\mu > 0$)
Assume that $f$ is $\mu$-strongly convex and that we target an accuracy $\varepsilon$ smaller than $B = 3\rho Q\tilde{\sigma}^2\sqrt{\eta/\mu}$ with the same step size $\eta$ as in the previous corollary. First, use such a constant step-size strategy $\eta_k = \eta$ within Algorithm 4, leading to the convergence rate of the previous corollary, until $\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq B$. Then, we restart the optimization procedure with decreasing step-sizes $\eta_k = \min(\eta, \frac{12n}{3\mu(k+2)^2})$ and generate a new sequence $(\hat{x}_k)_{k \geq 0}$. The resulting number of gradient evaluations to achieve $\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \varepsilon$ is upper bounded by

$$O\left(\left(n + \sqrt{\frac{nLQ}{\mu}}\right) \log \left(\frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon}\right)\right) + O\left(\frac{\rho Q\tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu\varepsilon}\right).$$

The proof is given in Appendix D.13. Next, we study the case when $\mu = 0$.

Corollary 21 (Accelerated proximal SVRG - $\mu = 0$) Consider the same setting as in Theorem 18, where $f$ is convex and proceed in two steps. First, run one iteration of (A) with step-size $\eta \leq \frac{1}{3LQ}$ with the gradient estimator $(1/n)\sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{\nabla}f_i(x_0)$. Second, use the resulting point to initialize Algorithm 4 and use step size $\eta_t = \min\left(\frac{1}{3LQ}, \frac{1}{15\gamma t}\right)$, with $\gamma_0 = 1/\eta$, for a total of $K \geq 6n\log(15n) + 1$ iterations. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_K) - F^*] \leq \frac{6n\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{\eta(K+1)^2} + \frac{3\eta\rho Q\tilde{\sigma}^2(K+1)}{n}.$$

If in addition we choose $\eta = \min\left(\frac{1}{3LQ}, \frac{\sqrt{2n\|x_0 - x^*\|}}{\tilde{\sigma}\sqrt{\rho Q}(K+1)^{3/2}}\right)$,

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_K) - F^*] \leq \frac{18LQn\|x_0 - x^*\|^2}{(K+1)^2} + \frac{6\tilde{\sigma}\|x_0 - x^*\|\sqrt{2\rho Q}}{\sqrt{K+1}}. \quad (35)$$

The proof is provided in Appendix D.14. When $\tilde{\sigma}^2 = 0$ (deterministic setting), the first part of the corollary with $\eta = 1/3LQ$ gives us the same complexity as Katyusha (Allen-Zhu, 2017), and in the stochastic case, we obtain a significantly better complexity than the same algorithm without acceleration, which was analyzed in Corollary 9.

5. Experiments

In this section, we evaluate numerically the approaches introduced in the previous sections.

5.1 Datasets, Formulations, and Methods

Following classical benchmarks in optimization methods for machine learning (see, e.g. Schmidt et al., 2017), we consider empirical risk minimization formulations. Given training data $(a_i, b_i)_{i=1,...,n}$, with $a_i$ in $\mathbb{R}^p$ and $b_i$ in $\{-1, +1\}$, we consider the optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi(b_i a_i^T x) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2,$$
where $\phi$ is either the logistic loss $\phi(u) = \log(1 + e^{-u})$, or the squared hinge loss $\phi(u) = \max(0, 1 - u)^2$. Both functions are $L$-smooth; when the vectors $a_i$ have unit norm, we may indeed choose $L = 0.25$ for the logistic loss and $L = 1$ for the squared hinge loss. Studying the squared hinge loss is interesting: whereas the logistic loss has bounded gradients on $\mathbb{R}^p$, this is not the case for the squared hinge loss. With unbounded optimization domain, the gradient norms may be indeed large in some regions of the solution space, which may lead in turn to large variance $\sigma^2$ of the gradient estimates obtained by SGD, causing instabilities.

The scalar $\lambda$ is a regularization parameter that acts as a lower bound on the strong convexity constant of the problem. We consider the parameters $\mu = \lambda = 1/10n$ in our problems, which is of the order of the smallest values that one would try when doing a parameter search, e.g., by cross-validation. For instance, this is empirically observed for the dataset cifar-ckn described below, where a test set is available, allowing us to check that the “optimal” regularization parameter leading to the lowest generalization error is indeed of this order. We also report an experiment with $\lambda = 1/100n$ in order to study the effect of the problem conditioning on the method’s performance.

Following Bietti and Mairal (2017); Zheng and Kwok (2018), we consider DropOut perturbations (Srivastava et al., 2014) to illustrate the robustness to noise of the algorithms. DropOut consists of randomly setting to zero each entry of a data point with probability $\delta$, leading to the optimization problem

\[
\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}_\rho \left[ \phi(b_i \circ a_i \top x) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2} \| x \|^2, \tag{36}
\]

where $\rho$ is a binary vector in $\{0, 1\}^p$ with i.i.d. Bernoulli entries, and $\circ$ denotes the elementwise multiplication between two vectors. We consider two DropOut regimes, with $\delta$ in $\{0.01, 0.1\}$, representing small and medium perturbations, respectively.

We consider the following three datasets coming from different scientific fields

- **alpha** is from the Pascal Large Scale Learning Challenge website\(^3\) and contains $n = 250,000$ points in dimension $p = 500$.

- **gene** consists of gene expression data and the binary labels $b_i$ characterize two different types of breast cancer. This is a small dataset with $n = 295$ and $p = 8,141$.

- **ckn-cifar** is an image classification task where each image from the CIFAR-10 dataset\(^4\) is represented by using a two-layer unsupervised convolutional neural network (Mairal, 2016). Since CIFAR-10 originally contains 10 different classes, we consider the binary classification task consisting of predicting the class 1 vs. other classes. The dataset contains $n = 50,000$ images and the dimension of the representation is $p = 9,216$.

For simplicity, we normalize the features of all datasets and thus we use a uniform sampling strategy $Q$ in all algorithms. Then, we consider several methods with their theoretical step sizes, described in Table 1. Note that we also evaluate the strategy random-SVRG with step size $1/3L$, even though our analysis requires $1/12L$, in order to get a fair comparison with the

\(^3\) http://largescale.ml.tu-berlin.de/
\(^4\) https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~kriz/cifar.html
Table 1: List of algorithms used in the experiments, along with the step size used and the pointer to the corresponding convergence guarantees, with $C_0 = F(x_0) − F^*$. In the experiments, we also use the method rand-SVRG with step size $η = 1/3L$, even though our analysis requires $η ≤ 1/12L$. The approach acc-nb-SVRG-d uses minibatches of size $\lceil \sqrt{L/μ} \rceil$ and could thus easily be parallelized. Note that we potentially have $\tilde{σ} ≪ σ$.

5.2 Evaluation of Algorithms without Perturbations

First, we study the behavior of all methods when $σ^2 = 0$. We report the corresponding results in Figures 1, 2, and 3. Since the problem is deterministic, we can check that the value $F^*$ we consider is indeed optimal by computing a duality gap using Fenchel duality. For SGD and random-SVRG, we do not use any averaging strategy, which we found to empirically slow down convergence, when used from the start; knowing when to start averaging is indeed not easy and requires heuristics which we do not evaluate here.
Figure 1: Optimization curves without perturbations when using the logistic loss and the parameter $\lambda = 1/10n$. We plot the value of the objective function on a logarithmic scale as a function of the effective passes over the data (see main text for details). Best seen in color by zooming on a computer screen. Note that the method Adam is not converging.

Figure 2: Same experiment as in Figure 1 with $\lambda = 1/100n$.

Figure 3: Same experiment as in Figure 1 with squared hinge loss instead of logistic. ACC-SA and acc-SGD-d were unstable for this setting due to the large size of the noise region $\sigma^2/\sqrt{nL} = \sqrt{10n}\sigma^2$ and potentially large gradients of the loss function over the optimization domain.

From these experiments, we obtain the following conclusions:

- Acceleration for SVRG is effective on the datasets gene and ckn-cifar except on alpha, where all SVRG-like methods perform already well. This may be due to strong convexity hidden in alpha leading to a regime where acceleration does not occur—
that is, when the complexity is $O(n \log(1/\varepsilon))$, which is independent of the condition number. Note that this algorithm is now implemented in the open-source Cyanure toolbox (Mairal, 2019)\(^5\).

