A Conditional-Gradient-Based Augmented Lagrangian Framework

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Abstract
This paper considers a generic convex minimization template with affine constraints over a compact domain, which covers key semidefinite programming applications. The existing conditional gradient methods either do not apply to our template or are too slow in practice. To this end, we propose a new conditional gradient method, based on a unified treatment of smoothing and augmented Lagrangian frameworks. The proposed method maintains favorable properties of the classical conditional gradient method, such as cheap linear minimization oracle calls and sparse representation of the decision variable. We prove $O(1/\sqrt{K})$ convergence rate for our method in the objective residual and the feasibility gap. This rate is essentially the same as the state of the art CG-type methods for our problem template, but the proposed method is arguably superior in practice compared to existing methods in various applications.

1. Introduction
In this paper we focus on the following constrained convex minimization template:

$$\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad f(x) + g(Bx) \\
\text{subject to} & \quad x \in \mathcal{X} & \& Ax \in \mathcal{K}
\end{align*} \tag{P}$$

where $x$ is the decision variable that lives on the convex and compact optimization domain $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ with diameter $D_{\mathcal{X}} := \max_{x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{X}} \|x_1 - x_2\|; f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a convex differentiable function with $L_f$-Lipschitz continuous gradient; $A : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^p$ and $B : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^q$ are known linear maps; $g : \mathbb{R}^q \to \mathbb{R}$ is a convex function which can be non-smooth but we assume that it is $L_g$-Lipschitz continuous; $\mathcal{K} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$ is a convex set.

This template has a large number of applications in machine learning, signal processing, and computer science; from unsupervised clustering (Peng and Wei, 2007) to generalized eigenvector problems (Boumal et al., 2018), and from maximum cut (Goemans and Williamson, 1995) to phase-retrieval (Candès et al., 2013). We refer the reader to Section 5 from (Yurtsever et al., 2018) for a detailed discussion on the special instances and applications of $(P)$.

The conditional gradient method (CGM, a.k.a. Frank-Wolfe algorithm) is one of the most scalable methods in the literature for solving convex optimization problems over a structured domain (Yurtsever et al., 2017). The main computational efficiency of CGM comes from the so-called linear minimization oracles (lmo), the main building blocks of CGM:

$$\text{lmo}_\mathcal{X}(v) = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle x, v \rangle.$$ 

lmo is significantly less expensive than the projection. For instance, lmo contains a rank-1 solution when $\mathcal{X}$ is a nuclear norm-ball, which can be efficiently approximated via Krylov subspace methods. Recall that the projection oracle requires a full singular value decomposition instead.

The classical CGM is originated by Frank and Wolfe (1956), but its resurgence in machine learning follows Hazan and Kale (2012) and Jaggi (2013). Unfortunately, CGM has restrictive assumptions such as the smoothness of the objective function. Therefore, extending CG-type methods for broader templates is an active research area (see Section 4 for some recent advancements). In this work, we introduce the conditional gradient augmented Lagrangian framework (CGAL) for solving $(P)$.

$(P)$ is significantly broader in applications in comparison with the classical CGM template. We can consider the non-smooth term $g(Bx)$ as a regularizer to promote some known structures of the solution, or directly as a non-smooth loss function (e.g., least absolute deviations) for robust optimization. More importantly, $(P)$ contains an affine inclusion constraint $Ax \in \mathcal{K}$. In particular, it covers the standard semidefinite programming (SDP) template (with bounded trace constraint).

Affine constraints are key for the flexibility of the template, but they pose substantial computational difficulty in solving the problem in the primal domain. As a result, primal-
dual methods are typically preferred for solving these problems in large-scale. Among the primal-dual approaches, augmented Lagrangian provides a powerful framework for deriving fast methods. However, the majority of the primal-dual methods for solving \( P \) rely on the projection and/or proximal-oracles, which do not scale well in many applications (SDP’s in particular) and impose a computational bottleneck. In contrast, CGAL provides the utmost scalability by exploiting the cheap linear minimization oracles.

CGAL can be viewed as an extension of the recent work of (Yurtsever et al., 2018), from the quadratic penalty to an augmented Lagrangian formulation in the spirit of (Bertsekas, 1976), with the focus on improving its empirical performance when considering vector space of matrices), uppercase letters for linear maps, and calligraphic letters for sets. We denote the adjoint of a linear map \( A \) by \( A^\top \). For a set \( K \), its indicator function \( \iota_K : \mathbb{R}^q \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \) is defined as

\[
i_K(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z \in K \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
\]

2. Preliminaries

Our algorithmic design is based on the unified treatment of smoothing, quadratic penalty and augmented Lagrangian frameworks. This section reviews these notions and explains their similarities.

2.1. Nesterov Smoothing

In his seminal work, Nesterov (2005a) introduces a technique for solving some structured non-smooth optimization problems with efficiency estimates \( O(1/\epsilon) \), which is much better than the theoretical lower bound \( O(1/\epsilon^2) \). This technique is known as Nesterov smoothing, and it is commonly used to design efficient primal-dual methods (e.g., (Nesterov, 2005b), (Tran-Dinh et al., 2018)).

Nesterov smoothing exploits an important class of non-smooth functions \( \psi(x) \) that can be written in the following max-form:

\[
\psi(x) = \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \left\{ \langle Bx, u \rangle - \hat{\phi}(u) \right\},
\]

for some convex and compact set \( \mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^q \) and a convex function \( \hat{\phi} : \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R} \).

Let us consider a prox-function \( \delta(u) \) of \( \mathcal{U} \), i.e., a strongly convex continuous function on \( \mathcal{U} \). Define the center point of this prox-function as

\[
\hat{u} = \arg\min_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \delta(u).
\]

Without loss of generality, we assume that the strong convexity parameter of \( \delta \) is 1 and \( \delta(\hat{u}) = 0 \). Smooth approximation \( \psi_\beta(x) \) with the smoothness parameter \( \beta > 0 \) is defined as

\[
\psi_\beta(x) = \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \left\{ \langle Bx, u \rangle - \hat{\phi}(u) - \beta \delta(u) \right\}.
\]

Then, \( \psi_\beta \) is well defined, differentiable, convex and smooth. Moreover, it uniformly approximates \( \psi \), in the sense it satisfies the following envelop property:

\[
\psi_\beta(x) \leq \psi(x) \leq \psi_\beta(x) + \beta D_\mathcal{U} \quad (\forall x \in \mathcal{X}),
\]

where \( D_\mathcal{U} = \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \delta(u) \). See Theorem 1 in (Nesterov, 2005a) for the proof and more details.

For notational convenience, we restrict ourselves with \( g(B \cdot) \), a Lipschitz continuous function coupled with a linear map. Note that we can write \( g(B \cdot) \) in the max form by choosing \( \psi(x) = g(Bx) \) and \( \hat{\phi}(u) = g^*(u) \). Here, \( g^* \) denotes the Fenchel conjugate of \( g \):

\[
g^*(u) = \max_z \left\{ \langle u, z \rangle - g(z) \right\}.
\]

Since \( g \) is convex and lower semicontinuous, Fenchel duality holds, and we have \( g(Bx) = (g^* \circ B)(x) \). Moreover, the Lipschitz continuity assumption of \( g \) ensures the boundedness of the dual domain (see Lemma 5 in (Dünner et al., 2016) for a formal statement of this well-known result).

In this work, we specifically focus on the Euclidean prox-functions, \( \delta(u) = \frac{1}{2} \| u - \hat{u} \|^2 \). By definition of \( \psi_\beta \), \( g_\beta \) takes the following form:

\[
g_\beta(Bx) = \max_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^q} \left\{ \langle Bx, \alpha \rangle - g^*(\alpha) - \beta \| u - \hat{u} \|^2 \right\}.
\]

The argument of this maximization subproblem can be written as \( \text{prox}_{\beta^{-1} g^*}(\hat{u} + \beta^{-1} Bx) \), where

\[
\text{prox}_g(z) = \arg\min_u \ g(u) + \frac{1}{2} \| z - u \|^2.
\]
Finally, we can compute the gradient of $g_\beta$ as
\[
\nabla g_\beta(Bx) = B^T \text{prox}_{\beta^{-1}g}(\hat{u} + \beta^{-1}Bx) \\
= B^T \hat{u} + \beta^{-1}B^T (Bx - \text{prox}_{\beta g}(\beta \hat{u} + Bx)),
\]
where the second line follows from the well-known Moreau decomposition.

### 2.2. Quadratic Penalty

The quadratic penalty method is an effective proxy for handling the affine constraints $Ax \in \mathcal{K}$. It works by replacing the constraint with the penalty function which favors the feasibility of iterates. We consider the squared Euclidean distance, $\frac{1}{2} \text{dist}^2(Ax, \mathcal{K})$, as the penalty function, and $\lambda > 0$ is called as the penalty parameter. We update this parameter as we progress in the optimization procedure to converge to a solution of the original constrained problem. Surprisingly, the quadratic penalty approach is structurally equivalent to a de facto instance of Nesterov smoothing.

