# Online convex optimization in the bandit setting: gradient descent without a gradient

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# Abstract

We study a general online convex optimization problem. We have a convex set S and an unknown sequence of cost functions  $c_1, c_2, \ldots$ , and in each period, we choose a feasible point  $x_t$  in S, and learn the cost  $c_t(x_t)$ . If the function  $c_t$  is also revealed after each period then, as Zinkevich shows in [24], gradient descent can be used on these functions to get regret bounds of  $O(\sqrt{n})$ . That is, after n rounds, the total cost incurred will be  $O(\sqrt{n})$  more than the cost of the best single feasible decision chosen with the benefit of hindsight,  $\min_{x \in S} \sum c_t(x)$ .

single reaches 2:  $\min_{x \in S} \sum c_t(x)$ . We extend this to the "bandit" setting, where, in each period, only the cost  $c_t(x_t)$  is revealed, and bound the expected regret as  $O(n^{3/4})$ . Independently, R. Kleinberg has recently achieved surprisingly similar results with a different technique:  $O(n^{3/4})$  regret (against an oblivious adversary).

Our approach uses a simple approximation of the gradient that is computed from evaluating  $c_t$  at a single (random) point. We show that this biased estimate is sufficient to approximate gradient descent on the sequence of functions. In other words, it is possible to use gradient descent without seeing anything more than the value of the functions at a single point. The guarantees hold even in the most general case: online against an adaptive adversary.

For the online linear optimization problem [14], algorithms with low regrets in the bandit setting have recently been given against oblivious [1] and adaptive adversaries [18]. In contrast to these algorithms, which divide time into explicit *explore* and *exploit* phases, our algorithm can be interpreted as doing a small amount of exploration in each period.

# 1 Introduction

Consider three optimization settings where one would like to minimize a convex function (equivalently maximize a concave function). In all three settings, gradient descent is one of the most popular methods.

1. Offline: Minimize a fixed convex cost function  $c: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ . In this case, gradient descent is  $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla c(x_t)$ .

- 2. Stochastic: Minimize a fixed convex cost function c given only "noisy" access to c. For example, at time T = t, we may only have access to  $c_t(x) = c(x) + \epsilon_t(x)$ , where  $\epsilon_t(x)$  is a random sampling error. Here, stochastic gradient descent is  $x_{t+1} = x_t \eta \nabla c_t(x_t)$ . (The intuition is that the expected gradient is correct;  $\mathbf{E}[\nabla c_t(x)] = \nabla \mathbf{E}[c_t(x)] = \nabla c(x)$ .) In non-convex cases, the additional randomness may actually help avoid local minima [3], in a manner similar to Simulated Annealing [12].
- 3. Online: Minimize an adversarially generated sequence of convex functions,  $c_1, c_2, \ldots$ . This requires that we choose a sequence  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$  where each  $x_t$  is selected based only on  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{t-1}$  and  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_{t-1}$ . The goals is to have low regret  $\sum c_t(x_t) \min \sum c_t(x)$  for not using the best single point, chosen with the benefit of hindsight. In this setting, Zinkevich analyzes the regret of gradient descent given by  $x_{t+1} = x_t \eta \nabla c_t(x_t)$ .

We will focus on gradient descent in a "bandit" version of the online setting. As a motivating example, consider a company that has to decide, every week, how much to spend advertising on each of d different channels, represented as a vector  $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . At the end of each week, they calculate their total profit  $p_t(x_t)$ . In the offline case, one might assume that each week the function  $p_1, p_2, \ldots$  are identical. In the stochastic case, one might assume that in different weeks the profit functions  $p_t(x)$  will be noisy realizations of some underlying "true" profit function, for example  $p_t(x) =$  $p(x) + \epsilon_t(x)$ , where  $\epsilon_t(x)$  has mean 0. In the online case, no assumptions are made about a distribution over convex profit functions and instead they are modeled as the malicious choices of an (oblivious) adversary. This allows, for example, for more complicated timedependent random noise or the possibility of a bad economy which cause the profits to crash.

