Acceleration in Hyperbolic and Spherical Spaces

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Abstract

We further research on the acceleration phenomenon on Riemannian manifolds by introducing the first global first-order method that achieves the same rates as accelerated gradient descent in the Euclidean space for the optimization of smooth and geodesically convex (g-convex) or strongly g-convex functions defined on the hyperbolic space or a subset of the sphere, up to constants and log factors. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first method that is proved to achieve these rates globally on functions defined on a Riemannian manifold \( \mathcal{M} \) other than the Euclidean space. Additionally, for any Riemannian manifold of bounded sectional curvature, we provide reductions from optimization methods for smooth and g-convex functions to methods for smooth and strongly g-convex functions and vice versa. As a proxy, we solve a constrained non-convex Euclidean problem, under a condition between convexity and quasar-convexity.

1 Introduction

Acceleration in convex optimization is a phenomenon that has drawn lots of attention and has yielded many important results, since the renowned Accelerated Gradient Descent (AGD) method of Nesterov [49]. Having been proved successful for deep learning [57], among other fields, there have been recent efforts to better understand this phenomenon [8, 24, 54, 66]. These have yielded numerous new results going beyond convexity or the standard oracle model, in a wide variety of settings [4–6, 8, 10, 11, 15, 17, 20, 23, 24, 27, 61]. This surge of research that applies tools of convex optimization to models going beyond convexity has been fruitful. One of these models is the setting of geodesically convex Riemannian optimization. In this setting, the function to optimize is geodesically convex (g-convex), i.e. convex restricted to any geodesic (cf. Definition 1.1).

Riemannian optimization, g-convex and non-g-convex alike, is an extensive area of research. In recent years there have been numerous efforts towards obtaining Riemannian optimization algorithms that share analogous properties to the more broadly studied Euclidean first-order methods: deterministic [21, 65, 68], stochastic [35, 41, 59], variance-reduced [52, 53, 70], adaptive [40], saddle-point-escaping [18, 56, 71, 72, 19], and projection-free methods [63, 64], among others. Unsurprisingly, Riemannian optimization has found many applications in machine learning, including low-rank matrix completion [14, 32, 48, 58, 60], dictionary learning [16, 55], optimization under orthogonality constraints [25], with applications to Recurrent Neural Networks [44, 46], robust covariance estimation in Gaussian distributions [67], Gaussian mixture models [54], operator scaling [12], and sparse principal component analysis [28, 37, 38].

However, the acceleration phenomenon, largely celebrated in the Euclidean space, is still not understood in Riemannian manifolds, although there has been some progress on this topic recently (cf. Related work). This poses the following question, which is the central subject of this paper:

Can a Riemannian first-order method enjoy the same rates as AGD in the Euclidean space?
In this work, we provide an answer in the affirmative for functions defined on hyperbolic and spherical spaces, up to constants depending on the curvature and the initial distance to an optimum, and up to log factors. In particular, the main results of this work are the following.

**Main Results:**

- **Full acceleration.** We design algorithms that provably achieve the same rates of convergence as AGD in the Euclidean space, up to constants and log factors. More precisely, we obtain the rates $\tilde{O}(L/\sqrt{\varepsilon})$ and $O^*(\sqrt{L/\mu \log(\mu/\varepsilon)})$ when optimizing $L$-smooth functions that are, respectively, $g$-convex and $\mu$-strongly $g$-convex, defined on the hyperbolic space or a subset of the sphere. The notation $\tilde{O}(\cdot)$ and $O^*(\cdot)$ omits $\log(L/\varepsilon)$ and $\log(L/\mu)$ factors, respectively, and constants. Previous approaches only showed local results \[69\] or obtained results with rates in between the ones obtainable by Riemannian Gradient Descent (RGD) and AGD \[1\]. Moreover, these previous works only apply to functions that are smooth and strongly $g$-convex and not to smooth functions that are only $g$-convex. As a proxy, we design an accelerated algorithm under a condition between convexity and quasar-convexity in the constrained setting, which may be of independent interest.

- **Reductions.** We present two reductions for any Riemannian manifold of bounded sectional curvature. Given an optimization method for smooth and $g$-convex functions they provide a method for optimizing smooth and strongly $g$-convex functions, and vice versa.

It is often the case that methods and key geometric inequalities that apply to manifolds with bounded sectional curvatures are obtained from the ones existing for the spaces of constant extremal sectional curvature \[30, 68, 69\]. Consequently, our contribution is relevant not only because we establish an algorithm achieving global acceleration on functions defined on a manifold other than the Euclidean space, but also because understanding the constant sectional curvature case is an important step towards understanding the more general case of obtaining algorithms that optimize $g$-convex functions, strongly or not, defined on manifolds of bounded sectional curvature.

Our main technique for designing the accelerated method consists of mapping the function domain to a subset $\mathcal{B}$ of the Euclidean space via a geodesic map: a transformation that maps geodesics to geodesics. Given the gradient of a point $x \in \mathcal{M}$, which defines a lower bound on the function that is affine over the tangent space of $x$, we find a lower bound of the function that is affine over the region of $\mathcal{B}$ where the previous lower bound was at most $f(x)$, despite the map being non-conformal, deforming distances, and breaking convexity. This allows to aggregate the lower bounds easily. We believe that effective lower bound aggregation is key to achieving Riemannian acceleration and optimality. Using this strategy, we are able to provide an algorithm along the lines of the one in \[23\] to define a continuous method that we discretize using an approximate implementation of the implicit Euler method, obtaining a method achieving the same rates as the Euclidean AGD, up to constants and log factors. Our reductions take into account the deformations produced by the geometry to generalize existing optimal Euclidean reductions \[2, 9\].

**Basic Geometric Definitions.** We recall basic definitions of Riemannian geometry that we use in this work. For a thorough introduction we refer to \[51\]. A Riemannian manifold $(\mathcal{M}, g)$ is a real smooth manifold $\mathcal{M}$ equipped with a metric $g$, which is a smoothly varying inner product. For $x \in \mathcal{M}$ and any two vectors $v, w \in T_x\mathcal{M}$ in the tangent space of $\mathcal{M}$, the inner product $\langle v, w \rangle_x$ is $g(v, w)$. For $v \in T_x\mathcal{M}$, the norm is defined as usual $\|v\|_x \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle_x}$. Typically, $x$ is known given $v$ or $w$, so we will just write $\langle v, w \rangle$ or $\|v\|$ if $x$ is clear from context. A geodesic is a curve $\gamma : [0, 1] \to \mathcal{M}$ of unit speed that is locally distance minimizing. A uniquely geodesic space is a space such that for every two points there is one and only one geodesic that joins them. In such a case the exponential map $\text{Exp}_x : T_x\mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{M}$ and inverse exponential map $\text{Exp}_x^{-1} : \mathcal{M} \to T_x\mathcal{M}$ are well defined for every pair of points, and are as follows. Given $x, y \in \mathcal{M}$, $v \in T_x\mathcal{M}$, and a geodesic $\gamma$ of length $\|v\|_x$ such that $\gamma(0) = x$, $\gamma(1) = y$, $\gamma'(0) = v/\|v\|_x$, we have that $\text{Exp}_x(v) = y$ and $\text{Exp}_x^{-1}(y) = v$. Note, however, that $\text{Exp}_x(\cdot)$ might not be defined for $v \in T_x\mathcal{M}$. We denote by $d(x, y)$ the distance between $x$ and $y$. Its value is the same as $\|\text{Exp}_x^{-1}(y)\|_x$. Given a 2-dimensional subspace $V \subseteq T_x\mathcal{M}$, the sectional curvature at $x$ with respect to $V$ is defined as the Gauss curvature of the manifold $\text{Exp}_x(V)$ at $x$.

**Notation.** Let $\mathcal{M}$ be a manifold and let $\mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$. We denote by $h : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{B}$ a geodesic map \[42\], which is a diffeomorphism such that the image and the inverse image of a geodesic is a geodesic.
We define now the main properties that will be assumed on the function $F$ and vice versa. Any point in $\mathcal{B}$ will use a tilde. Given two points $x, y \in \mathcal{M}$ and a vector $v \in T_x \mathcal{M}$ in the tangent space of $x$, we use the formal notation $(v, y - x) \overset{\text{def}}{=} -(v, x - y) \overset{\text{def}}{=} (v, \text{Exp}^{-1}_x(y))$. Given a vector $v \in T_x \mathcal{M}$, we call $\tilde{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the vector of the same norm such that $\{\tilde{x} + \lambda \tilde{v} | \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \tilde{x} + \lambda \tilde{v} \in \mathcal{B} \} = \{h(\text{Exp}_x(\lambda y)) | \lambda \in I \subseteq \mathbb{R} \}$. For some interval $I$. Likewise, given $x$ and a vector $\tilde{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we define $v \in T_x \mathcal{M}$. Let $x^*$ be any minimizer of $F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R}$. We denote by $R \overset{\text{def}}{=} d(x_0, x^*)$ a bound on the distance between $x^*$ and the initial point $x_0$. Note that this implies that $x^* \in \text{Exp}_{x_0}(\mathcal{B}(0, R))$, for the closed ball $\mathcal{B}(0, R) \subseteq T_{x_0} \mathcal{M}$. Consequently, we will work with the manifold that is a subset of $d$-dimensional complete and simply connected manifold of constant sectional curvature $K$, namely a subset of the hyperbolic space or sphere $\mathbb{S}^d_0$, defined as $\text{Exp}_{x_0}(\mathcal{B}(0, R))$, with the inherited metric. Denote by $\mathcal{H}$ this manifold in the former case and $\mathcal{S}$ in the latter, and note that we are not making explicit the dependence on $d, R$ and $K$. We want to work with the standard choice of uniquely geodesic manifolds $\{1, 47, 68, 69\}$. Therefore, in the case that the manifold is $\mathcal{S}$, we restrict ourselves to $R < \pi/2\sqrt{K}$, so $\mathcal{S}$ is contained in an open hemisphere. The big $O$ notations $O(\cdot)$ and $O^*(\cdot)$ omit $\log(L/\varepsilon)$ and $\log(L/\mu)$ factors, respectively, and constant factors depending on $R$ and $K$.

We define now the main properties that will be assumed on the function $F$ to be minimized.

**Definition 1.1 (Geodesic Convexity and Smoothness).** Let $F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function defined on a Riemannian manifold $(\mathcal{M}, g)$. Given $L \geq \mu > 0$, we say that $F$ is $L$-smooth, and respectively $\mu$-strongly $g$-convex, if for any two points $x, y \in \mathcal{M}$, $F$ satisfies

$$F(y) \leq F(x) + \langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{L}{2} d(x, y)^2,$$

resp.

$$F(y) \geq F(x) + \langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} d(x, y)^2.$$  

We say $F$ is $g$-convex if the second inequality above, i.e. $\mu$-strong $g$-convexity, is satisfied with $\mu = 0$. Note that we have used the formal notation above for the subtraction of points in the inner product.

**Comparison with Related Work.** There are a number of works that study the problem of first-order acceleration in Riemannian manifolds of bounded sectional curvature. The first study is $[3]$. In this work, the authors develop an accelerated method with the same rates as AGD for both $g$-convex and strongly $g$-convex functions, provided that at each step a given nonlinear equation can be solved. No algorithm for solving this equation has been found and, in principle, it could be intractable or infeasible. In $[2]$ a continuous method analogous to the continuous approach to accelerated methods is presented, but it is not known if there exists an accelerated discretization of it. In $[3]$, an algorithm presented is claimed to enjoy an accelerated rate of convergence, but fails to provide convergence when the function value gets below a potentially large constant that depends on the manifold and smoothness constant. In $[56]$ an accelerated algorithm is presented but relying on strong geometric inequalities that are not proved to be satisfied. Zhang and Sra $[69]$ obtain a local algorithm that optimizes $L$-smooth and $\mu$-strongly $g$-convex functions achieving the same rates as AGD in the Euclidean space, up to constants. That is, the initial point needs to start close to the optimum, $O((\mu/L)\bar{\varepsilon})$, close, to be precise. Their approach consists of adapting Nesterov’s estimate sequence technique by keeping a quadratic on $T_{x_0} \mathcal{M}$ that induces on $\mathcal{M}$ a regularized lower bound on $F(x^*)$ via $\text{Exp}_{x_0}(\cdot)$. They aggregate the information yielded by the gradient to it, and use a geometric lemma to find a quadratic in $T_{x_{t+1}} \mathcal{M}$ whose induced function lower bounds the other one. Ahn and Sra $[1]$ generalize the previous algorithm and, by using similar ideas for the lower bound, they adapt it to work globally, obtaining strictly better rates than RGD, recovering the local acceleration of the previous paper, but not achieving global rates comparable to the ones of AGD. In fact, they prove that their algorithm eventually decreases the function value at a rate close to AGD but this can take as many iterations as the ones needed by RGD to reach the neighborhood of the previous local algorithm. In our work, we take a step back and focus on the constant sectional curvature case to provide a global algorithm that achieves the same rates as AGD, up to constants and log factors. It is common to characterize the properties of spaces of bounded sectional curvature by using the ones of the spaces of constant extremal sectional curvature $[30, 68, 69]$, which makes the study of the constant sectional curvature case critical to the development of full accelerated algorithms in the general bounded sectional curvature case. Additionally, our work studies $g$-convexity besides strong $g$-convexity.

Another related work is the approximate duality gap technique $[24]$, which presents a unified view of the analysis of first-order methods for the optimization of convex functions defined in the Euclidean
We study the minimization problem \( \min_{x \in \mathcal{M}} F(x) \) with a gradient oracle, for a smooth function \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) that is g-convex or strongly g-convex. In this section, \( \mathcal{M} \) refers to a manifold that can be \( \mathcal{H} \) or \( \mathcal{S} \), i.e. the subset of the hyperbolic space or sphere \( \text{Exp}_{x_0}(B(0, R)) \), for an initial point \( x_0 \). For simplicity, we do not use subdifferentials so we assume \( F : \tilde{\mathcal{M}} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a differentiable function that is defined over the manifold of constant sectional curvature \( \mathcal{M}' \triangleq \text{Exp}_{x_0}(B(0, R')) \), for an \( R' > R \), and we avoid writing \( F : \mathcal{M}' \to \mathbb{R} \). We defer the proofs of the lemmas and theorems in this and following sections to the appendix. We assume without loss of generality that the sectional curvature of \( \mathcal{M} \) is \( K \in \{1, -1\} \), since for any other value of \( K \) and any function \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) defined on such a manifold, we can reparametrize \( F \) by a rescaling, so it is defined over a manifold of constant sectional curvature \( K \in \{1, -1\} \). The parameters \( L, \mu \) and \( R \) are rescaled accordingly as a function of \( K \), cf. [Remark C.1]. We denote the special cosine by \( C_K(\cdot) \), which is \( \cos(\cdot) \) if \( K = 1 \) and \( \cosh(\cdot) \) if \( K = -1 \). We define \( \mathcal{X} = h(\mathcal{M}) \subseteq \mathcal{B} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \). We use classical geodesic maps for the manifolds that we consider: the Gnomonic projection for \( \mathcal{S} \) and the Beltrami-Klein projection for \( \mathcal{H} \) [29]. They map an open hemisphere and the hyperbolic space of curvature \( K \in \{1, -1\} \) to \( \mathcal{B} = \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( \mathcal{B} = B(0, 1) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \), respectively. We will derive our results from the following characterization [29]. Let \( \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \in \mathcal{B} \) be two points. Recall that we denote \( x = h^{-1}(\tilde{x}), y = h^{-1}(\tilde{y}) \in \mathcal{M} \). Then we have that \( d(x, y) \), the distance between \( x \) and \( y \) with the metric of \( \mathcal{M} \), satisfies

\[
C_K(d(x, y)) = \frac{1 + K(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})}{\sqrt{1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2} \sqrt{1 + K\|\tilde{y}\|^2}}.
\]

Observe that the expression is symmetric with respect to rotations. In particular, the symmetry implies \( \mathcal{X} \) is a closed ball of radius \( \tilde{R} \), with \( C_K(R) = (1 + KR^2)^{-1/2} \).