Let us start by writing the Fenchel conjugate of the indicator function $\iota_{\mathcal{K}}(\cdot)$,
\[\iota_{\mathcal{K}}^*(z) = \max_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \langle v, z \rangle.\]

Then, we can write the affine constraint in the max form by choosing $\phi(z) = \iota_{\mathcal{K}}^*(z)$ and using the following formula:
\[\iota_{\mathcal{K}}(Ax) = \max_z \{ \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \langle Ax - v, z \rangle \} = \max_z \{ \langle Ax, z \rangle - \iota_{\mathcal{K}}^*(z) \}.\]

By choosing the standard Euclidean prox-function $\delta(v) = \frac{1}{2}||v||^2$, we get the following “smooth approximation”:
\[\iota_{\mathcal{K}, \beta}(Ax) = \max_z \{ \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \langle Ax - v, z \rangle - \frac{\beta}{2}||z||^2 \} = \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \max_z \{ \langle Ax - v, z \rangle - \frac{\beta}{2}||z||^2 \} = \frac{1}{2\beta} \text{dist}^2(Ax, \mathcal{K}),\]
where the inversion of $\min$ and $\max$ holds due to the Sion’s minimax theorem (Sion, 1958).

In summary, we can obtain the quadratic penalty with parameter $\lambda = \beta^{-1}$, by applying the Nesterov smoothing procedure to the indicator of an affine constraint.

Note that the quadratic penalty does not serve as a uniform approximation, because the dual domain is unbounded and the envelope property does not hold. Consequently, the common analysis techniques for smoothing does not apply for quadratic penalty methods. Nevertheless, one can exploit this structural similarity to design algorithms that universally work for both cases: composite problems with smoothing-friendly non-smooth regularizers, and problems with affine constraints.

Quadratic penalty provides simple algorithms with interpretable steps, but they provide limited practical applicability due to the poor empirical performance. To this end, the next subsection reviews augmented Lagrangian methods as an alternative approach.

### 2.3. Augmented Lagrangian

Augmented Lagrangian (AL) methods replace the affine constraint with a continuous function that promotes the feasibility, similar to the quadratic penalty approach. This function is parametrized by a penalty parameter $\lambda > 0$ (aka augmented Lagrangian parameter) and a dual vector $\hat{\nu} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ (Lagrange multiplier). In the min-form, we can write this function as
\[
\min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \left\{ \langle \hat{\nu}, Ax - v \rangle + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||Ax - v||^2 \right\}.
\]

We can view the augmented Lagrangian as a shifted quadratic penalty, since
\[
\arg \min_x f(x) + \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \left\{ \langle \hat{\nu}, Ax - v \rangle + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||Ax - v||^2 \right\} = \arg \min_x f(x) + \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \frac{\lambda}{2} ||Ax - v + \frac{1}{\lambda} \hat{\nu}||^2 = \arg \min_x f(x) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \text{dist}^2(Ax + \frac{1}{\lambda} \hat{\nu}, \mathcal{K}).
\]

Therefore, it is not surprising that we can relate augmented Lagrangian function with Nesterov smoothing. To draw this relation, we simply follow similar arguments as in the quadratic penalty case, but this time we use a shifted prox-function $\delta(v) = \frac{1}{2}||v - \hat{\nu}||^2$:
\[\iota_{\mathcal{K}, \beta}(Ax) = \max_z \{ \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \langle Ax - v, z \rangle - \frac{\beta}{2}||z - \hat{\nu}||^2 \} = \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \max_z \{ \langle Ax - v, z \rangle - \frac{\beta}{2}||z - \hat{\nu}||^2 \} = \min_{v \in \mathcal{K}} \{ \langle \hat{\nu}, Ax - v \rangle + \frac{1}{2\beta} ||Ax - v||^2 \}.
\]

In conclusion, augmented Lagrangian formulation is structurally equivalent to a de facto instance of Nesterov smoothing, applied to the indicator of the constraint, with a shifted Euclidean prox-function. The center point of this prox-function corresponds to the dual variable, and the penalty parameter corresponds to the inverse of the smoothness parameter ($\lambda = \beta^{-1}$). Once again, this approach does not serve as a uniform approximation, and the common analysis for Nesterov smoothing does not apply for augmented Lagrangian.
3. Algorithm

In this section, we design CGAL for the special case of \(g(Bx) = 0\) for the ease of presentation. One can extend CGAL in a straightforward way for the general case, based on the discussion in Section 2, and the analysis techniques in this work and (Yurtsever et al., 2018).

Algorithm 1 CGAL (for \(g(Bx) = 0\))

\[
\begin{align*}
\textbf{Input:} & \quad x_1 \in \mathcal{X}, \ y_1 \in \mathbb{R}^p, \ \lambda_0 > 0 \\
\text{for} \ k = 1, 2, \ldots, & \quad \text{do} \\
& \quad \eta_k = 2/(k+1) \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k+1} \\
& \quad r_k = \text{proj}_K (Ax_k + (1/\lambda_k)y_k) \\
& \quad v_k = \nabla f(x_k) + A^T y_k + \lambda_k A^T (Ax_k - r_k) \\
& \quad s_k = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle v_k, x \rangle \\
& \quad x_{k+1} = x_k + \eta_k (s_k - x_k) \\
& \quad \tilde{r}_{k+1} = \text{proj}_K (Ax_{k+1} + (1/\lambda_k+1)y_k) \\
& \quad \sigma_{k+1} \leftarrow \text{using (decr.) or (const.)} \\
& \quad y_{k+1} = y_k + \sigma_{k+1} (Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}) \\
\text{end for}
\end{align*}
\]

3.1. Design of CGAL

Let us introduce the slack variable \(r = Ax \in \mathcal{K}\) and define the augmented Lagrangian function as

\[
\mathcal{L}_\lambda(x, y) = f(x) + \min_{r \in \mathcal{K}} \left\{ \langle y, Ax - r \rangle + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|Ax - r\|^2 \right\} \\
= f(x) - \frac{1}{2\lambda} \|y\|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \operatorname{dist}^2 \left( Ax + \frac{1}{\lambda} y, \mathcal{K} \right),
\]

where \(y \in \mathbb{R}^p\) is the Lagrange multiplier and \(\lambda > 0\) is the penalty parameter. Clearly, \(\mathcal{L}_\lambda(x, y)\) is a smooth convex function with respect to \(x\).

One CGAL iteration is composed of three basic steps:

- Primal step (conditional gradient step on \(x\)),
- Penalty parameter update (increment \(\lambda\)),
- Dual step (proximal gradient step on \(y\)).

**Primal step.** CGAL is characterized by the conditional gradient step with respect to \(\mathcal{L}_\lambda(\cdot, y)\) on the primal variable. Define

\[
r_k = \text{proj}_K \left( Ax_k + \frac{1}{\lambda_k} y_k \right).
\]

Then, we can evaluate \(\nabla_x \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x, y_k)\) as

\[
\nabla_x \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x, y_k) = \nabla f(x_k) + A^T y_k + \lambda_k A^T (Ax_k - r_k).
\]

Next, we query the linear minimization oracle

\[
s_k = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{K}} \langle \nabla_x \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, y_k), x \rangle,
\]

and we form the next iterate \((x_{k+1}, s_k)\) by combining the current iterate \(x_k\) and \(s_k\) with the CG step-size \(\eta_k\). We use the classical step size \(\eta_k = 2/(k+1)\) of CG-type methods, but the same guarantees hold for the design variants with line-search or fully corrective updates.

**Penalty parameter update.**

Penalty methods typically require the penalty parameter to be increased at a certain rate for provable convergence. In contrast, augmented Lagrangian methods can be designed with a fixed penalty parameter, because the saddle point formulation already favors the constraints. Unlike other augmented Lagrangian CG-type methods, we adopt an increasing penalty sequence in CGAL by choosing \(\lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k+1}\) for some \(\lambda_0 > 0\).

**Dual step.** Once \(x_{k+1}\) is formed, we update the dual variable \(y_k\) by a gradient ascent step with respect to \(\mathcal{L}_\lambda(x, \cdot)\). At iteration \(k\), we evaluate dual update by

\[
y_{k+1} = y_k + \sigma_{k+1} \nabla_y \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, y_k).
\]

To compute \(\nabla_y \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}\), we first define

\[
\tilde{r}_{k+1} = \text{proj}_K \left( Ax_{k+1} + \frac{1}{\lambda_k+1} y_k \right).
\]

Then, we can use the following formulation:

\[
\nabla_y \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, y_k) = Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}.
\]

The choice of dual step-size is crucial for convergence guarantees. We propose two alternative schemes, with a decreasing or constant bound on the step-size.