In this paper, we consider the bandit setting, where we only have black-box access to the function(s) and

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thus cannot access the gradient of  $c_t$  directly for gradient descent. (In the advertising example, the advertisers only find out the total profit of their chosen  $x_t$ , and not how much they would have profited from other values of x.) This type of optimization is sometimes referred to as *direct* or *gradient-free*.

A natural approach in the black-box case, for all three settings, would be to estimate the gradient by evaluating the function at several places around the point, and from them estimate the gradient (this is called *Finite Difference Stochastic Approximation*, see, for example, Chapter 6 of [22]). In the online setting, the functions change adversarially over time and we only can evaluate each function once. We use a one-point estimate of the gradient to circumvent this difficulty.

1.1 A one-point estimate to the gradient. Our estimate is based on the observation that for a uniformly random unit vector u,

(1.1) 
$$\nabla f(x) \approx \mathbf{E} \left[ \left( f(x+\delta u) - f(x) \right) u \right] d/\delta$$
  
(1.2)  $= \mathbf{E} [f(x+\delta u) u] d/\delta$ 

The first line looks more like an approximation of the gradient than the second. But because u is uniformly random over the sphere, in expectation the second term in the first line is zero. Thus, it would seem that on average, the vector  $(d/\delta)f(x + \delta u)u$  is an estimate of the gradient with low bias, and thus we say loosely that it is an approximation to the gradient.

To make this precise, we show in Section 2 that  $(d/\delta)f(x + \delta u)u$  is an unbiased estimator the gradient of a *smoothed* version of f, where the value of f at xis replaced by the average value of f in a ball of radius  $\delta$  centered at x. For a vector v selected uniformly at random from the unit ball, let

Then

$$\nabla \hat{f}(x) = \mathbf{E}[f(x + \delta u)u]d/\delta$$

 $\hat{f}(x) = \mathbf{E}[f(x + \delta v)].$ 

Interestingly, this does not require that f be differentiable.

Our method of obtaining a one-point estimate of the gradient is similar to a one-point estimates proposed independently by Granichin [7] and Spall [21]. Spall's estimate uses a perturbation vector p, in which each entry is a zero-mean independent random variable, to produce an estimate of the gradient  $\hat{g}(x) = \frac{f(x+\delta p)}{\delta} \left[\frac{1}{p_1}, \frac{1}{p_2}, \dots, \frac{1}{p_d}\right]^T$ . This estimate is more of a direct attempt to estimate the gradient coordinatewise and is not rotationally invariant. Spall's analysis focuses on the stochastic setting and requires that the function is three-times differentiable. In [8], Granichin shows that a similar approximation is sufficient to perform gradient descent in a very general stochastic model.

Unlike [7, 8, 21], we work in an adversarial model, where instead of trying to make the restrictions on the randomness of nature as weak as possible, we pessimistically assume that nature is conspiring against us. Even in the (oblivious) adversarial setting, a onepoint estimate of the gradient is sufficient to make gradient descent work.

**1.2** Guarantees and outline of analysis. We use the following online bandit version of Zinkevich's model. There is a fixed unknown sequence of convex functions  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \colon S \to [-C, C]$ , where C > 0 and  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is a convex feasible set. The decision-maker sequentially chooses points  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S$ . After  $x_t$  is chosen, the value  $c_t(x_t)$  is revealed, and  $x_{t+1}$  must be chosen only based on  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_t$  and  $c_1(x_1), c_2(x_2), \ldots, c_t(x_t)$  (and private randomness).

Zinkevich shows that, when the gradient  $\nabla c_t(x_t)$  is given to the decision-maker after each period, an online gradient descent algorithm guarantees,

(1.3) regret = 
$$\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t) - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le DG\sqrt{n}.$$

Here D is the diameter of the feasible set, and G is an upper bound on the magnitudes of the gradients.