Consider a point \( x \in \mathcal{M} \) and the lower bound provided by the g-convexity assumption when computing \( \nabla F(x) \). Dropping the \( \mu \) term in case of strong g-convexity, this bound is affine over \( T_x \mathcal{M} \). We would like our algorithm to aggregate effectively the lower bounds it computes during the course of the optimization. The deformations of the geometry make it a difficult task, despite the fact that we have a simple description of each individual lower bound. We deal with this problem in the following way: our approach is to obtain a lower bound that is looser by a constant depending on \( R \), and that is affine over \( \mathcal{B} \). In this way the aggregation becomes easier. Then, we are able to combine this lower bound with decreasing upper bounds in the fashion some other accelerated methods work in the Euclidean space [23, 24, 49]. Alternatively, we can see the approach in this work as the constrained non-convex optimization problem of minimizing the function \( f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}, \tilde{x} \mapsto F(h^{-1}(\tilde{x})) \):

\[
\text{minimize} \quad f(\tilde{x}), \quad \text{for } \tilde{x} \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

In the rest of the section, we will focus on the g-convex case. For simplicity, instead of solving the strongly g-convex case directly in an analogous way by finding a lower bound that is quadratic over \( \mathcal{B} \), we rely on the reductions of [Section 3] to obtain the accelerated algorithm in this case.

The following two lemmas show that finding the aforementioned affine lower bound is possible, and is defined as a function of \( \nabla f(\tilde{x}) \). We first gauge the deformations caused by the geodesic map \( h \). Distances are deformed, the map \( h \) is not conformal and, in spite of it being a geodesic map, the image of the geodesic \( \text{Exp}_x(\lambda \nabla f(\tilde{x})) \) is not mapped into the image of the geodesic \( \tilde{x} + \lambda \nabla f(\tilde{x}) \), i.e. the direction of the gradient changes. We are able to find the affine lower bound after bounding these deformations.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let \( x, y \in \mathcal{M} \) be two different points, and in part b) different from \( x_0 \). Let \( \alpha \) be the angle \( \angle \tilde{x}_0 \tilde{x} \tilde{y} \), formed by the vectors \( \tilde{x}_0 - \tilde{x} \) and \( \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \). Let \( \alpha \) be the corresponding angle between the vectors \( \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0) \) and \( \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(y) \). Assume without loss of generality that \( \tilde{x} \in \text{span}\{e_1\} \) and
\[ \nabla f(\tilde{x}) \in \text{span}\{\tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_2\} \] for the canonical orthonormal basis \( \{\tilde{e}_i\}^{d}_{i=1} \). Let \( e_i \in \mathcal{T}_x\mathcal{M} \) be the unit vector such that \( h \) maps the image of the geodesic \( \text{Exp}_x(\lambda e_i) \) to the image of the geodesic \( \tilde{x} + \lambda e_i \), for \( i = 1, \ldots, d \), and \( \lambda, \tilde{\lambda} \geq 0 \). Then, the following holds.

a) Distance deformation:

\[
KC^2(R) \leq K \frac{d(x, y)}{\|x - y\|} \leq K.
\]

b) Angle deformation:

\[
\sin(\alpha) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2}{1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})}}, \quad \cos(\alpha) = \cos(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})}}.
\]

c) Gradient deformation:

\[
\nabla F(x) = (1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2)\nabla f(\tilde{x})e_1 + \sqrt{1 + K\|\tilde{x}\|^2}\nabla f(\tilde{x})e_2 \quad \text{and} \quad e_i \perp e_j \quad \text{for} \quad i \neq j.
\]

And if \( v \in \mathcal{T}_x\mathcal{M} \) is a vector normal to \( \nabla F(x) \), then \( \tilde{v} \) is normal to \( \nabla f(x) \).

The following uses the deformations described in the previous lemma to obtain the affine lower bound on the function, given a gradient at a point \( \tilde{x} \). Note that Lemma 2.1.c implies that we have \( \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle = 0 \) if and only if \( \langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle = 0 \). In the proof we lower bound, generally, affine functions defined on \( \mathcal{T}_x\mathcal{M} \) by affine functions in the Euclidean space \( B \). This generality allows to obtain a result with constants that only depend on \( R \).

**Lemma 2.2.** Let \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) be a differentiable function and let \( f = F \circ h^{-1} \). Then, there are constants \( \gamma_n, \gamma_p \in (0, 1] \) depending on \( R \) such that for all \( x, y \in \mathcal{M} \) satisfying \( \langle \nabla f(x), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle \neq 0 \) we have:

\[
\gamma_p \leq \frac{\langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle}{\langle \nabla f(x), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle} \leq \frac{1}{\gamma_n}.
\]

In particular, if \( F \) is g-convex we have:

\[
f(\tilde{x}) + \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle \leq f(\tilde{y}) \quad \text{if} \quad \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle \leq 0,
\]

\[
f(\tilde{x}) + \gamma_p \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle \leq f(\tilde{y}) \quad \text{if} \quad \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{y} - \tilde{x} \rangle \geq 0.
\]

The two inequalities in (3) show the affine lower bound. Only the first one is needed to bound \( f(\tilde{x}^*) = F(x^*) \). The first inequality applied to \( \tilde{y} = \tilde{x}^* \) defines a model known in the literature as quasaro-convexity or weak-quasi-convexity [31, 33, 50], for which accelerated algorithms exist in the unconstrained case, provided smoothness is also satisfied. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no known algorithm for solving the constrained case in an accelerated way. The condition in (3) is, trivially, a relaxation of convexity that is stronger than quasaro-convexity. We will make use of (3) in order to obtain acceleration in the constrained setting. This is of independent interest. Recall that we need the constraint to guarantee bounded deformation due to the geometry. We also require smoothness of \( f \). The following lemma shows that \( f \) is as smooth as \( F \) up to a constant depending on \( R \).

**Lemma 2.3.** Let \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) be an \( L \)-smooth function and \( f = F \circ h^{-1} \). Assume there is a point \( x^* \in \mathcal{M} \) such that \( \nabla F(x^*) = 0 \). Then \( f \) is \( O(L) \)-smooth.

Using the approximate duality gap technique [24] we obtain accelerated continuous dynamics, for the optimization of the function \( f \). Then we adapt AXGD to obtain an accelerated discretization. AXGD [23] is a method that is based on implicit Euler discretization of continuous accelerated dynamics and is fundamentally different from AGD and techniques as Linear Coupling [9] or Nesterov’s estimate sequence [49]. The latter techniques use a balancing gradient step at each iteration and our use of a looser lower bound complicates guaranteeing keeping the gradient step within the constraints. We state the accelerated theorem and provide a sketch of the proof in Section 2.1.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let \( Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \) be a convex set of diameter \( 2R \). Let \( f : Q \to \mathbb{R} \) be an \( L \)-smooth function satisfying (3) with constants \( \gamma_n, \gamma_p \in (0, 1] \). Assume there is a point \( x^* \in Q \) such that \( \nabla f(\tilde{x}^*) = 0 \). Then, we can obtain an \( \varepsilon \)-minimizer of \( f \) using \( O(\sqrt{L/((\gamma_n^2 \gamma_p^2) \varepsilon)}) \) queries to the gradient oracle of \( f \).
Finally, we have Riemannian acceleration as a direct consequence of Theorem 2.4, Lemma 2.2, and Lemma 2.3.

**Theorem 2.5 (g-Convex Acceleration).** Let $F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R}$ be an $L$-smooth and g-convex function and assume there is a point $x^* \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfying $\nabla F(x^*) = 0$. Algorithm 1 computes a point $x_t \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfying $F(x_t) - F(x^*) \leq \epsilon$ using $O(\sqrt{L/\epsilon})$ queries to the gradient oracle.

We observe that if there is a geodesic map mapping a manifold into a convex subset of the Euclidean space then the manifold must necessarily have constant sectional curvature, cf. Beltrami’s Theorem [13, 42]. This precludes a straightforward generalization from our method to the case of non-constant bounded sectional curvature.

**Algorithm 1 Accelerated g-Convex Minimization**

**Input:** Smooth and g-convex function $F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R}$, for $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{H}$ or $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{S}$.

- Initial point $x_0$; Constants $L, \gamma_p, \gamma_n$. Geodesic map $h$ satisfying (1) and $h(x_0) = 0$.
- Bound on the distance to a minimum $R \geq d(x_0, x^*)$. Accuracy $\epsilon$ and number of iterations $t$.

1: $X \equiv h(\operatorname{Exp}_{x_0}(B(0, R))) \subseteq \mathcal{B}$; $f \equiv F \circ h^{-1}$ and $\psi(\bar{x}) \equiv \frac{1}{2}\|\bar{x}\|^2$.
2: $\tilde{z}_0 \leftarrow \nabla \psi(\bar{x}_0)$; $A_0 \leftarrow 0$.
3: for $i$ from 0 to $t - 1$ do
4: $a_{i+1} \leftarrow (i + 1)\gamma_p^2/2\tilde{L}$.
5: $A_{i+1} \leftarrow A_i + a_{i+1}$.
6: $\tilde{\gamma} \leftarrow - \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \frac{\bar{x}}{\alpha_i} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_i)$.
7: $\zeta_i \leftarrow \tilde{\gamma}_i \nabla f(\bar{x}_i)$.
8: $\tilde{z}_{i+1} \leftarrow \tilde{z}_i - (a_{i+1}/\gamma_n) \nabla f(\bar{x}_{i+1})$.
9: end for
10: return $x_t$.

2.1 Sketch of the proof of Theorem 2.4

Inspired by the approximate duality gap technique [24], let $\alpha_t$ be an increasing function of time $t$, and denote $A_t = \int_0^t \alpha_d \, d\tau = \int_0^t \alpha_t \, d\tau$. We define a continuous method that keeps a solution $\bar{x}_t$, along with a differentiable upper bound $U_t$ on $f(x_t)$ and a lower bound $L_t$ on $f(\bar{x}_t)$. In our case $f$ is differentiable so we can just take $U_t = f(x_t)$. The lower bound comes from

$$f(\bar{x}_t) \geq \int_0^t f(\bar{x}_t) \, d\tau = \frac{\int_0^t \frac{1}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\bar{x}_t), \bar{x}^* - \bar{x}_t) \, d\tau}{A_t}.$$

after applying some desirable modifications, like regularization with a 1-strongly convex function $\psi$ and removing the unknown $\bar{x}^*$ by taking a minimum over $X$. Note (4) comes from averaging (3) for $\bar{y} = \bar{x}^*$. Then, if we define the gap $G_t = U_t - L_t$ and design a method that forces $\alpha_t G_t$ to be non-increasing, we can deduce $f(x_t) - f(x^*) \leq G_t \leq \alpha_t G_t / \alpha_t$. By forcing $\frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t G_t) = 0$, we naturally obtain the following continuous dynamics, where $z_t$ is a mirror point and $\psi^*$ is the Fenchel dual of $\psi$, cf. Definition 2.2.

$$\dot{z}_t = - \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \alpha_t \nabla f(\bar{x}_t); \quad \dot{\tilde{x}_t} = \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \alpha_t \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_t) - \tilde{x}_t; \quad \dot{\bar{x}_t} = \nabla \psi(\bar{x}_t), \bar{x}_t \in X.$$

We note that except for the constant $\gamma_n$, these dynamics match the accelerated dynamics used in the optimization of convex functions [24, 23, 43]. The AXGD algorithm [23], designed for the accelerated optimization of convex functions, discretizes the latter dynamics following an approximate implementation of implicit Euler discretization. This has the advantage of not needing a gradient step per iteration to compensate for some positive discretization error. Note that in our case we must use (3) instead of convexity for a discretization. We are able to obtain the following discretization coming from an approximate implicit Euler discretization:

$$\begin{align*}
\dot{X}_t &= \frac{\gamma_t \alpha_t}{\gamma_n \alpha_t + \alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n} \tilde{X}_t + \frac{\alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n}{\gamma_n \alpha_t + \alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{Z}_t); \\
\dot{\tilde{Z}_t} &= \frac{\gamma_t \alpha_t}{\gamma_n \alpha_t + \alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{Z}_t); \\
\dot{\bar{X}_t} &= \frac{\alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n}{\gamma_n \alpha_t + \alpha_{i+1} / \gamma_n} \nabla f(\bar{X}_t).
\end{align*}$$
where \( \gamma_t \in [\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n] \) is a parameter, \( \hat{x}_0 \in \mathcal{X} \) is an arbitrary point, \( \hat{z}_0 = \nabla \psi(\hat{x}_0) \) and now \( \alpha_t \) is a discrete measure and \( \alpha_t \) is a weighted sum of Dirac delta functions \( \alpha_t = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i \delta(t - (10 + i - 1)) \).

Compare (6) with the discretization in AXGD [23] that is equal to our discretization but with no \( \gamma_n \) or \( \gamma_t \). Or equivalently with \( \gamma_t = 1/\gamma_n \) and with \( \gamma_p \) for the mirror descent updates of \( \gamma_t \) and \( \hat{z}_{i+1} \). However, not having convexity, in order to have per-iteration discretization error less than \( \varepsilon / \Delta_T \), we require \( \gamma_t \) to be such that \( \hat{x}_{i+1} \) satisfies

\[
 f(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - f(\hat{x}_i) \leq \gamma_t (\nabla f(\hat{x}_{i+1}), \hat{x}_{i+1} - \hat{x}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon},
\]

where \( \hat{\varepsilon} \) is chosen so that the accumulated discretization error is \( < \varepsilon / 2 \), after having performed the steps necessary to obtain an \( \varepsilon / 2 \) minimizer. We would like to use (3) to find such a \( \gamma_t \) but we need to take into account that we only know \( \hat{x}_{i+1} \) a posteriori. Indeed, using (3) we conclude that setting \( \gamma_t \) to \( 1/\gamma_n \) or \( \gamma_p \) then we either satisfy (2) or there is a point \( \hat{\gamma}_t \in (\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n) \) for which \( \langle \nabla f(\hat{x}_{i+1}), \hat{x}_{i+1} - \hat{x}_i \rangle = 0 \), which satisfies the equation for \( \hat{\gamma} = 0 \). Then, using smoothness of \( f \), existence of \( \dot{x}^* \) (that satisfies \( \nabla f(x^*) = 0 \)), and boundedness of \( \mathcal{X} \) we can guarantee that a binary search finds a point satisfying (2) in \( O(\log(Li/\gamma_n \varepsilon)) \) iterations. Each iteration of the binary search requires to run (6), that is, one step of the discretization. Computing the final discretization error, we obtain acceleration after choosing appropriate learning rates \( \alpha_t \). Algorithm 1 contains the pseudocode of this algorithm along with the reduction of the problem from minimizing \( F \) to minimizing \( f \). We chose \( \psi(\hat{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \| \hat{x} \|^2 \) as our strongly convex regularizer.