**Decreasing bound on step-size.** This variant cancels positive quadratic terms in the majorization bounds due to dual updates, with the negative quadratic terms that come from the penalty parameter update. Consequently, we choose the largest \(\sigma_{k+1} \geq 0\) which satisfies

\[
\sigma_{k+1} \leq \frac{\lambda_0}{2\sqrt{k+1}} \quad \& \quad \|y_{k+1}\| \leq D_{y_{k+1}} \quad \text{(decr.)}
\]

\(D_{y_{k+1}}\) is a sequence of positive numbers to be chosen, which acts as a dual domain diameter and appears in the final bounds. We will specify a reasonable positive constant \(D_y = D_{y_{k+1}}\) in the sequel from the final converges bounds, by matching the factors of the dominating terms.

**Constant bound on step-size.** We observed significant performance improvements by slightly relaxing the decreasing upper bound on the step-size. To this end, we design this second variant. We do not cancel out additional quadratic terms but restrict them to be smaller than other dominating terms in the majorization bound. To this end, we choose the largest \(\sigma_{k+1} \geq 0\) which satisfies \((D_y)_{k+1}\) is similar as in (decr.) case

\[
\sigma_{k+1} \leq \lambda_0 \quad \|y_{k+1}\| \leq D_{y_{k+1}} \quad \text{(const.)}
\]

\[
\sigma_{k+1} \|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \eta_k^2 \|L_f + \lambda_k A\|^2 D_X^2.
\]
We underline that the computation of $\sigma_k$ does not require an iterative line-search procedure. Instead, it can be computed by simple vector operation both in (decr.) and (const.) variants. As a result, the computational cost of finding $\sigma_k$ is negligible.

### 3.2. Theoretical Guarantees of CGAL

We present convergence guarantees of CGAL in this section. But first, we define some basic notions to be used in the sequel and state our main assumptions.

**Solution set.** We denote a solution of (P) by $x^*$, and the set of all solutions by $\mathcal{X}^*$. Similarly, we denote a solution of the dual problem by $y^*$, and the set of all solutions by $\mathcal{Y}^*$. Throughout, we assume that the solution set is nonempty and that there exists a finite dual solution, i.e., $\min_{y \in \mathcal{Y}^*} \|y\| < \infty$.

**$\epsilon$-solution.** Given an accuracy level $\epsilon > 0$, we call a point $x \in \mathcal{X}$ as an $\epsilon$-solution of (P) if

$$f(x) - f^* \leq \epsilon, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{dist}(Ax, K) \leq \epsilon.$$  

We call $f(x) - f^*$ as the objective residual and $\text{dist}(Ax, K)$ as the feasibility gap. Note that the convergence of objective residual alone is not enough to approximate the solution since the iterates are non-feasible and $f(x) - f^*$ can take negative values.

**Strong duality.** We assume that the strong duality holds. This assumption is common for primal-dual methods, and the Slater’s condition is a widely used sufficient condition for the strong duality:

$$\text{relint}(\mathcal{X} \times K) \cap \{(x, r) \in \text{dom}(f) \times \mathbb{R}^d : Ax = r\} \neq \emptyset,$$

where relint means relative interior.

**Theorem 3.1.** Sequence $x_k$ generated by CGAL with dual step-size conditions (const.) satisfies:

$$\begin{align*}
  & f(x_k) - f^* \geq -\|y^*\| \text{ dist}(Ax_k, K) \\
  & f(x_k) - f^* \leq 4D^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k}} \right) + \frac{D^2}{2\lambda_0 \sqrt{k}} \text{ dist}(Ax_k, K) \leq \frac{2L_f}{\lambda_0 \sqrt{k}} \left( \frac{D_y y_k}{2} + \|y_k - y^*\| + \sqrt{2C_0 \lambda_0 D^2} \right)
\end{align*}$$

where $C_0 = L_f + \|A\|^2 \lambda_0$. We can also bound $\|y_k - y^*\|$ using triangle inequality. Considering the bounds, it is reasonable to choose $D_y$ proportional to $D_X \|A\| \lambda_0$.

**Sequence $x_k$ generated by CGAL with dual step-size conditions (decr.) satisfies similar guarantees as (const.), with the factor of 1/2 for all terms involving $D^2_X$.**

We omit design variants of CGAL with line-search and fully corrective updates, covered by our theory. The same guarantees hold for these variants.

### 3.3. Extension for Composite Problems

One can extend CGAL in a straightforward way for composite problems based on the discussions in Section 2. For this, we simply need to define the sum of two non-smooth terms: $G(Ax, Bx) = i_K(Ax) + g(Bx)$. Then, CGAL guarantees $O(1/\sqrt{k})$ rates in the feasibility gap $\text{dist}(Ax, K)$ and in the objective residual $f(x) + g(Bx) - f(x^*) - g(Bx^*)$. See the supplements for more details.

Below we describe the extension (const.) for this setting

$$\begin{align*}
  & \sigma_{k+1} \leq \lambda_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \gamma_{k+1} \leq \beta_0 \\
  & \|y_{k+1}\| \leq D_{y_{k+1}} \quad \text{and} \quad \|z_{k+1}\| \leq D_{z_{k+1}} \\
  & \sigma_{k+1} \|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{\eta_k^2} \tilde{L}_{k+1} D^2_A \\
  & \gamma_{k+1} \|Bx_{k+1} - \tilde{t}_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{1}{\eta_k^2} \tilde{L}_{k+1} D^2_X \quad \text{(const.2)}
\end{align*}$$

where $\tilde{L}_{k+1} = \left( L_f + \lambda_{k+1} \|A\|^2 + \beta_{k+1}^{-1} \|B\|^2 \right)$. A reasonable choice is $D_{z_{k+1}} = D_Z = L_q$. One can similarly also extend (decr.) for this setting. Alternatively, we can set $z_k = 0$, fixed, and perform dual updates only on $y_k$.

**Algorithm 2** CGAL for (P)

```
Input: $x_1 \in \mathcal{X}, y_1, z_1 \in \mathbb{R}^p, z_2, z_3 \in \mathbb{R}^q, \lambda_0 > 0, \beta_1 > 0$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, \text{do}$

\[ \eta_k = \frac{2}{(k+1)^2}, \lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k+1}, \beta_k = \beta_0 \sqrt{k+1} \]

\[ r_k = \text{proj}_{K}(Ax_k + (1/\lambda_k)y_k) \]

\[ \bar{r}_{k+1} = \text{proj}_{K}(Ax_{k+1} + (1/\lambda_{k+1})y_k) \]

\[ \bar{t}_{k+1} = \text{proj}_{K}(Bx_{k+1} + (1/\beta_{k+1})z_k) \]

\[ \sigma_{k+1} \leftarrow \text{using (decr).} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{(const.2)} \]

\[ y_{k+1} = y_k + \sigma_{k+1} (Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1}) \]

\[ \bar{t}_{k+1} = \text{proj}_{K}(Bx_{k+1} + (1/\beta_{k+1})z_{k+1}) \]

\[ \gamma_{k+1} \leftarrow \text{using (decr).} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{(const.2)} \]

\[ z_{k+1} = z_k + \gamma_{k+1} (Bx_{k+1} - \bar{t}_{k+1}) \]

end for
```

### 4. Related Work

The majority of convex methods for solving (P) are based on computationally challenging oracles, e.g., some second-order oracle (for interior point methods), the projection onto $\mathcal{X}$ (for operator splitting methods), and a constrained proximal-oracle (for the majority of the classical primal-dual methods). For these methods, we refer to (Wright, 1997), (Komodakis and Pesquet, 2015), (Ryu and Boyd, 2016) and the references therein. In the rest of this section, we focus on the lasso-based algorithms for solving (P) or some special instances of it.

**Lan (2014)** introduces a conditional gradient method for non-smooth minimization over a convex compact domain.
His method is based on the Nesterov smoothing, and it is the first attempt to combine the Nesterov smoothing and conditional gradient approach, to the best of our knowledge. However, this method does not apply in the presence of affine constraints, since it relies on the boundedness of the dual domain and the uniform approximation property.

**Yurtsever et al. (2015)** present the universal primal-dual method (UPD), a primal-dual subgradient approach for solving convex minimization problems with affine constraints. The main template of UPD is fairly different than \((P)\); it does not have the non-smooth term \(g(Bx)\) and the smoothness assumption on \(f\), but it assumes Hölder smoothness in the dual space instead. The method does not directly work with \(\text{lmo}'s\), but it leverages the so-called sharp operators. For the standard form SDP formulation, however, the sharp-operator is an instance of the \(\text{lmo}\).

UPD adopts the inexact line-search strategy introduced by Nesterov (2015). This strategy requires the target accuracy \(\epsilon\) as an input parameter, and UPD is guaranteed to converge only up to \(\epsilon\) accuracy, i.e., UPD guarantees \(f(x) - f^* \leq O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon}) + \epsilon.\) The practical performance of UPD heavily depends on this parameter: Choosing \(\epsilon\) too small leads to very small step-sizes hence slow convergence. Best values for \(\epsilon\) are typically around \(1/100\)th and \(1/1000\)th of the \(|f^*|\), but UPD is difficult to tune unless the optimal value is roughly known.