By elaborating on his technique, we present an update rule for computing a sequence of  $x_{t+1}$  in the absence of  $\nabla c_t(x_t)$ , that gives the following guarantee on expected regret:

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le 6n^{5/6} dC.$$

Notice we have replaced the differentiability and bounded gradient assumptions by bounded function assumptions. As expected, our guarantees in the bandit setting are worse than those of the full-information setting:  $O(n^{5/6})$  instead of  $O(n^{1/2})$ . If we make an additional assumption that the functions satisfy an *L*-Lipschitz condition (which is slightly less restrictive than a bounded gradient assumption), then we can reduce expected regret to  $O(n^{3/4})$ :

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le 6n^{3/4} d\left(\sqrt{CLD} + C\right).$$

To prove these bounds, we have several pieces to put together. First, we show that Zinkevich's guarantee (1.3) holds unmodified for vectors that are unbiased estimates of the gradients. Here G becomes an upper bound on the magnitude of the estimates.

Now, the updates should roughly be of the form  $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta(d/\delta) \mathbf{E}[c_t(x_t + \delta u_t)u_t]$ . Since we can only evaluate each function at one point, that point should be  $x_t + \delta u_t$ . However, our analysis applies to bound  $\sum c_t(x_t)$  and not  $\sum c_t(x_t + \delta u_t)$ . Fortunately, these points are close together and thus these values should not be too different.

Another problem that arises is that the perturbations may move points outside the feasible set. To deal with these issues, we stay on a subset of the set such that the ball of radius  $\delta$  around each point in the subset is contained in S. In order to do this, it is helpful to have bounds on the radii r, R of balls that are contained in S and that contain S, respectively. Then guarantees can be given in terms of R/r. Finally, we can use existing algorithms [17] to reshape the body so  $R/r \leq d$  to get the final results.

**1.3** Related work. For direct offline optimization, i.e. from an oracle that evaluates the function, in theory one can use the ellipsoid [10] or more recent random-walk based approaches [4]. In black-box optimization, practitioners often use Simulated Annealing [12] or finite difference/simulated perturbation stochastic approximation methods (see, for example, [22]). In the case that the functions may change dramatically over time, a single-point approximation to the gradient may be necessary. Granichin and Spall propose other single-point estimates of the gradient in [7, 21].

In addition to the appeal of an online model of convex optimization, Zinkevich's gradient descent analysis can be applied to several other online problems for which gradient descent and other special-purpose algorithms have been carefully analyzed, such as Universal Portfolios [5, 9, 13], online linear regression [15], and online shortest paths [23] (one convexifies to get an online shortest flow problem).

A similar line of research has developed for the problem of online linear optimization [14, 1, 18]. Here, one wants to solve the related but incomparable problem of optimizing a sequence of linear functions, over a possibly non-convex feasible set, modeling problems such as online shortest paths and online binary search trees (which are difficult to convexify). Kalai and Vempala [14] show that, for such linear optimization problems in general, if the offline optimization problem is solvable efficiently, then regret can be bounded by  $O(\sqrt{n})$  also by an efficient online algorithm, in the full-information model. Awerbuch and Kleinberg [1] generalize this to the bandit setting against an oblivious adversary (like ours). Blum and McMahan [18] give a

simpler algorithm that applies to *adaptive* adversaries, that may choose their functions  $c_t$  depending on the previous points.

A few comparisons are interesting to make with the online linear optimization problem. First of all, for the bandit versions of the linear problems, there was a distinction between exploration phases and exploitation phases. During exploration phases, one action from a *barycentric spanner* [1] basis of d actions was chosen, for the sole purpose of estimating the linear objective function. In contrast, our algorithm does a little bit of exploration in each phase. Secondly, Blum and McMahan [18] were able to compete against an adaptive adversary, using a careful Martingale analysis. It is not clear if that can be done in our setting.

**1.4** Notation. Let  $\mathbb{B}$  and  $\mathbb{S}$  be the unit ball and sphere centered around the origin in d dimensions, respectively,

$$\mathbb{B} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid |x| \le 1 \}$$
$$\mathbb{S} = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid |x| = 1 \}$$

The ball and sphere of radius a are  $a\mathbb{B}$  and  $a\mathbb{S}$ , correspondingly.

