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# On the ergodic convergence rates of a first-order primal-dual algorithm 

Antonin Chambolle, and Thomas Pock ${ }^{\dagger}$

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#### Abstract

We revisit the proofs of convergence for a first order primal-dual algorithm for convex optimization which we have studied a few years ago. In particular, we prove rates of convergence for a more general version, with simpler proofs and more complete results.


MSC Classification: 49M29 65K10 65Y20 90C25
Keywords: Saddle-point problems, first order algorithms, primal-dual algorithms, convergence rates, ergodic convergence.

## 1 Introduction

In this work we revisit a first-order primal-dual algorithm which was introduced in [24, 14] and its accelerated variants which were studied in [5]. We derive new estimates for the rate of convergence. In particular, exploiting a proximal-point interpretation due to [15], we are able to give a very elementary proof of an ergodic $O(1 / N)$ rate of convergence (where $N$ is the number of iterations), which also generalizes to non-linear norms [16], to overrelaxed $[15,9]$ and inertial [17] variants. In the second part, we give new, more precise estimates of the convergence rate for the accelerated variants of the algorithm. We conclude the paper by showing the practical performance of the algorithm on a number of randomly generated standard optimization problems.

The new proofs we propose easily incorporate additional smooth terms such as considered in $[9,29]$ (where convergence is already been proved, without rates), and [4] (where the proofs of [5] are extended to the framework of [29] which considers general monotone operators). We are also aware of a very recent work of Drori, Sabach and Teboulle, who have obtained similar results on a closely related primal-dual ("PAPC") algorithm [10], which also handles explicit terms (but is based on an extragradient technique as in [18]). We must observe that in addition, our proofs carry on to the nonlinear (or Banach space) setting. They can indeed take into account without effort non-linear proximity operators, based on Bregman distance functions

[^0](except in the accelerated variables of the accelerated schemes), in the spirit of the "Mirrordescent" methods introduced by Nemirovski and Yudin [19]. These were extensively studied by many authors, see in particular [27, 6, 3], and [18] in a primal-dual framework. See also [8, 23] for recent advances on such primal-dual algorithms, including stochastic versions. On the other hand, in the standard, Euclidean setting, the algorithm we study was shown recently to be a linearized variant of the ADMM algorithm for which a convergence theory, with more precise results, is found in [26].

We are addressing the following problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x \in \mathcal{X}} \max _{y \in \mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=\langle K x, y\rangle+f(x)+g(x)-h^{*}(y), \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is the convex-concave saddle-point form of the "primal" minimization problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x)+g(x)+h(K x) . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ are real, reflexive Banach spaces ${ }^{1}$, endowed with corresponding norms $\|\cdot\|_{x}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{y}$. For notational simplicity, we will however drop the subscript for the norms whenever there is no ambiguity. The dual spaces (spaces of all continuous linear functionals) are denoted by $\mathcal{X}^{*}$, and $\mathcal{Y}^{*}$. For $x^{*} \in \mathcal{X}^{*}$ and $x \in \mathcal{X}$, the bilinear form $\left\langle x^{*}, x\right\rangle$ gives the value of the function $x^{*}$ at $x$. Similar, for $y^{*} \in \mathcal{Y}^{*}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y},\left\langle y^{*}, y\right\rangle$ gives the value of the function $y^{*}$ at $y$. The norms of the dual spaces are defined as

$$
\left\|x^{*}\right\|_{*}=\sup _{\|x\| \leq 1}\left\langle x^{*}, x\right\rangle, \quad\left\|y^{*}\right\|_{*}=\sup _{\|y\| \leq 1}\left\langle y^{*}, y\right\rangle .
$$

By definition, we also have that

$$
\left\langle x^{*}, x\right\rangle \leq\|x\| \cdot\left\|x^{*}\right\|_{*}, \quad\left\langle y^{*}, y\right\rangle \leq\|y\| \cdot\left\|y^{*}\right\|_{*} .
$$

We further assume that the following assumptions are fulfilled:
(i) $K: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}^{*}$ is a bounded linear operator, with corresponding adjoint operator $K^{*}: \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow$ $\mathcal{X}^{*}$ defined by

$$
\langle K x, y\rangle=\left\langle K^{*} y, x\right\rangle .
$$

The norm of this operator is defined by

$$
L=\|K\|=\sup _{\|x\| \leq 1,\|y\| \leq 1}\langle K x, y\rangle=\sup _{\|x\| \leq 1}\|K x\|_{*}=\left\|K^{*}\right\|=\sup _{\|y\| \leq 1}\left\|K^{*} y\right\|_{*}
$$

Hence, we also have that

$$
\langle K x, y\rangle \leq\|K x\|_{*} \cdot\|y\| \leq\|K\| \cdot\|x\| \cdot\|y\|, \quad\left\langle K^{*} y, x\right\rangle \leq\left\|K^{*} y\right\|_{*} \cdot\|x\| \leq\left\|K^{*}\right\| \cdot\|x\| \cdot\|y\| .
$$

For example, let $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{p}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{q}$, with $p, q \geq 1$, i.e. the usual $\ell_{p}$ norms, then

$$
\|K\|=\sup _{\|x\|_{p} \leq 1}\|K x\|_{q^{\prime}}=\sup _{\|y\|_{q} \leq 1}\left\|K^{*} y\right\|_{p^{\prime}}=\sup _{\substack{\|x\|_{p} \leq 1 \\\|y\|_{q} \leq 1}}\langle K x, y\rangle
$$

with $p^{\prime}, q^{\prime}$ such that $1 / p+1 / p^{\prime}=1$, and $1 / q+1 / q^{\prime}=1$.

[^1](ii) $f$ is a proper, lower semicontinuous (l.s.c.), convex function, with $\nabla f$ Lipschitz continuous on the domain of $g$, i.e.
$$
\left\|\nabla f(x)-\nabla f\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right\|_{*} \leq L_{f}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|, \quad \forall x, x^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}^{2}
$$
(iii) $g, h$ are proper, l.s.c., convex functions with simple structure, in the sense that their proximal maps
$$
\min _{x} g(x)+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x}), \quad \min _{y} h^{*}(y)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \bar{y})
$$
can be computed for any $\tau, \sigma>0$.
Here $D_{x}$ and $D_{y}$ are Bregman proximity/distance functions based on 1-strongly convex (w.r.t. the respective norms) functions $\psi_{x}$ and $\psi_{y}$, defined by
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{x}(x, \bar{x}) & =\psi_{x}(x)-\psi_{x}(\bar{x})-\left\langle\nabla \psi_{x}(\bar{x}), x-\bar{x}\right\rangle \\
D_{y}(y, \bar{y}) & =\psi_{y}(y)-\psi_{y}(\bar{y})-\left\langle\nabla \psi_{y}(\bar{y}), y-\bar{y}\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

Following [12], we assume that $\psi_{x}, \psi_{y}$ are continuously differentiable on open sets $S_{x}, S_{y}$, continuous on $\bar{S}_{x}, \bar{S}_{y}$, and that given any converging sequences $\left(x^{n}\right)$ and $\left(y^{n}\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{n} \rightarrow x \Rightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} D_{x}\left(x, x^{n}\right)=0, \quad y^{n} \rightarrow y \Rightarrow \lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} D_{y}\left(y, y^{n}\right)=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may of course assume that $\bar{S}_{x}$ and $\bar{S}_{y}$ are the respective domains of $\psi_{x}, \psi_{y}$. We need, in addition to [12], to assume the strong convexity of our functions to ensure the convergence of the algorithms studied in this paper. This restricts the possible class of Bregman functions, notice however that classical examples such as the entropy $\psi_{x}(x)=\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_{i} \log x_{i}$ is well-known to be 1 -strongly convex with respect to the 1 -norm [3, 27] when restricted to the unit simplex, it is also strongly convex with respect to the 2 -norm on bounded sets of $\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)^{d}$. Eventually, we must assume here that $\operatorname{dom} g \subseteq \operatorname{dom} \psi_{x}=\bar{S}_{x}$ and $\operatorname{dom} h^{*} \subseteq \operatorname{dom} \psi_{y}=\bar{S}_{y}$.

Clearly, the Lipschitz continuity of $f$ implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(x^{\prime}\right) \leq f(x)+\left\langle\nabla f(x), x^{\prime}-x\right\rangle+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{\prime}-x\right\|^{2}, \quad \forall x, x^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, the 1-strongy convexity of $\psi_{x}$ and $\psi_{y}$ easily implies that for any $x, \bar{x}$ and $y, \bar{y}$, it holds

$$
D_{x}(x, \bar{x}) \geq \frac{1}{2}\|x-\bar{x}\|^{2}, \quad D_{y}(y, \bar{y}) \geq \frac{1}{2}\|y-\bar{y}\|^{2}
$$

The most common choice for $\psi_{x}$ and $\psi_{y}$ is the usual squared Euclidean norm $\frac{1}{2}\|\cdot\|_{2}^{2}$ (or Hilbertian in infinite dimension), which yields

$$
D(x, \bar{x})=\frac{1}{2}\|x-\bar{x}\|_{2}^{2}
$$

We will refer to this classical case as the "Euclidean case". In this case, it is standard that given a convex, l.s.c. function $\phi$, if $\hat{u}$ is the minimizer of

$$
\phi(u)+\frac{1}{2}\|u-\bar{u}\|_{2}^{2}
$$

[^2](which we call the "Euclidean proximity map" of $\phi$ at $\bar{u}$ ), then by strong convexity one has for all $u$
$$
\phi(u)+\frac{1}{2}\|u-\bar{u}\|_{2}^{2} \geq \phi(\hat{u})+\frac{1}{2}\|\hat{u}-\bar{u}\|_{2}^{2}+\frac{1}{2}\|u-\hat{u}\|_{2}^{2} .
$$

It turns out that this property is true also for non-Euclidean proximity operators, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{u}=\arg \min _{u} \phi(u)+D(u, \bar{u}) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \forall u, \phi(u)+D(u, \bar{u}) \geq \phi(\hat{u})+D(\hat{u}, \bar{u})+D(u, \hat{u}) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is easily deduced from the optimality conditions for $\hat{u}$, see [6, 28].
Before closing this section, we point out that most of our results still hold, if the function $h$ is a convex l.s.c. function of the form $[29,4,17]$

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(y)=\min _{y_{1}+y_{2}=y} h_{1}\left(y_{1}\right)+h_{2}\left(y_{2}\right), \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

so that

$$
h^{*}(y)=h_{1}^{*}(y)+h_{2}^{*}(y)
$$

$h_{1}^{*}$ having simple structure while $\nabla h_{2}^{*}$ can be evaluated and is Lipschitz continuous with parameter $L_{h_{2}^{*}}$. For the ease of presentation we will not consider this situation but we will mention when our results can be extended to this case.