**Lan and Zhou (2016)** propose the conditional gradient sliding method (CGS). This method is based on an inexact version of the accelerated gradient method by Nesterov (1987), where the projection subproblem is approximately solved by using the classical CGM. CGS is originally proposed for smooth minimization over a convex and compact domain, but the results are generalized for smoothing friendly non-smooth functions in Section 4 by following the same approach as Lan (2014). Note that this generalization directly follows the standard approach of Nesterov smoothing, and it does not apply for affine constraints.

**Yen et al. (2016b)** propose the greedy direction method of multipliers (GDMM), a CGM variant for minimizing a linear objective function over an intersection of polytopes. GDMM relies on a consensus reformulation over the Cartesian product of these polytopes, and the consistency constraint is incorporated by the augmented Lagrangian. This method is further explored in the structural support vector machine (Yen et al., 2016a) and maximum a-posteriori inference (Huang et al., 2017) problems. Nevertheless, Gidel et al. (2018) point out some technical issues in the analysis of this approach, see Section B.1 in (Gidel et al., 2018).

**Gidel et al. (2018)** propose an augmented Lagrangian framework for the convex splitting problem (FW-AL). Similar to CGAL, this method is characterized by one CGM step on \(\mathcal{L}_\lambda(\cdot, y_k)\) followed by one dual gradient ascent step on \(\mathcal{L}_\lambda(x_{k+1}, \cdot)\). In contrast to CGAL, the penalty parameter \(\lambda\) of FW-AL is kept fixed. Originally, FW-AL is proposed for \(Ax = 0\) type of constraints (i.e., splitting), but it can be applied to \(Ax = b\) case by using a simple product space technique. The analysis of FW-AL relies on the error bounds (see Theorem 1 in (Gidel et al., 2018) for the conditions, and (Bolte et al., 2017) for more details about error bounds). Their dual step-size \(\sigma_{k+1}\) depends on the error bound constant \(\alpha\), as \(\sigma_{k+1} = \frac{\alpha_0}{k+2}\) with \(\alpha_0 \leq \min\left\{\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}, \frac{\alpha^2}{2}\right\}\). Hence, \(\sigma_0\) is a tuning parameter, and the method has guaranteed convergence only if it is chosen small enough. However, \(\alpha\) is typically not only not known, and it can be also arbitrarily small.

**Liu et al. (2018)** introduce an inexact augmented Lagrangian method (IAL), where the Lagrangian subproblems are approximately solved by CGM up to a prescribed accuracy \(\varepsilon_k = \varepsilon_0/k\) for some \(\varepsilon_0 > 0\) to be tuned. This results in a double-loop algorithm, where each outer iteration runs multiple CGM iterations until the following condition is satisfied:

\[
\max_{x \in X} \langle \nabla f(x_{k+1}), y_k + \lambda A^T (Ax_{k+1} - b), x \rangle \leq \varepsilon_k.
\]

Then, the algorithm takes a dual gradient ascent step.

IAL provably generates an \(\epsilon\)-solution after \(O(1/\epsilon^2)\) outer iterations, by choosing the penalty parameter \(\lambda\) appropriately (proportional to \(1/\sqrt{\epsilon}\)). This method, however, requires multiple queries of \(\text{lmo}\) at each iteration. Since the number of \(\text{lmo}\) calls is bounded by \(\lfloor 6L_d D_A^2 / \varepsilon_k \rceil - 2\) (see Theorem 2.2 in (Liu et al., 2018)), the overall \(\text{lmo}\) complexity of this method is \(O(1/\epsilon^4)\). Note that this is much worse than \(O(1/\epsilon^2)\) calls required by our method.

**Yurtsever et al. (2018)** present a CG-type method (HCGM) for \((P)\). This method relies on the quadratic penalty approach to handle affine constraints. HCGM guarantees \(O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})\) convergence rate both in the objective residual and the feasibility gap, similar to CGAL. As explained in Section 2, however, penalty methods typically exhibit their proven worst case guarantees in practice. We can indeed observe that the empirical rate of HCGM is \(O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})\) in our numerical experiments (in Section 5), as well as in the experiments in (Yurtsever et al., 2018).

5. Numerical Experiments

This section presents the numerical evidence to demonstrate the empirical superiority of CGAL, based on the max-cut, clustering and generalized eigenvector problems.

We compared CGAL against UPD and HCGM from Section 4. This choice is based on the practicality of the algorithms: FW-AL and IAL have 2 tuning parameters each,
and it is very difficult to tune these methods for medium or large scale problems. On the other hand, CGAL, HCGM, and UPD have a single parameter to tune (penalty parameter \(\lambda_0\) for CGAL and HCGM, and accuracy parameter \(\epsilon\) for UPD). We tune all these parameters by bisection (with factor 10), until the method (with the chosen parameter) outperforms itself with 10th and 1/10th of the parameter. Although CGAL with (decr.) performed better than HCGM in all of our experiments, CGAL with (const.) uniformly outperformed (decr.) and HCGM. Hence in this section, we focus on CGAL with (const.).

Note that the computational cost of all algorithms is dominated by lmo. Hence, we plot some of the results with respect to the number of lmo calls. Arguably, this roughly represents the computation time.

5.1. Max-cut

Maximum cut is an NP-Hard combinatorial problem from computer science. Denoting the symmetric \(n \times n\) graph Laplacian matrix of a graph by \(c\), this problem can be relaxed as (Goemans and Williamson, 1995):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}(cx) \\
\text{subject to} & \quad x_{ii} = 1 \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \\
& \quad \text{tr}(x) = n, \quad x \in S_+^n.
\end{align*}
\]

Tuning all methods from Section 4 requires substantial computational effort, especially because some of these methods have multiple tuning parameters. To this end, we first consider a small scale max-cut instance where we compare all of these methods (which applies to this problem) and CGAL. In this setup, we use the GD97_b dataset\(^1\), which corresponds to a \(47 \times 47\) dimensional problem.

Next, we consider a medium scale experiment, where we compare CGAL, HCGM, and UPD for max-cut with G1 (800 \(\times\) 800) and G40 (2000 \(\times\) 2000) datasets\(^2\). We compile the results of these tests in Figure 2. Observe that HCGM converges with \(O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})\) (which is the worst case bound) while CGAL achieves a faster rate.

5.2. k-means Clustering

Consider the SDP formulation of model-free k-means clustering problem by (Peng and Wei, 2007):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{minimize} & \quad \text{tr}(cx) \\
\text{subject to} & \quad x1_n = 1_n, \quad x \geq 0, \quad x \in S_+^n \quad \& \quad \text{tr}(x) = \alpha.
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\alpha\) is the number of clusters and \(c\) is the \(n \times n\) Euclidean distance matrix. We denote the vector of ones by \(1_n\), hence \(x1_n = 1_n\) and \(x \geq 0\) together implies that each row of \(x\) is on the unit simplex. The same applies to the columns of \(x\) due to symmetry. This problem is an instance of \((P)\), where \(f(x) = \text{tr}(cx)\), \(\mathcal{X} = \{x : x \in S_+^n, \text{tr}(x) = \alpha\}\), \(A : S_+^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\) maps \(x \to (x1_n, x)\), and \(\mathcal{K} = \{1_{n}\} \times \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\).

We use the same setup as in (Yurtsever et al., 2018), which is designed and published online by Mixon et al. (2017). This setup contains a 1000 \(\times\) 1000 dimensional dataset generated by sampling and preprocessing the MNIST dataset\(^3\) using a one-layer neural network. Further details on this setup and the dataset can be found in (Mixon et al., 2017).


\(^3\)Y. LeCun and C. Cortes. MNIST handwritten digit database, http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/
Figure 3. Empirical comparison of CGAL, HCGM and UPD for solving generalized eigenvector problem with 4 different synthetic setups. Dotted lines present objective residual and feasibility gap of the atoms chosen by linear minimization oracle ($s_k$).

Figure 4. Objective residual and feasibility gap for k-means clustering with preprocessed MNIST dataset.

In Figure 4, we observe once again that CGAL outperforms HCGM, achieving $O(1/k)$ empirical convergence rate. In this problem instance, we failed to tune UPD, even with the knowledge of $f^*$. After extensive analysis and tests, we concluded that UPD has an implicit tuning parameter. It is possible to choose different accuracy terms for objective and feasibility in UPD, as also noted by the authors, simply by scaling the objective function with a constant. The performance of UPD heavily depends on this scaling in addition to tuning accuracy parameter, hence we omit UPD.