### 3 Reductions

The construction of reductions proves to be very useful in order to facilitate the design of algorithms in different settings. Moreover, reductions are a helpful tool to infer new lower bounds without extra ad hoc analysis. We present two reductions. We will see in Corollary 3.2 and Example 3.4 that one can obtain full accelerated methods to minimize smooth and strongly g-convex functions from our accelerated methods for smooth and g-convex functions and vice versa. These are generalizations of some reductions designed to work in the Euclidean space [7,9]. The reduction to strongly g-convex functions takes into account the effect of the deformation of the space on the strong convexity of the function \( F_p(x) = d(x, y)^2/2, \) for \( x, y \in \mathcal{M} \). The reduction to g-convexity requires the rate of the algorithm that applies to g-convex functions to be proportional to the distance between the initial point and the optimum \( d(x_0, x^*) \). The proofs of the statements in this section can be found in the appendix. We will use \( \text{Time}_{\mu}() \) and \( \text{Time}(\cdot) \) to denote the time algorithms \( A_{\mu} \) and \( A \) below require, respectively, to perform the tasks we define below.

**Theorem 3.1.** Let \( \mathcal{M} \) be a Riemannian manifold, let \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) be an L-smooth and \( \mu \)-strongly g-convex function, and let \( x^* \) be its minimizer. Let \( x_0 \) be a starting point such that \( d(x_0, x^*) \leq R \). Suppose we have an algorithm \( A_{\mu} \) to minimize \( F \), such that in time \( T = \text{Time}_{\mu}(L, \mu, R) \) it produces a point \( \hat{x}_T \) satisfying \( F(\hat{x}_T) - F(x^*) \leq \mu \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2 / 4. \) Then we can compute an \( \varepsilon \)-minimizer of \( F \) in time \( O(\text{Time}_{\mu}(L, \mu, R) \log(R^2/\mu/\varepsilon)) \).

**Theorem 3.1** implies that if we forget about the strong g-convexity of a function and we treat it as it is just g-convex we can run in stages an algorithm designed for optimizing g-convex functions. The fact that the function is strongly g-convex is only used between stages, as the following corollary shows by making use of Algorithm 1.

**Corollary 3.2.** We can compute an \( \varepsilon \)-minimizer of an L-smooth and \( \mu \)-strongly g-convex function \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) in \( O^*(\sqrt{L/\mu} \log(\mu/\varepsilon)) \) queries to the gradient oracle, where \( \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{S} \) or \( \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{H} \).

We note that in the strongly convex case, by decreasing the function value by a factor we can guarantee, we decrease the distance to \( x^* \) by another factor, so we can periodically recenter the geodesic map to reduce the constants produced by the deformations of the geometry, see the proof of Corollary 3.2. Finally, we show the reverse reduction.

**Theorem 3.3.** Let \( \mathcal{M} \) be a Riemannian manifold of bounded sectional curvature, let \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) be an L-smooth and g-convex function, and assume there is a point \( x^* \in \mathcal{M} \) such that \( \nabla F(x^*) = 0 \). Let \( x_0 \) be a starting point such that \( d(x_0, x^*) \leq R \) and let \( \Delta \) satisfy \( F(x_0) - F(x^*) \leq \Delta. \) Assume we have an algorithm \( A \) that given an L-smooth and \( \mu \)-strongly g-convex function \( \hat{F} : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \), with minimizer in \( \text{Exp}_{x_0}(\hat{B}(0, R)) \), and any initial point \( \hat{x}_0 \in \mathcal{M} \) produces a point \( \hat{x} \in \text{Exp}_{x_0}(\hat{B}(0, R)) \) in time \( \hat{T} = \text{Time}(L, \mu, \mathcal{M}, R) \) satisfying \( \hat{F}(\hat{x}) - \min_{x \in \mathcal{M}} F(x) \leq (\hat{F}(\hat{x}_0) - \min_{x \in \mathcal{M}} F(x))/4. \)
Let $T = \lceil \log_2(\Delta/\epsilon)/2 \rceil + 1$. Then, we can compute an $\epsilon$-minimizer in time $\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \text{Time}(L + 2^{-t} \Delta K_\mu_R/R^2, 2^{-t} \Delta K_\mu_S/R^2, M, R)$, where $K_\mu_R$ and $K_\mu_S$ are constants that depend on $R$ and the bounds on the sectional curvature of $M$.

**Example 3.4.** Applying reduction [Theorem 3.3] to the algorithm in [Corollary 3.2] we can optimize $L$-smooth and $g$-convex functions defined on $\mathcal{H}$ or $\mathcal{S}$ with a gradient oracle complexity of $O(L/\sqrt{\epsilon})$.

Note that this reduction cannot be applied to the locally accelerated algorithm in [69], that we discussed in the related work section. The reduction runs in stages by adding decreasing $\mu_i$-strongly convex regularizers until we reach $\mu_* = O(\epsilon)$. The local assumption required by the algorithm in [69] on the closeness to the minimum cannot be guaranteed. In [1], the authors give an unconstrained global algorithm whose rates are strictly better than RGD. The reduction could be applied to a constrained version of this algorithm to obtain a method for smooth and $g$-convex functions defined on manifolds of bounded sectional curvature and whose rates are strictly better than RGD.

## 4 Conclusion

In this work we proposed a first-order method with the same rates as AGD, for the optimization of smooth and $g$-convex or strongly $g$-convex functions defined on a manifold other than the Euclidean space, up to constants and log factors. We focused on the hyperbolic and spherical spaces, that have constant sectional curvature. The study of geometric properties for the constant sectional curvature case can be usually employed to conclude that a space of bounded sectional curvature satisfies a property that is in between the ones for the cases of constant extremal sectional curvature. Several previous algorithms have been developed for the optimization in Riemannian manifolds of bounded sectional curvature by utilizing this philosophy, for instance [1, 26, 62, 68, 69]. In future work, we will attempt to use the techniques and insights developed in this work to give an algorithm with the same rates as AGD for manifolds of bounded sectional curvature.

The key technique of our algorithm is the effective lower bound aggregation. Indeed, lower bound aggregation is the main hurdle to obtain accelerated first-order methods defined on Riemannian manifolds. Whereas the process of obtaining effective decreasing upper bounds on the function works similarly as in the Euclidean space—the same approach of locally minimizing the upper bound given by the smoothness assumption is used—obtaining adequate lower bounds proves to be a difficult task. We usually want a simple lower bound such that it, or a regularized version of it, can be easily optimized globally. We also want that the lower bound combines the knowledge that the $g$-convexity or $g$-strong convexity provides for all the queried points, commonly an average. These Riemannian convexity assumptions provide simple lower bounds, namely linear or quadratic, but each with respect to each of the tangent spaces of the queried points only. The deformations of the space complicate the aggregation of the lower bounds. Our work deals with this problem by finding appropriate lower bounds via the use of a geodesic map and takes into account the deformations incurred to derive a fully accelerated algorithm. We also needed to deal with other technical problems. Firstly, we needed a lower bound on the whole function and not only on $F(x^*)$, for which we had to construct two different affine lower bounds, obtaining a relaxation of convexity. Secondly, we had to use an implicit discretization of an accelerated continuous dynamics, since at least the vanilla application of usual approaches like Linear Coupling [9] or Nesterov’s estimate sequence [49], that can be seen as a forward Euler discretization of the accelerated dynamics combined with a balancing gradient step [24], did not work in our constrained case. We interpret that the difficulty arises from trying to keep the gradient step inside the constraints while being able to compensate for a lower bound that is looser by a constant factor.

We also provided two reductions, which are generally useful for designing new algorithms and proving new lower bounds. Improving the reduction to smooth and $g$-strongly convex functions with respect to the curvature constants is another interesting direction for future work.

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We divide the appendix in three sections. Appendix A contains the proofs related to the accelerated algorithm, i.e., the proofs of Theorems 2.4 and 2.5. In Appendix B we prove the results related to the reductions in Section 3. Finally, in Appendix C we prove the geometric lemmas that take into account the geodesic map \( h \) to obtain relationships between \( F \) and \( f \), namely Lemmas 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3.

### A Acceleration. Proofs of Theorem 2.4 and Theorem 2.5

[24] developed the approximate duality gap technique which is a technique that provides a structure to design and prove first order methods and their guarantees for the optimization of convex problems. We take inspiration from this idea to apply them to the non-convex problem we have at hand. Theorem 2.4 as it was sketched in Section 2.1. We start with two basic definitions.

**Definition A.1.** Given two points \( \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \), we define the Bregman divergence with respect to \( \psi(\cdot) \) as

\[
D_\psi(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \psi(\tilde{x}) - \psi(\tilde{y}) - \langle \nabla \psi(\tilde{y}), \tilde{x} - \tilde{y} \rangle.
\]

**Definition A.2.** Given a closed convex set \( Q \) and a function \( \psi : Q \to \mathbb{R} \), we define the convex conjugate of \( \psi \), also known as its Fenchel dual, as the function

\[
\psi^*(z) = \max_{\tilde{x} \in Q} \{ \langle z, \tilde{x} \rangle - \psi(\tilde{x}) \}.
\]

For simplicity, we will use \( \psi(\cdot) = \frac{1}{2}\|\cdot\|^2 \) in Algorithm 1 but any strongly convex map works. The gradient of the Fenchel dual of \( \psi(\cdot) \) is \( \nabla \psi^*(z) = \arg \min_{\tilde{z} \in X} \{ \| \tilde{z} - z \| \} \), that is, the Euclidean projection \( P_Q(\tilde{z}) \) of the point \( \tilde{z} \) onto \( Q \). Note that when we apply Theorem 2.4 to Theorem 2.5 our constraint \( X \) will be a ball centered at 0 of radius \( \tilde{R} \), so the projection of a point \( \tilde{z} \) outside of \( X \) will be the vector normalization \( \tilde{R} \tilde{z}/\|\tilde{z}\| \). Any continuously differentiable strongly convex \( \psi \) would work, provided that \( \psi^*(z) \) is easily computable, preferably in closed form. Note that by the Fenchel-Moreau theorem we have for any such map that \( \psi^{**} = \psi \).

We recall we assume that \( f \) satisfies

\[
\begin{align*}
  f(x) + \frac{1}{\gamma_n}(\nabla f(x), y - x) & \leq f(y) \quad \text{if } (\nabla f(x), y - x) \leq 0, \\
  f(x) + \gamma_p(\nabla f(x), y - x) & \leq f(y) \quad \text{if } (\nabla f(x), y - x) \geq 0.
\end{align*}
\]

(8)

Let \( \alpha_t \) be an increasing function of time \( t \). We want to work with continuous and discrete approaches in a unified way so we use Lebesgue-Stieltjes integration. Thus, when \( \alpha_t \) is a discrete measure, we have that \( \alpha_t = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_i \delta((t - (t_0 + i - 1))) \) is a weighted sum of Dirac delta functions. We define \( A_t = \int_{t_0}^{t} d\alpha_t = \int_{t_0}^{t} \tilde{\alpha}_t \, dt \). In discrete time, it is \( A_t = \sum_{i=t_0+1}^{t} a_i \). In the continuous case note that we have \( \alpha_t - A_t = a_{t_0} \).

We start defining a continuous method that we discretize with an approximate implementation of the implicit Euler method. Let \( \tilde{x}_t \) be the solution obtained by the algorithm at time \( t \). We define the duality gap \( G_t \overset{\text{def}}{=} U_t - L_t \) as the difference between a differentiable upper bound \( U_t \) on the function at the current point and a lower bound on \( f(x^*) \). Since in our case \( f \) is differentiable we use \( U_t = f(x_t) \). The idea is to enforce the invariant \( \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t G_t) = 0 \), so we have at any time \( f(\tilde{x}_t) - f(x^*) \leq G_t = G_0 \alpha_{t_0}/\alpha_t \).

Note that for a global minimum \( x^* \) of \( f \) and any other point \( \tilde{x} \in Q \), we have \( (\nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{x}^* - \tilde{x}) \leq 0 \). Otherwise, we would obtain a contradiction since by (8) we would have

\[
f(x^*) < f(\tilde{x}) + \gamma_p(\nabla f(x), \tilde{x}^* - \tilde{x}) \leq f(\tilde{x}^*).
\]

Therefore, in order to define an appropriate lower bound, we will make use of the inequality \( f(\tilde{x}^*) \geq f(\tilde{x}) + \frac{1}{\gamma_n}(\nabla f(x), \tilde{x}^* - \tilde{x}) \), for any \( \tilde{x} \in Q \), which holds true by (8), for \( \tilde{y} = \tilde{x}^* \). Combining this inequality for all the points visited by the continuous method we have

\[
f(x^*) \geq \int_{t_0}^{t} f(\tilde{x}_t) d\alpha_t/A_t + \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_n}(\nabla f(x), \tilde{x}^* - \tilde{x}_t) d\alpha_t.
\]
We cannot compute this lower bound, since the right hand side depends on the unknown point \( \hat{x}^* \).
We could compute a looser lower bound by taking the minimum over \( \hat{u} \in Q \) of this expression, substituting \( \hat{x}^* \) by \( \hat{u} \). However, this would make the lower bound non-differentiable and we could have problems at \( t_0 \). In order to solve the first problem, we first add a regularizer and then take the minimum over \( \hat{u} \in Q \).

\[
    f(\hat{x}^*) + \frac{D_\psi(\hat{x}^*, \hat{x}_{t_0})}{A_t} \geq \frac{\int_{t_0}^{t} f(\hat{x}_r) d\alpha_r}{A_t} + \min_{\hat{u} \in Q} \left\{ \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_r), \hat{u} - \hat{x}_r \right\} + D_\psi(\hat{u}, \hat{x}_{t_0}) \right\} \]

In order to solve the second problem, we mix this lower bound with the optimal lower bound \( f(\hat{x}^*) \) with weight \( \alpha_t - A_t \) (this is only necessary in continuous time, in discrete time this term is 0).
Not knowing \( f(\hat{x}^*) \) or \( D_\psi(\hat{x}^*, \hat{x}_{t_0}) \) will not be problematic. Indeed, we only need to guarantee \( \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t G_t) = 0 \), so after taking the derivative these terms will vanish. After rescaling the normalization factor, we finally obtain the lower bound

\[
    f(\hat{x}^*) \geq L_t \equiv \frac{\int_{t_0}^{t} f(\hat{x}_r) d\alpha_r}{\alpha_t} + \min_{\hat{u} \in Q} \left\{ \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_r), \hat{u} - \hat{x}_r \right\} + D_\psi(\hat{u}, \hat{x}_{t_0}) \right\} \]

Let \( \hat{z}_t = \nabla \psi(\hat{x}_{t_0}) - \frac{\int_{t_0}^{t}}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_r) d\alpha_r \). Then, by [Fact A.7] we can compute the optimum \( \hat{u} \) above as

\[
    \nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_t) = \arg \min_{\hat{u} \in Q} \left\{ \int_{t_0}^{t} \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_r), \hat{u} - \hat{x}_r \right\} + D_\psi(\hat{u}, \hat{x}_{t_0}) \right\}. \]