## 2 The general iteration

The main iterate of the class of primal-dual algorithms we consider in this paper is defined in (7). It takes the points $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ as well as the intermediate points $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$ as input and outputs the new points $(\hat{x}, \hat{y})$.

$$
\text { Iteration: }(\hat{x}, \hat{y})=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau, \sigma}(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \tilde{x}, \tilde{y})
$$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\hat{x}=\arg \min _{x} f(\bar{x})+\langle\nabla f(\bar{x}), x-\bar{x}\rangle+g(x)+\langle K x, \tilde{y}\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x})  \tag{7}\\
\hat{y}=\arg \min _{y} h^{*}(y)-\langle K \tilde{x}, y\rangle+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \bar{y})
\end{array}\right.
$$

Let us show the following descent rule:
Lemma 1. If (7) holds, then for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ one has

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathcal{L}(\hat{x}, y)-\mathcal{L}(x, \hat{y}) \leq \frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x})-\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \hat{x})-\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(\hat{x}, \bar{x})+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\|\hat{x}-\bar{x}\|^{2} \\
& \quad+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \bar{y})-\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \hat{y})-\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(\hat{y}, \bar{y})+ \\
&  \tag{8}\\
& \quad+\langle K(x-\hat{x}), \tilde{y}-\hat{y}\rangle-\langle K(\tilde{x}-\hat{x}), y-\hat{y}\rangle
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. From the first line in the above iteration (7) and property (5), it follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \langle\nabla f(\bar{x}), x\rangle+g(x)+\langle K x, \tilde{y}\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x}) \geq \\
& \quad\langle\nabla f(\bar{x}), \hat{x}\rangle+g(\hat{x})+\langle K \hat{x}, \tilde{y}\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(\hat{x}, \bar{x})+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \hat{x}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Moreover, from the convexity of $f$ and (4) it follows

$$
f(x) \geq f(\bar{x})+\langle\nabla f(\bar{x}), x-\bar{x}\rangle \geq f(\hat{x})+\langle\nabla f(\bar{x}), x-\hat{x}\rangle-\frac{L_{f}}{2}\|\hat{x}-\bar{x}\|^{2}
$$

Combining this with the previous inequality, we arrive at

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(x)+g(x)+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x})+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\|\hat{x}-\bar{x}\|^{2} \geq \\
& f(\hat{x})+g(\hat{x})+\langle K(\hat{x}-x), \tilde{y}\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(\hat{x}, \bar{x})+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \hat{x}) . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

In the same way:

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{*}(y)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \bar{y}) \geq h^{*}(\hat{y})-\langle K \tilde{x}, \hat{y}-y\rangle+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(\hat{y}, \bar{y})+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \hat{y}) . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Summing (9), (10) and rearranging the terms appropriately, we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}(\hat{x}, y)-\mathcal{L}(x, \hat{y}) \leq \frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x})-\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \hat{x})-\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(\hat{x}, \bar{x})+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\|\hat{x}-\bar{x}\|^{2} \\
&+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \bar{y})- \frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(y, \hat{y})-\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}(\hat{y}, \bar{y})+ \\
&\langle K \hat{x}, y\rangle-\langle K x, \hat{y}\rangle+\langle K(x-\hat{x}), \tilde{y}\rangle-\langle K \tilde{x}, y-\hat{y}\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

and (8) follows.

## 3 Non-linear primal-dual algorithm

In this section we address the convergence rate of the non-linear primal-dual algorithm shown in Algorithm 1: The elegant interpretation in [15] shows that by writing the algorithm in this form

Algorithm 1: $O(1 / N)$ Non-linear primal-dual algorithm

- Input: Operator norm $L=\|K\|$, Lipschitz constant $L_{f}$ of $\nabla f$, and Bregman distance functions $D_{x}$ and $D_{y}$.
- Initialization: Choose $\left(x^{0}, y^{0}\right) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, \tau, \sigma>0$
- Iterations: For each $n \geq 0$ let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{n+1}, y^{n+1}\right)=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau, \sigma}\left(x^{n}, y^{n}, 2 x^{n+1}-x^{n}, y^{n}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

(which "shifts" the updates with respect to [5]), in the Euclidean case, that is $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}$, and $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}, D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$, then it is an instance of the proximal point algorithm [25], up to the explicit term $\nabla f\left(x^{n}\right)$, since

$$
\binom{K^{*}+\partial g}{-K+\partial h^{*}}\left(z^{n+1}\right)+M_{\tau, \sigma}\left(z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right) \ni\binom{-\nabla f\left(x^{n}\right)}{0}
$$

where the variable $z \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ represents the pair $(x, y)$, and the matrix $M_{\tau, \sigma}$ is given by

$$
M_{\tau, \sigma}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{\tau} I & -K^{*}  \tag{12}\\
-K & \frac{1}{\sigma} I
\end{array}\right)
$$

which is positive-definite as soon as $\tau \sigma L^{2}<1$. A proof of convergence is easily deduced. Moreover, since in our particular setting we never really use the machinery of monotone operators, and rely only on the fact that we are studying a specific saddle-point problem, the results are a bit improved: in particular we deal easily with the explicit term $f$ and non-linear proximity operators.

Theorem 1. Let $\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right), n=0, \ldots, N-1$ be a sequence generated by the non-linear primaldual algorithm (11). Let the step size parameters $\tau, \sigma>0$ be chosen such that for all $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} g$ and $y, y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} h^{*}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-L_{f}\right) D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{\prime}\right), y-y^{\prime}\right\rangle \geq 0 \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, for any $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{1}{N}\left(\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{0}\right), y-y^{0}\right\rangle\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x^{n}$, and $Y^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} y^{n}$.
Proof. According to the iterative scheme (11), the estimate (8) becomes

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)- & \mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \leq\left[\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{n}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{n}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle\right] \\
& -\left[\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{n+1}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{n+1}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{n+1}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle\right] \\
- & {\left[\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x^{n+1}, x^{n}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y^{n+1}, y^{n}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y^{n+1}-y^{n}\right\rangle\right.} \\
& \left.-\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2}\right] . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

Thanks to (13), the terms in the brackets are non-negative. Now we sum the last estimate from $n=0, \ldots, N-1$ and find

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{0}\right), y-y^{0}\right\rangle
$$

where we have removed negative terms on the right hand side. Equation (14) follows from the convexity of $(\xi, \eta) \mapsto \mathcal{L}(\xi, y)-\mathcal{L}(x, \eta)$.

Remark 1. Observe that since $D_{x}\left(\cdot, x^{\prime}\right)$ and $D_{y}\left(\cdot, y^{\prime}\right)$ are 1-convex, (13) is ensured as soon as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-L_{f}\right) \frac{1}{\sigma} \geq L^{2} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 2. The rate (14) can also be written solely in terms of the distance functions $D_{x}$ and $D_{y}$. In fact, for any $\alpha>0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left|\left\langle K\left(x-x^{0}\right), y-y^{0}\right\rangle\right| \leq L\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|\left\|y-y^{0}\right\| \leq \\
& \qquad \frac{\alpha L}{2}\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}+\frac{L}{2 \alpha}\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2} \leq \alpha L D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)+\frac{L}{\alpha} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

In case $L_{f}=0, \tau \sigma L^{2}=1$ and choosing $\alpha=1 /(\tau L)$, the rate (14) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{2}{N}\left(\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the Euclidean setting, that is $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}=\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $D\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$, $D\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$, the estimate (15) reduces to

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2}\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\frac{1}{2} \| z- & z^{n+1} \|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& -\frac{1}{2}\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

with $M_{\tau, \sigma}$ defined in (12). This can also be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \leq\left\langle z^{n+1}-z^{n}, z-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

while the final estimate (14) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2 N}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that this rate is different from the rate obtained in [5], which does only depend on the diagonal part of $M_{\tau, \sigma}$ (each rate can be bounded by twice the other).
Remark 3. If we assume in addition that the inequality $\tau \sigma L^{2}<1$ is strict (which follows from (16) if $L_{f}>0$, and has to be assumed else), then we can deduce as in [5] convergence results for the algorithm, whenever a saddle-point $z^{*}=\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)$ exists. The first thing to observe is that this inequality yields that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x-x^{\prime}\right), y-y^{\prime}\right\rangle \geq \alpha\left(\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|^{2}+\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\right) \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some $\alpha>0$. As a consequence, it follows from (15) that the sequence $z^{n}=\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)$ is globally bounded (indeed, $\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y^{*}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x^{*}, Y^{N}\right) \geq 0$ ). Obviously, this also yields a bound for $Z^{N}=\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right)$. We may thus assume that a subsequence $\left(Z^{N_{k}}\right)_{k}$ weakly converges in $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ to some $Z=(X, Y)$, and from (14) and the lower-semicontinuity of $f, g, h^{*}$ it follows that the $\operatorname{limit} Z$ is a saddle-point.

In finite dimension, we can also show the convergence of the whole sequences $z^{n}$ and $Z^{N}$ to the same saddle-point. The proof follows the proof in $[24,5]$, in the linear case. Let us assume that $z$ is a limit point for a subsequence $\left(z^{n_{k}}\right)_{k}$, then since (15) guaranties the summability of $\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|^{2}$, we have that also $z^{n_{k} \pm 1} \rightarrow z$. It follows that $z$ is a fixed point of the algorithm and thus a saddle-point (which we now denote $z^{*}=\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)$ ).

Let $m \geq 0$ be the limit of the nonincreasing sequence

$$
\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x^{*}, x^{n}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y^{*}, y^{n}\right)-\left\langle K\left(x^{*}-x^{n}\right), y^{*}-y^{n}\right\rangle
$$

we wish to show that $m=0$. Since $z^{n_{k}} \rightarrow z^{*}$ we deduce

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}\left(x^{*}, x^{n_{k}}\right)+\frac{1}{\sigma} D_{y}\left(y^{*}, y^{n_{k}}\right)=m
$$

Using assumption (3), we deduce $m=0$. The convergence of the global sequence follows from (20). In Hilbert spaces of infinite dimension, the same proof shows weak convergence of the sequence for Euclidean proximity operators, invoking Opial's theorem [22].
Remark 4. In the Euclidean setting and when $g=0$, a better algorithm (in fact, optimal, see $[19,21])$ is proposed in $[7]$, which yields a rate of order $O\left(L_{f} / N^{2}+L / N\right)$.
Remark 5. In case $h$ has the composite form (6), then the theorem still holds with the condition (16) replaced with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-L_{f}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\sigma}-L_{h_{2}^{*}}\right) \geq L^{2} . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4 Overrelaxed and inertial variants

In this section, we consider overrelaxed and inertial versions of the primal-dual algorithm. We will only consider the Euclidean setting, that is $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}=\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$, and $D\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}, D\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$, since our proofs heavly rely on the fact that $\|\cdot\|_{2}^{2}=\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$.