5.3. Generalized Eigenvector Problem

Consider the SDP relaxation of the generalized eigenvector problem from Boumal et al. (2018):

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{maximize} & \quad \text{tr}(\phi x) \\
\text{subject to} & \quad \text{tr}(x) \leq \alpha, \quad X \in S^n_+ \quad \& \quad \text{tr}(\psi x) = 1
\end{align*}
\]

where $\phi$ and $\psi$ are symmetric matrices of size $n \times n$ and $\alpha > 0$ is a model parameter. In this problem, we use some synthetic setups, where we generate $\psi$ with iid Gaussian entries, and we consider 4 different cases for $\phi$:

- **Gaussian**: $\phi$ generated by taking symmetric part of $10^3 \times 10^3$ iid Gaussian matrix
- **PolyDecay**: $\phi$ generated by randomly rotating $\text{diag}(1^{-i}, 2^{-i}, \ldots, 1000^{-i})$ ($i = 1$)
- **ExpDecay**: $\phi$ generated by randomly rotating $\text{diag}(10^{-i}, 10^{-2i}, \ldots, 10^{-1000i})$ ($i = 0.025$)
- **MaxCut SDP**: $\phi$ is a solution of the max-cut SDP with G40 dataset ($2000 \times 2000$)

This problem highlights an important observation that partially explains the reason why CGAL outperforms the base method HCGM. Remark that this problem has a rank-1 solution, and if we set $\alpha$ correctly, this solution becomes an extreme point of the domain. In this scenario, if the problem is well-conditioned, we might expect the lmo to pick this solution (or some close points). For the sake of the better adaptation to the problem geometry, CGAL updates the dual variable (which corresponds to the center point of a quadratic penalty). In Figure 3, we provide empirical evidence of this adaptation: Dotted lines correspond to extreme points chosen by lmo. Unsurprisingly, these points ($s_k$) quickly converge (with linear rates) to a solution for CGAL, while we do not observe the same behavior for HCGM or UPD (we omit lmo outputs of UPD in figure which do not converge).
Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF) under grant number 200021_178865/1. This project has received funding from the European Research Council (ERC) under the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme (grant agreement no 725594 - time-data).

References


A. Proof of convergence

For notational simplicity in the proof, we redefine augmented Lagrangian function with three variables, including the slack variable \( r \in K \) as

\[
L_\lambda(x, r, y) := f(x) + y^T(Ax - r) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|Ax - r\|^2,
\]

where \( y \in \mathbb{R}^d \) is the Lagrange multiplier and \( \lambda > 0 \) is the augmented Lagrangian parameter.

Directional derivatives of augmented Lagrangian function can be written as

\[
\begin{align*}
\nabla_x L_\lambda(x, r, y) &= \nabla f(x) + A^T y + \lambda A^T (Ax - r) \\
\nabla_r L_\lambda(x, r, y) &= -y - \lambda (Ax - r) \\
\n\end{align*}
\]

Denote by \( \ell_k = (L_f + \lambda_k \|A\|^2) \). Then, using the Taylor expansion, we get the following estimate:

\[
L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_k, y_k) \leq L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + \nabla_x L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_k, r_k, y_k), x_{k+1} - x_k \right\rangle + \frac{\ell_{k+1}}{2} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|^2
\]

\[
= L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + \eta_k \nabla_x L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_k, r_k, y_k), s_k - x_k \right\rangle + \eta_k^2 \frac{\ell_{k+1}}{2} \|s_k - x_k\|^2
\]

\[
\leq L_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + \eta_k \nabla_x L_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k), s_k - x_k \right\rangle + \eta_k^2 \frac{\ell_{k+1}}{2} \|s_k - x_k\|^2
\]

\[
+ \frac{\lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \eta_k (\lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k) \langle Ax_k - r_k, As_k - Ax_k \rangle.
\]

We can bound the inner product term on the right hand as follows:

\[
\langle \nabla_x L_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k), s_k - x_k \rangle = \langle \nabla f(x_k) + \lambda_k A^T (Ax_k - r_k) + A^T y_k, s_k - x_k \rangle
\]

\[
\leq \langle \nabla f(x_k) + \lambda_k A^T (Ax_k - r_k) + A^T y_k, x^* - x_k \rangle
\]

\[
= \langle \nabla f(x_k), x^* - x_k \rangle + \langle \lambda_k (Ax_k - r_k) + y_k, Ax^* - Ax_k \rangle
\]

\[
= \langle \nabla f(x_k), x^* - x_k \rangle + \lambda_k \langle Ax_k - r_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle + \langle y_k, Ax^* - Ax_k \rangle
\]

\[
= \langle \nabla f(x_k), x^* - x_k \rangle - \lambda_k \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 - \langle y_k, Ax_k - r_k \rangle
\]

\[
+ \lambda_k \langle Ax_k - r_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle + \langle y_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle
\]

\[
\leq f^* - f(x_k) - \lambda_k \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 - \langle y_k, Ax_k - r_k \rangle
\]

\[
+ \lambda_k \langle Ax_k - r_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle + \langle y_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle
\]

\[
= f^* - L_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) - \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2
\]

\[
+ \lambda_k \langle Ax_k - r, Ax^* - r_k \rangle + \langle y_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle
\]

\[
= L^* - L_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax^* - r_k\|^2
\]

\[
- \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - Ax^*\|^2 + \langle y_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle.
\]

where the first inequality holds since \( s_k \) is the solution of \( \text{imo} \), the second inequality simply follows the convexity of \( f \), and the last equality holds due to strong duality.

Also note by definition, \( \tilde{r}_{k+1} = \arg \min_{r \in K} L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r, y_k) \), hence

\[
L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \tilde{r}_{k+1}, y_k) \leq L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_k, y_k).
\]
Combining these bounds, we arrive at

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) \leq (1 - \eta_k)\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + (1 - \eta_k) \left( \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} - \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \right) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \eta_k \mathcal{L}^*
\]

\[+ \eta_k^2 \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 + \eta_k \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax^* - r\|^2 + \eta_k \langle y_k, Ax^* - r_k \rangle - \eta_k \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - Ax^*\|^2\]

\[
\leq (1 - \eta_k)\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + (1 - \eta_k) \left( \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} - \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \right) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \eta_k \mathcal{L}^*
\]

\[+ \eta_k^2 \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 - \eta_k \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \eta_k \langle y_k + \lambda_k (Ax_k - r_k), Ax^* - r_k \rangle\]

\[
\leq (1 - \eta_k)\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) + (1 - \eta_k) \left( \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} - \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \right) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \eta_k \mathcal{L}^*
\]

\[+ \eta_k^2 \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 - \eta_k \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2\]

where the last inequality follows from the optimality condition. \(r_k = \arg \min_{r \in \mathcal{K}} \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r, y_k)\) by definition, hence the following estimate holds \(\forall r \in \mathcal{K}\)

\[
\langle y_k + \lambda_k (Ax_k - r_k), r - r_k \rangle = \langle \nabla_r \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r, y_k), r - r_k \rangle \leq 0
\]

and in particular for \(r = Ax^* \in \mathcal{K}\).

In order to obtain a recurrence, we need to shift the dual variable on the left hand side of our bound. For this, we use the following relations:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) \leq \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k+1})
\]

\[= \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_k) + \langle y_{k+1} - y_k, Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1} \rangle
\]

\[= \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_k) + \sigma_{k+1} \|Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

Combining all these bounds and subtracting \(\mathcal{L}^*\) from both sides, we end up with

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq (1 - \eta_k) (\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) - \mathcal{L}^*) + \eta_k^2 \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2
\]

\[+ \frac{1}{2} ((1 - \eta_k) \lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \sigma_{k+1} \|Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1}\|^2
\]

From this point, we consider two cases: constant step size with growth condition, and decreasing step size.

A.1. Constant bound on step-size

We choose \(\sigma_{k+1} \leq \lambda_0\) such that it ensures the following conditions:

\[
\sigma_{k+1} \|Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \eta_k^2 \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 \quad \& \quad \|y_{k+1}\| \leq D_{y_{k+1}}
\]

where \(D_{y_{k+1}}\) is a sequence of positive and non-decreasing numbers, to input. Note that \(\sigma_{k+1} \) is well defined, in the sense there exist \(\sigma_{k+1} \geq 0\) which satisfy both conditions, simply because \(\sigma_{k+1} = 0\) trivially satisfies them.

In addition, since we choose \(\lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}\) and \(\eta_k = 2 / k + 1\), we have

\[
(1 - \eta_k) \lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k = \frac{k - 1}{k + 1} \sqrt{k + 2} - \sqrt{k + 1} \leq \frac{k}{\sqrt{k + 2}} - \sqrt{k + 1} \leq 0.
\]

As a consequence, we can simplify (1) as

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq (1 - \eta_k) (\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) - \mathcal{L}^*) + \eta_k^2 L_{k+1} D_X^2
\]
Applying this recursion we get
\[ L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - L^* \leq \prod_{j=1}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) (L_{\lambda_1}(x_1, r_1, y_1) - L^*) + D_X^2 \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \eta^2 \bar{L}_{\ell+1} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) \]

where the last equality follows since \( \eta_1 = 1 \). By using the following inequality,
\[ \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \eta^\ell \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \frac{4}{(\ell + 1)^2} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k+1} (1 - j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \frac{4}{(\ell + 1)^2} (\ell - 1) \ell \leq \frac{4}{k + 1}, \]
we get the following bound on the augmented Lagrangian:
\[ L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - L^* \leq \frac{4}{k + 1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} = 4D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right). \]

In the next step, we translate the bound on augmented Lagrangian to convergence guarantees on objective residual and feasibility gap.