Recalling \( U_t = f(\hat{x}_t) \) and using (9) and Danskin’s theorem in order to differentiate inside the min we obtain:

\[
    \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t G_t) = \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t f(\hat{x}_t)) - \alpha_t f(\hat{x}_t) - \alpha_t \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_t), \nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_t) - \hat{x}_t
\]

\[
    = \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\hat{x}_t), \gamma_n \alpha_t \hat{x}_t - \alpha_t (\nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_t) - \hat{x}_t). \]

Thus, to satisfy the invariant \( \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha_t G_t) = 0 \), it is enough to set \( \gamma_n \alpha_t \hat{x}_t = \alpha_t (\nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_t) - \hat{x}_t) \), yielding the following continuous accelerated dynamics

\[
    \hat{z}_t = -\frac{1}{\gamma_n} \hat{z}_t \nabla f(\hat{x}_t),
\]

\[
    \hat{x}_t = \frac{1}{\gamma_n} \alpha_t \nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_t) - \hat{x}_t, \]

\[
    \hat{x}_{t_0} = \nabla \psi(\hat{x}_{t_0}), \hat{x}_{t_0} \in Q \text{ is an arbitrary initial point.} \]

Now we proceed to discretize the dynamics. Let \( E_{i+1} \equiv A_i G_{i+1} - A_i G_i \) be the discretization error. Then we have

\[
    G_k = \frac{A_k}{A_k} G_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} E_{i+1}. \]

Lemma A.3. If we have

\[
    f(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - f(\hat{x}_i) \leq \gamma_i (\nabla f(\hat{x}_{i+1}), \hat{x}_{i+1} - \hat{x}_i) + \hat{\epsilon}_i, \]

for some \( \gamma_i, \hat{\epsilon}_i \geq 0 \), then the discretization error satisfies

\[
    E_{i+1} \leq (\nabla f(\hat{x}_{i+1}), (A_i \gamma_i + \frac{\alpha_{i+1}}{\gamma_n}) \hat{x}_{i+1} - A_i \hat{x}_i - \frac{\alpha_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\hat{z}_{i+1})) - D_\psi(\hat{x}_i, \hat{x}_{i+1}) + A_i \hat{\epsilon}_i. \]
Proof. In a similar way to [23], we could compute the discretization error as the difference between the gap and the gap computed allowing continuous integration rules in the integrals that it contains. However, we will directly bound \( E_{i+1} \) as \( A_{i+1}G_{i+1} - A_i G_i \) instead. Using the definition of \( G_i, U_i, L_i \), we have

\[
A_{i+1}G_{i+1} - A_i G_i \\
\leq \langle A_{i+1}f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - A_i f(\tilde{x}_i) \rangle - A_{i+1}L_{i+1} + A_i L_i \\
\leq \langle A_{i+1}f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - A_i f(\tilde{x}_i) + a_{i+1}f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) \rangle \\
- \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} a_j f(\tilde{x}_j) - \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} \frac{a_j}{\gamma_n} \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_j), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}) - \tilde{x}_j \rangle - D_\psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}), \tilde{x}_0) \\
+ \sum_{j=1}^{i} a_j f(\tilde{x}_j) + \sum_{j=1}^{i} \frac{a_j}{\gamma_n} \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_j), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \tilde{x}_j \rangle + D_\psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i), \tilde{x}_0) \\
\leq A_i(\langle f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - f(\tilde{x}_i) \rangle - \frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}) - \tilde{x}_{i+1}) \\
+ \sum_{j=1}^{i} \frac{a_j}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_j), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) \\
- (\nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) + \psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)) - \psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) \\
\leq A_i(\langle f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - f(\tilde{x}_i) \rangle - \frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}) - \tilde{x}_{i+1}) - D_\psi(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1}) \\
\leq \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), (A_{i+1} - A_i) \tilde{x}_{i+1} - \tilde{z}_{i+1} \rangle - D_\psi(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1}) + D_\psi(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1} + A_i \tilde{x}_{i+1}).
\]

In (1) we write down the definitions of \( L_{i+1} \) and \( L_i \) and split the first summand so it is clear that in (2) we cancel all the \( a_j f(\tilde{x}_j) \). In (2) we also cancel some terms involved in the inner products, we write the definitions of the Bregman divergences and cancel some terms. We recall \( \tilde{z}_i = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0) - \sum_{j=1}^{i} \frac{a_j}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(x_j) \) so we use this fact for the second line of (2) and the first summand of the third line to obtain, along with the last two summands, the term \( D_\psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)) \). We use [Lemma A.8] to finally obtain (3). Inequality (4) uses (12). \( \square \)

We show now how to cancel out the discretization error by an approximate implementation of implicit Euler discretization of (11). Note that we need to take into account the assumptions (8) instead of the usual convexity assumption. According to the previous lemma, we can set \( \tilde{x}_{i+1} \) so that the right hand side of the inner product in the bound of \( E_{i+1} \) is 0. Assume for the moment, that the point \( \tilde{x}_{i+1} \) we are going to compute satisfies the assumption of the previous lemma for some \( \gamma_i \in [\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n] \). Thus, the implicit equation that defines the ideal method we would like to have is

\[
\tilde{x}_{i+1} = \frac{\dot{\gamma}_i A_i}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \tilde{x}_i + \frac{a_{i+1}/\gamma_n}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \frac{a_{i+1} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1})}{\gamma_n}.
\]

Note that \( \tilde{x}_{i+1} \) is a convex combination of the other two points so it stays in \( Q \). Indeed, \( x_0 \in Q \) and by (10) we have that \( \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_j) \in Q \) for all \( j \geq 0 \). However this method is implicit and possibly computationally expensive to implement. Nonetheless, two steps of a fixed point iteration procedure of this equation will be enough to have discretization error that is bounded by the term \( A_i \tilde{z}_i \): the last term of our bound. The error in the bound of \( E_{i+1} \) that the inner product incurs is compensated by the Bregman divergence term. In such a case, the equations of this method become

\begin{align*}
\tilde{x}_{i+1} & = \frac{\dot{\gamma}_i A_i}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \tilde{x}_i + \frac{a_{i+1}/\gamma_n}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) \\
\tilde{z}_{i+1} & = \tilde{z}_i - \frac{a_{i+1} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1})}{\gamma_n} \\
\tilde{x}_{i+1} & = \frac{\dot{\gamma}_i A_i}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \tilde{x}_i + \frac{a_{i+1}/\gamma_n}{A_i \dot{\gamma}_i + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) \\
\tilde{z}_{i+1} & = \tilde{z}_i - \frac{a_{i+1} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1})}{\gamma_n}.
\end{align*}

(13)
We prove now that this indeed leads to an accelerated algorithm. After this, we will show that we can perform a binary search at each iteration, to ensure that even if we do not know \( \tilde{x}_{i+1} \) a priori, we can compute a \( \tilde{\gamma}_i \in [\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n] \) satisfying assumption (12). This will only add a log factor to the overall complexity.

**Lemma A.4.** Consider the method given in (13), starting from an arbitrary point \( \tilde{x}_0 \in Q \) with \( \tilde{z}_0 = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0) \) and \( A_0 = 0 \). Assume we can compute \( \tilde{\gamma}_i \) such that \( \tilde{x}_{i+1} \) satisfies (12). Then, the error from Lemma A.3 is bounded by

\[
E_{i+1} \leq \frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_i), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1}) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_i) + A_i \tilde{e}_i.
\]

**Proof.** Using Lemma A.3 and the third line of (13) we have

\[
E_{i+1} - A_i \tilde{e}_i \leq \frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1})
\]

By the definition of \( \tilde{\gamma}_i \) we have \( (a_{i+1}/\gamma_n) \nabla f(\tilde{x}_i) = \tilde{z}_i - \tilde{z}_i \). Using this fact and the triangle inequlity of Bregman divergences [Lemma A.9] we obtain

\[
\frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_i), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) = (\tilde{z}_i - \tilde{z}_i, \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}))
\]

\[
= D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1}) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_i).
\]

The lemma follows after combining these two equations.

**Theorem A.5.** Let \( Q \) be a convex set of diameter \( D \). Let \( f : Q \to \mathbb{R} \) be an \( \hat{L} \)-smooth function satisfying (8). Assume there is a point \( \hat{x}^* \in Q \) such that \( \nabla f(\hat{x}^*) = 0 \). Let \( \tilde{x}_i, \tilde{z}_i, \tilde{x}_i, \tilde{z}_i \) be updated according to (13), for \( i \geq 0 \) starting from an arbitrary initial point \( \tilde{x}_0 \in Q \) with \( \tilde{z}_0 = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0) \) and \( A_0 = 0 \), assuming we can find \( \tilde{\gamma}_i \) satisfying (12). Let \( \psi : B \to \mathbb{R} \) be \( \sigma \)-strongly convex. If \( \tilde{L} a_{i+1}/\gamma_n \sigma \leq a_{i+1} + A_i \gamma_n \) \( \gamma_p \), then for all \( t \geq 1 \) we have

\[
f(\tilde{x}_i) - f(\hat{x}^*) \leq \frac{D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{x}_0, \hat{x}^*)}{A_t} + \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} \frac{A_i \tilde{e}_i}{A_t},
\]

In particular, if \( a_i = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\tilde{L}}{2} \cdot \gamma_n^2 \gamma_p \) \( \psi(\tilde{x}) \geq \frac{\tilde{L}}{2} \| \tilde{x} \|^2 \), \( \tilde{e}_i = \frac{A_i \tilde{e}_i}{2(t-1)} \), and \( t = \sqrt{2L\|\tilde{x}_0 - \hat{x}^*\|^2 / \gamma_n^2 \gamma_p} \) then

\[
f(\tilde{x}_i) - f(\hat{x}^*) \leq \frac{2L\|\tilde{x}_0 - \hat{x}^*\|^2}{\gamma_n^2 \gamma_p^2} \cdot \frac{\tilde{L}}{2} / (t+1) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon.
\]

**Proof.** We bound the right hand side of the discretization error given by Lemma A.4. Define \( a = \| \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1}) \| \) and \( b = \| \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) \| \). We have

\[
E_{i+1} - A_i \tilde{e}_i \leq \begin{align*}
&\frac{a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_i), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_{i+1})) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_{i+1}) - D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_i, \tilde{z}_i) + A_i \tilde{e}_i.
\end{align*}
\]
Here \(1\) follows from Lemma A.4. \(2\) uses the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality and smoothness, \(3\) uses Lemma A.10 and \(4\) uses the fact that by the definition of the method \(13\) we have \(\hat{x}_{i+1} = \chi_i = \frac{a_i + a_{i+1}}{\gamma_n} (\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)).\) Finally \(5\) uses \((-a^2 + b^2) \leq -2ab\), which comes from \((a - b)^2 \geq 0\). By the previous inequality, if we want \(E_{i+1} \leq A_i \hat{e}_i\), it is enough to guarantee the right hand side of the last expression is \(\leq 0\) which is implied by

\[
\frac{L}{\sigma \gamma_n} a_{i+1}^2 \leq a_{i+1} + A_i \gamma_n \gamma_p,
\]

since \(\gamma_p \leq \hat{e}_i\). By inspection, if we use the value in the statement of the theorem \(a_i = \frac{i}{2} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{L} \cdot \gamma_n^2 \gamma_p\) into the previous inequality and noting that \(A_i = \frac{i(i+1)^2}{4} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{L} \cdot \gamma_n^3 \gamma_p\) we have

\[
\frac{L}{\sigma \gamma_n} a_{i+1}^2 = \frac{(i+1)^2}{4} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{L} \cdot \gamma_n^3 \gamma_p \\
\leq \left( \frac{i+1}{2} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{\sigma}{L} \cdot \gamma_n^3 \gamma_p \\
\leq \frac{i+1}{2} \cdot \gamma_n^2 \gamma_p + \frac{i(i+1)}{4} \cdot \gamma_n^3 \gamma_p \\
= a_{i+1} + A_i \gamma_n \gamma_p
\]

which holds true. So this choice guarantees discretization error \(E_{i+1} \leq A_i \hat{e}_i\). By the definition of \(G_i\) and \(E_i\) we have

\[
f(\hat{x}_i) - f(\hat{x}^\ast) \leq \frac{A_1 G_1}{G_i} + \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{A_{i-1} \hat{e}_i}{A_t}
\]

So it only remains to bound the initial gap \(G_1\). In order to do this, we note that the initial conditions and the method imply the following computation of the first points, from \(\tilde{x}_0 \in Q\), which is an arbitrary initial point:

\[
\zeta_0 = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0) \\
\chi_0 = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0) + \frac{a_i}{\gamma_n} \nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) = \nabla \psi^*(\nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0)) = \tilde{x}_0 \\
\tilde{z}_i = \tilde{x}_0 - \frac{a_i}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{x}_0 - \frac{a_i}{\gamma_n} \nabla f(\tilde{x}_0) \\
\tilde{x}_1 = \tilde{x}_0 + \frac{a_i}{\gamma_n^2} \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i) = \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)
\]

We have used \(A_0 = 0\). Note this first iteration does not depend on \(\gamma_0\). Recall also that, using \(5\), the first lower bound computed is

\[
L_1 = f(\tilde{x}_1) + \frac{1}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_1), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1) + \frac{1}{A_1} D_\psi(\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1), \chi_0) - \frac{1}{A_1} D_\psi(\hat{x}_1, \tilde{x}_0).
\]

Using \(a_1 = A_1\), \(\tilde{x}_1 = \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)\), \((a_1/\gamma_n) \nabla f(\tilde{x}_0) = \tilde{z}_i - \zeta_0\), and the triangle inequality for Bregman divergences [Lemma A.9] we obtain

\[
\frac{1}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_0), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1) = \frac{1}{A_1} (\tilde{z}_0 - \zeta_0, \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_i)) \\
= \frac{1}{A_1} \left( D_\psi(\tilde{z}_0, \tilde{z}_i) - D_\psi(\tilde{z}_0, \tilde{z}_1) + D_\psi(\tilde{z}_1, \tilde{z}_i) \right) \quad (15)
\]

On the other hand, by smoothness of \(f\) and the initial condition we have

\[
\frac{1}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_1) - \nabla f(\tilde{x}_0), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \tilde{x}_1) \geq -\frac{\tilde{f}}{\gamma_n^2} \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \chi_0\| \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \tilde{x}_1\| \quad (16)
\]
We can now finally bound $G_1$:
\[
G_1 \leq \frac{\tilde{L}}{\gamma_n} \|\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) - \tilde{x}_0\| \cdot \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1\|
- \frac{1}{A_1} \left( D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_0, \zeta_0) + D_{\psi^*}(\zeta_0, \tilde{z}_1) \right) + \frac{1}{A_1} D_{\psi}(\tilde{x}^*, \tilde{x}_0)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{\tilde{L}}{\gamma_n} \|\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) - \tilde{x}_0\| \cdot \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1\|
- \frac{\sigma}{2A_1} \left( \|\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) - \tilde{x}_0\|^2 + \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1\|^2 \right) + \frac{1}{A_1} D_{\psi}(\tilde{x}^*, \tilde{x}_0)
\]
\[
\leq \|\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) - \tilde{x}_0\| \cdot \|\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{x}_1) - \tilde{x}_1\| \left( \frac{\tilde{L}}{\gamma_n} - \frac{\sigma}{A_1} \right) + \frac{1}{A_1} D_{\psi}(\tilde{x}^*, \tilde{x}_0)
\]

We used in (1) the definition of $G_1 = U_1 - L_1 = f(\tilde{x}_1) - L_1$ and we bound the inner product in $L_1$ using (15), and (16). Also, since $\tilde{z}_0 = \nabla \psi(\tilde{x}_0)$ we have $D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_0, \zeta_0) = D(\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0), \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}_1)) = D_{\psi}(\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0), \tilde{x}_0)$, so we can cancel two of the Bregman divergences. In (2), we used Lemma A.10, $\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) = \tilde{x}_0$, and $\nabla \psi^*(\zeta_0) = \tilde{x}_1$. In (3) we used again the inequality $-(a^2 + b^2) \leq -2ab$.