### 4.1 Relaxed primal-dual algorithm

First we consider the relaxed primal-dual algorithm, whose convergence has been considered already in $[13,15]$. It is known that an overrelaxation parameter close to 2 can speed up the convergence but a theoretical justification was still missing.

Algorithm 2: $O(1 / N)$ Overrelaxed primal-dual algorithm

- Input: Operator norm $L=\|K\|_{2,2}$, Lipschitz constant $L_{f}$ of $\nabla f$, Bregman distance functions $D\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}, D\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$.
- Initialization: Choose $z^{0}=\left(x^{0}, y^{0}\right) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, \tau, \sigma>0$ and $\rho_{n} \in(0,2)$
- Iterations: For each $n \geq 0$ let

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(\xi^{n+1}, \eta^{n+1}\right)=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau, \sigma}\left(x^{n}, y^{n}, 2 \xi^{n+1}-x^{n}, y^{n}\right)  \tag{22}\\
z^{n+1}=\left(1-\rho_{n}\right) z^{n}+\rho_{n} \zeta^{n+1}
\end{array}\right.
$$

where $z^{n}=\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)$ and $\zeta^{n}=\left(\xi^{n}, \eta^{n}\right)$.

Theorem 2. Assume $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}=\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}, D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}, \quad D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$. Let $\left(\xi^{n}, \eta^{n}\right), n=0, \ldots, N-1$ be a sequence generated by the overrelaxed Euclidean primal-dual algorithm (22). Let the step size parameters $\tau, \sigma>0$ and the overrelaxation parameter $\rho_{n}$ be a non-decreasing sequence in $(0, \rho)$ with $\rho<2$ such that for all $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} g$ and $y, y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} h^{*}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-\frac{L_{f}}{2-\rho}\right) \frac{1}{\sigma}>\|K\|_{2}^{2} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, for any $z=(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2 \rho_{0} N}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \xi^{n}$, and $Y^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \eta^{n}$.
Proof. We start with the basic inequality (8). According to (22), using $\bar{z}=z^{n}$ and $\tilde{z}=\left(2 \xi^{n+1}-\right.$ $x^{n}, y^{n}$ ) and $\hat{z}=\zeta^{n+1}$, we obtain

$$
\mathcal{L}\left(\xi^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, \eta^{n+1}\right) \leq\left\langle\zeta^{n+1}-z^{n}, z-\zeta^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|\xi^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2}
$$

where $M_{\tau, \sigma}$ is defined in (12) and we have used the fact that $2\langle a, b\rangle_{M}=\|a\|_{M}^{2}+\|b\|_{M}^{2}-\|a-b\|_{M}^{2}$. Now, observe that from the second line in (22), the auxiliary point $\zeta^{n+1}$ can be written as

$$
\zeta^{n+1}=z^{n}+\frac{1}{\rho_{n}}\left(z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right)
$$

Substituting back into the previous inequality, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}\left(\xi^{n+1}, y\right)= \mathcal{L}\left(x, \eta^{n+1}\right) \\
& \leq\left\langle z^{n}+\frac{1}{\rho_{n}}\left(z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right)-z^{n}, z-z^{n}-\frac{1}{\rho_{n}}\left(z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right)\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}} \\
& \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n}+\frac{1}{\rho_{n}}\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right)-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
&= \frac{1}{\rho_{n}}\left\langle z^{n+1}-z^{n}, z-z^{n}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}-\frac{1}{\rho_{n}^{2}}\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2 \rho_{n}^{2}}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
&= \frac{1}{2 \rho_{n}}\left(\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n+1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right) \\
& \quad-\frac{2-\rho_{n}}{2 \rho_{n}^{2}}\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2 \rho_{n}^{2}}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2 \rho_{n}}\left(\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n+1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right)-\frac{2-\rho_{n}}{2 \rho_{n}^{2}}\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma, \rho_{n}}^{2}}^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

where we have defined the metric

$$
M_{\tau, \sigma, \rho_{n}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-\frac{L_{f}}{2-\rho_{n}}\right) I & -K^{*} \\
-K & \frac{1}{\sigma} I
\end{array}\right),
$$

which is positive definite for all $n$ as soon as (23) is fulfilled. In addition, assuming that $\rho_{n}$ is a non-decreasing sequence in $(0, \rho)$ with $\rho<2$, summing the above inequality from $n=0, \ldots, N-1$ and omitting all nonpositive terms on the right hand side, it follows

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}\left(\xi^{n}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, \eta^{n}\right) \leq \frac{1}{2 \rho_{0}}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}
$$

The final estimate (24) follows from defining appropriate averages and the convexity of the gap function.

Remark 6. The last result indeed shows that the convergence rate is improved by choosing $\rho_{0}$ as large as possible, i.e. close to 2 . However, observe that in case the smooth explicit term $\nabla f$ is not zero, it might be less beneficial to use a overrerlaxation parameter larger than one since it requires smaller primal step sizes $\tau$.

### 4.2 Inertial primal-dual algorithm

Next, we consider an inertial version of the primal-dual algorithm, who has recently been considered in [17] as an extension of the inertial proximal point algorithm of Alvarez and Attouch [1]. It has already been observed in numerical experiments that inertial terms leads to a faster convergence of the algorithm. Here we give a theoretical evidence that indeed the presence of an inertial term leads to a smaller worst-case complexity.

Algorithm 3: $O(1 / N)$ Inertial primal-dual algorithm

- Input: Operator norm $L=\|K\|_{2,2}$, Lipschitz constant $L_{f}$ of $\nabla f$, and Bregman distance functions $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$ and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$.
- Initialization: Choose $\left(x^{-1}, y^{-1}\right)=\left(x^{0}, y^{0}\right) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, \tau, \sigma>0$ and $\alpha_{n} \in[0,1 / 3)$
- Iterations: For each $n \geq 0$ let $^{a}$

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\zeta^{n}=z^{n}+\alpha_{n}\left(z^{n}-z^{n-1}\right)  \tag{25}\\
\left(x^{n+1}, y^{n+1}\right)=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau, \sigma}\left(\xi^{n}, \eta^{n}, 2 x^{n+1}-\xi^{n}, \eta^{n}\right)
\end{array}\right.
$$

## ${ }^{a}$ Here as before, $z=(x, y)$ and similarly,$\zeta=(\xi, \eta)$.

Theorem 3. Assume $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}=\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}, D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}, \quad D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$. Let $\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right), n=0, \ldots, N-1$ be a sequence generated by the inertial Euclidean primal-dual algorithm (25). Let the step size parameters $\tau, \sigma>0$ and the inertial parameter $\alpha_{n}$ be a non-decreasing sequence in $[0, \alpha]$ with $\alpha<1 / 3$ such that for all $x, x^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} g$ and $y, y^{\prime} \in \operatorname{dom} h^{*}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-\frac{(1+\alpha)^{2}}{1-3 \alpha} L_{f}\right) \frac{1}{\sigma}>\|K\|_{2}^{2} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, for any $z=(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{1-\alpha_{0}}{2 N}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x^{n}$, and $Y^{N}=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} y^{n}$.
Proof. We again start with the basic inequality (8). According to (25), using $\bar{z}=\zeta^{n}$ and $\hat{z}=z^{n+1}$, we have

$$
\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \leq\left\langle z^{n+1}-\zeta^{n}, z-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n+1}-\xi^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2}
$$

Plugging in the first line of (25) we arrive at

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \\
& \leq\left\langle z^{n+1}-z^{n}, z-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}-\alpha_{n}\left\langle z^{n}-z^{n-1}, z-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}} \\
& \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}-\alpha_{n}\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right)\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& \leq\left\langle z^{n+1}-z^{n}, z-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}-\alpha_{n}\left\langle z^{n}-z^{n-1}, z-z^{n}+z^{n}-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}} \\
& \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right)\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2}+\left(\alpha_{n}+\alpha_{n}^{2}\right)\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n+1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right) \\
& -\frac{\alpha_{n}}{2}\left(\left\|z-z^{n-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z^{n}-z^{n-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right) \\
& \quad-\alpha_{n}\left\langle z^{n}-z^{n-1}, z^{n}-z^{n+1}\right\rangle_{M_{\tau, \sigma}} \\
& \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right)\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2}+\left(\alpha_{n}+\alpha_{n}^{2}\right)\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the inequality $\left|\langle a, b\rangle_{M}\right| \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\|a\|_{M}^{2}+\|b\|_{M}^{2}\right)$ we obtain the estimate

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right) \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2}\left(\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n+1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right)+\frac{\alpha_{n}}{2}\left(\left\|z-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\left\|z-z^{n-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right) \\
& +\frac{\alpha_{n}-1}{2}\left\|z^{n+1}-z^{n}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\alpha_{n}\left\|z^{n}-z^{n-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& +\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right)\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|_{2}^{2}+\left(\alpha_{n}+\alpha_{n}^{2}\right)\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, since $\alpha_{n} \geq 0$ is non-decreasing and $z^{-1}=z^{0}$ and summing the above inequality from $n=0, \ldots, N-1$ we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n}, y\right)- & \mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n}\right) \leq
\end{aligned} \begin{aligned}
2
\end{aligned} \frac{1-\alpha_{0}}{2}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} .
$$

where

$$
M_{\tau, \sigma, \alpha_{n}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-\frac{\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right)^{2}}{1-3 \alpha_{n}} L_{f}\right) I & -K^{*} \\
-K & \frac{1}{\sigma} I
\end{array}\right)
$$

which is positive definite for all $n$ as soon as (26) is fulfilled for all $\alpha_{n} \leq \alpha<1 / 3$ since the function $\frac{\left(1+\alpha_{n}\right)^{2}}{1-3 \alpha_{n}}$ is monotonically increasing in $\alpha_{n}$. Our last estimate can be further simplified as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n}\right) \leq \frac{1-\alpha_{0}}{2}\left\|z-z^{0}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& \quad \begin{array}{l}
+\frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{2}\left\|z-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{\alpha_{N-1}-1}{2}\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
\\
\end{array} \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(1+\alpha_{N-1}\right)\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|_{2}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It remains to show that the term in the last two lines of the above estimate is nonpositive. In fact:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\alpha_{N-1}}{2}\left\|z-z^{N}+z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{\alpha_{N-1}-1}{2}\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& \quad-\frac{1}{2}\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(1+\alpha_{N-1}\right)\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& \leq \alpha_{N-1}\left(\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}\right)+\frac{\alpha_{N-1}-1}{2}\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& \quad-\frac{1}{2}\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(1+\alpha_{N-1}\right)\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& =\left(\alpha_{N-1}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\left(\frac{3 \alpha_{N-1}-1}{2}\right)\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2} \\
& \quad+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\left(1+\alpha_{N-1}\right)\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|_{2}^{2} \\
& \quad=\left(\alpha_{N-1}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left\|z-z^{N}\right\|_{M_{\tau, \sigma}}^{2}+\left(\frac{3 \alpha_{N-1}-1}{2}\right)\left\|z^{N}-z^{N-1}\right\|_{P}^{2} \leq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

since $\alpha_{n} \leq \alpha<1 / 3$ and

$$
P=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\left(\frac{1}{\tau}-\frac{1+\alpha_{N-1}}{11-3 \alpha_{N-1}} L_{f}\right) I & -K^{*} \\
-K & \frac{1}{\sigma} I
\end{array}\right)
$$

is clearly positive definite if (26) is fulfilled. It remains to derive the ergodic rate by defining appropriate averages and exploiting the convexity of the gap function.