- Acceleration is more effective when the problem is badly conditioned. When $\lambda = 1/100n$, acceleration brings several orders of magnitude improvement in complexity.

- Accelerated SGD is unstable with the squared hinge loss. During the initial phase with constant step size $1/L$, the expected primal gap is in a region of radius $O(\sigma^2/\sqrt{\mu L}) \approx \sqrt{n}\sigma^2$, which is potentially huge, causing large gradients and instabilities.

- Accelerated minibatch SGD performs best among the SGD methods and is competitive with SVRG in the low precision regime. The performance of Adam on these datasets is inconsistent; it performs best among SGD methods on alpha, but is significantly worse on ckn-cifar. Note also that AC-SA performs in general similarly to acc-SGD-d.

### 5.3 Evaluation of Algorithms with Perturbations

We now consider the same setting as in the previous section, but we add DropOut perturbations with rate $\delta$ in \{0.01, 0.1\}. As predicted by theory, all approaches with constant step size do not converge. Therefore, we only report the results for decreasing step sizes in Figures 4, 5, and 6. We evaluate the loss function every 5 data passes and we estimate the expectation (36) by drawing 5 random perturbations per data point, resulting in $5n$ samples. The optimal value $F^*$ is estimated by letting the methods run for 1000 epochs and selecting the best point found as a proxy of $F^*$.

The conclusions of these experiments are the following:

- accelerated minibatch SGD performs the best among SGD approaches in general except on alpha where Adam performs best.

- accelerated SVRG performs better than SVRG in general, or they achieve the same performance. As in the deterministic case, the gains are typically more important in ill-conditioned cases.

- accelerated SVRG performs better than SGD approaches in the low perturbation regime $\delta = 0.01$ and only on the alpha dataset when $\delta = 0.1$. Otherwise, the methods perform similarly.

- not reported on these figures, high perturbation regimes, e.g., $\delta = 0.3$ make variance reduction less useful since the noise due to data sampling becomes potentially of the same order as $\tilde{\sigma}^2$; Yet, benefits are still seen on the alpha dataset, whereas SGD approaches perform slightly better than SVRG approaches on ckn-cifar and gene.

### 6. Discussion

In this paper, we have studied simple stochastic gradient-based rules with or without variance reduction, and presented an accelerated algorithm dedicated to finite-sums minimization under the presence of stochastic perturbations. The approach we propose achieves

\(^5\) http://julien.mairal.org/cyanure/
Figure 4: Optimization curves with DropOut rate $\delta$ when using the logistic loss and $\lambda = 1/10n$. We plot the value of the objective function on a logarithmic scale as a function of the effective passes over the data. Best seen in color by zooming on a computer screen.

Figure 5: Same setting as in Figure 4 but with $\lambda = 1/100n$. 
the classical optimal worst-case complexities for finite-sum optimization when there is no perturbation (Arjevani and Shamir, 2016), and exhibits an optimal dependency in the noise variance $\tilde{\sigma}^2$ for convex and strongly convex problems.

Our work is based on stochastic variants of estimate sequences introduced by Nesterov (1983, 2004). The framework leads naturally to many algorithms with relatively generic proofs of convergence, where convergence is proven at the same time as the algorithm’s design. With iterate averaging techniques inspired by Ghadimi and Lan (2013), we show that a large class of variance-reduction stochastic optimization methods can be made robust to stochastic perturbations. Estimate sequences also naturally lead to several accelerated algorithms, some of them we did not present in this paper. For instance, it is possible to show that replacing in (29) the lower bound $\psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (x - x_k)$ by $\psi(x)$ itself—in a similar way as we proceeded to obtain iteration (B) from iteration (A)—also leads to an accelerated algorithm with similar guarantees as (C).

Possibilities offered by estimate sequences are large, but our framework also admits a few limitations, paving the way for future work. In particular, our results are currently limited to Euclidean metrics—meaning that our convergence rates typically depend on quantities involving the Euclidean norm (e.g., strong convexity or $L$-smooth inequalities), and one may expect extensions of our work to other metrics such as Bregman distances. Estimate sequences admit indeed known extensions to such metrics, and can also deal with higher-order smoothness assumptions than Lipschitz continuity of the gradient (Baes, 2009)—e.g., cubic regularization (Nesterov and Polyak, 2006). We leave such directions for the future.

Another limitation we encountered was the inability to propose robust accelerated variants of SAGA, MISO, or SDCA based on our stochastic estimate sequences framework. To address this problem, after the first version of this manuscript was made publicly available,
we investigated in (Kulunchakov and Mairal, 2019b) a significantly different approach based on the Catalyst method (Lin et al. 2018), allowing us to accelerate stochastic first-order methods in a generic fashion, at the price of a logarithmic factor in the optimal complexity—in other words, we were able to obtain for SAGA, MISO, and SDCA a complexity close to (5) up to a logarithmic factor in the condition number \( L_Q/\mu \). We believe that estimate sequences may be useful to obtain the optimal complexity without this logarithmic term, but the construction would be non-trivial and would rely on a different lower bound than the one we used in Section 4.

Finally, we note that the optimal complexities we have obtained with diminishing step-sizes for strongly convex objectives can also be achieved by using instead a constant step-size combined with mini-batch and restart strategies. As a constant step-size yields a linear rate of convergence to a noise-dominated region of radius \( O(\hat{\sigma}^2) \), we can indeed use the restart procedure described in Section 3 of (Kulunchakov and Mairal, 2019b), which would yield the optimal complexity as well.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the ERC grant SOLARIS (number 714381) and by ANR 3IA MIAI@Grenoble Alpes, (ANR-19-P3IA-0003). The authors would like to thank Anatoli Juditsky and the anonymous reviewers for interesting discussions that greatly improved the quality of this manuscript.

Appendix A. Useful Mathematical Results

A.1 Simple Results about Convexity and Smoothness

The next three lemmas are classical upper and lower bounds for smooth or strongly convex functions (Nesterov, 2004).

Lemma 22 (Quadratic upper bound for \( L \)-smooth functions) Let \( f : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R} \) be \( L \)-smooth. Then, for all \( x, x' \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \),

\[
|f(x') - f(x) - \nabla f(x)^	op (x' - x)| \leq \frac{L}{2} \|x - x'\|^2.
\]

Lemma 23 (Lower bound for strongly convex functions) Let \( f : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R} \) be a \( \mu \)-strongly convex function. Let \( z \) be in \( \partial f(x) \) for some \( x \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \). Then, the following inequality holds for all \( x' \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \):

\[
f(x') \geq f(x) + z^	op (x' - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x'\|^2.
\]

Lemma 24 (Second-order growth property) Let \( f : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R} \) be a \( \mu \)-strongly convex function and \( \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p \) be a convex set. Let \( x^* \) be the minimizer of \( f \) on \( \mathcal{X} \). Then, the following condition holds for all \( x \) in \( \mathcal{X} \):

\[
f(x) \geq f(x^*) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - x^*\|^2.
\]
Lemma 25 (Useful inequality for smooth and convex functions) Consider an $L$-smooth $\mu$-strongly convex function $f$ defined on $\mathbb{R}^p$ and a parameter $\beta$ in $[0, \mu]$. Then, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^p$,

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y) - \beta(x - y)\|^2 \leq 2L(f(x) - f(y) - \nabla f(y)^\top (x - y)).$$

Proof Let us define the function $\phi(x) = f(x) - \frac{\beta}{2}\|x\|^2$, which is $(\mu - \beta)$-strongly convex. It is then easy to show that $\phi$ is $(L - \beta)$-smooth, according to Theorem 2.1.5 in (Nesterov, 2004): indeed, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^p$,

$$\phi(x) = f(x) - \frac{\beta}{2}\|x\|^2 \leq f(y) + \nabla f(y)^\top (x - y) + \frac{L}{2}\|x - y\|^2 - \frac{\beta}{2}\|x\|^2$$

and again according to Theorem 2.1.5 of (Nesterov, 2004),

$$\|\nabla \phi(x) - \nabla \phi(y)\|^2 \leq 2L(\phi(x) - \phi(y) - \nabla \phi(y)^\top (x - y))$$

$$= 2L \left( f(x) - f(y) - \nabla f(y)^\top (x - y) - \frac{\beta}{2}\|x - y\|^2 \right)$$

$$\leq 2L \left( f(x) - f(y) - \nabla f(y)^\top (x - y) - \frac{\beta}{2}\|x - y\|^2 \right).$$

