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Analysis of Different Types of Regret in Continuous Noisy Optimization

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Abstract

The performance measure of an algorithm is a crucial part of its analysis. The performance can be determined by the study on the convergence rate of the algorithm in question. It is necessary to study some (hopefully convergent) sequence that will measure how “good” is the approximated optimum compared to the real optimum.

The concept of *Regret* is widely used in the bandit literature for assessing the performance of an algorithm. The same concept is also used in the framework of optimization algorithms, sometimes under other names or without a specific name. And the numerical evaluation of convergence rate of noisy algorithms often involves *approximations* of regrets. We discuss here two types of approximations of Simple Regret used in practice for the evaluation of algorithms for noisy optimization. We use specific algorithms of different nature and the noisy sphere function to show the following results. The approximation of Simple Regret, termed here Approximate Simple Regret, used in some optimization testbeds, fails to estimate the Simple Regret convergence rate. We also discuss a recent new approximation of Simple Regret, that we term Robust Simple Regret, and show its advantages and disadvantages.

1 Introduction

The performance measure of an algorithm involves the evaluation of the quality of the approximated optimum with regards to the real optimum. This can be done by using the concept of *Regret*, well studied in the machine learning literature and used in the noisy optimization literature, sometimes under other names. Basically, in the optimization framework, the regret accounts for the “loss” of choosing the point used in the algorithm over the best possible choice: the optimum. Therefore, we measure the difference between the point used/recommended by the algorithm and the optimum in terms of the objective function.

In general, an optimization algorithm searches for the optimum, and to do so, it produces iteratively *search points* which will be evaluated through the objective function. And at regular steps, the algorithm must return a *recommendation point* that will be the best approximation to the optimum so far.

Note that the recommendation point can be equal to a search point, but not necessarily.

The most usual form of regret is termed *Simple Regret*. The *Simple Regret* measures the distance, in terms of fitness values, between the optimum and the recommendation point output by the algorithm. It is widely used (possibly without this name) in noisy optimization [18, 14, 12]. However, some test beds, notably the Bbob/Coco framework in the first version, did not allow the distinction between search points (at which the fitness function is evaluated) and recommendations (which are output by the algorithm as an approximation of the optimum), so that the Simple Regret can not be checked. This leads to the use of an *Approximate Simple Regret* (name by us), which evaluates the fitness difference between the search points (and not the recommendations) and the optimum. Later, another form of regret, that we will term here *Robust Simple Regret*, was also proposed, using recommendation points. We analyze in this paper the use of different regrets that aim to estimate the quality of the approximated optimum in a similar way. In particular, we show to which extent they lead to incompatible performance evaluations of the same algorithm over the same class of noisy optimization problems, i.e. the convergence rate for the Approximate or the Robust Simple Regret overestimates or underestimates the convergence rate of the more natural simple regret. We also prove some new results in terms of Simple Regret itself.

2 Framework and Regrets

This section is devoted to the formalization of the noisy optimization problem considered and the analysed regrets. We will focus on the *Simple Regret* and the alternative definitions that aim to approximate it (denoted here *Approximate Simple Regret* and *Robust Simple Regret*). At the end of the section we will highlight some general relationships between the presented regrets.

2.1 Continuous Noisy Optimization

Given a fitness function $F : D \subset \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, also known as objective function, optimization (minimization) is the search for the optimum point x^* such that $\forall x \in D, F(x^*) \leq F(x)$. The fitness function is corrupted by additive noise. In other words, given a search point $x \in D$, evaluating F in x results in an altered fitness value $f(x, w)$ as follows:

$$f(x, w) = F(x) + w, \tag{1}$$

where w is an independent random variable of mean zero and variance σ . In the present paper, we will consider a simple case, namely a standard Gaussian additive noise¹. In addition, we assume that $F(x) = \|x - x^*\|^2$, where x^* is randomly uniformly drawn in the domain D .

Noisy optimization is then the search for the optimum x^* such that $\mathbb{E}_w f(x^*, w)$ is approximately minimum, where \mathbb{E}_w denotes the expectation over the noise w .

¹More general cases such that $\mathbb{E}f(x, w) = F(x)$ can be considered, as most algorithms do not request the noise to be additive and independent; the key point is the absence of bias.

Consider a noisy black-box optimization scenario: for a point x , the only available information is the noisy value of F in x as given by $f(x, w)$ for some independent w . An optimization algorithm generates $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots$, successive *search points* at which the objective function is evaluated in a noisy manner. It also generates $\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \dots, \tilde{x}_n, \dots$ which are *recommendations* or *approximations of the optimum* after n fitness evaluations are performed.

2.2 Simple Regret and variants

The *Simple Regret* (SR) focuses only on approximating the optimum in terms of fitness values. Its definition is:

$$SR_n = \mathbb{E}_w (f(\tilde{x}_n, w) - f(x^*, w)) = F(\tilde{x}_n) - F(x^*)$$

Notice that the expectation operates only on w in $f(\tilde{x}_n, w)$, and not on \tilde{x}_n . As a consequence SR_n is a random variable due to the stochasticity of the noisy evaluations of the search points or the (possible) internal randomization of the optimization algorithm.

The SR can be a part of the performance evaluation of an algorithm. In the noise-free case it can be used to determine the *precision* of a method, by ensuring that the algorithm outputs a recommendation \tilde{x}_m satisfying $SR_m \leq \epsilon$. Even more, when testing algorithms, it is common to use the “first hitting time” (FHT). FHT in fact refers to the first “stable” hitting time, i.e. the next recommendation is at least as good as the previous one. This is a reasonable assumption for algorithms solving noise-free problems. In this case the FHT is the minimum n such that $SR_n \leq \epsilon$, provided that the recommendation is defined as $\tilde{x}_n = x_{i(n)}$ with $1 \leq i(n) \leq n$ minimizing $SR_{i(n)}$. However, there is no exact equivalence or natural extension for the FHT with precision ϵ on noisy optimization. The algorithm only has access to noisy evaluations hence it cannot compute with “certainty” SR_n , which corresponds to the precision of the algorithm.

An alternative definition, that aims to measure the precision in a similar way to SR , is the *Approximate Simple Regret*² (ASR), defined by:

$$ASR_n = \min_{m \leq n} F(x_m) - F(x^*).$$

ASR takes in account the “best” evaluations among all the search points. It is used in the Bbob/Coco framework [7, 8, 19, 9, 26, 27, 23, 31, 22], and in some theoretical papers [15]. Notice that since ASR is non-increasing, the FHT can be computed.

In this paper we will also discuss another variant of regret, the *Robust Simple Regret*³ (RSR), defined by:

$$RSR_n = \min_{k \leq n} \max_{(k - \lfloor g(k) \rfloor) < m \leq k} (F(\tilde{x}_m) - F(x^*)),$$

where $g(n)$ is a polylogarithmic function of n and $\lfloor \cdot \rfloor$ is the floor function. The RSR is the “best” SR since the beginning of the run, sustained during

²The name is proposed by us.