Remark 7. This result again shows that it is beneficial to choose $\alpha_{0}$ as large as possible, i.e. $\alpha_{0}$ close to $1 / 3$ in order to reduce the constant on the right hand side. Similar to the case of overrelaxation, larger values of $\alpha_{n}$ leads to smaller primal step sizes $\tau$ and hence an inertial term might be less beneficial in presence of an explicit term $\nabla f$.
Remark 8. Letting $\gamma=\tau L_{f}$ we find that the maximal feasible $\alpha$ is computed as

$$
\alpha=\frac{\sqrt{16 \gamma+9}-3}{2 \gamma}-1
$$

We point out that our condition requires slightly smaller values of $\alpha$, compared to the condition found in [17]. This is due to the fact that our convergence proof is based on the Lipschitz continuity of $\nabla f$ rather than the co-coercivity property of $\nabla f$, which leads to the loss of a factor 2 in the size of the primal step size $\tau$ relatively to the Lipschitz parameter $L_{f}$.

## 5 Acceleration for strongly convex problems

Here in this section, we slightly improve the results in [5] on accelerated algorithms. We address more precisely the natural generalization proposed in [9] (also [29]) and studied in [4] (where rates of convergence are proven). The main novelty with respect to [4] is a proof that in an ergodic sense, also the primal-dual gap is controlled and decreases at rate $O\left(1 / N^{2}\right)$ where $N$ is the number of iterations. In addition to our assumptions (i)-(iii) we assume that
(iv) $f$ or $g$ (or both) are strongly convex with respective parameters $\gamma_{f}, \gamma_{g}$ and hence the primal objective is strongly convex with parameter $\gamma=\gamma_{f}+\gamma_{g}>0$.

In fact, we observe that since

$$
f(x)+g(x)=\left(f(x)-\frac{\gamma_{f}}{2}\|x\|^{2}\right)+\left(g(x)+\frac{\gamma_{f}}{2}\|x\|^{2}\right)
$$

we can "transfer" the strong convexity of $f$ to $g$ : letting $\tilde{f}=f-\gamma_{f}\|\cdot\|^{2} / 2, \tilde{g}=g+\gamma_{f}\|\cdot\|^{2} / 2$, and $\gamma=\gamma_{f}+\gamma_{g}$, we have now that $\tilde{g}$ is $\gamma$-convex. In addition, $\nabla \tilde{f}=\nabla f-\gamma_{f} I$, so that

$$
x^{\prime}=(I+\tilde{\tau} \partial \tilde{g})^{-1}(x-\tilde{\tau} \nabla \tilde{f}(x)) \Leftrightarrow x^{\prime}=(I+\tau \partial g)^{-1}(x-\tau \nabla f(x))
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\frac{\tilde{\tau}}{1+\gamma_{f} \tilde{\tau}}, \quad \text { so that } \tilde{\tau}:=\frac{\tau}{1-\gamma_{f} \tau} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

(observe that $\tau$ needs, as expected, to be less than $1 / \gamma_{f}>1 / L_{f}$ ). In addition, we find that $\nabla \tilde{f}$ is $\left(L_{f}-\gamma_{f}\right)$-Lipschitz. Hence in the following, to simplify we will just assume that $g$ is strongly convex (that is, $\gamma_{f}=0, \gamma=\gamma_{g}$ ), replacing assumption (iv) with the simpler assumption:
(iv') $g$ is strongly convex with parameter $\gamma>0$.
We must eventually mention here that in case $f=0$, the dual problem, which has the form $\min _{y} g^{*}\left(-K^{*} y\right)+h^{*}(y)$, is the sum of a smooth plus a nonsmooth objective which could be tackled directly by more standard optimal methods [2, 20, 21] yielding similar convergence rates (provided one knows how to compute the Lipschitz gradient $\nabla g^{*}$, which is slightly different from the assumptions we use in this paper).

### 5.1 Convergence analysis

With this additional assumption, the descent rule (9) can be slightly improved: indeed, thanks to the strong convexity of $g$, we can control an additional quadratic term on the right-hand side. It follows that for any $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& f(x)+g(x)+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x})+\frac{L_{f}}{2}\|\hat{x}-\bar{x}\|^{2} \geq \\
& \quad f(\hat{x})+g(\hat{x})+\langle K(\hat{x}-x), \tilde{y}\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(\hat{x}, \bar{x})+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \hat{x})+\frac{\gamma}{2}\|x-\hat{x}\|^{2} . \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

It follows that (8) is also improved, with the additional term $\frac{\gamma}{2}\|x-\hat{x}\|^{2}$ on the left-hand side. One sees that one will be able to obtain a good convergence rate whenever the last two terms

Algorithm 4: $O\left(1 / N^{2}\right)$ Accelerated primal-dual algorithm

- Input: Operator norm $L=\|K\|$, Lipschitz constant $L_{f}$ of $\nabla f$, parameter $\gamma$ of strong convexity of $g$, and Bregman distance function $D_{y}, D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{x}^{2}$
- Initialization: Choose $x^{-1}=x^{0} \in \mathcal{X}, \tau_{0}, \sigma_{0}, \theta_{0}>0$ which satisfy (34).
- Iterations: For each $n \geq 0$ let

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\left(x^{n+1}, y^{n+1}\right)=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}}\left(x^{n}, y^{n}, x^{n}+\theta_{n}\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y^{n+1}\right)  \tag{29}\\
\tau_{n+1}, \sigma_{n+1}, \theta_{n+1} \text { satisfy }(32),(33),(34) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

in (30) can be combined into one, which requires that $D_{x}(x, \hat{x})=\frac{1}{2}\|x-\hat{x}\|^{2}$, that is, we must consider linear proximity operators in the $x$ variable. ${ }^{3}$

Now, we can specialize "à la" [5]. That is, we choose in (8) $\tilde{y}=\hat{y}=y^{n+1}, \hat{x}=x^{n+1}$, $\tilde{x}=x^{n}+\theta_{n}\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), x=x^{n}, y=y^{n}$, and make $\tau, \sigma$ depend also on the iteration counter $n$. In particular, now, for any $(x, y) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \langle K(x-\tilde{x}), \hat{y}-\tilde{y}\rangle-\langle K(\hat{x}-\tilde{x}), y-\tilde{y}\rangle \\
& \quad=-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle+\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle \\
& =-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle+\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle \\
& \quad+\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y^{n}-y^{n+1}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

The last term is simply controlled by observing that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y^{n}-y^{n+1}\right\rangle \\
& \qquad \leq \theta_{n} L\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|\left\|y^{n}-y^{n+1}\right\| \leq \theta_{n} L\left(\frac{\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|^{2}}{2 \mu}+\frac{\mu\left\|y^{n}-y^{n+1}\right\|^{2}}{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for any $\mu>0$, and choosing $\mu=\theta_{n} L \sigma_{n}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle K(x-\tilde{x}), \hat{y}-\tilde{y}\rangle & -\langle K(\hat{x}-\tilde{x}), y-\tilde{y}\rangle \\
\geq-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle & +\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle \\
& -\frac{\left\|y^{n+1}-y^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{n}}-\left(\theta_{n}^{2} L^{2} \sigma_{n}\right) \frac{\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|^{2}}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from (8), with the additional strong convexity term from (30), that for any ( $x, y$ ), using

[^3]also that $D_{y}\left(y^{n+1}, y^{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2}\left\|y^{n+1}-y^{n}\right\|^{2}$,
\[

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\left\|x-x^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{n}}+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{n}\right)}{\sigma_{n}}-\theta_{n}\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle+\frac{\theta_{n}^{2} L^{2} \sigma_{n}}{2}\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|^{2} \\
& \geq \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right)+\frac{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}{2 \tau_{n}}\left\|x-x^{n+1}\right\|^{2} \\
& \quad+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{n+1}\right)}{\sigma_{n}}-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle+\frac{1-L_{f} \tau_{n}}{2 \tau_{n}}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2} \tag{31}
\end{align*}
$$
\]

Assume the sequences $\theta_{n}, \tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}$ satisfy for all $n \geq 0$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}{\tau_{n}} \geq \frac{1}{\theta_{n+1} \tau_{n+1}}  \tag{32}\\
& \frac{1}{\sigma_{n}}=\frac{1}{\theta_{n+1} \sigma_{n+1}}  \tag{33}\\
& L^{2} \sigma_{n} \leq \frac{1}{\tau_{n}}-L_{f} \tag{34}
\end{align*}
$$

Then (31) becomes

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\left\|x-x^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{n}}+ \frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{n}\right)}{2 \sigma_{n}}+ \\
& \theta_{n}\left(L^{2} \sigma_{n-1} \frac{\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|^{2}}{2}-\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle\right) \\
& \geq \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right)+\frac{1}{\theta_{n+1}}\left(\frac{\left\|x-x^{n+1}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{n+1}}+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{n+1}\right)}{2 \sigma_{n+1}}\right.  \tag{35}\\
&\left.+\theta_{n+1}\left(L^{2} \sigma_{n} \frac{\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2}-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle\right)\right)
\end{align*}
$$

Observe that from (33), $\prod_{n=1}^{N} \theta_{n}=\sigma_{0} / \sigma_{N}$. We now let

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{N}=\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\sigma_{n-1}}{\sigma_{0}}, \quad X^{N}=\frac{1}{T_{N}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\sigma_{n-1}}{\sigma_{0}} x^{n}, \quad Y^{N}=\frac{1}{T_{N}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\sigma_{n-1}}{\sigma_{0}} y^{n} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, summing (35) (first multiplied on both sides by $\sigma_{n} / \sigma_{0}$ ) from $n=0$ to $n=N-1$ and assuming $x^{-1}=x^{0}$, using also the convexity of $(\xi, \eta) \mapsto \mathcal{L}(\xi, y)-\mathcal{L}(x, \eta)$ (for fixed $x, y$ ), we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
& T_{N}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)\right)+\frac{\sigma_{N}}{\sigma_{0}}\left(\frac{\left\|x-x^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{N}}+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{N}\right)}{\sigma_{N}}\right. \\
&\left.+\theta_{N}\left(L^{2} \sigma_{N-1} \frac{\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|^{2}}{2}-\left\langle K\left(x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right), y-y^{N}\right\rangle\right)\right) \\
& \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)}{\sigma_{0}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Considering eventually that (using again (33))

$$
\left\langle K\left(x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right), y-y^{N}\right\rangle \leq \frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{N}\right)}{\theta_{N} \sigma_{N}}+\frac{L^{2} \sigma_{N-1}}{2}\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|^{2},
$$

we deduce the following result.