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{A.2 Useful Results to Select Step Sizes} \\
\quad \text{In this section, we present basic mathematical results regarding the choice of step sizes. The proofs of the first two lemmas are trivial by induction.}
\end{align*}
\]

Lemma 26 (Relation between $(\delta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and $(\Gamma_k = \prod_{t=1}^k (1 - \delta_t))_{k \geq 0}$) Consider the following cases:

- $\delta_k = \delta$ (constant). Then $\Gamma_k = (1 - \delta)^k$;
- $\delta_k = 1/(k + 1)$. Then, $\Gamma_k = \delta_k = \frac{1}{k+1}$;
- $\delta_k = 2/(k + 2)$. Then, $\Gamma_k = \frac{2}{(k+1)(k+2)}$;
- $\delta_k = \min(1/(k + 1), \delta)$. then,

$$\Gamma_k = \begin{cases}
(1 - \delta)^k & \text{if } k < k_0 \quad \text{with } k_0 = \left\lceil \frac{1}{\delta} - 1 \right\rceil \\
\Gamma_{k_0-1} \frac{k_0}{k+1} & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}$$

- $\delta_k = \min(2/(k + 2), \delta)$. Then,

$$\Gamma_k = \begin{cases}
(1 - \delta)^k & \text{if } k < k_0 \quad \text{with } k_0 = \left\lceil \frac{2}{\delta} - 2 \right\rceil \\
\Gamma_{k_0-1} \frac{k_0(k_0+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}$$
Lemma 27 (Simple relation) Consider a sequence of weights \((\delta_k)_{k \geq 0}\) in \((0, 1)\). Then,
\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} + 1 = \frac{1}{\Gamma_k} \quad \text{where} \quad \Gamma_t := \prod_{i=1}^{t}(1 - \delta_i).
\] (37)

Lemma 28 (Convergence rate of \(\Gamma_k\)) Consider the same quantities defined in the previous lemma and consider the sequence \(\gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1} + \delta_k\mu = \Gamma_k\gamma_0 + (1 - \Gamma_k)\mu\) with \(\gamma_0 \geq \mu\), and assume the relation \(\delta_k = \gamma_k\eta\). Then, for all \(k \geq 0\),
\[
\Gamma_k \leq \min \left( (1 - \mu\eta)^k, \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_0\eta k} \right).
\] (38)

Besides,

- when \(\gamma_0 = \mu\), then \(\Gamma_k = (1 - \mu\eta)^k\).
- when \(\mu = 0\), \(\Gamma_k = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_0\eta k}\).

Proof First, we have for all \(k\), \(\gamma_k \geq \mu\) such that \(\delta_k \geq \eta\mu\), which leads then to \(\Gamma_k \leq (1 - \eta\mu)^k\). Besides, \(\gamma_k \geq \Gamma_k\gamma_0\) and thus \(\Gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\Gamma_{k-1} \leq (1 - \Gamma_k\gamma_0\eta)\Gamma_{k-1}\). Then,
\[
\Gamma_k \leq \frac{1}{\Gamma_{k-1}} \geq \frac{1}{\Gamma_{k-1} + \gamma_0\eta} \geq 1 + \gamma_0\eta k,
\]
which is sufficient to obtain (38). Then, the fact that \(\gamma_0 = \mu\) leads to \(\Gamma_k = (1 - \mu\eta)^k\) is trivial, and the fact that \(\mu = 0\) yields \(\Gamma_k = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_0\eta k}\) can be shown by induction. Indeed, the relation is true for \(\Gamma_0\) and then, assuming the relation is true for \(k - 1\), we have for \(k \geq 1\),
\[
\Gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\Gamma_{k-1} = (1 - \eta\gamma_k)\Gamma_{k-1} = (1 - \eta\gamma_0\Gamma_k)\Gamma_{k-1} \geq (1 - \eta\gamma_0\Gamma_k) \left( \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_0\eta(k-1)} \right),
\]
which leads to \(\Gamma_k = \frac{1}{1 + \gamma_0\eta k}\).

Lemma 29 (Accelerated convergence rate of \(\Gamma_k\)) Consider the same quantities defined in Lemma 27 and consider the sequence \(\gamma_k = (1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1} + \delta_k\mu = \Gamma_k\gamma_0 + (1 - \Gamma_k)\mu\) with \(\gamma_0 \geq \mu\), and assume the relation \(\delta_k = \sqrt{\gamma_k}\eta\). Then, for all \(k \geq 0\),
\[
\Gamma_k \leq \min \left( (1 - \sqrt{\mu}\eta)^k, \frac{4}{(2 + \sqrt{\gamma_0}\eta k)^2} \right).
\]

Besides, when \(\gamma_0 = \mu\), then \(\Gamma_k = (1 - \sqrt{\mu}\eta)^k\).

Proof see Lemma 2.2.4 of (Nesterov, 2004).
A.3 Averaging Strategies

Next, we show a generic convergence result and an appropriate averaging strategy given a recursive relation between quantities acting as Lyapunov function.

**Lemma 30 (Averaging strategy)** Assume that there is a sequence \((x_k)_{k \geq 1}\) generated by an algorithm that minimizes a convex function \(F\), and that there exist non-negative sequences \((T_k)_{k \geq 0}\), \((\delta_k)_{k \geq 1}\) in \((0, 1)\), \((\beta_k)_{k \geq 1}\) and a scalar \(\alpha > 0\) such that for all \(k \geq 1\),

\[
\frac{\delta_k}{\alpha} \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] + T_k \leq (1 - \delta_k)T_{k-1} + \beta_k,
\]

where the expectation is taken with respect to any random parameter used by the algorithm. Then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] + \frac{\alpha}{\delta_k} T_k \leq \frac{\alpha \Gamma_k}{\delta_k} \left( T_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right) \quad \text{where} \quad \Gamma_k := \prod_{t=1}^{k} (1 - \delta_t).
\]

**Generic averaging strategy.** For any point \(\hat{x}_0\), consider the averaging sequence \((\hat{x}_k)_{k \geq 0}\),

\[
\hat{x}_k = \Gamma_k \left( \hat{x}_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} x_t \right) = (1 - \delta_k)\hat{x}_{k-1} + \delta_k x_k \quad \text{(for \(k \geq 1\)},
\]

then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^*] + \alpha T_k \leq \Gamma_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \alpha T_0 + \alpha \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right).
\]

**Uniform averaging strategy.** Assume that \(\delta_k = \frac{1}{k+1}\) and consider the average sequence \(\hat{x}_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i\). Then,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^*] + \alpha T_k \leq \frac{\alpha}{k} \left( T_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right).
\]

**Proof** Given that \(T_k \leq (1 - \delta_k)T_{k-1} + \beta_k\), we obtain (39) by simply unrolling the recursion. To analyze the effect of the averaging strategies, divide now (39) by \(\Gamma_k\):

\[
\frac{\delta_k}{\alpha \Gamma_k} \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] + \frac{T_k}{\Gamma_k} \leq \frac{T_{k-1}}{\Gamma_{k-1}} + \frac{\beta_k}{\Gamma_k}.
\]

Sum from \(t = 1\) to \(k\) and notice that we have a telescopic sum:

\[
\frac{1}{\alpha} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \mathbb{E}[F(x_t) - F^*] + \frac{T_k}{\Gamma_k} \leq T_0 + \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_t}{\Gamma_t}.
\]

Then, add \((1/\alpha)\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_0) - F^*]\) on both sides and multiply by \(\alpha \Gamma_k\):

\[
\sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t \Gamma_k}{\Gamma_t} \mathbb{E}[F(x_t) - F^*] + \Gamma_k \mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_0) - F^*] + \alpha T_k \leq \Gamma_k \left( \alpha T_0 + \mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_0) - F^*] + \alpha \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\beta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right).
\]