We fix the sequence of functions  $c_1, c_2, \ldots c_n \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$  is in advance (meaning we are considering an oblivious adversary, not an adaptive one). The sequence of points we pick is denoted by  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ . For the bandit setting, we need to use randomness, so we consider our *expected regret*:

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{z} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(z).$$

Zinkevich assumes the existence of a projection oracle  $\mathbf{P}_{S}(x)$ , projecting the point x onto the nearest point in the convex set S,

$$\mathbf{P}_S(x) = \arg\min_{z \in S} |x - z|.$$

Projecting onto the set is an elegant way to handle the situation that a step along the gradient goes outside of the set, and is a common technique in the optimization literature. Note that computing  $\mathbf{P}_{S}$  is "only" an offline convex optimization problem. While, for arbitrary feasible sets, this may be difficult in practice, for standard shapes, such as cube, ball, and simplex, the calculation is quite straightforward.

A function f is L-Lipschitz if

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L|x - y|,$$

for all x, y in the domain of f.

We assume S contains the ball of radius r centered at the origin and is contained in the ball of radius R, i.e.,

 $r\mathbb{B}\subseteq S\subseteq R\mathbb{B}.$ 

# 2 Approximating the gradient with a single sample

The main observation of this section is that we can estimate the gradient of a function f by taking a random unit vector u and scaling it by  $f(x + \delta u)$ , i.e.  $\hat{g} =$  $f(x + \delta u)u$ . The approximation is correct in the sense that  $\mathbf{E}[\hat{g}]$  is proportional to the gradient of a *smoothed* version of f. For any function f, for v selected uniformly at random from the unit ball, define

(2.4) 
$$\hat{f}(x) = \mathbf{E}_{v \in \mathbb{B}}[f(x+\delta v)].$$

LEMMA 2.1. Fix  $\delta > 0$ , over random unit vectors u,

$$\mathbf{E}_{u\in\mathbb{S}}[f(x+\delta u)u] = \frac{\delta}{d}\nabla\hat{f}(x)$$

*Proof.* If d = 1, then the fundamental theorem of calculus implies,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_{-\delta}^{\delta}f(x+v)dv = f(x+\delta) - f(x-\delta).$$

The *d*-dimensional generalization, which follows from Stoke's theorem, is,

(2.5) 
$$\nabla \int_{\delta \mathbb{B}} f(x+v) dv = \int_{\delta \mathbb{S}} f(x+u) \frac{u}{\|u\|} du.$$

By definition,

(2.6) 
$$\hat{f}(x) = \mathbf{E}[f(x+\delta v)] = \frac{\int_{\delta \mathbb{B}} f(x+v) dv}{\operatorname{vol}_d(\delta \mathbb{B})}.$$

Similarly,

(2.7) 
$$\mathbf{E}[f(x+\delta u)u] = \frac{\int_{\delta\mathbb{S}} f(x+u) \cdot \frac{u}{\|u\|} du}{\operatorname{vol}_{d-1}(\delta\mathbb{S})}.$$

Combining Eq.'s (2.5), (2.6), and (2.7), and the fact that ratio of volume to surface area of a *d*-dimensional ball of radius  $\delta$  is  $\delta/d$  gives the lemma.

Notice that the function  $\hat{f}$  is differentiable even when f is not.

# 3 Expected Gradient Descent

First we consider a version of gradient descent where each step t we get a random vector  $g_t$  with expectation equal to the gradient. Then we can still use Zinkevich's online analysis of gradient descent. For lack of a better choice, we use the starting point  $x_1 = 0$ , the center of a containing ball of radius  $R \leq D$  and  $x_{t+1} =$  $\mathbf{P}_S(x_t - \eta g_t)$ . LEMMA 3.1. Let  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_n \colon S \to \mathbb{R}$  be a sequence of convex, differentiable functions. Let  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in S$ be defined by  $x_1 = 0$  and  $x_{t+1} = \mathbf{P}_S(x_t - \eta g_t)$ , where  $\eta > 0$  and  $g_1, \ldots, g_n$  are vector-valued random variables with  $\mathbf{E}[g_t \mid x_t] = \nabla c_t(x_t)$  and  $\|g_t\| \leq G$ , for some G > 0(this also implies  $\|\nabla c_t(x)\| \leq G$ ). Then, for  $\eta = \frac{R}{G\sqrt{n}}$ ,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le RG\sqrt{n}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $x_{\star}$  be a point in S minimizing  $\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x)$ .