³Discussed on Bbob-discuss mailing list (<http://lists.lri.fr/pipermail/bbob-discuss/2014-October.txt>). The name is proposed by us.

$\lfloor g(k) \rfloor$ consecutive recommendations ⁴. The polylogarithmic nature of $g(\cdot)$ is explained by the following argument: $g(k)$ be large enough, so that we have a correct recommendation confirmed over $g(k)$ iterations, but small enough, so that we do not have to wait many evaluations before acknowledging that a correct recommendation has been found. The *RSR* uses the recommendation \tilde{x}_m instead of the search point x_m used in *ASR*. But it uses the worst of a sequence of recommendations.

As a side note about the definition of *RSR*, it was originally proposed to use a quantile instead of the maximum. The “quantile version” (without this name), was proposed to become part of the performance measure in Bbob/Coco. However, we will show that it is possible to get a *RSR* decreasing quicker than the *SR*, so that *RSR* is a poor approximation of *SR*. The result is valid even with the quantile 100%, i.e. the maximum. The same is possible with any other quantile.

The introduction of *RSR* apparently outplays *ASR* as an approximation of *SR* by two means. First, by using recommendations rather than search points. Second, by checking on multiple recommendations that the optimum is correctly found with a given precision. In addition, as well as *ASR*, it is non-increasing, therefore it can be used for fastening experiments on testbed. Please note however that this advantage makes sense only when the target fitness value is known, which is rarely the case except in an artificial testbed.

To investigate the convergence rate of the regrets, we will use a slightly different notation than classical works on noisy optimization. Usually the rates are given in terms of $O(h(n))$ where $h(n)$ is some function depending on the number of evaluations n . The state of the art shows that in many cases ([17, 18, 29, 15]) $SR_n = O(n^\psi)$ where $\psi < 0$ implies that the algorithm converges. Therefore, there is a linear relationship between $\log(SR_n)$ and $\log(n)$ with a slope ψ , where $\log(\cdot)$ is the natural logarithm. We will then refer to the *slope of the regret* when speaking about the convergence rate of the regret. The definition of the *slope of the SR* is:

$$s(SR) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log(SR_n)}{\log(n)}$$

We have the corresponding definition for the slope of *ASR* and *RSR*. Notice that if the slope is close to 0, then the algorithm (at best) converges *slowly*. On the contrary, if the slope is negative and far away from 0, then the algorithm is *fast*.

2.3 General results for *SR*, *ASR* and *RSR*: *RSR* is an optimistic approximation of *SR*

The problems analysed in this paper arise from the gap between $s(SR)$ and $s(ASR)$ or $s(RSR)$. Ideally we would like to have a regret that can be used easily and that *approximates* the Simple Regret. In the following sections (3 and 4) we will see with specific examples there is indeed a gap between $s(SR)$ and $s(ASR)$. In some cases using *ASR* overestimates the performance of algorithms and in others it underestimates their performance. An extreme case is detailed

⁴If $(k - \lfloor g(k) \rfloor) < 0$, then the max on the definition considers indexes between 1 and k

in section 4, where we prove that Alg. 3 has optimal convergence rate in term of SR whilst for ASR it does not converge at all.

In general, by definition, we have that for any algorithm, $s(RSR) \leq s(SR)$. From this point of view, RSR is a correct lower bound for SR . In other words, if an algorithm is fast in terms of SR , its performance measured by RSR will be at least as good. Unfortunately, this bound is not nearly tight. We will prove that a small modification on the algorithm induces $s(RSR) \leq s(ASR)$ whereas $s(SR)$ is the same - so that, for cases in which $s(ASR) < s(SR)$ (sometimes by far, as explained in later sections), we get $s(RSR) < s(SR)$ (sometimes by far).

Let A be an optimization algorithm and its search points $(x_i)_{i \geq 1}$. Consider another algorithm denoted A_g and its successive search points $(X_i)_{i \geq 1}$. The search points of A_g are obtained by repeating $\lfloor g(n) \rfloor$ times, for any n , the search points x_n of A . Hence, we get the assignment:

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= \dots = X_{1+\lfloor g(1) \rfloor} \leftarrow x_1 \\ X_{2+\lfloor g(1) \rfloor} &= \dots = X_{2+\lfloor g(1) \rfloor + \lfloor g(2) \rfloor} \leftarrow x_2 \\ &\vdots \\ X_{n+\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \lfloor g(j) \rfloor} &= \dots = X_{n+\sum_{j=1}^n \lfloor g(j) \rfloor} \leftarrow x_n \end{aligned}$$

Let the recommendation points of A_g be defined by $\tilde{X}_n = X_n$ for any n . Therefore A_g is a slightly modified version of A since there is an additional polylogarithmic number of evaluation in A_g , assuming g is polylogarithmic. The RSR of A_g (say RSR_{A_g}) converges approximately as fast as the ASR of the original algorithm (say ASR_A). The extra polylogarithmic number of evaluations does not affect the linear convergence in log/log scale. Hence, for any algorithm A , $s(RSR_{A_g}) \leq s(ASR_A)$.

The general relationships between the slopes of the SR and its approximations are not conclusive since the bounds are not tight. We will show some gaps between the different approximations of SR and the SR itself. In the following sections we present five algorithms that will serve as clear examples to see the differences of using one or another regret as performance measures. We will focus in two types of algorithms: the first group, in Section 3, consists of Evolutionary Algorithms and Random Search and the second, in Section 4, of algorithms using approximations of the gradient of the objective function. For each class of algorithms, we exhibit convergence rate bounds on $s(SR)$, $s(ASR)$ and $s(RSR)$. Section 5 displays some experimental works in order to confront theory, conjecture and practice.

3 Evolutionary Algorithms

On the group of Evolutionary Algorithms (EAs), we present Random Search (RS), Evolution Strategy (ES) and Evolution Strategy with resampling (ES+r). They all use comparisons between fitness values to optimize the function.

3.1 Random Search

Random Search (Alg. 1) is the most basic of stochastic algorithms [24]. The search points x_1, \dots, x_n, \dots are independently identically drawn according to some probability distribution. \tilde{x}_n is usually the search point with the best fitness so far, i.e. with y_i the fitness value obtained for x_i , we have $\tilde{x}_n = x_i$ with $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ minimizing y_i .