**Convergence of objective.** We start by using the definition of augmented Lagrangian and the strong duality:
\[ f(x_{k+1}) - f^* = L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - L^* + \frac{1}{2\lambda_{k+1}} \|y_{k+1}\|^2 - \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} \text{dist}^2 \left( Ax_{k+1} + \frac{1}{\lambda} y_{k+1}, K \right) \]
\[ \leq L_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - L^* + \frac{D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{2\lambda_{k+1}} \]
\[ \leq 4D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) + \frac{D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{2\lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}}. \]

For the lower bound, we use the classical Lagrange saddle point properties, that \( \forall (x, r) \in X \times K \) we have
\[ f^* \leq L(x, r, y^*) = f(x) + \langle y^*, Ax - r \rangle \leq f(x) + \|y^*\| \text{dist} (Ax_{k+1}, K). \]

By choosing \( x = x_{k+1} \) and \( r = \text{proj}_K(Ax_{k+1}) \) and rearranging, we arrive at
\[ f(x_{k+1}) - f^* \geq -\|y^*\| \text{dist} (Ax_{k+1}, K). \]

**Convergence of feasibility.** We start by combining (1) and (2) by choosing \( x = x_{k+1} \) and \( r = r_{k+1} \):
\[ \langle y_{k+1} - y^*, Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{k + 1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} \]
\[ \implies -\|y_{k+1} - y^*\| \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| + \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{4}{k + 1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} \]

This is a second order inequality with respect to \( \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| \), and by solving this inequality we get
\[ \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} \left( \|y_{k+1} - y^*\| + \sqrt{\|y_{k+1} - y^*\|^2 + \frac{8D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{k + 1} \lambda_{k+1}} \right) \]
\[ \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} \left( 2\|y_{k+1} - y^*\| + \sqrt{\frac{8D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{k + 1} (L_f + \lambda_{k+1}) \lambda_{k+1}} \right) \]
\[ \leq \frac{2}{\lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}} \left( \|y_{k+1} - y^*\| + D_X \sqrt{\frac{L_f \lambda_0}{\sqrt{k + 1}} + \|A\|^2 \lambda_0^2} \right). \]
Finally, we use the properties of projection to get the bound on the feasibility gap:

\[
\text{dist} (Ax_{k+1}, K) = \|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| \\
= \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} + r_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| \\
\leq \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| + \|r_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| \\
\leq \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| + \|Ax_{k+1} - Ax_{k+1} + \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} y_{k+1}\| \\
\leq \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| + \frac{D_{y_{k+1}}}{\lambda_{k+1}}.
\]

### A.2. Decreasing bound on step-size

Choose parameters

\[
\lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1} \quad \sigma_k = \frac{\lambda_0}{2\sqrt{k + 1}} \quad \eta_k = \frac{2}{k + 1}.
\]

Now we execute the last term using the non-expansiveness of projection operator

\[
\|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| = \|r_{k+1} - r_{k+1} + Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| \\
\leq \|r_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| + \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| \\
\leq \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} \|y_{k+1} - y_k\| + \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\| \\
= \frac{\sigma_{k+1}}{\lambda_{k+1}} \|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| + \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|,
\]

hence \(\|Ax_{k+1} - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\| \leq (1 - \sigma_{k+1}/\lambda_{k+1})^{-1} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|\).

Overall, we obtain the following recursion relation:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq (1 - \eta_k)(\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_k}(x_k, r_k, y_k) - \mathcal{L}^*) + \eta_k^2 \tilde{L}_{k+1} D_A^2 \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \left( (1 - \eta_k) \lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k \right) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 \\
+ \frac{\lambda_{k+1}^2 \sigma_{k+1}}{(\lambda_{k+1} - \sigma_{k+1})^2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

Now we can apply recursion, and we get

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq \prod_{j=1}^k (1 - \eta_j) \left( \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_1}(x_1, r_1, y_1) - \mathcal{L}^* \right) + \frac{D_A^2}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^k \eta_{\ell}^2 \tilde{L}_{\ell+1} \prod_{j=\ell}^k (1 - \eta_j) \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^k \left( (1 - \eta_{\ell}) \lambda_{\ell+1} - \lambda_{\ell} \right) \|Ax_{\ell} - r_{\ell}\|^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^k (1 - \eta_j) \\
+ \sum_{\ell=1}^k \frac{\lambda_{\ell+1}^2 \sigma_{\ell+1}}{(\lambda_{\ell+1} - \sigma_{\ell+1})^2} \|Ax_{\ell+1} - r_{\ell+1}\|^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^k (1 - \eta_j).
\]

Note that the terms which involve \((1 - \eta_1)\) on the right hand side are zero since \(\eta_1 = 1\).
Now, we focus on the last summation term:

\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \frac{\lambda_{\ell+1}^2 \sigma_{\ell+1}}{(\lambda_{\ell+1} - \sigma_{\ell+1})^2} \|Ax_{\ell+1} - r_{\ell+1}\|^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j)
\]

\[
= \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} (1 - \eta_{\ell-1}) \frac{\lambda_{\ell}^2 \sigma_{\ell}}{(\lambda_{\ell} - \sigma_{\ell})^2} \|Ax_{\ell} - r_{\ell}\|^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j)
\]

\[
\leq \sum_{\ell=2}^{k} (1 - \eta_{\ell-1}) \frac{\lambda_{\ell}^2 \sigma_{\ell}}{(\lambda_{\ell} - \sigma_{\ell})^2} \|Ax_{\ell} - r_{\ell}\|^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j)
\]

\[
+ (1 - \eta_k) \frac{\lambda_{k+1}^2 \sigma_{k+1}}{(\lambda_{k+1} - \sigma_{k+1})^2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

We choose parameters \( \lambda_k, \eta_k \) and \( \sigma_{k+1} \) such that for all \( k \geq 2 \), we have

\[
\left( \frac{1}{2} ((1 - \eta_{\ell}) \lambda_{\ell+1} - \lambda_{\ell}) + (1 - \eta_{\ell-1}) \frac{\lambda_{\ell}^2 \sigma_{\ell}}{(\lambda_{\ell} - \sigma_{\ell})^2} \right) \leq 0,
\]

hence by combining these bounds, we get

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq \frac{D_X^2}{2} \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \eta_{\ell}^2 L_{\ell+1} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) + (1 - \eta_k) \frac{\lambda_{k+1}^2 \sigma_{k+1}}{(\lambda_{k+1} - \sigma_{k+1})^2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

Using the following formula

\[
\sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \eta_{\ell}^2 \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \frac{4}{(\ell + 1)^2} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \frac{4}{(\ell + 1)^2} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) \leq \frac{4}{k + 1}
\]

we get the following bound on the augmented Lagrangian:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq \frac{2}{k + 1} D_X^2 L_{k+1} + (1 - \eta_k) \frac{\lambda_{k+1}^2 \sigma_{k+1}}{(\lambda_{k+1} - \sigma_{k+1})^2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2
\]

\[
= 2 D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) + \frac{\lambda_0}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2.
\]

**Convergence of objective.** Lower bound of the objective residual follows similarly to the constant step-size case. For upper bound, we start by

\[
f(x_{k+1}) - f^* = \mathcal{L}_{\lambda_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* - \langle y_{k+1}, Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} \rangle - \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2
\]

\[
\leq 2 D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) + \frac{\lambda_0}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2 - \langle y_{k+1}, Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} \rangle
\]

\[
\leq 2 D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) - \frac{\lambda_0}{2} \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2 + \|y_{k+1}\| \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|
\]

\[
\leq 2 D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} + \frac{\|y_{k+1}\|^2}{\lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}} \right) \|Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}\|^2.
\]
Convergence of feasibility. We start by combining (1) and (2) by choosing \(x = x_{k+1}\) and \(r = r_{k+1}\):

\[
\langle y_{k+1} - y^*, Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}||^2 \leq \frac{2}{k+1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} + \frac{\lambda_0}{2\sqrt{k+1}} \||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}||^2
\]

\[
\implies -||y_{k+1} - y^*|| ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}|| + \frac{\lambda_k}{2} ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}||^2 \leq \frac{2}{k+1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}
\]

This is a second order inequality with respect to \(||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}||\), and by solving this inequality we get

\[
||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}|| \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_k} \left( ||y_{k+1} - y^*|| + \sqrt{||y_{k+1} - y^*||^2 + \frac{4D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} \lambda_k}{k+1}} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2}{\lambda_k} \left( ||y_{k+1} - y^*|| + \sqrt{\frac{D_X^2}{k+1} (L_f + \lambda_{k+1}) \lambda_k} \right)
\]

\[
\leq \frac{2}{\lambda_0 \sqrt{k+1}} \left( ||y_{k+1} - y^*|| + D_X \sqrt{\frac{L_f}{k+1} + \lambda_0^2} \right).
\]

To complete the proof, we use the following arguments: Denote by \(\hat{r}_{k+1} = \arg \min_{r \in K} ||Ax_{k+1} - r||\), we have

\[
\text{dist} (Ax_{k+1}, K) = ||Ax_{k+1} - \hat{r}_{k+1}||
\]

\[
= ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1} + r_{k+1} - \hat{r}_{k+1}||
\]

\[
\leq ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}|| + ||r_{k+1} - \hat{r}_{k+1}||
\]

\[
\leq ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}|| + ||Ax_{k+1} - Ax_{k+1} + \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} y_{k+1}||
\]

\[
\leq ||Ax_{k+1} - r_{k+1}|| + \frac{1}{\lambda_{k+1}} ||y_{k+1}||.
\]
B. Generalization for the composite problem

This section follows similarly to Appendix A. We provide the details for completeness.