By exploiting the relation (37), we may then use Jensen’s inequality and we obtain (41). Consider now the specific case \(\delta_k = \frac{1}{k+1}\), which yields \(\Gamma_k = \frac{1}{k+1}\). Multiply then Eq. (43) by \(\alpha/k\) and use Jensen’s inequality; we obtain Eq. (42).
Appendix B. Relation Between Iteration (B) and MISO/SDCA

In this section, we derive explicit links between the proximal MISO algorithm (Lin et al., 2015), a primal version of SDCA (Shalev-Shwartz, 2016), and iteration (B) when used with the gradient estimator (15) without stochastic perturbations. Under the big data condition $L/\mu \leq n$, consider indeed $\beta = \mu$, constant step-sizes $\eta_k = \eta = \frac{1}{n\mu}$, $\gamma_k = \mu$, and a uniform sampling distribution $Q$; then, we obtain the following algorithm

$$
\bar{x}_k \leftarrow (1 - \mu \eta)\bar{x}_{k-1} + \mu \eta x_{k-1} - \eta \left( \nabla f_{i_k}(x_{k-1}) - z^i_{k-1} + \bar{z}_{k-1} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad x_k = \text{Prox}_\mu \left[ \bar{x}_k \right]
$$

$$
\bar{z}_k = \bar{z}_{k-1} + \frac{1}{n} (z^i_{k} - z^i_{k-1}) \quad \text{and} \quad z^i_{k} = \nabla f_{i_k}(x_{k-1}) - \mu x_{k-1},
$$

with $\bar{z}_0 = \bar{x}_0 = 0$. Then, since $\mu \eta = \frac{1}{n}$, it is easy to show that in fact $\bar{z}_k = \mu \bar{x}_k$ for all $k \geq 0$. This is then exactly the proximal MISO algorithm (see Bietti and Mairal, 2017). For the relation between primal variants of SDCA and MISO, see page 4 and Equation (3) of Bietti and Mairal (2017).

Appendix C. Recovering Classical Results for Proximal SGD

In this section, we present several corollaries of Theorem 2 to recover classical results for proximal variants of the stochastic gradient descent method. Throughout the section, we assume that the gradient estimates have variance bounded by $\sigma^2$:

$$
\omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E}[\|g_k - \nabla f(x_{k-1})\|^2] \leq \sigma^2.
$$

Convergence results for the deterministic case $\sigma^2 = 0$ can be also recovered naturally from the corollaries. We start by applying Theorem 2 with a constant step-size strategy $\eta_k = 1/L$, which shows convergence to a noise-dominated region of radius $\sigma^2/L$. In all the corollaries below, we use the notation from Theorem 2.

**Corollary 31 (Proximal variants of SGD with constant step-size, $\mu > 0$)** Assume that $f$ is $\mu$-strongly convex, choose $\gamma_0 = \mu$ and $\eta_k = 1/L$ with Algorithm (A) or (B). Then, for any point $\hat{x}_0$,

$$
\mathbb{E} \left[ F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + d_k(x^*) - d^*_k \right] \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{L} \right)^k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d^*_0 \right) + \frac{\sigma^2}{L}, \quad (44)
$$

when using the averaging strategy from Theorem 2. Note that $d_k(x^*) - d^*_k \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \|x_k - x^*\|^2$ for all $k \geq 0$ with equality for Algorithm (A).

Next, we show how to obtain converging algorithms by using decreasing step sizes.

**Corollary 32 (Proximal variants of SGD with decreasing step-sizes, $\mu > 0$)** Assume that $f$ is $\mu$-strongly convex and that we target an accuracy $\varepsilon$ smaller than $2\sigma^2/L$. First, use a constant step-size $\eta_k = 1/L$ with $\gamma_0 = \mu$ within Algorithm (A) or (B), using $\hat{x}_0 = x_0$, leading to the convergence rate (44), until $\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + d_k(x^*) - d^*_k] \leq 2\sigma^2/L$. Then, we restart the optimization procedure, using the previously obtained $\hat{x}_k, x_k$ as new initial points,
with decreasing step-sizes \( \eta_k = \min \left( \frac{1}{k}, \frac{2}{\mu(k+2)} \right) \), and generate new sequences \((\hat{x}_k, x'_k)_{k \geq 0}\). The total number of iterations to achieve \( \mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^*] \leq \varepsilon \) is upper bounded by
\[
O \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d_0^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right) + O \left( \frac{\sigma^2}{\mu \varepsilon} \right). \tag{45}
\]
Note that \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* = \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 \leq F(x_0) - F^* \) for Algorithm (A).

**Proof**  Given the linear convergence rate (44), the number of iterations of the first the constant step-size strategy is upper bounded by the left term of (45). Then, after restarting the algorithm, we may apply Theorem 2 with \( \mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d_0^*] \leq 2\sigma^2/L \). With \( \gamma_0 = \mu \), we have \( \gamma_k = \mu \) for all \( k \geq 0 \), and the rate of \( \Gamma_k \) is given by Lemma 26, which yields for \( k \geq k_0 = \left\lfloor \frac{2L}{\mu} - 2 \right\rfloor \),
\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}'_k) - F^*] \leq \Gamma_k \left( \frac{2\sigma^2}{L} + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\delta_t \eta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right)
= \Gamma_k \left( \frac{2\sigma^2}{L} + \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \left( \frac{2\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right) \right)
= \frac{k_0(k_0+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} \left( \Gamma_{k_0-1} \frac{2\sigma^2}{L} + \sum_{t=k_0}^{k_0-1} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right)
+ \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \left( \frac{2\delta_t \Gamma_k}{\Gamma_t \mu(t+2)} \right)
\leq \frac{k_0(k_0+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} \frac{2\sigma^2}{L} + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \left( \frac{4(t+1)(t+2)}{\mu(t+2)^2} \right)
\leq \frac{k_0}{(k+1)(k+2)} \frac{4\sigma^2}{\mu} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{\mu(k+2)},
\]
where the second inequality uses the fact that \( \frac{\eta}{2} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 \leq F(x_0) - F^* \leq \frac{3\sigma^2}{L} \), and then we use Lemmas 26 and 27. The term on the right is of order \( O(\sigma^2/\mu k) \) whereas the term on the left becomes of the same order or smaller whenever \( k \geq k_0 = O(L/\mu) \). This leads to the desired iteration complexity.

We may now study the case \( \mu = 0 \), first with a constant step size. The next corollary consists of simply applying the uniform averaging strategy of Lemma 30 to Proposition 1, noting that \( \delta_k = \frac{1}{k+1} \) for all \( k \geq 0 \) if \( \mu = 0 \) and \( \gamma_0 = 1/\eta \).

**Corollary 33 (Proximal variants of SGD with constant step size, \( \mu = 0 \))** Assume that \( f \) is convex, choose a constant step size \( \eta_k = \eta \leq \frac{1}{L} \) with Algorithm (A) or (B) with \( \gamma_0 = 1/\eta \). Then,
\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^*] \leq \frac{d_0(x^*) - d_0^*}{k} + \eta \sigma^2, \tag{46}
\]
where \( \hat{x}_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} x_i \). Note that \( d_0(x^*) - d_0^* = \frac{1}{2\eta} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 \) for Algorithm (A).
The noise dependency is now illustrated for Algorithm (A) in the next corollary, obtained in a finite horizon setting.

**Corollary 34 (Proximal variants of SGD with \( \mu = 0 \), finite horizon)** Consider the same setting as in the previous corollary. Assume that we have a budget of \( K \) iterations for Algorithm (A). Choose a constant step size

\[
\eta_k = \min \left( \frac{1}{L}, \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{K\sigma^2}} \right) \quad \text{with} \quad T_0 = \frac{1}{2} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2.
\]

Then, with \( \gamma_0 = 1/\eta \) and when using the averaging strategy from Corollary 33,

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_K) - F^*) \leq \frac{LT_0}{K} + 2\sigma \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{K}}.
\]

(47)

This corollary is obtained by optimizing the right side of (46) with respect to \( \eta \) under the constraint \( \eta \leq 1/L \). Considering both cases \( \eta = 1/L \) and \( \eta = \sqrt{T_0/K\sigma^2} \), it is easy to check that we have (47) in all cases. Whereas this last result is not a practical one since the step size depends on unknown quantities, it shows that our analysis is nevertheless able to recover the optimal noise-dependency in \( O(\sigma \sqrt{T_0/K}) \), (see Nemirovski et al., 2009).