Finally (4) is deduced from $A_1 = a_1 \leq \sigma \gamma_n / \tilde{L}$ which comes from the assumption $\tilde{L} a_{i+1}^2 / \gamma_n \sigma \leq a_{i+1} + A_i \gamma_n \gamma_p$ for $i = 0$.

The first part of the theorem follows. The second one is a straightforward application of the first one as we see below. Indeed, taking into account $A_t = \frac{t(t+1)\sigma \gamma_n}{4 \tilde{L}}$ and the choice of $t$ we derive the second statement.

\[
f(\tilde{x}_t) - f(\tilde{x}^*) \leq \frac{A_1 G_1}{A_t} + \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} A_i \tilde{e}_i \leq \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\tilde{x}_0 - \tilde{x}^*\|^2 + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon.
\]

We present now the final lemma, that proves that $\hat{\gamma}_i$ can be found efficiently. As we advanced in the sketch of the main paper, we use a binary search. The idea behind it is that due to (3) we satisfy the equation for $\hat{\gamma}_i = \frac{\tilde{x}_i}{\gamma_n}$ or $\hat{\gamma}_i = \gamma_p$, or there is $\hat{\gamma}_i \in (\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n)$ such that $\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_i+), \tilde{x}_i+ - \tilde{x}_i \rangle = 0$.

The existence of $\tilde{x}^*$ that satisfies $\nabla f(\tilde{x}^*) = 0$ along with the boundedness of $Q$ and smoothness, imply the Lipschitzness of $f$. Both Lipschitzness and smoothness allow to prove that a binary search finds efficiently a suitable point.

**Lemma A.6.** Let $Q \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ be a convex set of diameter $2 \tilde{R}$. Let $f : Q \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function that satisfies (3) is $\tilde{L}$ smooth and such that there is $\tilde{x}^* \in Q$ such that $\nabla f(\tilde{x}^*) = 0$. Let the strongly convex parameter of $\psi(\cdot)$ be $\sigma = O(1)$. Let $i \geq 1$ be an index. Given two points $\tilde{x}_i, \tilde{x}_i \in Q$ and the method in (6) using the learning rates $a_i = \frac{\gamma_p^2}{\gamma_n} \cdot \gamma_p$ prescribed in Theorem A.5, we can compute $\hat{\gamma}_i$ satisfying (12), i.e.

\[
f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - f(\tilde{x}_i) \leq \hat{\gamma}_i (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \tilde{x}_{i+1} - \tilde{x}_i) + \tilde{e}_i.
\]

And the computation of $\hat{\gamma}_i$ requires no more than

\[
O \left( \log \left( \frac{\tilde{L} \tilde{R}}{\gamma_n \tilde{e}_i} \cdot i \right) \right)
\]

queries to the gradient oracle.

**Proof.** Let $\hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda) : [a_{i+1} / A_i, A_i / a_{i+1} + a_{i+1} / \gamma_n] \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined as

\[
\hat{\Gamma}_i \left( \frac{a_{i+1} / \gamma_n}{A_i \tilde{x} + a_{i+1} / \gamma_n} \right) = \tilde{x}, \text{ for } \tilde{x} \in [\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n].
\]
By monotonicity, it is well defined. Let $\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda$ be the point computed by one iteration of (5) using the parameter $\tilde{\gamma}_i = \tilde{\Gamma}_i(\lambda)$. Likewise, we define the rest of the points in the iteration (6) depending on $\lambda$. We first try $\tilde{\gamma}_i = 1/\gamma_n$ and $\tilde{\gamma}_i = \gamma_p$ and use any of them if they satisfy the conditions. If neither of them do, it means that for the first choice we had $\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i \rangle < 0$ and for the second one, it is $\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i \rangle > 0$, for $\lambda_1 = \Gamma_i^{-1}(1/\gamma_n)$ and $\lambda_2 = \Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_p)$. Therefore, by continuity, there is $\lambda^* \in [\lambda_1, \lambda_2]$ such that $\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i \rangle = 0$. The continuity condition is easy to prove. We omit it because it is derived from the Lipschitzness condition that we will prove below.

Such a point satisfies (8) for $\tilde{\epsilon}_i = 0$. We will prove that the function $G_i : [a_i + 1, a_i + 1/\gamma_n] \to \mathbb{R}$, defined as

$$G_i(\lambda) = -\hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda)\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i \rangle + \langle f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda) - f(\tilde{x}_i) \rangle,$$

(19) is Lipschitz so we can guarantee that (18) holds for an interval around $\lambda^*$. Finally, we will be able to perform a binary search to efficiently find a point in such interval or another interval around another point that satisfies that the inner product is 0.

So

$$|G_i(\lambda) - G_i(\lambda')| \leq |f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda) - f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'})| + |\hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda) - \hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda')| \cdot |\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i \rangle - \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'}), \tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'} - \tilde{x}_i \rangle|.$$

(20)

We have used the triangular inequality and the inequality

$$|\alpha_1| - |\alpha_2| \leq |\alpha_1 - \alpha_2|,$$

(21)

which is a direct consequence of the triangular inequality, after adding and subtracting $\alpha_1 \beta_2$ in the $|\cdot|$ on the left hand side. We bound each of the three summands of the previous inequality separately, but first we bound the following which will be useful for our other bounds,

$$\|\tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'} - \tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda\| \leq \|\lambda' \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{\zeta}_i^\lambda) + (1 - \lambda')\tilde{x}_i - (\lambda \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{\zeta}_i^\lambda) + (1 - \lambda)\tilde{x}_i)\|$$

(22)

Here, (1) uses the definition of $\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda$ as a convex combination of $\tilde{x}_i$ and $\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{\zeta}_i^\lambda)$. (2) adds and subtracts $\lambda' \nabla \psi^*(\tilde{\zeta}_i^\lambda)$, groups terms and uses the triangular inequality. In (3) we use the fact that the diameter of $Q$ is $2\tilde{R}$ and bound $\lambda'$ by 1, and $|\lambda| \leq 1$. (4) uses the $\frac{1}{\gamma_n}$ smoothness of $\nabla \psi^*(\cdot)$, which is a consequence of the $\sigma$-strong convexity of $\psi(\cdot)$. (5) uses the smoothness of $f$. In (6), from the definition of $\tilde{x}_i^\lambda$ we have that $||\tilde{x}_i^\lambda - \tilde{x}_i\| \leq ||\tilde{x}_i - \tilde{z}_i|| |\lambda - \lambda'|$. We bounded this further using the diameter of $Q$. Note that $f$ is Lipschitz over $Q$. By the existence of $x^*$, $L$-smoothness, and the diameter of $Q$ we obtain that the Lipschitz constant $L_p$ is $L_p \leq 2\tilde{R}^2L$. Now we can proceed and bound the three summands of (20). The first one reduces to the inequality above after using Lipschitzness of $f(\cdot)$:

$$|f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda) - f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'})| \leq L_p \|\tilde{x}_{i+1}^\lambda - \tilde{x}_{i+1}^{\lambda'}\|.$$

(23)

In order to bound the second summand, we note that

$$|\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) \rangle| = \frac{A_{i+1}/\gamma_n}{(A_{i+1}^2 + a_{i+1}/\gamma_n)^2} \geq \frac{\gamma_n A_{i+1}^2}{A_{i+1}^2},$$

(24)

21
We will use the following to bound $\hat{f}_i(\lambda')$, appearing in the first factor, is bounded by $A^2_{i+1}/(\gamma_n A_i a_{i+1})$. We used $\xi \in [\gamma_p, 1/\gamma_n]$ for the bound. For the second factor, we add and subtract $\langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle$ and use the triangular inequality and then Cauchy-Schwarz. Thus, we obtain

\[ \langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle \]

\[ \leq \Vert \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}) \Vert \cdot \Vert \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \Vert + \Vert \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}) \Vert \cdot \Vert \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \Vert \]  

\[ \leq (2L_p + 2\hat{L})\Vert \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \Vert. \]  

In (1), we used Lipschitzness to bound the first factor. We also used the diameter of $Q$ to bound the last factor and the smoothness of $f(\cdot)$ to bound the first factor of the second summand.

For the third summand, we will bound the first factor using Cauchy-Schwarz, smoothness of $f(\cdot)$ and the diameter of $Q$. We just proved in (24) that $\hat{f}_i$ is Lipschitz, so use use this property for the second factor. The result is the following

\[ \langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle \cdot |\hat{f}_i(\lambda') - \hat{f}_i(\lambda)| \leq 4\hat{L}\hat{R}^2 \frac{A^2_{i+1}}{\gamma_n A_i a_{i+1}} |\lambda' - \lambda|. \]  

Applying the bounds of the three summands (23), (24), (25), (26) into (20) we obtain the inequality $|G_i(\lambda') - G_i(\lambda)| \leq \hat{L}|\lambda' - \lambda|$ for

\[ \hat{L} = \left(2\hat{R} + \frac{2\hat{L}}{\gamma_n \sigma} \right) \left( L_p + (2L_p + 2\hat{L}) \frac{A^2_{i+1}}{\gamma_n A_i a_{i+1}} \right) + 4\hat{L}\hat{R}^2 \frac{A^2_{i+1}}{\gamma_n A_i a_{i+1}}. \]

We will use the following to bound $\hat{L}$. If we use the learning rates prescribed in Theorem A.5, namely $a_i = \frac{\sigma \gamma_n^2}{2L}$ and thus $A_i = \frac{i(i+1) \sigma \gamma_n^2}{4L}$ we can bound $A^2_{i+1}/(A_i a_{i+1}) \leq 3(i + 2)$, using that $i \geq 1$. In our setting, by smoothness and the existence of $x^* \in Q$ such that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$, we have that $L_p \leq 2\hat{R}\hat{L}$. Recall we assume $\sigma = O(1)$. In Algorithm 1 we use $\sigma = 1$.

Recall we are denoting by $\lambda^*$ a value such that $\langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle = 0$ so $G_i(\lambda^*) \leq 0$. Lipschitz-ness of $G$ implies that if $G_i(\lambda^*) \leq 0$ then $G_i(\lambda) \leq \lambda^\ast_i$ for $\lambda \in \lambda^* - \frac{\hat{L}}{\hat{R}} \lambda^* + \frac{\hat{L}}{\hat{R}} [\Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_n), \Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_p)]$. If the extremal points, $\Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_n), \Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_p)$ did not satisfy (17), then this interval is of length $\frac{\hat{L}}{\hat{R}}$ and a point in such interval or another interval that is around another point $\lambda^*$ that satisfies $\langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle = 0$ can be found with a binary search in at most

\[ O \left( \log \left( \frac{\hat{L}}{\epsilon_i} \right) \right) \]

iterations, provided that at each step we can ensure we halve the size of the search interval. The bounds of the previous paragraph are applied in (1). The binary search can be done easily: we start with $[\Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_n), \Gamma_i^{-1}(\gamma_p)]$ and assume the extremes do not satisfy (17), so the sign of $\langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle$ is different for each extreme. Each iteration of the binary search queries the midpoint of the current working interval and if (17) is not satisfied, we keep the half of the interval such that the extremes keep having the sign of $\langle \nabla f(x^i_{i+1}), \check{x}^\lambda_{i+1} - \bar{x}_i \rangle$ different from each other, ensuring that there is a point in which this expression evaluates to 0 and thus keeping the invariant.

We include the pseudocode of this binary search in Algorithm 2.

We proceed to prove Theorem 2.4, which is an immediate consequence of the previous results.

Proof of Theorem 2.4: The proof follows from Theorem A.5 provided that we can find $\xi_i$ satisfying (12). Lemma A.6 shows that this is possible after performing a logarithmic number of queries to the gradient oracle. Note that given our choice of $\xi_i$, $t$ and $a_i$, the number of queries to the gradient oracle requires no more than $O(\log(\hat{L}/\gamma_n))$ for any $i \leq t$. So we find an $\epsilon$-minimizer of $f$ after $O(\hat{L}/(\gamma^2 \gamma_p))$ queries to the gradient oracle.
Proof of Theorem 2.5. Given the function to optimize \( F : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R} \) and the geodesic map \( h \), we define \( f = F \circ h^{-1} \). Using Lemma 2.3 we know that \( f \) is \( \tilde{L} \)-smooth, with \( \tilde{L} = O(L) \). Lemma 2.2 proves that \( f \) satisfies (8) for constants \( \gamma_n \) and \( \gamma_p \) depending on \( R \). So Theorem 2.4 applies and the total number of queries to the oracle needed to obtain an \( \varepsilon \)-minimizer of \( f \) is \( \tilde{O}(\sqrt{L/\gamma_n^2 \gamma_p \varepsilon}) = \tilde{O}(\sqrt{L/\varepsilon}) \). The result follows, since \( f(\tilde{x}_t) - f(\tilde{x}^*) = F(x_t) - F(x^*) \).

We recall a few concepts that were assumed during Section 2 to better interpret Theorem 2.5. We work in the hyperbolic space or an open hemisphere. The aim is to minimize a smooth and \( \psi \)-convex function defined on any of these manifolds, or a subset of them. The existence of a point \( x^* \) that satisfies \( \nabla F(x^*) = 0 \) is assumed. Starting from an arbitrary point \( x_0 \), we let \( R \) be a bound of the distance between \( x_0 \) and \( x^* \), that is, \( R \geq d(x_0, x^*) \). We let \( \mathcal{M} = \text{Exp}_0(B(0, R)) \) so that \( x^* \in \mathcal{M} \). We assume \( F : \mathcal{M}' \to \mathbb{R} \) is a differentiable function, where \( \mathcal{M}' = \text{Exp}_0(B(0, R')) \) and \( R' > R \). We define \( F \) on \( \mathcal{M}' \) only for simplicity, to avoid the use of subdifferentials. \( \mathcal{M} \) has constant sectional curvature \( K \). If \( K \) is positive, we restrict \( R < \pi/2\sqrt{R} \) so \( \mathcal{M} \) is contained in an open hemisphere and it is uniquely geodesic. We define a geodesic map \( h \) from the hyperbolic plane or an open hemisphere onto a subset of \( \mathbb{R}^d \) and define the function \( f : h(\mathcal{M}) \to \mathbb{R} \) as \( f = F \circ h^{-1} \). We optimize this function in an accelerated way up to constants and log factors, where the constants appear as an effect of the deformation of the geometry and depend on \( R \) and \( K \) only. Note the assumption of the existence of \( x^* \) such that \( \nabla F(x^*) = 0 \) is not necessary, since \( \arg \min_{x \in \text{Exp}_0(B(0, R))} f(x) \) also satisfies the first inequality in (8) so the lower bounds \( L_i \) can be defined in the same way as in (13). In that case, if we want to perform constrained optimization, one needs to use the Lipschitz constant of \( F \), when restricted to \( \text{Exp}_0(B(0, R)) \), for the analysis of the binary search.