Since  $c_t$  is convex and differentiable, we can bound the difference between  $c_t(x_t)$  and  $c_t(x_{\star})$  in terms of the gradient.

$$c_t(x_t) - c_t(x_\star) \le \nabla c_t(x_t) \cdot (x_t - x_\star)$$
  
=  $\mathbf{E}[g_t \mid x_t] \cdot (x_t - x_\star)$   
=  $\mathbf{E}[g_t \cdot (x_t - x_\star) \mid x_t]$ 

Taking the expectation on both sides of this inequality yields

(3.8) 
$$\mathbf{E}[c_t(x_t) - c_t(x_\star)] \le \mathbf{E}[g_t \cdot (x_t - x_\star)].$$

Following Zinkevich's analysis, we use  $||x_t - x_*||^2$  as a potential function. Since S is convex, for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  we have  $||\mathbf{P}_S(x) - x_*|| \leq ||x - x_*||$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} \|x_{t+1} - x_{\star}\|^{2} &= \|\mathbf{P}_{S}(x_{t} - \eta g_{t}) - x_{\star}\|^{2} \\ &\leq \|x_{t} - \eta g_{t} - x_{\star}\|^{2} \\ &= \|x_{t} - x_{\star}\|^{2} + \eta^{2}\|g_{t}\|^{2} - 2\eta(x_{t} - x_{\star}) \cdot g_{t} \\ &\leq \|x_{t} - x_{\star}\|^{2} + \eta^{2}G^{2} - 2\eta(x_{t} - x_{\star}) \cdot g_{t}. \end{aligned}$$

After rearranging terms, we have (3.9)

$$g_t \cdot (x_t - x_\star) \le \frac{\|x_t - x_\star\|^2 - \|x_{t+1} - x_\star\|^2 + \eta^2 G^2}{2\eta}.$$

By putting Eq. (3.8) and Eq. (3.9) together we see that

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E} \left[ \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_{t}(x_{t}) \right] &- \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_{t}(x_{\star}) \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^{n} \mathbf{E} [c_{t}(x_{t}) - c_{t}(x_{\star})] \\ &\leq \sum_{t=1}^{n} \mathbf{E} [g_{t} \cdot (x_{t} - x_{\star})] \\ &\leq \sum_{t=1}^{n} \mathbf{E} \left[ \frac{\|x_{t} - x_{\star}\|^{2} - \|x_{t+1} + x_{\star}\|^{2} + \eta^{2}G^{2}}{2\eta} \right] \\ &= \mathbf{E} \left[ \frac{\|x_{1} - x_{\star}\|^{2}}{2\eta} + n \frac{\eta^{2}G^{2}}{2\eta} \right] \\ &\leq \frac{R^{2}}{2\eta} + n \frac{\eta G^{2}}{2}. \end{split}$$

The last step follows because we chose  $x_1 = 0$  and  $S \subseteq R\mathbb{B}$ . Plugging in  $\eta = R/G\sqrt{n}$  gives the lemma.

**3.1 Algorithm and analysis** In this section, we analyze the algorithm given in Figure 1.

 $BGD(\alpha, \delta, \nu)$ 

- $y_1 = 0$
- At each period t:
  - select unit vector  $u_t$  uniformly at random

 $- x_t := y_t + \delta u_t$ -  $y_{t+1} := \mathbf{P}_{(1-\alpha)S}(y_t - \nu c_t(x_t)u_t)$ 

Figure 1: Bandit gradient descent algorithm

We begin with a few observations.

OBSERVATION 3.1. The optimum in  $(1 - \alpha)S$  is near the optimum in S,

$$\min_{x \in (1-\alpha)S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le 2\alpha Cn + \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x).$$

*Proof.* Clearly  $(1 - \alpha)S \subseteq S$ . Also,

$$\min_{x \in (1-\alpha)S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) = \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t ((1-\alpha)x).$$

And since each  $c_t$  is convex and  $0 \in S$ , we have

$$\min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t ((1-\alpha)x)$$
  

$$\leq \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \alpha c_t(0) + (1-\alpha)c_t(x)$$
  

$$= \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \alpha (c_t(0) - c_t(x)) + c_t(x).$$

Finally, since for any  $y \in S$  and  $t \in \{1, ..., n\}$  we have  $|c_t(y)| \leq C$ , we may conclude that

$$\min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \alpha(c_t(0) - c_t(x)) + c_t(x) \le \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \alpha 2C + c_t(x)$$

OBSERVATION 3.2. For any x contained in  $(1-\alpha)S$  the ball of radius  $\alpha r$  centered at x is contained in S.