Algorithm 1 Random Search.

```

1: Initialize: Candidate solution  $\tilde{x}$  randomly drawn in  $[0, 1]^d$ 
2:  $bestfitness \leftarrow f(\tilde{x})$ 
3: Initialize:  $n \leftarrow 1$ 
4: while not terminated do
5:   Randomly draw  $y$  in  $[0, 1]^d$ .
6:    $fitness \leftarrow f(y)$ 
7:   if  $fitness < bestfitness$  then
8:      $\tilde{x} \leftarrow y$ 
9:      $bestfitness \leftarrow fitness$ 
10:  end if
11:   $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
12: end while
    return  $\tilde{x}$ 

```

We consider in this paper a simple variant of RS to show clearly the contrast between SR and ASR .

Framework for RS: each search point is randomly drawn independently and uniformly, sampled once and only once, with the uniform probability distribution over $[0, 1]^d$. The objective function is the noisy sphere function f :

$$f(x) = \|x - x^*\|^2 + \mathcal{N}. \quad (2)$$

where \mathcal{N} is a standard Gaussian variable.

In this setting, existing results in the literature imply a bound on $s(ASR)$ as explained in Property 1. We will prove then that the slope of the Simple Regret is not negative, as formalized in Theorem 1.

3.1.1 Approximate Simple Regret: $s(ASR) = -2/d$

Property 1. Consider RS described in Alg. 1, with the framework above. Then almost surely $ASR_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2/d}}\right)$.

Proof. [16] has shown that among n points generated independently and uniformly over $[0, 1]^d$ the closest search point to the optimum is almost surely at distance $O\left(\frac{1}{n^{1/d}}\right)$ from the optimal point x^* within a logarithmic factor. Hence for the sphere function⁵, the Approximate Simple Regret ASR_n almost surely satisfies: $ASR_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n^{2/d}}\right)$ up to logarithmic factors. \square

3.1.2 Simple Regret: $s(SR)$ is not negative

Theorem 1. With the framework above, for all $\beta > 0$, the expected simple regret $\mathbb{E}(SR_n)$ is not $O(n^{-\beta})$.

Proof. See supplementary material. \square

⁵The result also holds for a function locally quadratic around a unique global optimum.

Remark: Roughly speaking, the proof of the theorem is based on the fact that with a non-zero probability a search point which does not have the best fitness value, is selected as the best point in Lines 7-9 of Alg. 1.

3.2 Evolution Strategies (ES)

Evolution Strategies [25, 28] are algorithms included in the category of Evolutionary Algorithms (EAs). In general, EAs evolve a population until they find an optimum for the objective or fitness function. The process starts by a population randomly generated. Then the algorithm iterates creating new individuals using crossover and mutation and then evaluating this new population of offspring and selecting the ones - regarding to their fitness values - that will become the parents of the next generation.

ES have some more specific selection and mutation processes. Usually the mutation is performed by creating new individuals starting from the parent and adding a random value to it (usually normally distributed around the parent). There are various rules for choosing the step-size. The selection in ES is usually deterministic and rank-based. This is, the individuals chosen to be the parents of the next generations are the ones that have the best fitness values.

When dealing with noisy function, the sorting step of the ES is disturbed by the noise and misranking might occur. To tackle this problem, Arnold and Beyer, in [1, 2] propose to increase the population size. An alternative is to evaluate multiple times the same search point and average the resulting fitness values. For a given search point $x \in D$, r evaluations are performed: $(f(x, w_1), \dots, f(x, w_r))$ and the fitness value used in the comparisons is the average of these evaluations $\frac{1}{r} \sum_{i=1}^r f(x, w_i)$. In particular, the variance of the noise is divided by r . Several rules have been studied: constant [13], adaptive (polynomial in the inverse of the step-size), polynomial and exponential [5] number of resamplings. A general (μ, λ) -ES is presented in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2 (μ, λ) -Evolution Strategy. The resampling function r may be constant or depend on the number of iterations and possibly on the step-size. When $r = 1$, the algorithm reduces to an ES without resampling. \mathcal{N} is a standard Gaussian of dimension d . Here, the index n is the number of iterations

```

1: Input: Parameters  $\mu, \lambda$  and resampling function  $r$ 
2: Initialize: Parent  $\tilde{x}$  and Step-size  $\sigma$ 
3: Initialize:  $n \leftarrow 1$ 
4: while not terminated do
5:   Mutation step:  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}, x^{(i)} \leftarrow \tilde{x} + \sigma \mathcal{N}$ 
6:   Evaluation step:
        $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\} y^{(i)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{r(n)} \sum_{j=1}^{r(n)} f(x^{(i)}, w_j)$ 
7:   Selection step: Sort the population according to their fitness and select the  $\mu$  best:  $(x^{(i)})^\mu$ 
8:   Update Parent:  $\tilde{x}$  from  $\sigma, (y^{(i)})^\mu$  and  $(x^{(i)})^\mu$ 
9:   Update Step-size:  $\sigma$  from  $\sigma, (y^{(i)})^\mu$  and  $(x^{(i)})^\mu$ 
10:   $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
11: end while
    return  $\tilde{x}$ 

```

3.2.1 Regrets for ES without resampling

It is known [3] that when the noise strength is too big, classical evolution strategies (without reevaluations or other noise adaptation scheme) do not converge, they stagnate. [10] experimentally shows that an ES without any adaptation to

the noisy setting stagnates around some step-size and at some distance of the optimum. The divergence results suggest that the ES in this case is only as a more sophisticated version of RS. The steps of the ES are more complicated, but not sufficiently adapted to handle the noise of the function. We propose then a Conjecture on the convergence rates for ES.

Conjecture 1 (Convergence rates for ES). *Evolution Strategies without a noise handling procedure have the same convergence rates as Random Search for all regrets.*

3.2.2 Simple regret for ES with resamplings

We will see that the results are more encouraging than in Section 3.2 when we consider an ES with some adaptation to mitigate the effect of the noise. We will assume that the function r (number of revaluations per point) in Alg. 2 grows polynomially or exponentially with the number of iterations.

The work in [5] shows that ES that include an exponential number of revaluations converges with high probability to the optimum. The convergence rate is $s(SR) = K$ for some $K < 0$ under assumptions about the convergence in ES in the noise-free case. Moreover [4] shows that ES, under general conditions, must exhibit $K > -\frac{1}{2}$. There is no formal proof of an upper bound that can theoretically ensure a value or a range for $s(SR)$. However, the experiments on [5] suggest that the $K = -\frac{1}{2}$ is reached for functions with a quadratic Taylor expansion and additive noise (as in Eq. 1). Hence we propose Conjecture 2:

Conjecture 2 (SR for ES + r). *Consider $0 < \delta < 1$. For some resampling parameters (i.e. for some revaluation function r), Evolution Strategies with resampling (Alg. 2) satisfy $s(SR) = -1/2$ with probability $1 - \delta$.*

This conjecture applies to some ES with step-size scaling as the distance to the optimum, i.e. σ_n used for generating the n^{th} search point has the same magnitude as $\|\tilde{x}_n - x^*\|$ ([25, 11]). [10] has proposed variants of ES for quickening the convergence thanks to large mutations and small inheritance. Such an approach is not covered by the bound in [4] and it is for sure an interesting research direction - maybe it might reach slope $s(SR) = -1$.