**Algorithm 2 BinaryLineSearch**

**Input:** Points \( \tilde{x}_i, \tilde{z}_i, f, \mathcal{X} \), learning rate \( a_{t+1} \), accumulated learning rate \( A_t \), target accuracy \( \varepsilon \), final smoothing constant \( \tilde{L} \), constants \( \gamma_n, \gamma_p \). Define \( \hat{\varepsilon}_t \leftarrow (A_t \varepsilon)/(2(t - 1)A_t) \) as in Theorem A.3, i.e. with \( A_t = t(t + 1)\gamma_n^2 \gamma_p/4L \). \( \hat{\Gamma}_i \) defined as in (13) and \( G_i \) defined as in (19) i.e.

\[
G_i(\lambda) \triangleq -\hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda)\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \tilde{x}_{i+1} - \tilde{x}_i \rangle + (f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}) - f(\tilde{x}_i)),
\]

for \( x_{i+1} \) being the result of method (13) when \( \hat{\gamma}_i = \hat{\Gamma}_i(\lambda) \).

**Output:** \( \lambda = \lambda_{A_{t+1}/\gamma_n+1} \) for \( \hat{\gamma}_i \) such that \( G_i(\hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(\hat{\gamma}_i)) \leq \hat{\varepsilon}_i \).

1: if \( G_i(\hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(1/\gamma_n)) \leq \hat{\varepsilon}_i \) then \( \lambda = \hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(1/\gamma_n) \)
2: else if \( G_i(\hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(\gamma_p)) \leq \hat{\varepsilon}_i \) then \( \lambda = \hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(\gamma_p) \)
3: else
4: left \( \leftarrow \hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(1/\gamma_n) \)
5: right \( \leftarrow \hat{\Gamma}_i^{-1}(\gamma_p) \)
6: \( \lambda \leftarrow \text{(left + right)}/2 \)
7: while \( G_i(\lambda) > \hat{\varepsilon}_i \) do
8: if \( (\nabla f(\tilde{x}_{i+1}), \tilde{x}_{i+1} - \tilde{x}_i) < 0 \) then \( \text{right} \leftarrow \lambda \)
9: else \( \text{left} \leftarrow \lambda \)
10: end if
11: \( \lambda \leftarrow \text{(left + right)}/2 \)
12: end while
13: end if
14: return \( \lambda \)

### A.1 Auxiliary lemmas

The following are classical lemmas of convex optimization that we used in this section and that we add for completeness.

**Fact 7.** Let \( \psi : Q \to \mathbb{R} \) be a differentiable strongly-convex function. Then

\[
\nabla \psi^*(\tilde{z}) = \arg \max_{\tilde{x} \in Q} \{ \langle \tilde{z}, \tilde{x} \rangle - \psi(\tilde{x}) \}.
\]
Lemma A.8 (Duality of Bregman Div.). \(D_\psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}), \tilde{x}) = D_{\psi^*}(\nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \tilde{z})\) for all \(\tilde{z}, \tilde{x}\).

Proof. From the definition of the Fenchel dual (A.2) and (A.7) we have
\[
\psi^*(\tilde{z}) = \langle \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}), \tilde{x} \rangle - \langle \nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}) \rangle - \psi(\tilde{x}) - \psi^*(\tilde{z})
\]
Since by the Fenchel-Moreau Theorem we have \(\psi^{**} = \psi\), it holds
\[
\psi(\tilde{x}) = \langle \nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \tilde{x} \rangle - \psi^*(\nabla\psi(\tilde{x})),
\]
for all \(\tilde{x}\).

Using the definition of Bregman divergence (A.1) and (A.7):
\[
D_\psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}), \tilde{x}) = \psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z})) - \langle \nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}) \rangle - \psi(\tilde{x})
\]
\[
= \psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z})) + \psi^*(\nabla\psi(\tilde{x})) - \langle \nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}) \rangle
\]
\[
= \psi^*(\nabla\psi(\tilde{x})) - \psi^*(\tilde{z}) - \langle \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}), \nabla\psi(\tilde{x}) \rangle - \tilde{z}
\]
\[
= D_{\psi^*}(\nabla\psi(\tilde{x}), \tilde{z}).
\]

Lemma A.9 (Triangle inequality of Bregman Divergences). For all \(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \tilde{z} \in Q\) we have
\[
D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}) = D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}, \tilde{y}) + D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{x}, \tilde{z}) + \langle \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{y}), \tilde{x} - \tilde{z} \rangle.
\]

Proof. Proceed as in the previous proof.

Lemma A.10. Given a \(\sigma\)-strongly convex function \(\psi(\cdot)\) the following holds:
\[
D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_1, \tilde{z}_2) \geq \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2)\|^2.
\]

Proof. Using the first order optimality condition of the Fenchel dual and (A.7) we obtain
\[
\langle \nabla\psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1)) - \tilde{z}_1, \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) \rangle \geq 0
\]
Using \(\sigma\)-strong convexity of \(\psi\) and the previous inequality we have
\[
D_{\psi^*}(\tilde{z}_1, \tilde{z}_2) = \psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2)) - \psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1)) - \langle \tilde{z}_1, \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) \rangle
\]
\[
\geq \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2)\|^2 + \langle \nabla\psi(\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1)) - \tilde{z}_1, \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) \rangle
\]
\[
\geq \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_1) - \nabla\psi^*(\tilde{z}_2)\|^2.
\]

B Reductions. Proofs of results in Section 3.

Proof of Theorem 3.1. Let \(A_{\text{ns}}\) be the algorithm in the statement of the theorem. By strong g-convexity of \(F\) and the assumptions on \(A_{\text{ns}}\) we have that \(\tilde{x}_T\) satisfies
\[
\frac{\mu}{2} \|\tilde{x}_T - x^*\|^2 \leq F(\tilde{x}_T) - F(x^*) \leq \frac{\mu}{2} \frac{d(x_0, x^*)^2}{2},
\]
after \(T = \text{Time}_{\text{ns}}(L, \mu, R)\) queries to the gradient oracle. This implies \(d(\tilde{x}_T, x^*)^2 \leq d(x_0, x^*)^2 / 2\). Then, by repeating this process \(r \overset{\text{def}}{=} \lceil \log(\mu \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2 / \varepsilon) \rceil - 1\) times, using the previous output as input for the next round, we obtain a point \(\tilde{x}_{T'}\) that satisfies
\[
F(\tilde{x}_{T'}) - F(x^*) \leq \frac{\mu}{4} \cdot \frac{d(x_{T'}, x^*)^2}{4} \leq \cdots \leq \frac{\mu}{4 \cdot 2^{r-1}} \cdot d(x, x^*)^2 \leq \varepsilon.
\]
And the total running time is \(\text{Time}_{\text{ns}}(L, \mu, R) \cdot r = O(\text{Time}_{\text{ns}}(L, \mu, R) \log(\mu \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2 / \varepsilon)) = O(\text{Time}_{\text{ns}}(L, \mu, R) \log(\mu / \varepsilon)).\)
Proof of Corollary 3.2 Let $R$ be an upper bound on the distance between the initial point $x_0$ and an optimum $x^*$, i.e. $d(x_0, x^*) \leq R$. Note that $\gamma_n = \gamma_p$ is a constant depending on $R$ by [Lemma 2.1]. Note that $\gamma_n$ and $\gamma_p$ are constants depending on $R$ by [Lemma 2.2]. As any $g$-convex function is $g$-convex, by using [Theorem A.5] and [Lemma A.6] with $\varepsilon = \mu R^2$ we obtain that the algorithm obtains a $\mu R^2$-minimizer in at most

$$T = O \left( \frac{\|\hat{x}_0 - \hat{x}^*\|}{R} \log \left( \frac{\|\hat{x}_0 - \hat{x}^*\|}{\mu \gamma_n \gamma_p} \right) \right) = O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu} \log \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \right)} \right)$$

queries to the gradient oracle. Subsequent stages, i.e. calls to Algorithm 1, need a time at most equal to this. The analysis is the same, but we start at the previous output point and take into account that the initial distance to the optimum has decreased. Using the reduction [Theorem 3.1] we conclude that given $\varepsilon > 0$ and running Algorithm 1 in stages, we obtain an $\varepsilon$-minimizer of $F$ in

$$O \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu} \log \left( \frac{L}{\mu} \right)} \log (\mu \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2 / \varepsilon) = O^* \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu} \log (\mu / \varepsilon)} \right) \right),$$

queries to the gradient oracle.

As advanced in the main paper, each of the stages of the algorithm resulting from combining [Theorem 3.1] and [Corollary 3.2] reduces the distance to $x^*$ by a factor of $1/\sqrt{2}$. This means that subsequent stages can be run using a geodesic map centered at the new starting point, and with the new parameter $R$ being the previous one reduced by a factor of $1/\sqrt{2}$. This reduces the constants incurred by the deformation of the geometry which ultimately reduces the overall constant in the rate. Note that in order to perform the method with the recentering steps, we need the function $F$ to be defined over at least $\text{Exp}_{x_0}(\tilde{B}(0, R \cdot (1 + 2^{1/2})))$, since subsequent centers are only guaranteed to be $\leq R / \sqrt{2}$ close to $x^*$, and they could get slightly farther from $x_0$.

B.1 Proof of Theorem 3.3

The algorithm is the following. We successively regularize the function with strongly $g$-convex regularizers in this way $F^{(\mu_i)}(x) \overset{\Delta}{=} F(x) + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x)^2$ for $i \geq 0$. For each $i \geq 0$, we use the algorithm $A$ on the function $F^{(\mu_i)}$ for the time in the statement of the theorem and obtain a point $\hat{x}_{i+1}$, starting from point $\hat{x}_i$, where $\hat{x}_0 = x_0$. The regularizers are decreased exponentially $\mu_{i+1} = \mu_i / 2$ until we reach roughly $\mu_T = \varepsilon / R^2$, see below for the precise value. Let’s see how this algorithm works. We first state the following fact, that says that indeed $\frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x)^2$ is a strongly $g$-convex regularizer. Let $D$ be the diameter of $\mathcal{M}$. We define the following quantities

$$K^R_{\max} \overset{\Delta}{=} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } K_{\text{max}} \leq 0 \\ \sqrt{K_{\text{max}} D \cot(\sqrt{K_{\text{max}} D})} & \text{if } K_{\text{max}} > 0 \end{array} \right.$$  

$$K^R_{\min} \overset{\Delta}{=} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \sqrt{-K_{\text{min}} D \coth(\sqrt{-K_{\text{min}} D})} & \text{if } K_{\text{min}} < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } K_{\text{min}} \geq 0 \end{array} \right.$$

Here $K_{\text{max}}$ and $K_{\text{min}}$ are the upper and lower bounds on the sectional curvature of the manifold $\mathcal{M}$. In [Theorem 3.3] it is $D = 2R$.

Fact B.1. Let $\mathcal{M} = \text{Exp}_{x_0}(\tilde{B}(0, R))$ be a manifold with sectional curvature bounded below and above by $K_{\text{min}}$ and $K_{\text{max}}$, respectively, where $x_0 \in \mathcal{M}$ is a point. The function $f : \mathcal{M} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined as $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} d(x, x_0)^2$ is $K^R_{\max}$-strongly convex and $K^R_{\min}$-smooth.

The result regarding strong convexity can be found, for instance, in [2] and it is a direct consequence of the following inequality, which can also be found in [2]:

$$d(y, x_0)^2 \geq d(x, x_0)^2 - 2(\text{Exp}^{-1}(x_0), y - x) + K^R_{\max} d(x, y)^2,$$

along with the fact that $\text{grad} f(x) = -\text{Exp}^{-1}(x_0)$. The result regarding smoothness is, similarly, obtained from the following inequality:

$$d(y, x_0)^2 \leq d(x, x_0)^2 - 2(\text{Exp}^{-1}(x_0), y - x) + K^R_{\min} d(x, y)^2,$$

which can be found in [68] (Lemma 6). Alternatively, one can derive these inequalities from upper and lower bounds on the Hessian of $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} d(x, x_0)$, cf. [39], Theorem 4.6.1, as it was done in [45].
We prove now that the regularization makes the minimum to be closer to \( x_0 \), so the assumption of the Theorem on \( F \) holds for the functions we use. Define \( x_{i+1} \) as the minimizer of \( F(\mu_i) \).

**Lemma B.2.** We have \( d(x_{i+1}, x_0) \leq d(x^*, x_0) \).

**Proof.** By the fact that \( x_{i+1} \) is the minimizer of \( F(\mu_i) \) we have \( F(\mu_i)(x_{i+1}) - F(\mu_i)(x^*) \leq 0 \). Note that by \( g \)-strong convexity, equality only holds if \( x_{i+1} = x^* \) which only happens if \( x_0 = x_{i+1} = x^* \). By using the definition of \( F(\mu_i)(x) = F(x) + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x, x_0)^2 \) we have:

\[
F(x_{i+1}) + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x_{i+1}, x_0)^2 - F(x^*) - \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x^*, x_0)^2 \leq 0
\]

\[
\Rightarrow d(x_{i+1}, x_0) \leq d(x^*, x_0),
\]

where in the last step we used the fact \( F(x_{i+1}) - F(x^*) \geq 0 \) that holds because \( x^* \) is the minimizer of \( F \).

We note that previous techniques proved and used the fact that \( d(x_{i+1}, x^*) \leq d(x_0, x^*) \) instead [7].

But crucially, we need our former lemma in order to prove the bound for our non-Euclidean case. Our variant could be applied to [7] to decrease the constants of the Euclidean reduction. Now we are ready to prove the theorem.