Theorem 4. Assume $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{x}^{2}$. Let $\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)$ be a sequence generated by Algorithm 4, and let $\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right)$ and $\left(T_{N}\right)$ be the ergodic averages given by (36). Then, for all $x$ and $y$, for all $N \geq 1$, one has the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{N}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)\right)+\frac{\sigma_{N}}{\sigma_{0}} \frac{\left\|x-x^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{N}} \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)}{\sigma_{0}} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 9. Notice that, taking $(x, y)=\left(x^{*}, y^{*}\right)$ a saddle-point in (37), we find that $X^{N}$ and $x^{N}$ are bounded (and converge to $x^{*}$ ). If we assume that $h$ has full domain, so that $h^{*}(y) /|y| \rightarrow \infty$ as $|y| \rightarrow \infty$, we deduce that also $Y^{N}$ is bounded (since otherwise $-\mathcal{L}\left(x^{*}, Y^{N}\right)$ would go to infinity), and it follows that the $(x, y)$ which realize the supremum in the expression $\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)$ are also globally bounded. It follows the global estimate on the gap

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{x, y} \mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{C}{T_{N}} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 5.2 Parameter choices

It turns out that it is possible to choose sequences $\left(\tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}, \theta_{n}\right)$ satisfying (32), (33), (34) in order to have $1 / T_{N}=O\left(1 / N^{2}\right)$. A possible choice, similar to [5], to ensure (32), (33), (34) is to keep the product $\sigma_{n} \tau_{n}$ constant and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{n+1}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}}, \quad \tau_{n+1}=\theta_{n+1} \tau_{n}, \quad \sigma_{n+1}=\sigma_{n} / \theta_{n+1} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, letting

$$
\tau_{0}=\frac{1}{2 L_{f}}, \quad \sigma_{0}=\frac{L_{f}}{L^{2}}
$$

(or $\tau_{0}=\sigma_{0}=1 / L$ if $L_{f}=0$ ), we find that by induction, since $\tau_{n+1} / \tau_{n}=\sigma_{n} / \sigma_{n+1}<1$ for each $n$, (34) will be satisfied. We refer to [5] for a proof that this choice ensures that $\sigma_{n} \sim \gamma n /\left(4 L^{2}\right)$, so that $T_{N} \sim \gamma N^{2} /\left(4 L_{f}\right)$.

A more simple (still slightly suboptimal) choice is to take $\sigma_{0}>0$ arbitrary, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau_{n}=\frac{2}{\gamma n+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)}, \quad \sigma_{n}=\sigma_{0}+\frac{\gamma n \sigma_{0}}{\gamma+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)} \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, (32), (33), (34) hold, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{N}=N+\frac{N(N-1)}{2} \frac{\gamma}{\gamma+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)} . \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observe that in this case,

$$
\theta_{n+1}=\frac{\sigma_{n}}{\sigma_{n+1}}=\frac{\gamma(n+1)+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)}{\gamma(n+2)+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)}
$$

and

$$
\theta_{n+1} \tau_{n+1}=\frac{2}{\gamma(n+2)+2\left(L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}\right)}=\frac{\tau_{n}}{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}
$$

that is, the equality holds in (32).

The optimal rule should consists in choosing equalities in (32), (33) and (34). We find that $\sigma_{0}$ can be chosen arbitrarily,

$$
\tau_{0}=\frac{1}{L_{f}+L^{2} \sigma_{0}}
$$

and then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1+\gamma \tau_{n}=\frac{\tau_{n}}{\tau_{n+1}} \frac{\sigma_{n+1}}{\sigma_{n}}=\frac{\tau_{n}^{2}}{\tau_{n+1}^{2}} \frac{1-L_{f} \tau_{n+1}}{1-L_{f} \tau_{n}} \\
& \frac{\tau_{n+1}^{2}}{1-L_{f} \tau_{n+1}}=\frac{\tau_{n}^{2}}{\left(1+\gamma \tau_{n}\right)\left(1-L_{f} \tau_{n}\right)}=: \beta_{n+1}^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

so that

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
\tau_{n+1}=\beta_{n+1}\left(\sqrt{1+\frac{L_{f}^{2}}{4}} \beta_{n+1}^{2}\right.
\end{array}-\frac{L_{f}}{2} \beta_{n+1}\right)=\frac{\beta_{n+1}}{\sqrt{1+\frac{L_{f}^{2}}{4} \beta_{n+1}^{2}+\frac{L_{f}}{2} \beta_{n+1}}}, \begin{aligned}
& =\frac{\tau_{n}}{\sqrt{\left(1+\gamma \tau_{n}\right)\left(1-L_{f} \tau_{n}\right)+\frac{L_{f}^{2}}{4} \tau_{n}^{2}}+\frac{L_{f}}{2} \tau_{n}}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\theta_{n+1}=\frac{\sqrt{\left(1+\gamma \tau_{n}\right)\left(1-L_{f} \tau_{n}\right)+\frac{L_{f}^{2}}{4} \tau_{n}^{2}}+\frac{L_{f}}{2} \tau_{n}}{1+\gamma \tau_{n}} \in\left[\frac{1}{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\gamma \tau_{n}}}\right]
$$

provided $L_{f} \tau_{n}<1$.
Let us denote $\tau_{n}^{o p t}, \sigma_{n}^{\text {opt }}$ and $T_{N}^{o p t}$ the $\tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}$ obtained by this "optimal" rule (and the corresponding $T_{N}$ ) and let us keep the notation $\tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}, T_{N}$ for the expressions in (40) and (41). These choices, in particular, satisfy the equality in (32), (33), but a strict inequality (for $n \geq 1$ ) in (34). We assume that the starting point $\sigma_{0}=\sigma_{0}^{o p t}$ is the same, then of course also $\tau_{0}=\tau_{0}^{\text {opt }}$. Then one has:

Lemma 2. For each $n \geq 0, \sigma_{n}^{o p t} \geq \sigma_{n}$, and $T_{n}^{o p t} \geq T_{n} \sim c n^{2}$.
Proof. We proceed by induction. We assume $\sigma_{n}^{o p t} \geq \sigma_{n}$, which is true for $n=0$. For practical reasons, let us set $X_{n}^{o p t}=L^{2} \sigma_{n}^{o p t}, Y_{n}^{o p t}=-1 / \tau_{n}^{o p t}, X_{n}=L^{2} \sigma_{n}$, and $Y_{n}=-1 / \tau_{n}$. Then from (32), we have for all $n$

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{n+1} Y_{n+1}=X_{n} Y_{n}-\gamma X_{n}, \quad X_{n+1}^{o p t} Y_{n+1}^{o p t}=X_{n}^{o p t} Y_{n}^{o p t}-\gamma X_{n}^{o p t} \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

We also assume $\Pi_{n}:=X_{n} Y_{n} \geq \Pi_{n}^{o p t}:=X_{n}^{o p t} Y_{n}^{\text {opt }}$, which is true at $n=0$. It follows then that from (42) and $X_{n}^{o p t} \geq X_{n}$ that $\Pi_{n+1} \geq \Pi_{n+1}^{o p t}$. Observe that being this product negative, it means in fact that $\left|\Pi_{n+1}\right| \leq\left|\Pi_{n+1}^{o p t}\right|$.

On the other hand, from (34), one has that

$$
\Sigma_{n+1}:=X_{n+1}+Y_{n+1} \leq-L_{f}=X_{n+1}^{o p t}+Y_{n+1}^{o p t}=: \Sigma_{n+1}^{o p t}
$$

(and, again, $\left.\left|\Sigma_{n+1}\right| \geq\left|\Sigma_{n+1}^{o p t}\right|\right)$.
One has then

$$
X_{n+1}=\frac{\Sigma_{n+1}+\sqrt{\Sigma_{n+1}^{2}-4 \Pi_{n+1}}}{2}=\frac{\sqrt{\Sigma_{n+1}^{2}+4\left|\Pi_{n+1}\right|}-\sqrt{\Sigma_{n+1}^{2}}}{2}
$$

which, by concavity of $\sqrt{ }$. and since $\Sigma_{n+1}^{2} \geq\left(\Sigma_{n+1}^{o p t}\right)^{2},\left|\Pi_{n+1}\right| \leq\left|\Pi_{n+1}^{o p t}\right|$, is less than the similar expression for $X_{n+1}^{o p t}$. This shows the Lemma.

## 6 Acceleration for smooth and strongly convex problems

In this section, we finally make the additional assumption that
(v) $h^{*}$ is strongly convex with parameter $\delta>0$.

Equivalently, $h$ has $(1 / \delta)$-Lipschitz gradient, so that the primal objective is both smooth and strongly convex. Then, as expected, the rate can be improved, to linear convergence. In this section, we must assume that the Bregman distance functions satistfy $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{x}^{2}$ and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{y}^{2}$.

We show here how to adapt the proof of the previous section, and obtain a linear convergence rate on the gap. This improves the results in [5, 4]. In contrast to [5], we do not show convergence for a large range of relaxation parameters $\theta$, but the proof presented here yields a better convergence rate.