3.2.3 Approximate simple regret for ES with resamplings

We have seen that an ES can reach a slope of SR approximately $-\frac{1}{2}$, when using resamplings. However, ASR can be better by slightly modifying the original ES, and therefore achieving a faster convergence rate than the real one represented by $s(SR)$. We consider an ES - called $MES+R$ for Modified ES with Resampling. Let r_n be exponential in the number of iterations: $r_n = R \cdot \zeta^n$, $R > 0$, $\zeta > 1$. $MES+R$ is as in Alg. 2 with the following modifications. At iteration n :

Generation: (Alg. 2, Line 5) Generate additional r_n “fake” offspring $\{x^{(i)f} : 1 \leq i \leq r_n\}$, with the same probability distribution as the λ offspring. They will be evaluated one time each, but they will *not* be taken into account for the selection. Note that this means that they are part of the sequence of points considered by ASR , but not by SR .

Evaluation: (Alg. 2, Line 6) Evaluate r_n times each “true” offspring $\{x^{(i)} : 1 \leq i \leq \lambda\}$ to obtain their corresponding fitness value $y^{(i)}$. Evaluate one time

each “fake” offspring. Therefore, performing $(\lambda + 1)r_n$ function evaluations in each iteration.

Then, under some reasonable convergence assumptions which are detailed in theorem 2 below, the *ASR* reaches a faster rate: $s(\text{ASR}) = -1/2 - 2/d$ with high probability.

Theorem 2. Consider $0 < \delta < 1$. Consider an objective function $F(x) = \|x\|^2$, where $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Consider a *MES + R* as described previously. Assume that:

(i) σ_n and $\|\tilde{x}_n\|$ have the same order of magnitude:

$$\|\tilde{x}_n\| = \Theta(\sigma_n). \quad (3)$$

(ii) $\log - \log$ convergence occurs for the *SR*:

$$\frac{\log(\|\tilde{x}_n\|)}{\log(n)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{with probability } 1 - \delta, \quad (4)$$

Then, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, $s(\text{ASR}) = -1/2 - 2/d$.

Proof. See supplementary material. □

Remark 1. The assumption of $s(\text{SR}) = -1/2$ is based on the convergence of *ES* in the noise-free case and it is essential to prove Theorem 2. This rate of convergence can be proved when the *ES* converges in the noise-free case (details on [5]). But the convergence of *ES* has not been formally proved, not even for the noise-free case. There is an important element given in [6], showing that $\frac{1}{n} \log \|x_n - x^*\|$ converges to some constant, but this constant is not proved negative. Furthermore, parameters ensuring convergence in the noisy case are unspecified in [5].

4 Stochastic Gradient Descent

For the group of Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithms, we consider the ones presented by Shamir [29] and Fabian [18] which approximate the gradient of the objective function. We will denote them Shamir algorithm and Fabian algorithm respectively. Both of them approximate the gradient of the function using function evaluations by different methods, therefore they remain in the black-box category. Fabian algorithm uses the average of redundant finite differences and Shamir algorithm a one point estimate gradient technique.

The convergence rates in terms of *SR* are proved in [29] and [18]. For Shamir it is shown that $s(\text{SR}) = -1$ in expectation for quadratic functions. Fabian ensures a rate $s(\text{SR}) = -1$ approximately and asymptotically only for limit values of parameters. However, it requires only smooth enough functions, so the class of functions is wider than the one considered in [29]. This rate $s(\text{SR}) = -1$ has been proved tight in [14]. Hence, Shamir and Fabian algorithm are faster than *ES*'s, which cannot do better than $s(\text{SR}) = -\frac{1}{2}$, at least under their usual form [4].

Algorithm 3 Shamir Algorithm for Quadratic functions. Π_W represents the projection over the space W

```

1: Input: Parameters  $\lambda$  and  $\epsilon$ 
2: Initialization:  $\hat{x}_1 \leftarrow 0$ ,  $n \leftarrow 1$ 
3: while not terminated do
4:   Pick  $r \in \{-1, 1\}^d$  uniformly at random
5:    $x_n \leftarrow \hat{x}_n + \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{d}} r$ 
6:   Evaluate:  $v \leftarrow f(x_n, w)$ 
7:    $\hat{g} \leftarrow \frac{\sqrt{d}v}{\epsilon} r$ 
8:    $\hat{x}_{n+1} \leftarrow \Pi_W(\hat{x}_n + \frac{1}{\lambda n} \hat{g})$ 
9:   Recommend:  $\tilde{x}_n \leftarrow \lceil \frac{2}{n} \rceil \sum_{k=\lceil n/2 \rceil}^n \hat{x}_k$ 
10:   $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
11: end while
      return  $\tilde{x}_n$ 

```

4.1 Shamir's quadratic algorithm

Shamir algorithm presented in [29] for quadratic functions is Algorithm 3.

One of the key points in Alg. 3 are that there is only one evaluation per iteration (somehow in the spirit of Simultaneous Perturbation Stochastic Approximation SPSA [30, 20]). The second important point is that the expectation of the distance between search points and recommendations is constant, which implies that the search points do not converge towards the optimum! This is not a problem for the convergence in terms of SR , when search points x_n and recommendations \tilde{x}_n are distinguished, but it makes a difference for ASR .

Shamir algorithm has an optimal convergence rate in expectation ($s(SR) = -1$) for quadratic functions. This fact should be acknowledge by any other regret used to evaluate its performance which aims to approximate the SR . But intuitively in the framework of Shamir algorithm, the $s(ASR)$ is presumably a bad approximation of $s(SR)$ due to the queries at a constant distance of the current recommendation. This convergence rate in terms of $s(ASR)$ could not be obtained from the results in [29]. Nonetheless, we prove in a general way that as long as the results for Shamir algorithm are satisfied *almost surely*, then $s(ASR) = 0$ a.s. Therefore we present the latter result in Theorem 3 and a conjecture on the convergence rate of $s(ASR)$ in expectation for Shamir algorithm.

Theorem 3. *Assume that the optimum x^* is unique and that (\tilde{x}_n) is a sequence of recommendation points converging a.s. to x^* . Assume that the sequence of evaluation points (x_n) is such that $\forall n, x_n \neq x^*$ a.s. and that $\|x_n - \tilde{x}_n\|$ is constant. Then, a.s.*

$$s(ASR) = 0.$$

Proof. \tilde{x}_n converges almost surely to the optimum and x_n is at a constant distance from \tilde{x}_n . Therefore the distance between x_n and the optimum converges to a constant. This implies that the minimum $\min_{i=1}^n \|x_i - x^*\|^2$ is lower bounded by some constant. Therefore $s(ASR) = 0$. \square

Conjecture 3 (ASR for the Shamir algorithm). *Shamir algorithm also verifies $s(ASR) = 0$ a.s. on quadratic functions.*

4.2 Fabian Algorithm

Algorithm 4 presents the algorithm studied in [18]. Unlike Algorithm 3, Fabian algorithm performs several evaluations per iteration, and the distance between search point and recommendation decreases.