*Proof.* Since  $r\mathbb{B} \subseteq S$  and S is convex, we have

$$(1-\alpha)S + \alpha r \mathbb{B} \subseteq (1-\alpha)S + \alpha S = S.$$

The next observation establishes a bound on the maximum the function can change in  $(1 - \alpha)S$ , an effective Lipschitz condition.

OBSERVATION 3.3. For any x contained in  $(1-\alpha)S$  and any y contained in S we have

$$|c_t(x) - c_t(y)| \le \frac{2C}{\alpha r} |x - y|.$$

*Proof.* Let  $y = x + \Delta$ . If  $|\Delta| > \alpha r$ , the observation follows from  $|c_t| < C$ . Otherwise, let  $z = x + \alpha r \frac{\Delta}{|\Delta|}$ , the point at distance  $\alpha r$  from x in the direction  $\Delta$ . By the previous observation, we know  $z \in S$ . Also,  $y = \frac{|\Delta|}{\alpha r} z + \left(1 - \frac{|\Delta|}{\alpha r}\right) x$ , so,

$$c_t(y) \le \frac{|\Delta|}{\alpha r} c_t(z) + \left(1 - \frac{|\Delta|}{\alpha r}\right) c_t(x)$$
$$= c_t(x) + \frac{c_t(z) - c_t(x)}{\alpha r} |\Delta|$$
$$\le c_t(x) + \frac{2C}{\alpha r} |\Delta|.$$

Now we are ready to select the parameters.

THEOREM 3.1. For any  $n \ge \left(\frac{3Rd}{2r}\right)^2$  and for  $\nu = \frac{R}{C\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\delta = \sqrt[3]{\frac{rR^2d^2}{12n}}$ , and  $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3Rd}{2r\sqrt{n}}}$ , the expected regret of  $\text{BGD}(\nu, \delta, \alpha)$  is upper bounded by

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le 3Cn^{5/6} \sqrt[3]{dR/r}.$$

*Proof.* We begin by showing that the points  $x_t \in S$ . Since  $y_t \in (1-\alpha)S$ , Observation 3.2 implies this fact as long as  $\frac{\delta}{r} \leq \alpha < 1$ , which is the case for  $n \geq (3Rd/2r)^2$ .

Suppose we wanted to run the gradient descent algorithm on the functions  $\hat{c}_t$  defined by (2.4), and the set  $(1 - \alpha)S$ . If we let

$$g_t = \frac{d}{\delta}c_t(x_t + \delta u_t)u_t$$

then (since  $u_t$  is selected uniformly at random from S) Lemma 2.1 says  $\mathbf{E}[g_t | x_t] = \nabla \hat{c}_t(x_t)$ . So Lemma 3.1 applies with the update rule:

$$x_{t+1} = \mathbf{P}_{(1-\alpha)S}(x_t - \eta g_t)$$
$$= \mathbf{P}_{(1-\alpha)S}(x_t - \eta \frac{d}{\delta}c_t(x + \delta u_t)u_t)$$

which is exactly the update rule we are using to obtain  $y_t$ , with  $\eta = \nu \delta/d$ . Since

$$\|g_t\| = \left\|\frac{d}{\delta}c_t(x+\delta u_t)u_t\right\| \le dC/\delta_t$$

we can apply Lemma 3.1 with  $G = dC/\delta$ . By our choice of  $\nu$ , we have  $\eta = R/G\sqrt{n}$ , and so the expected regret is upper bounded by

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} \hat{c}_t(y_t)\right] - \min_{x \in (1-\alpha)S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \hat{c}_t(x) \le \frac{RdC\sqrt{n}}{\delta}.$$