### 6.1 Convergence analysis

Algorithm 5: $O\left(\theta^{N}\right)$ Accelerated primal-dual algorithm

- Input: Operator norm $L=\|K\|$, Lipschitz constant $L_{f}$ of $\nabla f$, parameters $\gamma, \delta$ of strong convexity of $g$ and $h^{*}, D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{x}^{2}$ and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{y}^{2}$.
- Initialization: Choose $x^{-1}=x^{0} \in \mathcal{X}, \tau, \sigma, \theta>0$ which satisfy (44) and (45).
- Iterations: For each $n \geq 0$ let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(x^{n+1}, y^{n+1}\right)=\mathcal{P} \mathcal{D}_{\tau, \sigma}\left(x^{n}, y^{n}, x^{n}+\theta\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y^{n+1}\right) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

A first remark is that the inequality (31), in case $h^{*}$ is $\delta$-convex, can be written

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\left\|x-x^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{n}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}-\theta\left\langle K\left(x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right), y-y^{n}\right\rangle+\frac{\theta^{2} L^{2} \sigma}{2}\left\|x^{n}-x^{n-1}\right\|^{2} \\
& \geq \mathcal{L}\left(x^{n+1}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n+1}\right)+\frac{1+\gamma \tau}{2 \tau}\left\|x-x^{n+1}\right\|^{2} \\
& +\frac{1+\delta \sigma}{2 \sigma}\left\|y-y^{n+1}\right\|^{2}-\left\langle K\left(x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right), y-y^{n+1}\right\rangle+\frac{1-L_{f} \tau}{2 \tau}\left\|x^{n+1}-x^{n}\right\|^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that if one can choose $\tau, \sigma, \theta$ so that

$$
\begin{align*}
& 1+\gamma \tau=1+\delta \sigma=\frac{1}{\theta}  \tag{44}\\
& \frac{1-L_{f} \tau}{\tau} \geq \theta L^{2} \sigma \tag{45}
\end{align*}
$$

then, multiplying the inequality by $\theta^{-n}$ and summing from $n=0$ to $N-1$, we get (assuming $x^{-1}=x^{0}$ )

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+ & \frac{\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma} \geq \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\theta^{n-1}}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n}\right)\right) \\
& +\frac{1}{\theta^{N}}\left(\frac{\left\|x-x^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}-\theta\left\langle K\left(x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right), y-y^{N}\right\rangle\right) \\
& +\frac{1-L_{f} \tau}{2 \tau \theta^{N-1}}\left\|x^{N}-x^{N-1}\right\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using (45) again, we deduce

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{\theta^{n-1}}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(x^{n}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, y^{n}\right)\right)+\frac{\left\|x-x^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau \theta^{N}} \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}
$$

Hence, letting now

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{N}=\sum_{n=1}^{N} \theta^{-n+1}=\frac{1-\theta^{N}}{1-\theta} \frac{1}{\theta^{N-1}} \text { and } Z^{N}=\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right)=\frac{1}{T_{N}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \theta^{-n+1} z^{n} \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain the following result
Theorem 5. Assume $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{x}^{2}$ and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{y}^{2}$. Let $\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)$ be a sequence generated by Algorithm 5, and let $\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right)$ and $\left(T_{N}\right)$ be the ergodic averages defined in (46). Then, for all $x$ and $y$, for all $N \geq 1$, one has the estimate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)+\frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{1-\theta^{N}} \frac{\left\|x-x^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau} \leq \frac{1}{T_{N}}\left(\frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}\right) \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

which yields a linear convergence rate.

### 6.2 Parameter choices

Solving the equations (44) for $\tau, \sigma, \theta$, we obtain ${ }^{4}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \tau=\frac{1+\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)+L_{f}^{2} / \gamma^{2}+2 L_{f} / \gamma}-L_{f} / \gamma}{2 L_{f}+2 L^{2} / \delta} \\
& \sigma=\frac{1+\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)+L_{f}^{2} / \gamma^{2}+2 L_{f} / \gamma}-L_{f} / \gamma}{2 L_{f} \delta / \gamma+2 L^{2} / \gamma} \\
& \theta=1-\frac{\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)+L_{f}^{2} / \gamma^{2}+2 L_{f} / \gamma}-L_{f} / \gamma-1}{2 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)}
\end{aligned}
$$

In case $L_{f}=0$ the above formulas greatly simplify to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tau=\frac{1+\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)}}{2 L^{2} / \delta}, \quad \sigma=\frac{1+\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)}}{2 L^{2} / \gamma}, \quad \theta=1-\frac{\sqrt{1+4 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)}-1}{2 L^{2} /(\gamma \delta)} . \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^4]We can observe that this choice yields a slightly better linear convergence rate than previously shown in [5].

## 7 Computational examples

In this section we demonstrate the practical performance of the proposed algorithms on a number of randomly generated instances of classical optimization problems.

### 7.1 Matrix games

Here, we consider the following min-max matrix game:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \max _{y \in \Delta_{k}} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=\langle A x, y\rangle \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\Delta_{k}$ and $\Delta_{l}$ denote the standard unit simplices in $\mathbb{R}^{k}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{l}$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times l}$. This class of min-max matrix games can be used for approximately finding the Nash equilibrium of two-person zero-sum matrix games such as two-person Texas Hold'em Poker. Following the computational experiments in [21], the entries of $A$ are independently and uniformly distributed in the intervall $[-1,1]$. We denote by $L=\|A\|$ the operator norm of $A$. We can also easily compute the primaldual gap of a feasible pair $(x, y)$. For this we observe that $\arg \min _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=e_{j}$, where $e_{j} \in \Delta_{l}$ is the $j$-th standard basis vector corresponding to the smallest entry of the vector $A^{T} y$. Likewise, $\arg \max _{y \in \Delta_{k}} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=e_{i}$, where $i$ corresponds to the coordinate of the largest entry of $A x$. Hence, the primal-dual gap is computed as

$$
\mathcal{G}(x, y)=\left[\mathcal{P}(x)=\max _{i}(A x)_{i}\right]-\left[\mathcal{D}(y)=\min _{j}\left(A^{T} y\right)_{j}\right]
$$

### 7.1.1 Linear and nonlinear primal-dual algorithms

We first consider different Bregman distance settings of the nonlinear primal-dual algorithm presented in Algorithm 1. The initial points $\left(x^{0}, y^{0}\right)$ are chosen to be the centers of the simplices, that is $x_{j}^{0}=1 / l$ and $y_{i}^{0}=1 / k$ for all $i, j$. There are two obvious choices for the Bregman distance functions:

1. Euclidean setting: In the Euclidean setting, $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}, D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|^{2}$, and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|^{2}$. It follows that $\max _{x \in \Delta_{l}} D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)=\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right) / 2$ and likewise $\max _{y \in \Delta_{k}} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)=\left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right) / 2$. The operator norm is computed as the largest singular value $L_{2}=s_{\max }(A)$. In the iterates of the algorithm, we need to solve subproblems of the following form:

$$
\hat{x}=\arg \min _{x \in \Delta_{l}}\langle x, g\rangle+\frac{\|x-\bar{x}\|}{2 \tau} \Leftrightarrow \hat{x}=\operatorname{proj}_{\Delta_{l}}(\bar{x}-\tau g),
$$

where we are using the $n \log n$ algorithm described in [11] to compute the orthogonal projections on the unit simplices. Taking the supremum on the right hand side of (17), the
ergodic $O(1 / N)$ rate for the primal-dual gap bounded by

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{2}{N}\left(\frac{1-\frac{1}{l}}{2 \tau}+\frac{1-\frac{1}{k}}{2 \sigma}\right) .
$$

Since $\tau \sigma L_{2}^{2}=1$, the right hand side is minimized by setting

$$
\tau=\frac{1}{L_{2}} \sqrt{\frac{1-\frac{1}{l}}{1-\frac{1}{k}}}, \quad \sigma=\frac{1}{L_{2}} \sqrt{\frac{1-\frac{1}{k}}{1-\frac{1}{l}}} .
$$

Hence we get the following final estimate for the gap

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{2 \sqrt{\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right)\left(1-\frac{1}{k}\right)}}{N} L_{2} .
$$

2. Entropy setting: In the entropy setting we choose $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{1}$ and the Bregman distance functions are given by $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{j} x_{j}\left(\log x_{j}-\log x_{j}^{\prime}\right)-x_{j}+x_{j}^{\prime}$ and $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=$ $\sum_{i} y_{i}\left(\log y_{i}-\log y_{i}^{\prime}\right)-y_{i}+y_{i}^{\prime}$, which are 1 -convex with respect to the 1 -norm. Now, $\max _{x \in \Delta_{l}} D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)=\log l$ and $\max _{y \in \Delta_{k}} D_{y}\left(y, y^{0}\right)=\log k$. The operator norm is given by $L_{1}=\sup _{\|x\|_{1}=1}\|A x\|_{\infty}=\max _{i, j}\left|A_{i, j}\right|$.
It is well known that in the entropy setting, the iterates of the algorithm are explicit:

$$
\hat{x}=\arg \min _{x \in \Delta_{l}}\langle x, g\rangle+\frac{1}{\tau} D_{x}(x, \bar{x}) \Leftrightarrow \hat{x}_{j}=\frac{\bar{x}_{j} \exp \left(-\tau g_{j}\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{l} \bar{x}_{j} \exp \left(-\tau g_{j}\right)}
$$

In turn, the ergodic $O(1 / N)$ rate in (17) specializes to

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{2}{N}\left(\frac{\log l}{\tau}+\frac{\log k}{\sigma}\right)
$$

Again, the right hand side is minimized by choosing

$$
\tau=\frac{1}{L_{1}} \sqrt{\frac{\log l}{\log k}}, \quad \sigma=\frac{1}{L_{1}} \sqrt{\frac{\log k}{\log l}}
$$

We obtain the final estimate as

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{4 \sqrt{\log l \log k}}{N} L_{1} .
$$

Remark 10. Since the entries of $A$ are uniformly distributed in $[-1,1]$, the solutions of the min$\max$ matrix games always cluster around the simplex centers $1 / m$ and $1 / n$. In this region, the entropy functions are strongly $m$ - and $n$-convex, respectively, and hence for small variations around the center,

$$
D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \gtrsim \frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{n}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|_{2}\right)^{2}, \quad D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right) \gtrsim \frac{1}{2}\left(\sqrt{m}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}\right)^{2} .
$$

With this information we can get a better (local) estimate of the operator norm:

$$
L_{\mathrm{cent}} \approx \sup _{\|x\|_{2} \leq 1 / \sqrt{n}}\|A x\|_{2} / \sqrt{m}=L_{2} / \sqrt{m n}
$$

In practice, we observed that slightly larger values, e.g. $1.7 \cdot L_{\text {cent }}$ worked very well in our experiments. It would be of great interest to find a method which is able to exploit this variability, unfortunately we were not able to find a rigorous and efficient method.