Algorithm 4 Fabian Algorithm. e_i is the i^{th} vector of the standard orthogonal basis of \mathbb{R}^d and $e_{1,s/2}$ is the 1^{st} vector of the standard orthogonal basis of $\mathbb{R}^{s/2}$. v_i is the i^{th} coordinate of vector v . (\hat{x}_i) is the i^{th} coordinate of intermediate points (\hat{x}) . $(x^{(i,j)+})$ and $(x^{(i,j)-})$ are the search points and \tilde{x} is the recommendation. Here, the index n is the number of iterations.

```

1: Input: An even integer  $s > 0$ . Parameters  $a, \alpha, c, \gamma$ .
2: Initialization:
3:  $u_i \leftarrow \frac{1}{i}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, s/2\}$ 
4: Matrix  $U \leftarrow \left( \|u_j^{2i-1}\| \right)_{1 \leq i, j \leq s/2}$ 
5: Vector  $v \leftarrow \frac{1}{2} U^{-1} e_{1,s/2}$ 
6:  $\tilde{x} \leftarrow x \in [0, 1]^d$  uniformly at random
7:  $n \leftarrow 1$ 
8: while not terminated do
9:    $a_n \leftarrow \frac{a}{n^\alpha}, c_n \leftarrow \frac{c}{n^\gamma}$ 
10:   $\forall j \in \{1, \dots, s/2\}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, d\}$ 
11:  Evaluate:
      
$$x^{(i,j)+} \leftarrow \tilde{x} + c_n u_j e_i \quad x^{(i,j)-} \leftarrow \tilde{x} - c_n u_j e_i$$

12:   $\hat{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{1}{c_n} \sum_{j=1}^{s/2} v_j \left( f(x^{(i,j)+}) - f(x^{(i,j)-}) \right)$ 
13:  Recommend:  $\tilde{x} \leftarrow \tilde{x} - a_n \hat{x}$ 
14:   $n \leftarrow n + 1$ 
15: end while
      return  $\tilde{x}$ 

```

The work in [18] gives the convergence rate in terms of SR . The result is presented here as Theorem 4. The value of the $s(SR)$ depends on the parameters of the algorithm and it is ensured a.s.

Theorem 4 (Simple Regret of Fabian algorithm). *Let s be an even positive integer and F be a function $(s+1)$ -times differentiable in the neighborhood of its optimum x^* . Assume that its Hessian and its $(s+1)^{\text{th}}$ derivative are bounded in norm. Assume that the parameters given in input of Algorithm 4 satisfy: $a > 0, c > 0, \alpha = 1, 0 < \gamma < 1/2$ and $2\lambda_0 a > \beta_0$ where λ_0 is the smallest eigenvalue of the Hessian. Let $\beta_0 = \min(2s\gamma, 1 - 2\gamma)$. Then, a.s.:*

$$n^\beta (\tilde{x}_n - x^*) \rightarrow 0 \quad \forall \beta < \beta_0/2 \quad (5)$$

In particular, when F is smooth enough, we get $s(SR) = -2\beta$.

Remark 2. Note that $s(SR)$ optimal when $\gamma = \frac{1}{2}(s+1)^{-1}$. In this case, $\beta_0 = \frac{s}{s+1} \xrightarrow{s \rightarrow \infty} 1$. β_0 can be made arbitrarily close to 1, so 2β also, but then γ goes to 0. Hence we get the values of Table 1, with $2\beta = 1 - e, e > 0$ and close to 0.

This shows that the Fabian algorithm can have $s(SR)$ arbitrarily close to -1 , which is optimal. As in the case of Shamir, this optimal performance should be captured by the regret used to evaluate the algorithm. Unfortunately, this is not the case, as detailed in Theorem 5.

Theorem 5 (*ASR of Fabian algorithm*). *Let F be a λ -convex and μ -smooth function corrupted by an additive noise with upper bounded density and with optimum randomly drawn according to a distribution with upper bounded density. Then, a.s.,*

$$s(ASR) = -\min(2\beta, 2\gamma).$$

Proof. See supplementary material. □

Remark 3. *Theorem 5 shows that $s(ASR) = -\min(2\beta, 2\gamma)$, i.e., when then Fabian algorithm is optimized for SR , $s(ASR)$ is close to -2γ , close to 0.*

4.3 Shamir and Fabian adapted for ASR

Both algorithms presented in this section have a clear difference between the search and recommendation points. This fact is not automatically distinguished when we are evaluating their performance using for example a test bed. If we modify the algorithms we can achieve ASR approximating well the optimal behavior reported by SR . A modification such as sampling one point out of two at the current recommendation, without using it in the algorithm can imply $s(ASR) = s(SR)$ arbitrarily close to -1 .

5 Experiments

We present experimental results for part of the algorithms theoretically analysed⁶. We will analyse the convergence rate of this algorithms in terms of *slope* (see section 2.2 for the definition). As in the theoretical part, the function to optimize is the noisy sphere: $f(x) = \|x - x^*\|^2 + \vartheta\mathcal{N}$ where $\vartheta = 0.3$ and \mathcal{N} is a standard gaussian distribution⁷. The dimension of the problem is 2. The results in Fig. 1 correspond to the mean of 10 runs for each of the algorithms.

Algorithms	Set of parameters
UHCMAES [21]	$x_{\text{initial}} = 1, \sigma_{\text{in}} = 1$
Shamir	$\epsilon = 0.3, \lambda = 0.1, B = 3$
(1 + 1)-ES	
(1 + 1)-ES resamp	resamp = 2^n
Fabian	s=4 $\alpha = 1, \gamma = 0.01$

The results in figure (1a) show the comparison between algorithms with regards to the SR criterion. The budget is limited to $(1 \cdot 10^6)$ function evaluations. We can see clearly the difference between the algorithm that are gradient-based and the ES . The algorithms Fabian and Shamir achieve $s(SR) = -1$ whereas the ES presented cannot do better than $s(SR) = -0.25$. The figure (1b) shows that the use of ASR changes completely the performance of the algorithms.

⁶In addition, the experimental results we include the algorithm *UHCMAES*, as another example of an *ES*. For more information, see [21].