**Proof of** Theorem 3.3 **We recall the definitions above.** \( F(\mu_i)(x) = F(x) + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x, x_0)^2 \). We start with \( \hat{x}_0 = x_0 \) and compute \( \hat{x}_{i+1} \) using algorithm \( A \) with starting point \( \hat{x}_i \) and function \( F(\mu_i) \) for time \( \text{Time}(L^{(i)}, \mu^{(i)}, M, \mathcal{R}) \), where \( L^{(i)} \) and \( \mu^{(i)} \) are the smoothness and strong \( g \)-convexity parameters of \( F(\mu_i) \). We denote by \( x_{i+1} \) the minimizer of \( F(\mu_i) \). We pick \( \mu_i = \mu_{i-1}/2 \) and we will choose later the value of \( \mu_0 \) and the total number of stages. By the assumption of the theorem on \( A \), we have that

\[
F(\mu_i)(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - \min_{x \in \mathcal{M}} F(\mu_i)(x) = F(\mu_i)(\hat{x}_{i+1}) - F(\mu_i)(x_{i+1}) \leq \frac{F(\mu_i)(\hat{x}_i) - F(\mu_i)(x_{i+1})}{4}. \tag{27}
\]

Define \( D_i \overset{\text{def}}{=} F(\mu_i)(\hat{x}_i) - F(\mu_i)(x_{i+1}) \) to be the initial objective distance to the minimum on function \( F(\mu_i) \) before we call \( A \) for the \( (i + 1) \)-th time. At the beginning, we have the upper bound \( D_0 = F(\mu_0)(\hat{x}_0) - \min_x F(\mu_0)(x) \leq F(x_0) - F(x^*) \). For each stage \( i \geq 1 \), we compute that

\[
D_i = F(\mu_i)(\hat{x}_i) - F(\mu_i)(x_{i+1})
\]

\[
\overset{1}{=} F(\mu_{i-1})(\hat{x}_i) - \frac{\mu_{i-1} - \mu_i}{2} d(x_0, \hat{x}_i)^2 - F(\mu_{i-1})(x_{i+1}) + \frac{\mu_{i-1} - \mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x_{i+1})^2
\]

\[
\overset{2}{=} F(\mu_{i-1})(\hat{x}_i) - F(\mu_{i-1})(x_{i+1}) + \frac{\mu_{i-1} - \mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x_{i+1})^2
\]

\[
\overset{3}{=} D_{i-1} + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x_{i+1})^2
\]

\[
\overset{4}{=} D_{i-1} + \frac{\mu_i}{2} d(x_0, x^*)^2.
\]

Above, \( \overset{1}{=} \) follows from the definition of \( F(\mu_i)(\cdot) \) and \( F(\mu_{i-1})(\cdot) \); \( \overset{2}{=} \) follows from the fact that \( x_i \) is the minimizer of \( F(\mu_{i-1})(\cdot) \). We also drop the negative term \(-(\mu_{i-1} - \mu_i)d(x_0, \hat{x}_i)/2\). \( \overset{3}{=} \) follows from the definition of \( D_{i-1} \), the assumption on \( A \), and the choice \( \mu_i = \mu_{i-1}/2 \) for \( i \geq 1 \); and \( \overset{4}{=} \) follows from Lemma B.2. Now applying the above inequality recursively, we have

\[
D_T \leq \frac{D_0}{4^T} + d(x_0, x^*)^2 \cdot \left( \frac{\mu_T}{2} + \frac{\mu_{T-1}}{8} + \cdots \right) \leq \frac{F(x_0) - F(x^*)}{4^T} + \mu_T \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2. \tag{28}
\]
We have used the choice \( \mu_i = \mu_{i-1}/2 \) for the second inequality. Lastly, we can prove that \( \hat{x}_T \), the last point computed, satisfies

\[
F(\hat{x}_T) - F(x^*) \leq F^{(\mu_T)}(\hat{x}_T) - F^{(\mu_T)}(x^*) + \frac{\mu_T}{2} d(x_0, x^*)^2 \\
\leq F^{(\mu_T)}(\hat{x}_T) - F^{(\mu_T)}(x_{T+1}^*) + \frac{\mu_T}{2} d(x_0, x^*)^2 \\
\leq D_T + \frac{\mu_T}{2} d(x_0, x^*)^2 \\
\leq \frac{F(x_0) - F(x^*)}{4T} + \frac{3\mu_T}{2} d(x_0, x^*)^2.
\]

We use the definition of \( F^{(\mu_T)} \) in (1) and drop \( -\frac{\mu_T}{2} d(x_0, \hat{x}_T)^2 \). In (2) we use the fact that \( x_{T+1}^* \) is the minimizer of \( F^{(\mu_T)} \). The definition of \( D_T \) is used in (3). We use inequality (23) for step 4. Finally, by choosing \( T = \lceil \log_2(\Delta/\varepsilon) / 2 \rceil + 1 \) and \( \mu_0 = \Delta / R^2 \) we obtain that the point \( \hat{x}_T \) satisfies

\[
F(\hat{x}_T) - F(x^*) \leq \frac{F(x_0) - F(x^*)}{4T} + \frac{3\mu_0}{8\Delta/\varepsilon} d(x_0, x^*)^2 \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{3\varepsilon}{8} < \varepsilon,
\]

and can be computed in time \( \sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \text{Time}(L + 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{-}, 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{+}, M, R) \), since by Fact B.1 the function \( F^{(\mu_i)} \) is \( L + 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{-} \) smooth and \( 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{+} \) \( \varepsilon \)-strongly convex.

**B.2 Example 3.4**

We use the algorithm in Corollary 3.2 as the algorithm \( \mathcal{A} \) of the reduction of Theorem 3.3. Given \( M = \mathcal{H} \) or \( M = \mathcal{S} \), the assumption on \( \mathcal{A} \) is satisfied for \( \text{Time}(L, \mu, M, R) = \tilde{O}(\sqrt{L}/\mu \log(L/\mu)) \).

Indeed, if \( \Delta \) is a bound on the gap \( \hat{F}(x_0) - F(x^*) = \hat{F}(x_0) - \min_{x \in M} \hat{F}(x) = \hat{F}(x_0) - \min_{x \in \text{Exp}_{x_0}(\bar{B}(0, R))} \hat{F}(x) \) for some \( \mu \) strongly \( \varepsilon \)-convex \( \hat{F} \), then we know that \( d(x_0, x^*)^2 \leq \frac{2\Delta}{\mu} \).

By calling the algorithm in Corollary 3.2 with \( \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta}{4} \), we require a time that is

\[
O(\sqrt{L/\mu} \log(L/\mu) \log(\mu \cdot d(x_0, x^*)^2/(\Delta/4))) = O(\sqrt{L/\mu} \log(L/\mu) \log(\mu \cdot (2\Delta/\mu)/(\Delta/4)))
\]

\[
= \tilde{O}(\sqrt{L/\mu} \log(L/\mu)).
\]

Let \( T = \lceil \log_2(\Delta/\varepsilon) / 2 \rceil + 1 \). The reduction of Theorem 3.3 gives an algorithm with rates

\[
\sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \text{Time}(L + 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{-}, 2^{-i} \mu_0 K_R^{+}, M, R)
\]

\[
= O\left( \sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \frac{L}{2^{-i} K_R^+ \Delta/2R^2} + \frac{K_R^-}{K_R^+} \log\left( \frac{L}{2^{-i} K_R^+ \Delta/2R^2} + \frac{K_R^-}{K_R^+} \right) \right)
\]

\[
= O\left( \left( \sqrt{\frac{L}{K_R^-}} + \sqrt{\frac{K_R^-}{K_R^+}} \log(\Delta/\varepsilon) \right) \log\left( \frac{L}{K_R^-} + \frac{K_R^-}{K_R^+} \right) \right)
\]

\[
= \tilde{O}(\sqrt{L/\varepsilon}).
\]

In (1) we have used Minkowski’s inequality \( \sqrt{a + b} \leq \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} \). We used the value \( \mu_0 = \Delta / R^2 \). In order to group the sum of the first summands, we used the fact that \( \sqrt{1/\varepsilon} + \sqrt{1/2\varepsilon} + \cdots = O(\sqrt{1/\varepsilon}) \), along with the fact \( 2^{-(T-1)} \mu_0 \geq \log(\varepsilon/\Delta) \). We added up the group of second summands. For the \( \log \) factor, we upper bounded \( L/(2^{-i} K_R^+ \Delta/2R^2) = O(L/K_R^- \varepsilon) \), for \( t < T \). Note that by \( L \)-smoothness and the diameter being \( 2R \), we have \( \Delta \leq 2LR^2 \) so \( \sqrt{K_R^-/K_R^+} \log(\Delta/\varepsilon) = \tilde{O}(1) \).
C Geometric results. Proofs of Lemmas 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3

In this section we prove the lemmas that take into account the deformations of the geometry and the geodesic map \( h \) to obtain relationships between \( F \) and \( f \). Namely Lemma 2.1, Lemma 2.2, and Lemma 2.3. First, we recall the characterizations of the geodesic map. Given two points \( \mu \) and \( \nu \), we have the following expression for the distance

\[
F(x, y) = \arccosh \left( \frac{1 + \langle x, y \rangle}{\sqrt{1 + \|x\|^2 \cdot 1 + \|y\|^2}} \right)
\]

And since the expression is symmetric with respect to rotations, \( F \) is \( \mu \)-smooth and \( \mu \)-strongly \( g \)-convex. This is a consequence of the transformation rescaling distances by a factor of \( \sqrt{K} \), i.e. if \( r : M_K \to M_{K^2} \) is the rescaling function, then \( d_K(x, y) \sqrt{\|K\|} = d_{K^2}(r(x), r(y)) \), where \( d_{\cdot}(\cdot, \cdot) \) denotes the distance on the manifold of constant sectional curvature \( c \).

C.1 Preliminaries

We recall our characterization of the geodesic map. Given two points \( \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \in B \), we have that \( C_K(d(x, y)) = 1 + K\langle \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \rangle \).

And since the expression is symmetric with respect to rotations, \( X = h(M) \) is a closed ball of radius \( \tilde{R} \), with \( C_K(R) = (1 + K\tilde{R}^2)^{-1/2} \). Equivalently,

\[
\tilde{R} = \tan(R) \quad \text{if} \quad K = 1,
\]

\[
\tilde{R} = \tanh(R) \quad \text{if} \quad K = -1.
\]

Similarly, we can write the distances as

\[
d(x, y) = \arccos \left( \frac{1 + \langle x, y \rangle}{\sqrt{1 + \|x\|^2 \cdot 1 + \|y\|^2}} \right) \quad \text{if} \quad K = 1,
\]

\[
d(x, y) = \arccosh \left( \frac{1 - \langle x, y \rangle}{\sqrt{1 - \|x\|^2 \cdot 1 - \|y\|^2}} \right) \quad \text{if} \quad K = -1.
\]

Alternatively, we have the following expression for the distance \( d(x, y) \) when \( K = -1 \). Let \( \tilde{a}, \tilde{b} \) be the two points of intersection of the ball \( B = B(0, 1) \) with the line joining \( \tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \), so the order of the points in the line is \( \tilde{a}, \tilde{x}, \tilde{y}, \tilde{b} \). Then

\[
d(x, y) = \frac{1}{2} \log \left( \frac{\|\tilde{a} - \tilde{y}\| \cdot \|\tilde{x} - \tilde{b}\|}{\|\tilde{a} - \tilde{x}\| \cdot \|\tilde{b} - \tilde{y}\|} \right) \quad \text{if} \quad K = -1.
\]

We will use this expression when working with the hyperbolic space. A simple elementary proof of the equivalence of the expressions in (31) and (32) is the following. We can assume without loss of generality that we work with the hyperbolic plane, i.e. \( d = 2 \). By rotational symmetry, we can also assume that \( \tilde{x} = (x_1, x_2) \) and \( \tilde{y} = (y_1, y_2) \), for \( x_1 = y_1 \). In fact, it is enough to prove it in the case \( x_2 = 0 \) because we can split a general segment into two, each with one endpoint at \( (x_1, 0) \), and then add their lengths up. So according to (31) and (32), respectively, we have

\[
\frac{1}{\cosh^2(d(x, y))} = \frac{(1 - x_1^2)(1 - y_1^2 - y_2^2)}{(1 - x_1^2)^2} = \frac{(1 - x_1^2 - y_2^2)}{1 - x_1^2}.
\]
We proceed now to prove the steps above. For the first step, we note that the inverse of this expression is not increasing with respect to \(d(x,y)\), we obtain that the two expressions above are equal. See Theorem 7.4 in [29] (p. 268) for more details about the distance formula under this geodesic map.

The spherical case is of a remarkable simplicity. If we have a \(d\)-sphere of radius 1 centered at 0, we can see the transformation as the projection onto the plane \(x_d = 1\). Given two points \(x = (\tilde{x},1)\), \(y = (\tilde{y},1)\) then the angle between these two vectors is the distance of the projected points on the sphere so we have \(\cos(d(x,y)) = \langle x, y \rangle/\|x\|\|y\|\) which is equivalent to the corresponding formula in [31].

C.2 Distance deformation

**Lemma C.2.** Let \(\mathcal{H} = \text{Exp}_{x_0}(B(0, R))\) be a subset of the hyperbolic space with constant sectional curvature \(K = -1\). Let \(x, y \in \mathcal{H}\) be two different points. Then, we have

\[
1 \leq \frac{d(x,y)}{\|x-y\|} \leq \cosh^2(R).
\]

**Proof.** We can assume without loss of generality that the dimension is \(d = 2\). As in (30), let \(R = \tanh(R)\), so any point \(\tilde{x} \in \mathcal{X}\) satisfies \(\|\tilde{x}\| \leq \tilde{R}\), or equivalently \(d(x,x_0) \leq R\). Recall \(x_0 = h(x_0) = 0\). Without loss of generality, we parametrize an arbitrary segment of length \(\ell\) in \(\mathcal{X}\) by two endpoints \(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y}\) with coordinates \(\tilde{x} = (x_1, x_2)\) and \(\tilde{y} = (x_1 - \ell, x_2)\), for \(0 \leq x_2 \leq \tilde{R}\), \(0 \leq x_1 \leq \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}\) and \(0 < \ell \leq x_1 + \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}\). Let \(\partial(x_1, x_2, \ell) \equiv \frac{d(x,y)}{\ell}\), the quantity we aim to bound. We will prove the upper bound on \(\partial(x_1, x_2, \ell)\) in three steps.

1. If \(x_1 = \ell\) then \(\partial(\cdot)\) is larger the larger \(x_1\) is. This allows to prove that it is enough to consider points with the extra constraint \(\ell \leq x_1\).

2. The partial derivative of \(\partial(\cdot)\) with respect to \(x_1\), whenever \(\ell \leq x_1\), is non-negative. So we can just look at the points for which \(x_1 = \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}\).

3. With the constraints above, \(\partial(\cdot)\) is larger the smaller \(\ell\) is. So we have \(\partial(x_1, x_2, \ell) \leq \lim_{\ell \to 0} \partial(\sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell) = \sqrt{1-x_2^2}/(1 - \tilde{R}^2)\). This expression is maximized at \(x_2 = 0\) and evaluates to \(1/(1 - \tanh^2(\tilde{R})) = \cosh^2(\tilde{R})\).