Recall the smooth approximation of the non-smooth term $g(Bx)$

$$g_\beta(Bx) = \max_{u \in \mathbb{R}^r} \left\{ \langle u, Bx \rangle - g^*(u) - \frac{\beta}{2} \|u - z\|^2 \right\}$$

$$= \max_{u \in \mathbb{R}^r} \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^r} \left\{ \langle u, Bx - t \rangle + g(t) - \frac{\beta}{2} \|u - z\|^2 \right\}$$

$$= \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^r} \max_{u \in \mathbb{R}^r} \left\{ \langle u, Bx - t \rangle + g(t) - \frac{\beta}{2} \|u - z\|^2 \right\}$$

$$= \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^r} \left\{ \langle z, Bx - t \rangle + \frac{1}{2\beta^2} \|Bx - t\|^2 + g(t) \right\},$$

where we can flip the order of min and max due to Sion’s minimax theorem.

Then, we define the smooth approximation $\mathcal{F}_{\lambda, \beta}$, including the slack variables $r \in \mathcal{K}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}^q$ as

$$\mathcal{F}_{\lambda, \beta}(x, r, y, t, z) := f(x) + \langle y, Ax - r \rangle + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|Ax - r\|^2 + \langle z, Bx - t \rangle + \frac{1}{2\lambda} \|Bx - t\|^2 + g(t).$$

Directional derivative of this function can be written as

$$\nabla_x \mathcal{F}_{\lambda}(x, r, y, t, z) = \nabla f(x) + A^\top y + \lambda A^\top (Ax - r) + B^\top z + \frac{1}{\lambda} B^\top (Bx - t)$$

Denote by $\bar{L}_k = (L_f + \lambda_k \|A\|^2 + \beta_k^{-1} \|B\|^2)$. Then, using the Taylor expansion, we get the following estimate:

$$\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) \leq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + \langle \nabla_x \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}), x_{k+1} - x_{k} \rangle$$

$$+ \frac{\bar{L}_{k+1}}{2} \|x_{k+1} - x_{k}\|^2$$

$$= \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + \eta_k \langle \nabla_x \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}), s_{k} - x_{k} \rangle$$

$$+ \eta_k \frac{\bar{L}_{k+1}}{2} \|s_{k} - x_{k}\|^2$$

$$\leq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + \eta_k \langle \nabla_x \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}), s_{k} - x_{k} \rangle + \frac{1}{2 \lambda} \|Bx - t_{k}\|^2 + \eta_k \left( \frac{1}{\beta_{k+1}} - \frac{1}{\beta_{k}} \right) \langle Bx_{k} - t_{k}, B s_{k} - B x_{k} \rangle.$$

We can bound the inner product term on the right hand as follows, similarly to the case in Appendix A:

$$\langle \nabla_x \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}), s_{k} - x_{k} \rangle = \langle \nabla f(x_k) + \lambda_k A^\top (Ax_k - r_k) + A^\top y_k + \beta_k^{-1} B^\top (Bx_k - t_k) + B^\top z_k, s_k - x_k \rangle$$

$$\leq f^* - \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + g(t_k) + \lambda_k \left( \frac{1}{2} \|A x_k - A x^*\|^2 + \frac{1}{2 \beta_k} \|B x_k - B x^* - t_k\|^2 \right)$$

$$- \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|A x_k - A x^*\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \beta_k} \|B x_k - B x^*\|^2 + \langle y_k, A x_k - r_k \rangle + \langle z_k, B x^* - t_k \rangle$$

$$= \mathcal{F}^* + g(t_k) - g(B x^*) - \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + \lambda_k \left( \frac{1}{2} \|A x_k - r_k\|^2 + \frac{1}{2 \beta_k} \|B x^* - t_k\|^2 \right)$$

$$- \frac{\lambda_k}{2} \|A x_k - A x^*\|^2 - \frac{1}{2 \beta_k} \|B x_k - B x^* + t_k\|^2 + \langle y_k, A x_k - r_k \rangle + \langle z_k, B x^* - t_k \rangle.$$
Also note that by definition of $\bar{r}_{k+1}$ we have

$$F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k}, \bar{t}_{k+1}, z_{k}) \leq F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}).$$

We combine these bounds and get

$$F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k}, \bar{t}_{k+1}, z_{k}) \leq (1 - \eta_{k}) F_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) + \eta_{k} F^{*} + \eta_{k} g(t_{k}) - \eta_{k} g(Bx^{*}) + \eta_{k}^{2} \frac{L_{k+1}}{2} D^{2},$$

where the last inequality follows from the optimality conditions:

\[ r_{k} = \arg \min_{r \in K} F_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{r}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) \] by definition, hence the following estimate holds $\forall r \in K$

$$\langle y_{k} + \lambda_{k}(Ax_{k} - r_{k}), r - r_{k} \rangle = \langle \nabla r F_{\lambda_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}), r - r_{k} \rangle \leq 0$$

and in particular for $r = Ax^{*} \in K$.

\[ t_{k} = \min_{t} \{ \langle z_{k}, Bx_{k} - t \rangle + \frac{1}{\beta_{k}} \| Bx_{k} - t \|^{2} + g(t) \} \]. Hence, denoting the subdifferential of $g$ by $\partial g$, we have

$$z_{k} + \frac{1}{\beta_{k}} (Bx_{k} - t_{k}) \in \partial g(t_{k}) \implies \langle z_{k} + \frac{1}{\beta_{k}} (Bx_{k} - t_{k}), Bx^{*} - t_{k} \rangle \leq g(Bx^{*}) - g(t_{k}).$$

In order to obtain a recurrence, we need to shift the dual variables (Lagrange multiplier and the center point):

$$F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) \leq F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, \bar{t}_{k+1}, z_{k+1})$$

$$= F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k}, z_{k})$$

$$+ \langle y_{k+1} - y_{k}, Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1} \rangle + \langle z_{k+1} - z_{k}, Bx_{k+1} - \bar{t}_{k+1} \rangle$$

$$= F_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, \bar{r}_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k}, z_{k})$$

$$+ \sigma_{k+1} \| Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1} \|^{2} + \gamma_{k+1} \| Bx_{k+1} - \bar{t}_{k+1} \|^{2}.$$
Combining all these bounds and subtracting $\mathcal{L}^*$ from both sides, we end up with

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{F}^* &\leq (1 - \eta_k) (\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) - \mathcal{F}^*) + \frac{\eta_k^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left( (1 - \eta_k) \lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k \right) \|Ax_k - r_k\|^2 + \sigma_{k+1}\|Ax_k - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\|^2 \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2} \left( (1 - \eta_k) \frac{1}{\beta_{k+1}} - \frac{1}{\beta_k} \right) \|Bx_k - t_k\|^2 + \gamma_{k+1}\|Bx_k - \tilde{t}_{k+1}\|^2
\end{align*}
$$

We choose $\sigma_{k+1} \leq \lambda_0$ and $\gamma_{k+1} \leq \beta_0$ such that they ensure the following conditions:

$$
\sigma_{k+1}\|Ax_k - \tilde{r}_{k+1}\|^2 + \gamma_{k+1}\|Bx_k - \tilde{t}_{k+1}\|^2 \leq \frac{\eta_k^2 \bar{L}_{k+1}}{2} D_X^2 \quad \& \quad \|y_{k+1}\| \leq D_{y_{k+1}} \quad \& \quad \|z_{k+1}\| \leq D_{z_{k+1}}
$$

where $D_{y_{k+1}}$ and $D_{z_{k+1}}$ are some positive and non-decreasing sequences. Note that $\sigma_{k+1}$ and $\gamma_{k+1}$ are well defined, in the sense there exists $\sigma_{k+1} \geq 0$ and $\gamma_{k+1} \geq 0$ which satisfy all conditions, since $\sigma_{k+1} = \gamma_{k+1} = 0$ trivially satisfies them. Here, we consider the extension of (const.) setting only. One can also extend (decr.) in a similar way.