⁷The choice $\vartheta = 0.3$ is made only to illustrate in the experiments the effect of the regret choice in a reasonable time budget. The noise is weaker than in the case of a standard gaussian and the algorithms can deal with it faster. The optimum x^* for the experiments of each algorithm is different, which does not affect the result since the regret compares the function value on the search/recommended points and on the optimum.

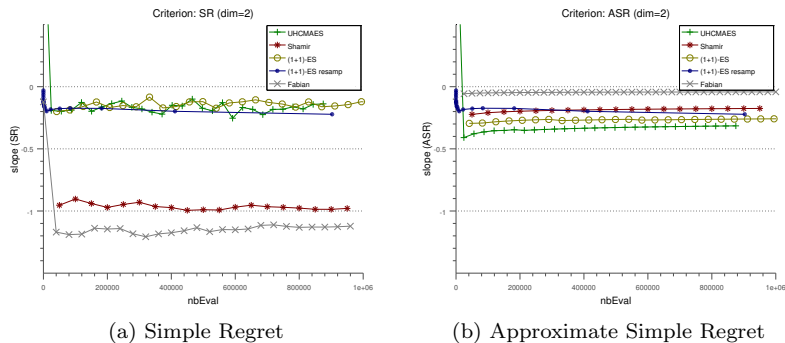


Figure 1: Figure 1a presents the Slope of Simple Regret for each algorithm on the first $(1 \cdot 10^6)$ function evaluations. Stochastic Gradient algorithms reach $s(SR) = -1$ while the evolutionary algorithms present $s(SR) = -0.2$. Figure 1b presents the Slope of Approximate Simple Regret. Observe that the performance of the algorithms is inverted with regards to the figure 1a : now the Stochastic Gradient algorithms have the worse performance.

In this case, the gradient-based algorithms are the ones with the worst performance. The results confirm the theoretical work (and the conjectures) presented in sections 3 and 4.

6 Conclusion

In this paper we analyse the use of regrets to measure performance of algorithms in noisy optimization problems. We take into account the *Simple Regret* (SR) and other two forms of regret used in practice to approximate the SR . We show that the convergence rates of the same algorithm over the same class of functions depend on the considered regret. Ultimately this leads to inconsistent results: algorithms are efficient for SR and the opposite for an approximation of SR . Table 1 summarizes our results, detailing if they are proved or conjectured and what type of convergence is found.

Approximations of SR . The ASR appears to be a poor approximation of SR . Two situations are exposed in this paper. First, algorithms with fast convergence for SR can have a slow convergence for ASR (Fabian and Shamir algorithm). However, this can be solved by modifying the algorithm in order to sample, sometimes, a recommended point. Second, an algorithm with slow convergence for SR can have a fast convergence for ASR , and this is a serious issue. There is no simple “patch” to deal with this problem. Test beds using ASR will underestimate algorithms which include random exploration. This is partially, but not totally, solved by RSR . We did not come up with a satisfactory regret definition, which would be consistent with SR (at least showing similar convergence rates) and without drawbacks as those presented above. However, the difference (between SR on the one hand, and ASR/RSR on the other hand) decreases with the dimension for most algorithms.

Simple Regret. SR is clearly a natural way to measure the quality of an approximated optimum output by an algorithm. The drawback of SR is

that it is not necessarily non-increasing, which is an issue for the concept of “stable first hitting time”. Note that a particularly interesting result is the one of Evolution Strategies correctly tuned in terms of its resampling scheme. It appears, from theoretical and experimental results, that it reaches half the speed of classical noisy optimization algorithms in terms of SR , on the log-log scale. This corresponds to a squared computation time.⁸

Further work. We have compared convergence rates through their *slopes*, but in some cases we have slopes for almost sure convergence, in other cases slope with high probability, and in others slope in expectation. There is room for refinement of the results. As for the approximations of SR , there might be other definitions of regret that approximate it in a better way. Evidently, the use of an approximation makes sense in the case where there are technical issues that do not allow the direct computation of SR .

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⁸This is not the case, however, for some ES with fast rates in noisy cases, such as mutate-large-inherit-small[10].

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Supplementary material

Theorem 1. *With the framework above, for all $\beta > 0$, the expected simple regret $\mathbb{E}(SR_n)$ is not $O(n^{-\beta})$.*

Lemma 1 (Logarithmic bounds on the quantile of the standard Gaussian variable). *Let $Q(q)$ be q quantile of the standard centered Gaussian, i.e. $\forall q \in (0, 1), P(\mathcal{N} \leq Q(q)) = q$. Then $\forall \kappa \geq 1, \forall q \in (0, 1)$,*

$$1 - \sqrt{-\frac{2}{\kappa} \log(c(\kappa)q)} \leq Q(q) \leq 1 - \sqrt{-2 \log(2q)},$$

where $c(\kappa)$ is a constant depending only on κ . In the following, we will denote by $X(q)$ (resp. $Y(q)$) the lower (resp. upper) bound on Q : $X(q) = 1 - \sqrt{-\frac{2}{\kappa} \log(c(\kappa)q)}$ and $Y(q) = 1 - \sqrt{-2 \log(2q)}$.

Proof. See <http://arxiv.org/pdf/1202.6483v2.pdf>. □

Definition 1. *We recall that we consider n i.i.d search points x_1, \dots, x_n . Let o and Ω be the standard Landau notations. Let $\epsilon : \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ and $C : \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be two functions satisfying:*

- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}, \epsilon(n) > 0$ and $C(n) > 0$,
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}, \epsilon(n) = o(C(n))$,
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}, \epsilon(n) = \Omega(1/n)$ and $C(n) = \Omega(1/n)$,
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}, \epsilon(n) = o(1)$ and $C(n) = o(1)$.

Definition 2. With the previous definition of ϵ and C , consider the set G defined by

$$G := \{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}; \|x_i - x^*\| \leq \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}\}.$$

G is the set of “good” search points, with simple regret better than $\epsilon(n)$. We denote by $N_G(n)$ the cardinality of G .

Definition 3. Similarly, consider the set B defined by

$$B := \{i \in \{1, \dots, n\}; \sqrt{\epsilon(n)} < \|x_i - x^*\| \leq \sqrt{C(n)}\}.$$

B is the set of “bad” search points, with simple regret bigger than $\epsilon(n)$, but still not that bad, since the simple regret does not exceed $C(n)$. We denote by $N_B(n)$ the cardinality of B .