**Appendix D. Proofs of the Main Results**

**D.1 Proof of Proposition 3**

**Proof** The proof borrows a large part of the analysis of Xiao and Zhang (2014) for controlling the variance of the gradient estimate in the SVRG algorithm. First, we note that all the gradient estimators we consider may be written in the generic form (15), with \( \beta = 0 \) for SAGA or SVRG. Then, we will write \( \hat{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) = \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) + \xi_k \), where \( \xi_k \) is a zero-mean variable with variance \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \) drawn at iteration \( k \), and \( z_k = u_k + \xi_k \) for all \( k, i \), where \( \xi_k \) has zero-mean with variance \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \) and was drawn during the previous iterations. Let us denote by \( \omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E}[\|g_k - f(x_{k-1})\|^2] \) and let us introduce the quantity \( A_k = \mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{q_k n^2} \| \xi_k \|^2] \). Then,

\[
\omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{q_k n^2} \left( \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \beta x_{k-1} - z_{k-1} \right) + \hat{z}_{k-1} + \beta x_{k-1} - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \right]^2
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{q_k n^2} \left( \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \beta x_{k-1} - z_{k-1} \right) + \hat{z}_{k-1} + \beta x_{k-1} - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) \right]^2 + \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_k n)^2} \| \xi_k \|^2 \right]
\]

\[
\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{q_k n^2} \left( \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \beta x_{k-1} - z_{k-1} \right) \right]^2 + A_k
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_k n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}) - \beta x_{k-1} - z_{k-1} \|^2 \right] + A_k
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_k n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}) - u_i + u_i - z_{k-1} \|^2 \right] + A_k
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_k n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}) - u_i \|^2 \right] + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_k n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \| z_{k-1} - u_i \|^2 \right] + A_k
\]
Then, since

\[ |a + b| \leq 2|a| + 2|b| \]

for the second inequality and the well-known convexity inequality

\[ \psi(x) = \psi(x^*) - \nabla f(x^*)^\top (x - x^*) \]

leading finally to (21).

The second possibility is to relate \( A_k \) to \( \tilde{\sigma}^2 \), under the assumption that each \( f_i \) may be written as \( f_i(x) = \mathbb{E}_\xi [\tilde{f}_i(x, \xi)] \), \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) with \( \tilde{f}_i(., \xi) \) \( L_i \)-smooth with \( L_i \geq \mu \) for all \( \xi \).

Then,

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \| \xi_k \|^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \| \nabla f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \nabla f_{ik}(x_k) \|^2 \right] \]

\[ = \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \| \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_k) \|^2 \right] \]

\[ \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \left[ \| \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x^*) \|^2 + \| \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x^*) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_k) \|^2 \right] \right] \]

\[ \leq 2 \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \left[ \| \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x^*) \|^2 + \| \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x^*) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(x_k) \|^2 \right] \right] \]

\[ \leq 4 \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{L_{ik}}{(q_{ik})^2} (f_i(x_{k-1}) - f_i(x_k) - \langle \nabla f_i(x^*), x_{k-1} - x_k \rangle) \right] + 2 \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{(q_{ik})^2} \tilde{\sigma}_{i,k} \right] \]

\[ \leq 4L_Q \mathbb{E} \left[ \frac{1}{q_{ik}^2} (f_i(x_{k-1}) - f_i(x_k) - \langle \nabla f_i(x^*), x_{k-1} - x_k \rangle) \right] + 2 \rho Q \tilde{\sigma}_s \]

where we use the relation \( \mathbb{E}[\| X - \mathbb{E}[X] \|^2] \leq \mathbb{E}[\| X \|^2] \) for the first inequality, the well-known inequality for a convex norm \( \| a + b \|^2 \leq 2 \| a \|^2 + 2 \| b \|^2 \) for the second inequality and the definition \( \tilde{\sigma}_s = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{\sigma}_{i,k}^2 \).
Then, we may combine (50) with (48) and use (49) to obtain (22).

D.2 Proof of Proposition 4

Proof. To make the notation more compact, we call

\[ F_k = \mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*], \quad D_k = \mathbb{E}[d_k(x^*) - d_k^*] \quad \text{and} \quad C_k = \mathbb{E}\left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} \|u_i^k - u_i^*\|^2 \right]. \]

Then, according to Proposition 3, we have

\[ \omega_k^2 \leq 4LQ F_k - 1 + 2C_k - 1 + 3 \rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2, \]

and according to Proposition 1,

\[ \delta_k F_k + D_k \leq (1 - \delta_k)D_{k-1} + 4LQ\eta_k \delta_k F_{k-1} + 2\eta_k \delta_k C_{k-1} + 3 \rho Q \eta_k \delta_k \tilde{\sigma}^2. \] (51)

Then, we note that both for the SVRG and SAGA/MISO/SDCA strategies, we have (with \( \beta = 0 \) for SVRG),

\[ \mathbb{E}[\|u_k^i - u_i^*\|^2] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \mathbb{E}[\|u_{k-1}^i - u_i^*\|^2] + \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}\|\nabla f_i(x_k) - \nabla f_i(x^*) + \beta(x_k - x^*)\|^2. \]

By taking a weighted average, this yields

\[ C_k \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) C_{k-1} + \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} \mathbb{E}\|\nabla f_i(x_k) - \nabla f_i(x^*) - \beta(x_k - x^*)\|^2 \]

\[ \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) C_{k-1} + \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2L_i}{q_i n} \mathbb{E}\left[f_i(x_k) - f_i(x^*) - \nabla f_i(x^*)^\top (x_k - x^*)\right] \]

\[ \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) C_{k-1} + \frac{2LQ F_k}{n}, \]

where the second inequality comes from Lemma 25 and the last one uses similar arguments as in the proof of Proposition 3. Then, we add a quantity \( \beta_k C_k \) on both sides of the relation (51) with some \( \beta_k > 0 \) that we will specify later:

\[ \left(\delta_k - \beta_k \frac{2LQ}{n}\right) F_k + D_k + \beta_k C_k \]

\[ \leq (1 - \delta_k)D_{k-1} + \left(\beta_k \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + 2\eta_k \delta_k\right) C_{k-1} + 4LQ\eta_k \delta_k F_{k-1} + 3 \rho Q \eta_k \delta_k \tilde{\sigma}^2, \]

and then choose \( \frac{\delta_k}{n} = \frac{5}{2} \eta_k \delta_k \), which yields

\[ \delta_k \left(1 - 5LQ \eta_k\right) F_k + D_k + \beta_k C_k \leq (1 - \delta_k)D_{k-1} + \beta_k \left(1 - \frac{1}{5n}\right) C_{k-1} + 4LQ \eta_k \delta_k F_{k-1} + 3 \rho Q \eta_k \delta_k \tilde{\sigma}^2. \]
Remember that $\tau_k = \min (\delta_k, \frac{1}{1_m})$, notice that the sequences $(\beta_k)_{k \geq 0}$, $(\eta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ and $(\delta_k)_{k \geq 0}$ are non-increasing and note that $4 \leq 5(1 - \frac{1}{5n})$ for all $n \geq 1$. Then,

$$
\delta_k (1 - 10LQ\eta_k) F_k + 5LQ\eta_k \delta_k + D_k + \beta_k C_k
\leq (1 - \tau_k) (D_{k-1} + \beta_{k-1} C_{k-1} + 5LQ\eta_{k-1} \delta_{k-1} F_{k-1}) + 3\rho Q\eta_k \delta_k \bar{\sigma}^2,
$$

which immediately yields (23) with the appropriate definition of $T_k$, and by noting that $(1 - 10LQ\eta_k) \geq \frac{1}{6}$.

\[ \square \]