First let us observe that our theoretical worst case bounds for the matrix games are exactly the same as the corresponding worst case bounds in [21]. In Table 1 we report the number of iterations of the $O(1 / N)$ primal-dual algorithms using the Euclidean setting and the entropy setting to reach a primal-dual gap that is less than $\varepsilon$. One can see that the entropy-based algorithm is consistently faster compared to the Euclidean-based algorithm. Furthermore, one can see that the complexity for finding an $\varepsilon$ accurate solution grows, as predicted in Theorem 1, with a factor of order $1 / \varepsilon$. Indeed, one can see that reducing $\varepsilon$ by a factor of 10 roughly leads to 10 times more iterations. Comparing the results with the results reported in [21] the proposed algorithms are significantly faster. Also observe that counterintuively, less iterations are needed for larger problems. This might be due to the fact that the value of the gap of theses problems at the centers of the simplices goes to zero as the size goes to infinity, making this initialization more beneficial for larger problems.

Table 1: Computational results of Algorithm 1 applied to the matrix game problem (49).

|  | $\varepsilon=10^{-3}$ |  | $\varepsilon=10^{-4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{l}$ | Euclidean | Entropy | Euclidean | Entropy |
| $100 / 100$ | 942 | 730 | 9394 | 7292 |
| $100 / 500$ | 760 | 750 | 7671 | 7378 |
| $100 / 1000$ | 1138 | 960 | 11330 | 9862 |
| $500 / 100$ | 1085 | 648 | 10743 | 6474 |
| $500 / 500$ | 483 | 333 | 4782 | 3290 |
| $500 / 1000$ | 480 | 350 | 4796 | 3430 |
| $1000 / 100$ | 1537 | 640 | 15394 | 6284 |
| $1000 / 500$ | 547 | 297 | 5434 | 2905 |
| $1000 / 1000$ | 381 | 261 | 3797 | 2546 |

### 7.1.2 Ergodic versus nonergodic sequence

We also tested the performance of the nonergodic sequences, i.e. the rate of convergence of the primal-dual gap of the iterates $\left(x^{n}, y^{n}\right)$. Figure 1 depicts logarithmic convergence plots in the setting $k=l=1000$, for both the Euclidean and the entropy setting. It shows that in the Euclidean setting, the nonergodic sequence converges even faster than the ergodic sequence. In the entropy setting however, we observed the contrary. The nonergodic sequence converges much slower than the ergodic sequence. We do not know the reason for this behavior. For both ergodic sequences, the gap decreases exactly at rate $O(1 / N)$ as predicted by the analysis.


Figure 1: Comparison between the performance of the ergodic and the nonergodic sequences of Algorithm 1 applied to the matrix game problem (49).

### 7.1.3 Overrelaxed and inertial primal-dual algorithms

In this section, we evaluate the performance of the overrelaxed and inertial version of the Euclidean primal-dual algorithm detailed in Algorithm 2 and Algorithm 3. We vary the relaxation parameter $\rho$ and the inertial parameter $\alpha$ (which are kept constant during the iterations) and record the number of iterations that are necessary to reach a primal-dual gap which is less a tolerance of $\varepsilon=10^{-4}$. For both, the inertial and overrelaxed versions, we observe that the algorithms are still converging for the theoretical limits $\rho=2$ and $\alpha=1 / 3$.

In Table 2, we report the number of iterations using different values of the relaxation parameter $\rho$. As predicted in Theorem 2, the number of iterations are approximately proportional to the factor $1 / \rho$. In Table 3, we report the number of iterations using different inertial parameters $\alpha$. Again, as predicted in Theorem 3, the number of iterations roughly correspond to the factor $1-1 / \alpha$.

### 7.2 Simplex constrained least squares problem

In this section, we consider the following class of simplex-constrained least squares problems

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \mathcal{P}(x)=\frac{1}{2}\|A x-b\|^{2}, \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

Table 2: Computational results of Algorithm 2 applied to the matrix game problem (49).

| $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{l}$ | $\rho=1$ | $\rho=5 / 4$ | $\rho=3 / 2$ | $\rho=7 / 4$ | $\rho=2$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $100 / 100$ | 9394 | 7224 | 5784 | 4825 | 4075 |
| $100 / 500$ | 7671 | 5853 | 4748 | 3983 | 3337 |
| $100 / 1000$ | 11330 | 8861 | 7225 | 6063 | 5151 |
| $500 / 100$ | 10743 | 8389 | 6818 | 5721 | 4691 |
| $500 / 500$ | 4782 | 3651 | 2924 | 2402 | 2051 |
| $500 / 1000$ | 4796 | 3809 | 3156 | 2696 | 2346 |
| $1000 / 100$ | 15394 | 11982 | 9721 | 8126 | 6835 |
| $1000 / 500$ | 5434 | 4224 | 3426 | 2860 | 2437 |
| $1000 / 1000$ | 3797 | 2975 | 2433 | 2050 | 1881 |

Table 3: Computational results of Algorithm 3 applied to matrix game problem (49).

| $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{l}$ | $\alpha=0$ | $\alpha=1 / 12$ | $\alpha=1 / 6$ | $\alpha=1 / 4$ | $\alpha=1 / 3$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $100 / 100$ | 9394 | 8660 | 7939 | 7234 | 6545 |
| $100 / 500$ | 7671 | 7065 | 6467 | 5882 | 5328 |
| $100 / 1000$ | 11330 | 10420 | 9520 | 8632 | 7751 |
| $500 / 100$ | 10743 | 9882 | 9034 | 8203 | 7411 |
| $500 / 500$ | 4782 | 4401 | 4026 | 3655 | 3291 |
| $500 / 1000$ | 4796 | 4410 | 4029 | 3656 | 3299 |
| $1000 / 100$ | 15394 | 14147 | 12912 | 11692 | 10514 |
| $1000 / 500$ | 5434 | 4996 | 4563 | 4134 | 3721 |
| $1000 / 1000$ | 3797 | 3492 | 3191 | 2897 | 2613 |

where $\Delta_{l}$ again denotes the standard unit simplex in $\mathbb{R}^{l}$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times l}$, and $b \in \mathbb{R}^{k}$. Several standard optimization problems used in machine learning such as the support vector machine can be obtained as special cases from (50). Here, $A$ and $b$ are randomly generated with their entries uniformly and independently distributed in the intervall $[-1,1]$. We again denote by $L=\|A\|$ the operator norm of $A$. The saddle-point formulation of (50) is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \max _{y} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=\langle A x, y\rangle-b^{T} y-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2} \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

Furthermore, the dual problem is given by

$$
\max _{y} \mathcal{D}(y)=\min _{j}\left(A^{T} y\right)_{j}-b^{T} y-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2}
$$

In turn, the primal-dual gap for a pair $(x, y)$ can be easily computed by observing that $\arg \min _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=$ $e_{j}$ and also $\arg \max _{y} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=A x-b$ :

$$
\mathcal{G}(x, y)=\left[\frac{1}{2}\|A x-b\|^{2}\right]-\left[\min _{j}\left(A^{T} y\right)_{j}-b^{T} y-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2}\right]
$$

### 7.2.1 Accelerated primal-dual algorithms

Note that since the saddle-point problem is strongly convex in $y$, we can use the accelerated primal-dual algorithm presented in Algorithm 4 (by interchanging the role of the primal and the dual variables). Since $L_{f}=0$, we apply the simple parameter choice (39). We initialize the algorithms with the obvious choice $\left(x^{0}\right)_{j}=1 / l$ for all $j$ and $y^{0}=A x^{0}-b$. Recall that in the accelerated algorithm, we have fixed $\|\cdot\|_{y}=\|\cdot\|_{2}$ and hence $D_{y}\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|^{2}$. Let us now consider two different setups of the algorithm:

1. Euclidean setting: In the Euclidean setting, we set $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{2}$ and hence $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=$ $\frac{1}{2}\left\|x-x^{\prime}\right\|^{2}$. The operator norm $L_{2}=\|A\|$ is again given by $s_{\max }(A)$. According to (37), we guaranteed that after $N$ iterations for all $(x, y)$ it holds that

$$
T_{N}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)\right) \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{0}}
$$

Substituting $y=\arg \max _{y} \mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)=A X^{N}-b$, we obtain for all $x$

$$
T_{N}\left(\mathcal{P}\left(X^{N}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)\right) \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{\left\|A\left(X^{N}-x^{0}\right)\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{0}}
$$

Taking the supremum with respect to $x$ on both sides, it follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{N} \mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) & \leq \sup _{x \in \Delta_{l}} \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{\left\|A\left(X^{N}-x^{0}\right)\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{0}} \\
& \leq \frac{1-\frac{1}{l}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{\left\|A\left(X^{N}-x^{0}\right)\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{0}} \\
& \leq \frac{1-\frac{1}{l}}{2 \tau_{0}}+\frac{\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right)}{2 \sigma_{0}} L_{2}^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

The right hand side is minimized by choosing $\tau_{0}=1 / L_{2}^{2}$ and $\sigma_{0}=1$ which gives the final estimate

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{1-\frac{1}{l}}{T_{N}} L_{2}^{2}
$$

where $T_{N} \sim O\left(N^{2}\right)$ is defined in (36).
2. Entropy setting: In the entropy setting, we choose $\|\cdot\|_{x}=\|\cdot\|_{1}$ and $D_{x}\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{j} x_{j}\left(\log x_{j}-\right.$ $\left.\log x_{j}^{\prime}\right)-x_{j}+x_{j}^{\prime}$. The operator norm is now given by $L_{12}=\|A\|=\sup _{\|x\|_{1} \leq 1}\|A x\|_{2}=$ $\max _{j}\left\|A_{j}\right\|_{2}$ where $A_{j}$ denotes the j -th column of $A$, which is typically smaller than $L_{2}$. In analogy to the above calculations, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{N} \mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) & \leq \sup _{x} \frac{D_{x}\left(x, x^{0}\right)}{\tau_{0}}+\frac{\left\|A\left(X^{N}-x^{0}\right)\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma_{0}} \\
& \leq \frac{\log l}{\tau_{0}}+\frac{L_{2}^{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right)}{2 \sigma_{0}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The optimal choice for $\tau_{0}$ and $\sigma_{0}$ is now

$$
\tau_{0}=\sqrt{\frac{2 \log l}{L_{12}^{2} L_{2}^{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right)}}, \quad \sigma_{0}=\sqrt{\frac{L_{2}^{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right)}{2 L_{12}^{2} \log l}}
$$

which yields the final estimate

$$
\mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{L_{12} L_{2} \sqrt{\frac{\left(1-\frac{1}{l}\right) \log l}{2}}}{T_{N}}
$$

We also observed that in the entropy setting, we can choose larger step sizes: choosing $L_{12}=0.35 \cdot \max _{j}\left\|A_{j}\right\|_{2}$ gave experimentally good results. In Table 4, we report the number of iterations for Algorithm 4 in the Euclidean and the entropy setting. One can see that in the entropy setting, the algorithm converges significantly faster. Furthermore, one can see that the number of iterations which are necessary to reach a primal-dual gap less than $\varepsilon$ nicely reflect the $O\left(1 / N^{2}\right)$ rate of Algorithm 4. Indeed, reducing $\varepsilon$ by a factor of 10 roughly leads to $\sqrt{10} \approx 3.16$ more iterations.