Lemma 2 (Linear numbers of good and bad points). *There exist a constant $K_d > 0$ such that, with probability at least $1/2$,*

$$N_G(n) < 2K_d n \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d \quad (6)$$

and

$$N_B(n) \geq 2K_d n \sqrt{C(n)}^d. \quad (7)$$

Proof. Proof of Eq. 6. Consider a search point x_i . The search points are drawn uniformly at random following the uniform distribution in $[0, 1]^d$, then the probability p that $x_i \in G$ is $p = \frac{\text{Vol}(B_d(x^*, \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}))}{\text{Vol}([0, 1]^d)} = K_d \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d$, where Vol stands for ‘volume’ and K_d is a constant depending on d only. Therefore the number $N_G(n)$ of good points is the sum of n Bernoulli random variables with parameter $K_d \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d$. The expectation is then $K_d n \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d$. By Markov inequality,

$$\mathbb{P}(N_G(n) \geq 2K_d n \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d) \leq \frac{K_d n \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d}{2K_d n \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Similarly, $N_B(n)$ is a binomial random variable of parameters n and $p = K_d(\sqrt{C(n)}^d - \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d)$. Then by Chebyshev’s inequality, $\mathbb{P}(|N_B(n) - K_d n(\sqrt{C(n)}^d - \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d)| \leq \alpha) \geq 1/2$ by taking $\alpha = \sqrt{2K_d n(\sqrt{C(n)}^d - \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d)(1 - \sqrt{C(n)}^d + \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d)}$. Hence with probability at least $1/2$, $N_B(n) \geq K_d n(\sqrt{C(n)}^d - \sqrt{\epsilon(n)}^d) + \alpha \geq 2K_d n \sqrt{C(n)}^d$ since $\epsilon(n) = o(C(n))$. \square

We recall that $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, y_i is the fitness value of search point x_i : $y_i = \|x_i - x^*\|^2 + \mathcal{N}_i$, where \mathcal{N}_i is the realisation of a standard centered gaussian variable.

The following property gives a lower bound on the fitness values of the ‘good’ points, and an upper bound on the fitness values of the ‘bad’ points.

Proposition 1. *With X and Y as defined in Lemma 1, and C as defined in Definition 1, there exists some $c \in (0, 1)$ such that, with probability at least c ,*

$$\inf_{i \in G} y_i \geq X(1/N_G(n)), \quad (8)$$

and

$$\inf_{i \in B} y_i \leq C(n) + Y(1/N_B(n)). \quad (9)$$

Proof. Consider some Gaussian random variables independently identically distributed $\mathcal{N}_1, \dots, \mathcal{N}_N$. $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, N\}$, using notation of Lemma 1, $\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{N}_i \leq Q(1/N)) = 1/N$, then $\mathbb{P}(\inf_{1 \leq i \leq N} \mathcal{N}_i \leq Q(1/N)) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(\inf_{1 \leq i \leq N} \mathcal{N}_i \geq Q(1/N)) = 1 - (1 - 1/N)^N$. The study of the function $x \mapsto 1 - (1 - 1/x)^x$ then shows that $\mathbb{P}(\inf_{1 \leq i \leq N} \mathcal{N}_i \leq Q(1/N)) \in [1 - \exp(-1), 3/4]$ (as soon as $N \geq 2$).

Proof of Eq. 8.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} y_i \geq X(1/N_G(n))) &= \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \|x_i - x^*\|^2 \\ &\quad + \mathcal{N}_i \geq X(1/N_G(n))) \\ &\geq \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \|x_i - x^*\|^2 \\ &\quad + \mathcal{N}_i \geq \epsilon(n) + X(1/N_G(n))) \\ &\geq \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \mathcal{N}_i \geq X(1/N_G(n))) \\ &\geq 1 - \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \mathcal{N}_i \leq X(1/N_G(n))) \\ &\geq 1 - \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \mathcal{N}_i \leq Q(1/N_G(n))) \\ &\geq 1/4. \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Eq. 9.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in B} y_i \leq C(n) + Y(1/N_B(n))) &= \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in G} \|x_i - x^*\|^2 + \mathcal{N}_i \\ &\quad \leq C(n) + Y(1/N_B(n))) \\ &= \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in B} \mathcal{N}_i \leq Y(1/N_B(n))) \\ &\geq \mathbb{P}(\inf_{i \in B} \mathcal{N}_i \leq Q(1/N_B(n))) \\ &\geq 1 - \exp(-1) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, with probability at least $1/4$, Eqs. 8 and 9 hold. \square

Proof of Theorem 1:

Proof. Let us assume that the expected simple regret has a slope $-\beta_0 < -\beta$, for some $0 < \beta < 1$: $\mathbb{E}(SR_n) = O(n^{-\beta_0})$.

We define $\epsilon(n) = n^{-\beta}$. For some $0 < k < 1$, $\alpha = \beta/k$ and $C(n) = n^{-\alpha}$. ϵ and C satisfy Definition 1.

Lemma 2 and Proposition 1 implies that there is a $0 < c < 1$ such that with probability c , for n sufficiently large,

- there are much more good points than bad points, i.e.

$$N_G(n) = o(N_B(n)) \quad (10)$$

thanks to Eq. 6 and 7.

- all good points have noisy fitness at least $X(1/N_G(n)) = 1 - \sqrt{-\frac{2}{\kappa} \log(c(\kappa)/N_G(n))}$;
- at least one bad point has fitness at most $C(n) + Y(1/N_B(n)) = n^{-\alpha} + 1 - \sqrt{-2 \log(2/N_B(n))}$;
- therefore (by the two points above, using Eq. 10 and the fact that n is big so that $n^{-\alpha}$ is negligible), at least one bad point has a better noisy fitness than all the good points, and therefore is selected in Lines 7-9 of Alg. 1.

This implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(SR_n) &= \mathbb{E}(\|x_n - x^*\|^2) = \mathbb{E}(\|x_n - x^*\|^2 | x_n \in B) \mathbb{P}(x_n \in B) \\ &\quad + \mathbb{E}(\|x_n - x^*\|^2 | x_n \in G) \mathbb{P}(x_n \in G) \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}(\|x_n - x^*\|^2 | x_n \in B) \mathbb{P}(x_n \in B) \\ &\geq \epsilon(n) \times c \\ &\geq cn^{-\beta}. \end{aligned}$$

We have a contradiction, hence $\beta_0 > 0$. □

Theorem 2. Consider $0 < \delta < 1$. Consider an objective function with expectation $F(x) = \|x\|^2$, where $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Consider a MES + R as described previously (resampling number exponential in the number of iterations). Assume that:

- (i) σ_n and $\|\tilde{x}_n\|$ have the same order of magnitude:

$$\|\tilde{x}_n\| = \Theta(\sigma_n). \quad (11)$$

- (ii) $\log - \log$ convergence occurs for the SR:

$$\frac{\log(\|\tilde{x}_n\|)}{\log(n)} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{with probability } 1 - \delta, \quad (12)$$

Then, with probability at least $1 - \delta$, $s(ASR) = -1/2 - 2/d$.