D.3 Proof of Theorem 5

**Proof** The first part of the theorem is a direct application of Lemma 30 to Proposition 4, by noting that (39) holds—when replacing the notation $\delta_t$ by $\tau_t$ in (39)—since for a fixed number of iterations $K$, we have the relation $\frac{\tau_k \delta_k}{\beta_k} E[F(x_k) - F^*] + T_k \leq (1 - \tau_k) T_{k-1} + 3\rho Q\eta_k \delta_k \bar{\sigma}^2$ for all $k \leq K$. Indeed, $\delta_k = \frac{\tau_k \delta_k}{\tau_k} \geq \frac{\tau_k \delta_k}{\tau_k}$ since the ratio $\delta_t/\tau_t$ is non-increasing. Then, we may now prove (25):

$$
T_0 = 5LQ\eta_0 \delta_0 (F(x_0) - F^*) + d_0 (x^*) - d_0^* + 5\eta_0 \delta_0 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} \| u_i^0 - u_i^* \|^2
\leq 5LQ\eta_0 \delta_0 (F(x_0) - F^*) + d_0 (x^*) - d_0^*
+ 5\eta_0 \delta_0 \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2L_i}{q_i n} (f_i(x_0) - f_i(x^*) - \nabla f_i(x^*)^\top (x_0 - x^*))
\leq 5LQ\eta_0 \delta_0 (F(x_0) - F^*) + d_0 (x^*) - d_0^* + 5\eta_0 \delta_0 LQ (f(x_0) - f(x^*) - \nabla f(x^*)^\top (x_0 - x^*))
\leq 10LQ\eta_0 \delta_0 (F(x_0) - F^*) + d_0 (x^*) - d_0^*,
$$

where the first inequality uses Lemma 25, and the second one uses the definition of $L_Q$, whereas the last one uses (49). \[ \square \]

D.4 Proof of Corollary 6

**Proof** First, notice that $\delta_k = \eta_k \gamma_k = \frac{\mu}{12L_Q}$ and that $\alpha = \frac{6\tau_k}{\delta_k}$. Then, we apply Theorem 5 and obtain

$$
E [F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + \alpha T_k] \leq \Theta_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \alpha T_0 + \frac{18\rho Q\eta_k \bar{\sigma}^2}{\delta_k} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\tau_t}{\Theta_t} \right)
\leq \Theta_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \alpha T_0 + \frac{3\rho Q\bar{\sigma}^2}{2L_Q} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\tau_t}{\Theta_t} \right)
\leq \Theta_k (F(\hat{x}_0) - F^* + \alpha T_0) + \frac{3\rho Q\bar{\sigma}^2}{2L_Q}.
$$

40
D.5 Proof of Corollary 8

**Proof** Since the convergence rate (27) applies for the first stage with a constant step size, the number of iterations to ensure the condition $\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* + 6T_k] \leq 24\eta Q \tilde{\sigma}^2$ is upper bounded by $K$ with

$$K = O \left( n + \frac{LQ}{\mu} \right) \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^* + d_0(x^*) - d_0^*}{\varepsilon} \right),$$

when using the upper-bound (25) on $T_0$. Then, we restart the optimization procedure, using $x_0' = x_K$ and $\hat{x}_0' = \hat{x}_K$, assuming from now on that $\mathbb{E}[F(\hat{x}_0') - F^* + 6T_0'] \leq 24\eta Q \tilde{\sigma}^2$, with decreasing step sizes $\eta_k = \min \left( \frac{2}{\mu(k+2)}, \eta \right)$. Then, since $\delta_k = \mu \eta_k \leq \frac{1}{3\eta}$, we have that $\tau_k = \delta_k$ for all $k$, and Theorem 5 gives us—note that here $\Gamma_k = \Theta_k$—

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ F(\hat{x}_k') - F^* \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( F(\hat{x}_0') - F^* + 6T_0' + 18\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_t \delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right) \quad \text{with} \quad \Gamma_k = \prod_{t=1}^{k} (1 - \delta_t).$$

Then, after taking the expectation with respect to the output of the first stage,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ F(\hat{x}_k') - F^* \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( 24\rho Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 18\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta_t \delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right).$$

Denote now by $k_0$ the largest index such that $\frac{2}{\mu(k_0+2)} \geq \eta$ and thus $k_0 = \lceil 2/(\mu \eta) - 2 \rceil$. Then, according to Lemma 26, for $k \geq k_0$,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ F(\hat{x}_k) - F^* \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( 24\rho Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 18\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} + 18\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{2\delta_t}{\mu \Gamma_t(t+2)} \right)$$

$$\leq \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \left( \Gamma_{k_0-1} 24\rho Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 18\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \Gamma_{k_0-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{\delta_t}{\Gamma_t} \right)$$

$$+ 36\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{\delta_t}{\mu \Gamma_t(t+2)}$$

$$\leq \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} 24\rho Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 + 36\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{(t + 1)(t + 2)}{\mu (k + 1)(k + 2)(t + 2)^2}$$

$$\leq \frac{k_0 \eta}{k + 2} 24\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2 + \frac{36\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu (k + 2)} = O \left( \frac{\rho Q \tilde{\sigma}^2}{\mu k} \right),$$

which gives the desired complexity. 

\[\square\]
D.6 Proof of Corollary 9

Proof Let us call \( x'_0 \) the point obtained by running one iteration of (A) with step-size \( \eta \leq \frac{1}{2LQ} \) and gradient estimator \((1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla f_i(x_0)\), whose variance is \( \tilde{\sigma}^2/n \). Then, since \( \delta_1 = \Gamma_1 = 1/2 \), according to Theorem 2, we have

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ F(x'_0) - F^* + \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2}{n}. \tag{52}
\]

Then, we consider the main run of the algorithm, and apply Theorem 5, replacing \( x_0 \) by \( x'_0 \). With the chosen setup, we have \( \delta_k \leq \frac{1}{k+1} \) and since \( K \geq 5n \), we have \( \delta_K = \tau_K \), such that (24) becomes

\[
\mathbb{E} [F(\hat{x}_K) - F^*] \leq \Theta_K \left( F(x'_0) - F^* + 6T_0 + 18\rho_Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=1}^{K} \frac{\delta_t}{\Theta_t} \right),
\]

and from (25), we have

\[
T_0 \leq 10LQ \eta (F(x'_0) - F^*) + \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - x^*\|^2 \leq \frac{5}{6} (F(x'_0) - F^*) + \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - x^*\|^2,
\]

which yields, combined with (52),

\[
\mathbb{E} [F(x'_0) - F^* + 6T_0] \leq 6 \mathbb{E} \left[ F(x'_0) - F^* + \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{3}{\eta} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{6\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2}{n}.
\]

Note that Lemma 26 gives us that \( \Theta_k = (1 - 1/5n)^{5n-1} \leq \frac{3n}{k+1} \) for \( k \geq 5n \) and since \( 1 + \sum_{t=1}^{K} \frac{\tau_t}{\Theta_t} = \frac{1}{\Theta_K} \), according to Lemma 27,

\[
\mathbb{E} [F(\hat{x}_K) - F^*] \leq \Theta_K \left( \frac{3}{\eta} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{6\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2}{n} + 18\rho_Q \eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \sum_{t=1}^{K} \frac{\delta_t}{\Theta_t} \right),
\]

\[
\leq \frac{9n}{\eta(K + 1)} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + 6\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \rho_Q \Theta_K \left( \frac{1}{n} + 3 \sum_{t=1}^{\frac{5n-1}{K + 1}} \frac{\tau_t}{\Theta_t} + 3 \sum_{t=1}^{\frac{5n-1}{K + 1}} \frac{\delta_t}{\Theta_t} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{9n}{\eta(K + 1)} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{6\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2}{n} \rho_Q \left( \frac{\Theta_K}{n} + 3(1 - \Theta_K) + \frac{15n}{K + 1} \sum_{t=1}^{\frac{5n-1}{K + 1}} \delta_t \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{9n}{\eta(K + 1)} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + 18\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \rho_Q \left( 1 + \frac{5n}{K + 1} \log(5n) \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{9n}{\eta(K + 1)} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 + 36\eta \tilde{\sigma}^2 \rho_Q.
\]

It remains to optimize it over \( \eta \) to get the left side of (28).
D.7 Proof of Lemma 10