Let  $L = \frac{2C}{\alpha r}$ , which will act an "effective Lipschitz constant". Notice that for  $x \in (1 - \alpha)S$ , since  $\hat{c}_t$  is an average over inputs within  $\delta$  of x, Observation 3.3 shows that  $|\hat{c}_t(x) - c_t(x)| \leq \delta L$ . Since  $||y_t - x_t|| = \delta$ , Observation 3.3 also shows that

 $|\hat{c}_t(y_t) - c_t(x_t)| \le |\hat{c}_t(y_t) - c_t(y_t)| + |c_t(y_t) - c_t(x_t)| \le 2\delta L.$ These with the above imply,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} (c_t(x_t) - 2\delta L)\right] - \min_{x \in (1-\alpha)S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} (c_t(x) + \delta L)$$
$$\leq \frac{RdC\sqrt{n}}{\delta},$$

so rearranging terms and using Observation 3.1 gives

(3.10) 
$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x)$$
$$\leq \frac{RdC\sqrt{n}}{\delta} + 3\delta Ln + 2\alpha Cn.$$

Plugging in  $L = \frac{2C}{\alpha r}$  gives,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x)$$
$$\leq \frac{RdC\sqrt{n}}{\delta} + \frac{\delta}{\alpha} \frac{6Cn}{r} + \alpha 2Cn.$$

This expression is of the form  $\frac{a}{\delta} + b\frac{\delta}{\alpha} + c\alpha$ . Setting  $\delta = \sqrt[3]{\frac{a^2}{bc}}$  and  $\alpha = \sqrt[3]{\frac{ab}{c^2}}$  gives a value of  $3\sqrt[3]{abc}$ . The lemma is achieved for  $a = RdC\sqrt{n}$ , b = 6Cn/r and c = 2Cn.

THEOREM 3.2. If each  $c_t$  is L-Lipschitz, then for n sufficiently large and  $\nu = \frac{R}{C\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\alpha = \frac{\delta}{r}$ , and  $\delta = n^{-.25}\sqrt{\frac{RdCr}{C\sqrt{n}}}$ .

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x)$$
$$\leq 2n^{3/4} \sqrt{3RdC(L+C/r)}.$$

*Proof.* The proof is quite similar to the proof of Theorem 3.1. Again we check that the points  $x_t \in S$ , which it is for n is sufficiently large. We now have a direct Lipschitz constant, so we can use it directly in Eq. (3.10). Plugging this in with chosen values of  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$  gives the lemma.

**3.2 Reshaping.** The above regret bound depends on R/r, which can be very large. To remove this dependence (or at least the dependence on 1/r), we can reshape the body to make it more "round."

The set S, with  $r\mathbb{B} \subseteq S \subseteq R\mathbb{B}$  can be put in *isotropic position* [20]. Essentially, this amounts to estimating the covariance of random samples from the body and applying an affine transformation T so that the new covariance matrix is the identity matrix.

A body  $T(S) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  in isotropic position has several nice properties, including  $\mathbb{B} \subseteq T(S) \subseteq d\mathbb{B}$ . So, we first apply the preprocessing step to find T which puts the body in isotropic position. This gives us a new R' = dand r' = 1. The following observation shows that we can use L' = LR.

OBSERVATION 3.4. Let  $c'_t(u) = c_t(T^{-1}(u))$ . Then  $c'_t$  is LR-Lipschitz.

*Proof.* Let  $x_1, x_2 \in S$  and  $u_1 = T(x_1), u_2 = T(x_2)$ . Observe that,

$$|c'_t(u_1) - c'_t(u_2)| = |c_t(x_1) - c_t(x_2)| \le L ||x_1 - x_2||.$$

To make this a *LR*-Lipschitz condition on  $c'_t$ , it suffices to show that  $||x_1 - x_2|| \leq R||u_1 - u_2||$ . Suppose not, i.e.  $||x_1 - x_2|| > R||u_1 - u_2||$ . Define  $v_1 = \frac{u_1 - u_2}{||u_1 - u_2||}$ and  $v_2 = -v_1$ . Observe that  $||v_2 - v_1|| = 2$ , and since T(S) contains the ball of radius 1,  $v_1, v_2 \in T(S)$ . Thus,  $y_1 = T^{-1}(v_1)$  and  $y_2 = T^{-1}(v_2)$  are in *S*. Then, since *T* is affine,

$$||y_1 - y_2|| = \frac{1}{||u_1 - u_2||} ||T^{-1}(u_1 - u_2) - T^{-1}(u_2 - u_1)||$$
  