Proof. We have $r_n = R\zeta^n$. In this proof we will index the recommendation and search points by the number of *iterations* instead of the number of evaluations. For $ES + r$, the recommendation point of the iteration n is the corresponding center of the offspring distribution \tilde{x}_n . The step-size σ_n corresponds to the standard deviation of the offspring distribution. The search points of iteration n are the λ offsprings produced on the iteration, denoted $\{x_n^{(i)} : i = 1, \dots, \lambda\}$.

We define e_n the number of evaluations until the iteration n . From Algorithm 2 we have $e_n = \lambda \sum_{i=1}^n r_i$ for an ES with resampling r . By hypothesis (Eq. 4) we know the convergence of the sequence S_n defined as the logarithm of the recommendation points, indexed by the number evaluations, divided by the logarithm

the number of evaluations. Therefore, the sequence $\mathcal{S}_n = \log(\|x_n\|)/\log(e_n)$ is a subsequence of S_n , hence convergent to the same limit, with the same probability. The relation on Eq. 3 also remains the same after the index modification. From these facts we can immediately conclude that $\exists n_0$ such that

$$\sigma_n = \Theta(e_n^{-1/4}) \text{ for } n \geq n_0. \quad (13)$$

For the $MES + r$ algorithm, the ASR_n is defined as:

$$ASR_n = \min_{m \leq n} \min_{1 \leq i \leq \lambda + r_m} \|x'_m{}^{(i)}\|^2 \quad (14)$$

where $\{x'_n{}^{(i)} : i = 1, \dots, \lambda + r_n\}$ considers all the search points at iteration n . Both the “real” and the “fake” ones. We will find a bound for ASR_n , which will lead us to the convergence rate of the ASR for the $MES + r$ algorithm.

Let p_x be the probability density at point x of the offsprings in iteration n . Therefore it is the probability density of a Gaussian centered at \tilde{x}_n and with variance σ_n^2 . At the origin:

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} \sigma_n^d} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(-\tilde{x}_n)^T (-\tilde{x}_n)}{\sigma_n^2} \right\} \\ &= \Theta(\sigma_n^{-d}) \text{ by Eq. 3} \\ &= \Theta(e_n^{d/4}) \text{ by Eq. 13} \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

Now, at iteration n , the probability to have at least one offspring with norm less than $\epsilon > 0$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(\exists i : \|x'_n{}^{(i)}\| \leq \epsilon) &\leq (\lambda + r_n) \mathbb{P}(\|x'_n{}^{(i)}\| \leq \epsilon) \\ &\leq (\lambda + r_n) \int_{\|x\| \leq \epsilon} dp_x \end{aligned}$$

By Eq. 15,

$$\mathbb{P}(\exists i : \|x'_n{}^{(i)}\| \leq \epsilon) = \Theta(r_n \cdot e_n^{d/4} \epsilon^d) = \Theta(1)$$

if $\epsilon = \Theta(e_n^{-1/4} \cdot r_n^{-1/d})$. Therefore we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} ASR_n &\leq \min_{1 \leq i \leq \lambda + r_n} \|x'_n{}^{(i)}\|^2 \\ &\leq \epsilon^2 \\ &= O(e_n^{-1/2} \cdot r_n^{-2/d}) \\ &= O(e_n^{-1/2-2/d}) \end{aligned}$$

Since $e_n = (1 + \lambda) \sum_{i=1}^n r_i = (1 + \lambda) \cdot R \sum_{i=1}^n \zeta^i = \Theta(r_n)$ Hence we have the result, $s(ASR) \leq -1/2 - 2/d$. \square

Theorem 5 (*ASR of Fabian algorithm*). *Let F be a λ -convex and μ -smooth function corrupted by an additive noise with upper bounded density and with optimum randomly drawn according to a distribution with upper bounded density. Then, a.s.,*

$$s(ASR) = -\min(2\beta, 2\gamma).$$

	SR		ASR		RSR	
	conv.	type	conv.	type	conv.	type
Evolutionary Algorithms						
RS	0	expect.	$-\frac{2}{d}$	a.s.	$-\frac{2}{d}$	a.s.
ES	0	expect.	$-\frac{1}{2}$	a.s.	$-\frac{1}{2}$	a.s.
ES + r	$-\frac{1}{2}$	high prob.	$-\frac{1}{2}$	high prob.	$-\frac{1}{2}$	high prob.
MES+ r	$-\frac{1}{2}$	high prob.	$-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{d}$	high prob.	$-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{d}$	high prob.
Stochastic Gradient						
Shamir	-1	expect.	0	expect.	-1	expect.
Shamir for ASR	-1	expect.	-1	expect.	-1	expect.
Fabian	$-(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{e})$	a.s.	$-\mathbf{e}'$	a.s.	$-(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{e})$	a.s.
Fabian for ASR	$-(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{e})$	a.s.	$-(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{e})$	a.s.	$-(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{e})$	a.s.

Table 1: Convergence rates for the regrets analysed on this paper. The “convergence” column refers to the convergence rate and the “type” column specifies the type of convergence: with high probability, in expectation, almost surely. The results in bold are proved and the others are conjectures, all of them presented in this paper.

Proof. The upper bounded density is used (Theorem 3 section 4.1)) for ensuring that no recommendation is never exactly equal to the optimum.

Using the algorithm notations,

$$ASR_n = \min_{n,i,j} F(x^{(i,j)^+}(n)) - F(x^*)$$

(or $\min_{n,i,j} F(x^{(i,j)^-}(n)) - F(x^*)$, which does not affect the proof), where $x^{(i,j)^+}(n)$ is the n^{th} search point. Noting that since there is $s \times d$ evaluations per iterations, \tilde{x} is updated only every $s \times d$ evaluations, so we have $\tilde{x}_n = \tilde{x}_{n+1} = \dots = \tilde{x}_{n+s \times d-1}$, therefore $x^{(i,j)^+}(n) = \tilde{x}_{\lfloor n/s \times d \rfloor} + c_n u_j e_i$. By the convexity of F , the fact that the gradient of F in x^* is 0,

$$F(x^{(i,j)^+}(n)) - F(x^*) \geq \frac{\lambda}{2} \|(\tilde{x}_{\lfloor n/s \times d \rfloor} - x^*) + (c_n u_j e_i)\|^2$$

Similarly, by using the μ -smoothness of F ,

$$F(x^{(i,j)^+}(n)) - F(x^*) \leq \frac{\mu}{2} \|(\tilde{x}_{\lfloor n/s \times d \rfloor} - x^*) + (c_n u_j e_i)\|^2$$

Then

$$F(x^{(i,j)^+}(n)) - F(x^*) = \Theta(\|(\tilde{x}_{\lfloor n/s \times d \rfloor} - x^*) + (c_n u_j e_i)\|^2)$$

If $\beta > \gamma$, then the main term is the last one and we get a rate -2γ . If $\beta \leq \gamma$, then the main term is the first one and we get a rate -2β . \square