Proof Let us assume that the relation $y_{k-1} = (1 - \theta_{k-1})x_{k-1} + \theta_{k-1}v_{k-1}$ holds and let us show that it also holds for $y_k$. Since the estimate sequences $d_k$ are quadratic functions, we have

$$v_k = (1 - \delta_k)\frac{\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k}v_{k-1} + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k}y_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k}(y_k + \psi'(x_k))$$

$$= (1 - \delta_k)\frac{\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k}v_{k-1} + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k}y_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k}(y_{k-1} - x_k)$$

$$= (1 - \delta_k)\frac{\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1} - (1 - \theta_{k-1})x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k}y_{k-1} - \frac{\delta_k}{\gamma_k\eta_k}(y_{k-1} - x_k)$$

$$= (1 - \delta_k)\frac{\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1} - (1 - \theta_{k-1})x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k}y_{k-1} - \frac{1}{\delta_k}(y_{k-1} - x_k)$$

$$= (1 - \delta_k)\frac{\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}}(y_{k-1} - (1 - \theta_{k-1})x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu\delta_k}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}}y_{k-1} - \frac{(1 - \delta_k)\gamma_{k-1}(1 - \theta_{k-1})}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}}x_{k-1} + \frac{1}{\delta_k}x_k.$$

Then note that $\theta_{k-1} = \frac{\delta_k\gamma_{k-1}}{\gamma_{k-1} + \delta_k\mu}$ and thus, $\frac{\gamma_{k-1}(1 - \theta_{k-1})}{\gamma_k\theta_{k-1}} = \frac{1}{\delta_k}$, and

$$v_k = x_{k-1} + \frac{1}{\delta_k}(x_k - x_{k-1}).$$

Then, we note that $x_k - x_{k-1} = \frac{\delta_k}{1 - \delta_k}(v_k - x_k)$ and we are left with

$$y_k = x_k + \beta_k(x_k - x_{k-1}) = \frac{\beta_k\delta_k}{1 - \delta_k}v_k + \left(1 - \frac{\beta_k\delta_k}{1 - \delta_k}\right)x_k.$$

Then, it is easy to show that

$$\beta_k = \frac{(1 - \delta_k)\delta_{k+1}\gamma_k}{\delta_k(\gamma_{k+1} + \delta_{k+1}\gamma_k)} = \frac{(1 - \delta_k)\delta_{k+1}\gamma_k}{\delta_k(\gamma_k + \delta_{k+1}\mu)} = \frac{(1 - \delta_k)\theta_k}{\delta_k},$$

which allows us to conclude that $y_k = (1 - \theta_k)x_k + \theta_kv_k$ since the relation holds trivially for $k = 0$. □

D.8 Proof of Lemma 11

Proof

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] = \mathbb{E}[f(x_k) + \psi(x_k)]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ f(y_{k-1}) + \nabla f(y_{k-1})^\top (x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2}\|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E} [A_k] + \mathbb{E} \left[ (\nabla f(y_{k-1}) - g_k)^\top (x_k - y_{k-1}) \right]$$
where $A_k = f(y_{k-1}) + g_k^\top (x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k)$ and $w_k = \text{Prox}_{\eta_k \psi}(y_{k-1} - \eta_k \nabla f(y_{k-1}))$. The first inequality is due to the $L$-smoothness of $f$ (Lemma 22); then, the next three relations exploit the fact that $\min \text{istics}$ with respect to the algebra $\mathcal{F}_{k-1}$; the third inequality uses the non-expansiveness of the proximal operator. Using the definition (29) for $l_k$, we proceed with

$$
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] \leq \mathbb{E} \left[ f(y_{k-1}) + g_k^\top (x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 + \psi(x_k) \right] + \eta_k \omega_k^2,
$$

$$
= \mathbb{E} \left[ l_k(y_{k-1}) + g_k^\top (x_k - y_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2} \|x_k - y_{k-1}\|^2 \right] + \eta_k \omega_k^2,
$$

$$
\leq \mathbb{E} \left[ l_k(y_{k-1}) + \left( \frac{L \eta_k^2}{2} - \eta_k \right) \right] \mathbb{E} \left[ \|g_k\|^2 \right] + \eta_k \omega_k^2,
$$

where we use the fact that $x_k = y_{k-1} - \eta_k \tilde{g}_k$ and $\tilde{g}_k = g_k + \psi'(x_k)$.

**D.9 Proof of Corollary 14**

**Proof** The proof is similar to that of Corollary 32 for unaccelerated SGD. The first stage with constant step-size requires $O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right)$ iterations. Then, we restart the optimization procedure, and assume that $\mathbb{E} \left[ F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}}$. With the choice of parameters, we have $\gamma_k = \mu$ and $\delta_k = \sqrt{\gamma_k \eta_k} = \min \left( \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}, \frac{2\sigma}{\sqrt{\mu L}} \right)$. We may then apply Theorem 12 where the value of $\Gamma_k$ is given by Lemma 26. This yields for $k \geq k_0 = \left\lfloor 2\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} - 2 \right\rfloor$.

$$
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \Gamma_k \left( \mathbb{E} \left[ F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2 \right] + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=1}^{k_0} \eta_t \right)
$$

$$
\leq \Gamma_k \left( \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{L} \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{4}{\Gamma_t \mu (t + 2)^2} \right)
$$

$$
= \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \left( \Gamma_{k_0-1} \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}} + \frac{\sigma^2}{L} \Gamma_{k_0-1} \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \right) + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{4\Gamma_k}{\Gamma_t \mu (t + 2)^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \left( \Gamma_{k_0-1} \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}} + (1 - \Gamma_{k_0-1}) \frac{\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}} \right) + \sigma^2 \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{4\Gamma_k}{\Gamma_t \mu (t + 2)^2}
$$
\[ \leq \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\mu L}} + \sigma^2 \frac{1}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \left( \sum_{t=k_0+1}^{k} \frac{4(t+1)(t+2)}{\mu(t+2)^2} \right) \]

\[ \leq \frac{k_0}{(k + 1)(k + 2)} \frac{4\sigma^2}{\mu} + \frac{4\sigma^2}{\mu(k+2)} \leq \frac{8\sigma^2}{\mu(k+2)}, \]

where we use Lemmas 26 and 27. This leads to the desired iteration complexity. \( \blacksquare \)

D.10 Proof of Corollary 15

Proof Let us call \( x'_0 \) the point obtained by running on step of iteration (A), which according to Theorem 2 satisfies, with \( \gamma_0 = 1/\eta \),

\[ \mathbb{E} \left[ F(x'_0) - F^* + \frac{1}{2\eta} \| x'_0 - x^* \|^2 \right] \leq \frac{1}{2\eta} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 + \eta \sigma^2. \]

Then, we note that according to Lemma 29, we have

\[ \Gamma_k \leq \frac{4}{(2 + k \sqrt{\gamma_0 \eta})^2} \leq \frac{4}{\gamma_0 \eta (1 + k)^2}, \]

and we apply Theorem 12 to obtain the relation

\[ \mathbb{E}[F(x_K) - F^*] \leq \Gamma_K \mathbb{E} \left[ F(x'_0) - F^* + \frac{1}{2\eta} \| x'_0 - x^* \|^2 \right] + \sigma^2 \eta \Gamma_K \sum_{t=1}^{K} \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \]

\[ \leq \Gamma_K \left( \frac{\| x_0 - x^* \|^2}{2\eta} + \eta \sigma^2 \right) + \sigma^2 \eta K \]

\[ \leq \frac{2}{(1 + K)^2 \eta} \| x_0 - x^* \|^2 + \sigma^2 \eta (K + 1). \]

Optimizing with respect to \( \eta \) under the constraint \( \eta \leq 1/L \) gives (32). \( \blacksquare \)