=  $\frac{2}{||u_1 - u_2||} ||T^{-1}(u_1) - T^{-1}(u_2)||$   
=  $\frac{2}{||u_1 - u_2||} ||x_1 - x_2|| > 2R,$ 

where the last line uses the assumption  $||x_1 - x_2|| > R||u_1 - u_2||$ . The inequality  $||y_1 - y_2|| > 2R$  contradicts the assumption that S is contained in a sphere of radius R.

Many common shapes such as balls, cubes, etc., are already nicely shaped, but there exist MCMC algorithms for putting any body into isotropic position from a membership oracle [16, 17]. (Note that the projection oracle we assume is a stronger oracle than a membership oracle.) The latest (and greatest) algorithm for putting a body into isotropic position, due to Lovasz and Vempala [17], runs in time  $O(d^4)$ poly-log $(d, \frac{R}{r})$ . This algorithm puts the body into nearly isotropic position, which means that  $\mathbb{B} \subseteq T(S) \subseteq 1.01d\mathbb{B}$ . After such preprocessing we would have r' = 1, R' = 1.01d, L' = LR, and C' = C. This gives,

COROLLARY 3.1. For a set S of diameter D, and  $c_t$  L-Lipschitz, after putting S into near- isotropic position, the BGD algorithm has expected regret,

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n}c_{t}(x_{t})\right] &-\min_{x\in S}\sum_{t=1}^{n}c_{t}(x)\\ &\leq 6n^{3/4}d\left(\sqrt{CLR}+C\right). \end{split}$$

Without the L-Lipschitz condition,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{x \in S} \sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x) \le 6n^{5/6} dC$$

Proof. Using r' = 1, R' = 1.01d, L' = LR, and C' = C, In the first case, we get an expected regret of at most  $2n^{3/4}\sqrt{6(1.01d)dC(LR+C)}$ . In the second case, we get an expected regret of at most  $3Cn^{5/6}\sqrt{2(1.01d)d}$ .

#### 4 Conclusions

We have given algorithms for bandit online optimization of convex functions. Our approach is to extend Zinkevich's gradient descent analysis to a situation where we do not have access to the gradient. We give a simple trick for approximating the gradient of a function by a single sample, and we give a simple understanding of this approximation as being the gradient of a smoothed function. This is similar to a similar approximation proposed in [21]. The simplicity of our approximation make it straightforward to analyze this algorithm in an online setting, with few assumptions.

Zinkevich presents a few nice variations on the model and algorithms. He shows that an adaptive step size  $\eta_t = O(1/\sqrt{t})$  can be used with similar guarantees. It is likely that a similar adaptive step size could be used here.

He also proves that gradient descent can be compared, to an extent, with a non-stationary adversary. He shows that relative to any sequence  $z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n$ , it achieves,

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{n} c_t(x_t)\right] - \min_{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n \in S} \sum c_t(z_t)$$
$$\leq O\left(GD\sqrt{n(1+\sum \|z_t - z_{t-1}\|)}\right).$$

Thus, compared to an adversary that moves a total distance o(n), he has regret o(n). These types of guarantees may be extended to the bandit setting.

It would also be interesting to analyze the algorithm in an unconstrained setting, where issues of the shape of the convex set wouldn't come into play. The difficulty is that in the unconstrained setting we cannot assume the convex functions are bounded. However, since  $E[c_t(x_t + \delta u_t)u_t] = E[(c_t(x_t + \delta u_t) - c_{t-1}(x_{t-1} + \delta u_{t-1}))u_t]$ , if the functions do not change too much from period to period, one may be able to use the evaluation of the previous period as a baseline to prevent the random gradient estimate from being too large.

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