Table 4: Computational results of Algorithm 4 applied to the simplex constrained least squares problem (50).

|  | $\varepsilon=10^{-3}$ |  | $\varepsilon=10^{-4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{l}$ | Euclidean | Entropy | Euclidean | Entropy |
| $100 / 100$ | 423 | 128 | 1264 | 396 |
| $100 / 500$ | 645 | 179 | 1881 | 563 |
| $100 / 1000$ | 1008 | 191 | 2946 | 600 |
| $500 / 100$ | 1039 | 243 | 3187 | 726 |
| $500 / 500$ | 1399 | 329 | 4276 | 1026 |
| $500 / 1000$ | 1530 | 365 | 4570 | 1142 |
| $1000 / 100$ | 1752 | 367 | 5508 | 1115 |
| $1000 / 500$ | 2257 | 459 | 7079 | 1425 |
| $1000 / 1000$ | 2418 | 499 | 7507 | 1554 |

### 7.2.2 Ergodic versus nonergodic sequence

We also investigated the performance difference between the ergodic and the nonergodic sequences. Figure 2 shows a comparison between the ergodic and the nonergodic sequences for both the Euclidean and the entropy setup for the simplex constrained least squares problem (50) using $k=100, l=1000$. While the ergodic sequences both show a $O\left(1 / N^{2}\right)$ rate, the nonergodic sequences show a completely different behavior. In the entropy setting, the nonergodic sequence converges a little bit faster but is seems to be quite unstable. In the Euclidean setting, the nonergodic sequence converges extremely fast. We do not know the reason for this, but it will be interesting to find an alternative proof for the convergence rate that does not rely on the ergodic sequence.


Figure 2: Comparison between the performance of the ergodic and the nonergodic sequences of Algorithm 4 applied to the simplex constrained least squares problem (50).

### 7.3 Elastic net problem

Finally, we consider the elastic net problem which has been extensively used for feature selection and sparse coding. It is written as the following optimization problem:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{x} \mathcal{P}(x)=\frac{1}{2}\|A x-b\|^{2}+\lambda_{1}\|x\|_{1}+\frac{\lambda_{2}}{2}\|x\|^{2} \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times l}$ is a matrix where its columns are features and $b \in \mathbb{R}^{k}$ is the measurement vector. For $\lambda_{2}=0$, the elastic net is equivalent to the well-known LASSO problem. It can be rewritten as the following saddle-point problem:

$$
\min _{x} \max _{y} \mathcal{L}(x, y)=\langle A x, y\rangle+\lambda_{1}\|x\|_{1}+\lambda_{2}\|x\|^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2}-b^{T} y
$$

Observe that the above problem is $\lambda_{2}$-strongly convex in $x$ and 1 -strongly convex in $y$. Hence, we can make use of the linearly converging Algorithm 5. The dual problem is computed as

$$
\max _{y} \mathcal{D}(y)=-\frac{1}{2 \lambda_{2}}\left\|\left(\left|A^{T} y\right|-\lambda_{1}\right)^{+}\right\|^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2}-b^{T} y
$$

where the expressions $\left|A^{T} y\right|$ and $(t)^{+}=\max (0, t)$ are understood element-wise. In turn the primal-dual gap can be computed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{G}(x, y)=\left[\frac{1}{2}\|A x-b\|^{2}+\lambda_{1}\|x\|_{1}+\frac{\lambda_{2}}{2}\|x\|^{2}\right]-\left[-\frac{1}{2 \lambda_{2}}\left\|\left(\left|A^{T} y\right|-\lambda_{1}\right)^{+}\right\|^{2}-\frac{1}{2}\|y\|^{2}-b^{T} y\right] . \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

In our experiments, we again choose the entries of $A$ and $b$ uniformly and independently in the interval $[-1,1]$ and we again denote by $L_{2}=\|A\|=s_{\max }(A)$ the largest singular value of $A$. We compute the values for $\tau, \sigma$ and $\theta$ using the formulas provided in (48) and we choose $x^{0}=0$, $y^{0}=A x^{0}-b$. According to (47), after $N$ iterations, we have for all $(x, y)$ :

$$
T_{N}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(X^{N}, y\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(x, Y^{N}\right)\right) \leq \frac{\left\|x-x^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau}+\frac{\left\|y-y^{0}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}
$$

Taking the supremum on the left hand with respect to $(x, y)$ we find $x=\left(\left|A^{T} Y^{N}\right|-\lambda_{1}\right)^{+}$. $\operatorname{sgn}\left(-A^{T} Y^{N}\right) / \lambda_{2}$ and $y=A X^{N}-b$. Substituting back we obtain the final estimate

$$
T_{N} \mathcal{G}\left(X^{N}, Y^{N}\right) \leq \frac{\left\|\left(\left|A^{T} Y^{N}\right|-\lambda_{1}\right)^{+}\right\|^{2}}{2 \tau \lambda_{2}^{2}}+\frac{L_{2}^{2}\left\|X^{N}\right\|^{2}}{2 \sigma}<\infty
$$

where $T_{N} \sim O\left(\theta^{-N}\right)$ is defined in (46) and $\tau, \sigma$ are chosen according to (48).
For the implementation of the algorithm we need to solve the proximal map with respect to the mixed $\ell_{1}-\ell_{2}$ norm appearing in the primal problem. The solution is given by:

$$
\hat{x}=\arg \min _{x} \lambda_{1}\|x\|_{1}+\frac{\lambda_{2}}{2}\|x\|^{2}+\frac{1}{2 \tau}\|x-\bar{x}\|^{2} \Leftrightarrow \hat{x}=\frac{\max \left(0,|\bar{x}|-\tau \lambda_{1}\right) \cdot \operatorname{sgn}(\bar{x})}{1+\tau \lambda_{2}},
$$

where the operations are understood element-wise.
In Table 5 we evaluate Algorithm 5 for different problem instances of (52). We set $\lambda_{1}=1$ and used different values of $\lambda_{2}$ in order to study the behavior of the algorothm for different degrees of convexity. The table reports the number of iterations that were needed to achieve a primal-dual gap less than the error tolerance $\varepsilon$. One can see that in general, a smaller value of $\lambda_{2}$ leads to a smaller strong convexity parameter of the primal problem and hence the problem appears more difficult to the algorithm. Thanks to the $O\left(\theta^{N}\right)$ linear convergence rate of the algorithm, reducing the required tolerance by a factor of 10 only leads to a small increase of the required iterations.

### 7.3.1 Ergodic versus nonergodic sequence

Finally Figure 3 shows the performance difference between the ergodic sequence and the nonergodic sequence for the elastic net problem using $k=100, l=1000, \lambda_{1}=1$, and $\lambda_{2}=10^{-3}$. One can see that while the performance of the ergodic sequence is again well predicted by the worst case rate $O\left(\theta^{N}\right)$, the performance of the nonergodic sequence is again superior.

## 8 Conclusion

In this work, we have presented refined ergodic convergence rates for a first-order primal-dual algorithm for composite convex-concave saddle-point problems. The presented proofs are very

Table 5: Computational results of Algorithm 5 applied to the elastic net problem (52).

|  | $\varepsilon=10^{-3}$ |  | $\varepsilon=10^{-4}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{k} / \mathrm{l}$ | $\lambda_{2}=10^{-2}$ | $\lambda_{2}=10^{-3}$ | $\lambda_{2}=10^{-2}$ | $\lambda_{2}=10^{-3}$ |
| $100 / 100$ | 445 | 1405 | 577 | 1823 |
| $100 / 500$ | 446 | 1339 | 624 | 1940 |
| $100 / 1000$ | 459 | 1319 | 703 | 2143 |
| $500 / 100$ | 1015 | 3209 | 1227 | 3879 |
| $500 / 500$ | 1189 | 3759 | 1486 | 4697 |
| $500 / 1000$ | 924 | 2869 | 1258 | 3950 |
| $1000 / 100$ | 1421 | 4494 | 1696 | 5363 |
| $1000 / 500$ | 1753 | 5542 | 2109 | 6667 |
| $1000 / 1000$ | 1707 | 5397 | 2123 | 6714 |



Figure 3: Comparison between the performance of the ergodic and the nonergodic sequences of Algorithm 5 applied to the elastic net problem (52).
elementary and easily extend to non-linear Bregman distance functions and inertial or overrelaxed variants of the algorithm. Furthermore, we have given refined ergodic convergence rates in terms of the primal-dual gap function for accelerated variants of the algorithm. We have illustrated
the theoretical results by applying the algorithms to a number of standard convex optimization problems including matrix games, simplex constrained least squares problems and the elastic net selector. The numerical results show a behaviour which corresponds nicely to the theoretical predictions. We have also observed that in the Euclidean setting, the nonergodic sequences very often converge much faster than the ergodic sequences. We will investigate this issue in more detail in our future research. Furthermore, it will be interesting to investigate strategies to dynamically adjust the step sizes $\left(\tau_{n}, \sigma_{n}\right.$ and $\left.\theta_{n}\right)$ to the local smoothness of the problem, which can vary a lot during the optimization (see Remark 10).

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ In practice we mostly consider finite-dimensional spaces, or Hilbert spaces.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ In fact it would be enough to have this property on the domain of $g$ only.

[^3]:    ${ }^{3}$ It must be observed here that the right assumption on $g$ to obtain an accelerated scheme with an arbitrary Bregman distance $D_{x}$ should be that $g$ is "strongly convex with respect to $\psi_{x}$ ", in the sense that $g-\gamma \psi_{x}$ is convex. The proof would then be similar. However, it is not clear whether this covers very interesting situations beyond the standard case.

[^4]:    ${ }^{4}$ using WolframAlpha