D.11 Proof of Proposition 16

Proof

\[ \omega_k^2 = \mathbb{E} \left\| \frac{1}{q_{ik} n} \left( \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(y_{k-1}) - \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right) + \tilde{\nabla} f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - \nabla f(y_{k-1}) \right\|^2 \]

\[ = \mathbb{E} \left\| \frac{1}{q_{ik} n} \left( \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(y_{k-1}) + \zeta_k - \zeta'_k - \nabla f_{ik}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right) + \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \tilde{\epsilon}_{k-1} - \nabla f(y_{k-1}) \right\|^2, \]

\[ \leq \mathbb{E} \left\| \frac{1}{q_{ik} n} \left( \tilde{\nabla} f_{ik}(y_{k-1}) - \nabla f_{ik}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right) + \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \tilde{\epsilon}_{k-1} - \nabla f(y_{k-1}) \right\|^2 + 2\rho Q \sigma^2, \]

where \( \zeta_k \) and \( \zeta'_k \) are perturbations drawn at iteration \( k \), and \( \tilde{\epsilon}_{k-1} \) was drawn last time \( \tilde{x}_{k-1} \) was updated. Then, by noticing that for any deterministic quantity \( Y \) and random variable
we have $E[\|X - E[X] - Y\|^2] \leq E[\|X\|^2] + \|Y\|^2$, taking expectation with respect to the index $i_k \sim Q$ and conditioning on $F_{k-1}$, we have

\[
\omega_k^2 \leq E \left[ - \frac{1}{q_i n} (\nabla f_{i_k}(y_{k-1}) - \nabla f_{i_k}(\tilde{x}_{k-1}))^2 \right] + E[\|\zeta_{k-1}\|^2] + 2\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{q_i n} E \|\nabla f_i(y_{k-1}) - \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}_{k-1})\|^2 + 3\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{2L_i}{q_i n} \left[ f_i(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - f_i(y_{k-1}) - \nabla f_i(\tilde{x}_{k-1})^\top (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \right] + 3\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2
\]

\[
= 2L_i E \left[ f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - f(y_{k-1}) - \nabla f(y_{k-1})^\top (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \right] + 3\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2
\]

\[
= 2L_i E \left[ f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - f(y_{k-1}) - g_k^\top (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - y_{k-1}) \right] + 3\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2,
\]

where the second inequality uses the upper-bound $E[\|\zeta\|^2] = \frac{a^2}{n} \leq \rho Q \sigma^2$, and the third one uses Theorem 2.1.5 in (Nesterov, 2004).

D.12 Proof of Lemma 17

Proof We can show that Lemma 11 still holds and thus,

\[
E[F(x_k)] \leq E \left[ l_k(y_{k-1}) \right] + \left( \frac{L\eta^2_k}{2} - \eta_k \right) E \left[ \|g_k\|^2 \right] + \eta_k \omega_k^2.
\]

\[
\leq E \left[ l_k(y_{k-1}) + a_k f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - a_k f(y_{k-1}) + a_k g_k^\top (y_{k-1} - \tilde{x}_{k-1}) \right]
\]

\[
+ E \left[ \left( \frac{L\eta^2_k}{2} - \eta_k \right) \|g_k\|^2 \right] + 3\rho Q \eta_k \sigma^2.
\]

Note also that

\[
l_k(y_{k-1}) + f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - f(y_{k-1}) = \psi(x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (y_{k-1} - x_k) + f(\tilde{x}_{k-1})
\]

\[
\leq \psi(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - \psi'(x_k)^\top (\tilde{x}_{k-1} - x_k) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (y_{k-1} - \tilde{x}_{k-1}) + f(\tilde{x}_{k-1})
\]

\[
= F(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + \psi'(x_k)^\top (y_{k-1} - \tilde{x}_{k-1}).
\]

Therefore, by noting that $l_k(y_{k-1}) + a_k f(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) - a_k f(y_{k-1}) \leq (1 - a_k) l_k(y_{k-1}) + a_k F(\tilde{x}_{k-1}) + a_k \psi'(x_k)^\top (y_{k-1} - \tilde{x}_{k-1})$, we obtain the desired result.

D.13 Proof of Corollary 20

Proof The proof is similar to that of Corollary 14 for accelerated SGD. The first stage with constant step-size $\eta$ requires $O \left( (n + \sqrt{\frac{nL\eta^2}{\mu}}) \log \left( \frac{F(x_0) - F^*}{\varepsilon} \right) \right)$ iterations. Then, we restart the optimization procedure, and assume that $E[F(x_0) - F^*] \leq B$ with $B = 3\rho Q \hat{\sigma}^2 \sqrt{\eta/\mu n}$. 46
With the choice of parameters, we have \( \gamma_k = \mu \) and \( \delta_k = \sqrt{\frac{5\eta\mu}{3n}} = \min\left(\sqrt{\frac{5\eta\mu}{3n}}, \frac{2}{k+2}\right) \).

We may then apply Theorem 18 where the value of \( \Gamma_k \) is given by Lemma 26. This yields for \( k \geq k_0 = \left\lceil \frac{12n}{5\eta\mu} - 2 \right\rceil \),

\[
\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^*] \leq \Gamma_k \left( \mathbb{E}\left[ F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\mu}{2}\|x_k - F^*\|^2 \right] + \frac{3\rho Q^2}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta t}{\Gamma_t} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \Gamma_k \left( 2B + \frac{3\rho Q^2\eta}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} + \frac{3\rho Q^2}{n} \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{12n}{5\Gamma_t(\xi + 2)^2} \right)
\]

\[
= \frac{k_0(k_0 + 1)}{(k+1)(k+2)} \left( \Gamma_{k_0-1}2B + \frac{3\rho Q^2\eta}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k_0-1} \frac{\Gamma_{k_0-1}}{\Gamma_t} \right) + \frac{36\rho Q^2}{5\mu} \sum_{t=k_0}^{k} \frac{\Gamma_k}{\Gamma_t(\xi + 2)^2} \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)}
\]

\[
= \frac{2k_0(k_0 + 1)B}{(k+1)(k+2)} + \frac{8\rho Q^2}{\mu(k+1)(k+2)} \left( \sum_{t=k_0+1}^{k} \frac{(t+1)(t+2)}{(t+2)^2} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2k_0B}{k+2} + \frac{8\rho Q^2}{\mu(k+2)},
\]

where we use Lemmas 26 and 27. Then, note that \( k_0 B \leq 6\rho Q^2/\mu \) and we obtain the right iteration complexity.

---

**D.14 Proof of Corollary 21**

**Proof** Let us call \( x'_0 \) the point obtained by running one iteration of (A) with step-size \( \eta \leq \frac{1}{3LQ} \) and gradient estimator \((1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla f_i(x_0)\), whose variance is \( \tilde{\sigma}^2/n \). Following the proof of Corollary 9, the relation (52) holds. Then, we consider the main run of the algorithm, and apply Theorem 18, replacing \( x_0 \) by \( x'_0 \), which yields, combined with (52)

\[
\mathbb{E}\left[ F(x_k) - F^* \right] \leq \Gamma_k \left( F(x'_0) - F^* + \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - F^*\|^2 + \frac{3\rho Q^2}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta t}{\Gamma_t} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \Gamma_k \left( \frac{1}{2\eta} \|x'_0 - F^*\|^2 + \eta \frac{\tilde{\sigma}^2}{n} + \frac{3\rho Q^2}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{k} \frac{\eta t}{\Gamma_t} \right).
\]

Then, we note that \( \delta_k = \min\left(\sqrt{\frac{5\tilde{\sigma}^2}{3n}}, \frac{1}{3n}\right) \) such that \( \Gamma_k = (1 - \frac{1}{3n})^k \) for \( k \leq k_0 \), where \( k_0 \) is the index such that \( (1 - \frac{1}{3n})^{k_0+1} \leq \frac{1}{15n} < (1 - \frac{1}{3n})^{k_0} \), which gives us \((3n - 1)\log(15n) \leq k_0 \leq 3n(\log(15n))\). For \( k > k_0 \), we are in a constant step size regime, and we may then use
Lemma 29 to obtain

\[
\Gamma_k = \Gamma_{k_0} \frac{4}{\left(2 + (k - k_0)\sqrt{\frac{5\gamma_{k_0} \eta}{3n}}\right)^2} \leq \Gamma_{k_0} \frac{4}{(k - k_0)^2 \frac{5\Gamma_{k_0}}{3n}} \leq \frac{3n}{(k - k_0)^2}.
\]

Then, noticing that \( K \geq 2k_0 + 1 \), we have \( K - k_0 \geq (K + 1)/2 \), and we conclude that

\[
\mathbb{E} \left[ F(x_K) - F^* \right] \leq \frac{3n\|x'_0 - x^*\|^2}{2\eta(K - k_0)^2} + \frac{3\eta\rho Q\sigma^2(K + 1)}{n}\leq \frac{6n\|x'_0 - x^*\|^2}{\eta(K + 1)^2} + \frac{3\eta\rho Q^2(K + 1)}{n}.
\]

Then, it remains to optimize with respect to \( \eta \), under the constraint \( \eta \leq 1/(3L_Q) \), which provides (35).


Estimate Sequences for Stochastic Composite Optimization