In addition, since we choose $\lambda_k = \lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}$, $\beta_k = \beta_0 / \sqrt{k + 1}$, and $\eta_k = 2/k + 1$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
(1 - \eta_k) \lambda_{k+1} - \lambda_k &= \lambda_0 \frac{k - 1}{k + 1} \sqrt{k + 2 - \sqrt{k + 1}} \\
\frac{1}{\beta_{k+1}} - \frac{1}{\beta_k} &= \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \frac{k - 1}{k + 1} \sqrt{k + 2 - \sqrt{k + 1}}
\end{align*}
$$

As a consequence, we get

$$
\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{L}^* \leq (1 - \eta_k) (\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k}, \beta_{k}}(x_{k}, r_{k}, y_{k}, t_{k}, z_{k}) - \mathcal{F}^*) + \eta_k^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} D_X^2
$$

Using this recurrence relation, we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{F}^* &\leq D_X^2 \sum_{\ell=1}^{k} \eta_k^2 \bar{L}_{\ell+1} \prod_{j=\ell}^{k} (1 - \eta_j) \\
&\leq \frac{4}{k + 1} D_X^2 \bar{L}_{k+1} = 4D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2 + \beta_0^{-1} \|B\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right)
\end{align*}
$$

Next, we need to use this bound on the smooth approximation to find guarantees on the objective residual and the feasibility gap of the original problem.

We start by using the definition of augmented Lagrangian and the strong duality:

$$
\begin{align*}
f(x_{k+1}) + g(Bx_{k+1}) - f^* - g^* &\leq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{F}^* \\
&\quad + \frac{1}{2 \lambda_{k+1}} \|y_{k+1}\|^2 - \frac{\lambda_{k+1}}{2} \text{dist}^2 \left( Ax_{k+1} + \frac{1}{\lambda} y_{k+1}, \mathcal{K} \right) \\
&\quad + g(Bx_{k+1}) - \min_{t \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \langle z_{k+1}, Bx_{k+1} - t \rangle + \frac{1}{2 \beta_{k+1}} \|Bx_{k+1} - t\|^2 + g(t) \right\} \\
&\leq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{F}^* + \frac{D_{y_{k+1}}}{2 \lambda_{k+1}} + \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \|u - z_{k+1}\|^2 \\
&\leq \mathcal{F}_{\lambda_{k+1}, \beta_{k+1}}(x_{k+1}, r_{k+1}, y_{k+1}, t_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) - \mathcal{F}^* + \frac{D_{y_{k+1}}}{2 \lambda_{k+1}} + \beta_{k+1} (D_{z_{k+1}}^2 + L_g^2) \\
&\leq 4D_X^2 \left( \frac{L_f}{k + 1} + \frac{\lambda_0 \|A\|^2 + \beta_0^{-1} \|B\|^2}{\sqrt{k + 1}} \right) + \frac{D_{y_{k+1}}}{2 \lambda_0 \sqrt{k + 1}} + \frac{\beta_0 (D_{z_{k+1}}^2 + L_g^2)}{\sqrt{k + 1}}.
\end{align*}
$$

The lower bound on the objective residual, and the convergence of the feasibility gap follow similarly as in Appendix A. We omit further details.
C. Additional Numerical Experiments & Observations

This appendix presents implementation details and additional results from the numerical experiments in Section 5.

In the last two pages of this document, we present all trials of each method for max-cut SDP with the GD97,b dataset. Note that FW-AL and IAL have more 2 parameters to tune. We denote by \( \rho \) in the legends of FW-AL plots the ratio between \( \sigma_0 \) and \( 2/\lambda \). Note that the method requires \( \sigma_0 \leq \min \{ \frac{2}{\lambda}, \frac{\sigma^2}{2\varepsilon} \} \) to be tuned, where \( \alpha \) is unknown and can be arbitrarily small.

We also provide a brief conclusion about all methods and our observations:

**CGAL** (const.) and **CGAL** (decr.): CGAL with (decr.) step variant outperforms the base method, HCGM in this experiment as well as other experiments we considered. Nevertheless, we did not encounter any instance where CGAL (decr.) outperforms CGAL (const.), hence we focus on the (const.) step variant. Note however CGAL (decr.) is still interesting from a theoretical perspective. Similar to the \( O(1/\sqrt{k}) \) convergence guarantee of the feasibility gap, we can also show that the norm of updates \( \| Ax_{k+1} - \bar{r}_{k+1} \| \) is decreasing with \( O(1/\sqrt{k}) \) rate. Coupled with decreasing step size of the same rate and by triangle inequality, we can bound the norm of \( \| y_{k+1} \| \) as the sum of terms that we expect to decrease by \( O(1/k) \) rate, resulting in a logarithmic bound naturally, without further conditions. We also did not encounter any problem in CGAL (both cases) even when we completely remove the conditions on \( \| y_{k+1} \| \) in various tests. Unfortunately, we do not have guarantees for this case for now.

**HCGM:** HCGM is the base method for CGAL, and can be recovered from CGAL simply by choosing \( y_{1} = 0 \) and \( \sigma_{k} = 0 \). HCGM guarantees \( O(1/\sqrt{k}) \) convergence rate in the objective residual and the feasibility gap, which is optimal according to (Yurtsever et al., 2015), in the sense it matches the best rate for smoothness of the Lagrange dual problem. HCGM is a very simple method, easy to analyze, interpret and tune, but as we observed in various numerical experiments, this method typically performs with the worst case bounds in practice. CGAL specifically focuses on the practical performance and implementation of HCGM, extending it from quadratic penalty to augmented Lagrangian setup. As a result, CGAL retains essentially the same guarantees as HCGM, but performs much better in practice, achieving \( O(1/k) \) empirical rate in most instances.

**FW-AL:** FW-AL iterations are similar to CGAL, but the penalty parameter is fixed in contrast. The method, hence directly relies on the Lagrange multiplier for the convergence. This requires strong assumptions such as error bounds, and the theoretical analysis of this method is much more complicated than CGAL. The bounds are non-adaptive and depends on the unknown error bound parameter \( \alpha \), which is proved to be positive assuming that Slater’s condition holds. Nevertheless, this unknown constant directly appears in the bounds and the parameters. We argue that this constant can be arbitrarily small, and this method might be not implementable in practice. Even for a small scale max-cut SDP problem, after extensive search of proper parameters, we failed to find good parameter choices for this method, supporting our arguments.

**IAL:** This method theoretically has \( O(1/\epsilon^4) \) complexity of lmo calls. Nevertheless, the method performs better in practice, but requires a lot of effort for tuning. The method has a double-loop structure, and only the outer iterates provide reasonable approximations (which results in the stair like plots). We also tried evaluating the performance of the inner iterations, but the method simply jumps at the beginning of each subproblem due to CGM initialization. We also tried line-search to avoid this, but the method performs worse with line-search overall.

**UPD and AUPD:** Remark that the problem instances we consider have bounded subgradients in the simple Lagrange dual formulation due to boundedness of domain \( \mathcal{X} \). This corresponds to \( 0 \)-th order Hölder smoothness in the dual, hence UPD and AUPD both have \( O(1/\sqrt{k}) \) rate of convergence, which is optimal according to (Yurtsever et al., 2015). Important to underline once again, that these methods are proved to converge only up to some accuracy level \( \epsilon \). Indeed, we can easily observe this saturation in the objective residual in various of our numerical experiments.

In our numerical experiment with small max-cut dataset, we observed similar performance of UPD and AUPD in terms of convergence rate, which is expected since the dual is only \( 0 \)-th order Hölder smooth. Interestingly, saturation of AUPD is not observed in contrast with the guarantees. One simple explanation for this observation is as follows: Both UPD and AUPD uses an inexact line-search procedure, but UPD lets \( \delta = \epsilon \) error at each iteration, while AUPD requires increasing accuracy in line-search and only lets \( \delta \sim \epsilon/k \) error in \( k \)-th iteration. This decrease is required from the theoretical point of view to prevent error accumulation due to acceleration, but might not occur in practice, at least until later iterations. When error accumulation does not occur, decreasing inexactness also prevents saturation of UPD. Note however this comes at an increased computational cost. Dual objective depends on the output of sharp operator, and errors in sharp operator directly translates as objective evaluation. Considering the decreasing amount of inexactness, this method requires very accurate...
evaluations of the sharp operator. This does not cause much problem in very small scale problems where we can compute $\ell_m \theta$ in the exact sense, but even in medium scale problems with $1000 \times 1000$ dimensions we observed AUPD getting stuck in the line-search condition. Note that when the error in dual objective evaluations in two consecutive iterations is larger than the inexactness parameter $\delta$, line-search condition may become ill-defined, in the sense line-search turns into an infinite loop. Since UPD performs similarly as AUPD in small scale experiments and due to its robustness compared to AUPD, we focus on UPD for other experiments.
A Conditional-Gradient-Based Augmented Lagrangian Framework