We proceed now to prove the steps above. For the first step, we note

\[
\partial(x_1, x_2, 1) = \frac{1}{2x_1} \log \left( \frac{1-x_2^2}{1-x_2^2} \right) \left( \frac{\sqrt{1-x_2^2} + x_1}{\sqrt{1-x_2^2} - x_1} \right) = \frac{1}{2x_1} \log \left( \frac{1 + 2x_1/(\sqrt{1-x_2^2} - x_1)}{1 + 2x_1/(\sqrt{1-x_2^2} + x_1)} \right).
\]

We prove that the inverse of this expression is not increasing with respect to \(x_1\). By taking a partial derivative:

\[
\frac{\partial(1/\partial(x_1, x_2, 1))}{\partial x_1} = 2 \frac{-2x_1 \sqrt{1-x_2^2}}{1-x_2^2-x_1^2} + \log(1 + 2x_1/(\sqrt{1-x_2^2} - x_1)) \leq 0
\]

\[
\iff \frac{2x_1 \sqrt{1-x_2^2}}{1-x_2^2-x_1^2} - \log(1 + (2x_1 \sqrt{1-x_2^2} + 2x_2^2)/(1-x_2^2 - x_1^2)) \geq 0.
\]
In order to see that the last inequality is true, note that the expression on the left hand side is 0 when $x_1 = x_2 = 0$. And the partial derivatives of this with respect to $x_1$ and $x_2$, respectively, are:

$$\frac{4\sqrt{1 - x_1^2}x_2^2}{(1 - x_1^2 - x_2^2)^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{4x_2^3}{\sqrt{1 - x_1^2(1 - x_1^2 - x_2^2)^2}}.$$

Both are greater than 0 in the interior of the domain $0 \leq x_2 \leq \tilde{R}$, $0 \leq x_1 \leq \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}$ and at least 0 in the border. Now we use this monotonicity to prove that we can consider $\ell > x_1$ only. Suppose $\ell > x_1$. The segment $\ell$ is divided into two parts by the $e_2$ axis and we can assume without loss of generality that the negative part is no greater than the other, i.e. $x_1 \geq \ell - x_1$. Otherwise, we can perform the computations after a symmetry over the $e_2$ axis. Let $\tilde{r}$ be the point $(0, x_2)$. We want to see that the segment from $\tilde{x}$ to $\tilde{r}$ gives a greater value of $\mathcal{d}(\cdot)$:

$$\frac{d(x, r)}{x_1} \geq \frac{d(x, y)}{\ell} \iff d(x, r)(x_1 + (\ell - x_1)) \geq x_1(d(x, r) + (r, y))$$

$$\iff d(x, r)/x_1 \geq d(r, y)/(\ell - x_1),$$

and the last inequality holds true by the monotonicity we just proved.

In order to prove the second step, we take the partial derivative of $\mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell)$ with respect to $x_1$. We have

$$\mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell) = \frac{1}{2\ell} \log \left( \frac{1 + \ell/(\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} - x_1)}{1 - \ell/(\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} + x_1)} \right),$$

$$\partial \mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell) \quad \partial x_1 = \frac{\sqrt{1 - \ell^2}}{2(1 - x_2^2 - x_1^2)}.$$ 

And the derivative is positive in the domain we are considering.

We now prove step 3. We want to show that $\mathcal{d}(\sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)$ decreases with $\ell$, within our constraints $\ell \leq x_1 = \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}$, $0 \leq x_2 \leq \tilde{R}$. If we split the segment joining $\tilde{x}$ and $\tilde{y}$ in half with respect to the metric in $\mathcal{M}$, we see that due to the monotonicity proved in step 1, the segment that is farther to the origin is longer in $\mathcal{M}$ than the other one and so $\mathcal{d}(\cdot)$ is greater for this half of the segment than for the original one. In symbols, let $\tilde{r}$ be the middle point of the segment joining $\tilde{x}$ and $\tilde{y}$. We have by monotonicity that $\mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell/2) \geq \mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell/2, \ell/2).$ So

$$\mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell/2) = \frac{d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{r})}{\ell/2} \geq \frac{d(\tilde{x}, \tilde{r}) + d(\tilde{r}, \tilde{y})}{\ell} = \mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell).$$

Thus,

$$\mathcal{d}(x_1, x_2, \ell) \leq \lim_{\ell \to 0} \mathcal{d}(\sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)$$

$$= \lim_{\ell \to 0} \frac{1}{2\ell} \log \left( \frac{1 + \ell}/(\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} - \sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}) \right)$$

$$\geq \lim_{\ell \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{1 - x_2^2}}{1 - \tilde{R}^2 - 2\ell\sqrt{\tilde{R}^2 - x_2^2}}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{1 - x_2^2}}{1 - \tilde{R}^2}.$$

We used L’Hôpital’s rule for (1). We can maximize the last expression by setting $x_2 = 0$ and obtain that for any two different $\tilde{x}, \tilde{y} \in \mathcal{X}$

$$\frac{d(x, y)}{\|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}\|} \leq \frac{1}{1 - \tilde{R}^2} = \frac{1}{1 - \tanh^2(\tilde{R})} = \cos^2(\tilde{R}).$$

The lower bound is similar, assume that $\ell > x_1$ and define $\tilde{r}$ as above. We assume again without loss of generality that $x_1 \geq \ell - x_1$. Then

$$\frac{d(x, r) + d(r, y)}{\ell} \geq \frac{d(x, r)}{\ell - x_1} \iff d(r, y) \geq d(x, r) \frac{\ell - x_1}{\ell - x_1}.$$
and the latter is true by the monotonicity proved in step 1. This means that we can also consider \( \ell \leq x_1 \). But this time, according to step 2, we want \( x_1 \) to be the lowest possible, so it is enough to consider \( x_1 = \ell \). Using step 1 again, we obtain that the lowest value of \( d(\cdot) \) can be bounded by the limit \( \lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0} d(\ell, x_2, \ell) \) which using L'Hôpital’s rule in (1) is

\[
\frac{d(x_1, x_2, \ell)}{\ell} \geq \lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0} \frac{d(\ell, x_2, \ell)}{\ell} = \lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\ell} \log \left( 1 + \frac{2\ell}{\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} - \ell} \right) \equiv \lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} - \ell + 2\ell)}{(\sqrt{1 - x_2^2} - \ell)^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x_2^2}}.
\]

The expression is minimized at \( x_2 = 0 \) and evaluates to 1. \( \Box \)

The proof of the corresponding lemma for the sphere is analogous, we add it for completeness.

**Lemma C.3.** Let \( S = \text{Exp}_{x_0}(B(0, R)) \) be a subset of the sphere with constant sectional curvature \( K = 1 \) and \( R < \frac{\pi}{2} \). Let \( x, y \in S \) be two different points. Then, we have

\[
\cos^2(R) \leq \frac{d(x, y)}{\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|} \leq 1.
\]

**Proof.** We proceed in a similar way than with the hyperbolic case. We can also work with \( d = 2 \) only, since \( \bar{x}, \bar{y} \) and \( \bar{x}_0 \) lie on a plane. We parametrize a general pair of points as \( \bar{x} = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( y = (x_1 - \ell, x_2) \in \mathcal{X} \), so \( x_1^2 + x_2^2 \leq R^2 \), for \( \bar{R} = \tan(R) \) and by definition \( \ell = ||\bar{x} - \bar{y}|| \).

Let \( d(x_1, x_2, \ell) \overset{\text{def}}{=} d(x, y)/\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\| \). We proceed to prove the result in three steps, similarly to the hyperbolic case.

1. If \( x_1 = \ell \) then \( d(x_1, x_2, \ell) \) decreases whenever \( x_1 \) increases. This allows to prove that it is enough to consider points in which \( \ell \leq x_1 \).
2. \( \frac{\partial d(\cdot)}{\partial x_1} \leq 0 \), whenever \( \ell \leq x_1 \). So we can consider \( x_1 = \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2} \) only.
3. With the constraints above, \( d(\cdot) \) increases with \( \ell \), so in order to lower bound \( d(\cdot) \) we can consider \( \lim_{\ell \rightarrow 0} d(\sqrt{R - x_2}, x_2, \ell) = \sqrt{1 + x_2^2}/(1 + R^2) \). This is minimized at \( x_2 = 0 \) and evaluates to \( 1/(1 + R^2) \).

For the first step, we compute the partial derivative:

\[
\frac{\partial d(x_1, x_2, x_3)}{\partial x_1} = \frac{x_1 \sqrt{1 + x_2^2}/(1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2) - \arccos \left( \sqrt{1 + x_2^2}/(1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2) \right)}{x_1^2}.
\]

In order to see that it is non-positive, we compute the partial derivative of the denominator with respect to \( x_2 \) and obtain

\[
\frac{2 x_1^3 x_2}{\sqrt{1 + x_2^2}(1 + x_1^2 + x_2^2)} \geq 0.
\]

so in order to maximize (33) we set \( x_2 = \sqrt{R - x_1^2} \). In that case, the numerator is

\[
\frac{x_1 \sqrt{1 + R^2 - x_1^2}}{1 + R^2} - \arccos \left( \sqrt{1 + R^2 - x_1^2}/1 + R^2 \right),
\]

(34)
We focus on step 2 which is true, since after simplifying we arrive to (35). So in order to lower bound $x$ we can consider $\ell$. Thus, we can consider the limit when we have $\lim_{\ell \to \infty} (0, x_2)$. And this implies $\partial (x_1, x_2, x_1) \leq \partial (x_1, x_2, \ell)$. Indeed, that is equivalent to show $d(x, r) \geq d(r, y)$, i.e. $x_1 \geq \ell - x_1$. Then by the monotonicity we just proved, we have

$$d(x, r) = \partial (x_1, x_2, x_1) \leq \partial (\ell - x_1, x_2, \ell - x_1) = \frac{d(r, y)}{\| x - r \|}.$$  

(35)

And this implies $\partial (x_1, x_2, x_1) \leq \partial (x_1, x_2, \ell)$. Indeed, that is equivalent to show

$$d(x, r) = \partial (x_1, x_2, x_1) \leq \partial (x_1, x_2, \ell) = \frac{d(x, r) + d(r, y)}{\| x - r \|}.$$  

Which is true, since after simplifying we arrive to (35). So in order to lower bound $\partial (\cdot)$, it is enough to consider $\ell \leq x_1$.

We focus on step 2 now. We have

$$\frac{\partial \partial (x_1, x_2, \ell)}{\partial x_1} = \sqrt{1 + x_2^2} (\ell - x_1) (1 + x_2^2 + (\ell - x_1)^2)$$

which is non-positive given the restrictions we imposed after step 1. So in order to lower bound $\partial (\cdot)$ we can consider $x_1 = \sqrt{R - x_2^2}$ only.

Finally, in order to complete step 3 we compute

$$\frac{\partial \partial (\sqrt{R - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)}{\partial \ell} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + x_2^2}}{\ell (1 + R^2) + \ell^3 - 2\ell^2 \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2}}$$

$$- \frac{1}{\ell^2} \arccos \left( \frac{1 + R^2 - \ell \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2}}{\sqrt{(1 + R^2)(1 + R^2 + \ell^2 - 2\ell \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2})}} \right).$$

And in order to prove that this is non-negative, we will prove that the same expression is non-negative, when multiplied by $\ell^2$. We compute the partial derivative of the aforementioned expression with respect to $\ell$:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \ell} \left( \frac{\partial \partial (\sqrt{R - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)}{\partial \ell} \right)^2 = \frac{2\ell \sqrt{1 + x_2^2} (\sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2} - \ell)}{(1 + R^2 + \ell^2 - 2\ell \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2})^2} \geq 0.$$  

And $\ell^2 (\partial \partial (\sqrt{R - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)/\partial \ell)$ evaluated at 0 is 0 for all choices of parameters $R$ and $x_2$ in the domain. So we conclude that $\partial \partial (\sqrt{R - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell)/\partial \ell \geq 0$.

Thus, we can consider the limit when $\ell \to 0$ in order to lower bound $\partial (\cdot)$. In the defined domain, we have

$$\lim_{\ell \to 0} \partial (\sqrt{R - x_2^2}, x_2, \ell) = \lim_{\ell \to 0} \frac{1}{\ell} \arccos \left( \frac{1 + R^2 - x \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2}}{\sqrt{1 + R^2} \sqrt{1 + x_2^2 + (\ell - \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2})^2}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + x_2^2}} \sqrt{1 + x_2^2} = 1 + R^2 + \ell^2 - 2\ell \sqrt{R^2 - x_2^2}.$$  

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We start with the case \( K = 1 \). Now, the right hand side of the previous expression is minimized at \( x_2 = 0 \) so we conclude that we have
\[
\cos^2(R) = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2(R)} = \frac{1}{1 + R^2} \leq \vartheta(x_1, x_2, \ell) = \frac{d(p, q)}{\|p - q\|}.
\]

The upper bound uses again a similar argument. Assume that \( \ell > x \) and define \( \tilde{r} \) as above. We assume again without loss of generality that \( x_1 \geq \ell - x_1 \). Then
\[
\frac{d(x, r) + d(r, y)}{\ell} \leq \frac{d(x, r)}{\ell - x_1} \iff \frac{d(r, y)}{x_1} \leq \frac{d(x, r)}{\ell - x_1}
\]
and the latter is true by the monotonicity proved in step 1. Consequently we can just consider the points that satisfy \( \ell \leq x_1 \). By step 2, \( \vartheta(\cdot) \) is maximal whenever \( x_1 \) is the lowest possible, so it is enough to consider \( x_1 = \ell \). Using step 1 again, we obtain that the greatest value of \( \vartheta(\cdot) \) can be bounded by the limit \( \lim_{\ell \to 0} \vartheta(\ell, x_2, \ell) \) which using L’Hôpital’s rule in (1) and simplifying is
\[
\vartheta(x_1, x_2, \ell) \leq \lim_{\ell \to 0} \vartheta(\ell, x_2, \ell) = \lim_{\ell \to 0} \frac{1}{\ell} \arccos \left( \sqrt{\frac{1 + x_2^2}{1 + \ell^2 + x_2^2}} \right) \overset{(1)}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + x_2^2}}.
\]

The expression is maximized at \( x_2 = 0 \) and evaluates to 1. \( \square \)

C.3 Angle deformation

Lemma C.4. Let \( \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{H} \) or \( \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{S} \) and \( K \in \{1, -1\} \). Let \( x, y \in \mathcal{M} \) be two different points and different from \( x_0 \). Let \( \alpha \) be the angle \( \angle x_0xy \) formed by the vectors \( x_0 - x \) and \( y - x \). Let \( \tilde{\alpha} \) be the corresponding angle between the vectors \( \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0) \) and \( \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(y) \). The following holds:
\[
\sin(\alpha) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \|\tilde{x}\|^2}{1 + K \|\tilde{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})}}, \quad \cos(\alpha) = \cos(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 + K \|\tilde{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})}}.
\]

Proof. Note that we can restrict ourselves to \( \alpha \in [0, \pi] \) because we have \( \tilde{\alpha} = -\tilde{\alpha} \) (recall our notation about vectors with tilde). This means that the result for the range \( \alpha \in [-\pi, 0] \) can be deduced from the result for \( -\alpha \).

We start with the case \( K = -1 \). We can assume without loss of generality that the dimension is \( d = 2 \), and that the coordinate axes of \( \tilde{x} = (0, x_2) \), for \( x_2 \leq \tanh(R) \) that \( \tilde{y} = (y_1, y_2) \), for some \( y_1 \leq 0 \) and \( \tilde{\alpha} \overset{\text{def}}{=} \angle \tilde{x}\tilde{y}0 \in [0, \pi/2] \), since we can make the distance \( \|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}\| \) as small as we want. Recall \( \tilde{x}_0 = 0 \). We recall that \( d(x, x_0) = \text{arctanh}(\|\tilde{x}\|) \) and we note that \( \sinh(\text{arctanh}(t)) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - t^2}} \), so that \( \sinh(d(x, x_0)) = \|\tilde{x}\|/\sqrt{1 - \|\tilde{x}\|^2} \), for any \( \tilde{x} \in \mathcal{B} \). We will apply the hyperbolic and Euclidean law of sines \( \text{Fact C.5} \) in order to compute the value of \( \sin(\alpha) \) with respect to \( \tilde{\alpha} \). Let \( \tilde{a} \) and \( \tilde{b} \) be points in the border of \( \mathcal{B} \) such that the segment joining \( \tilde{a} \) and \( \tilde{b} \) is a chord that contains \( \tilde{x} \) and \( \tilde{y} \) and \( \|\tilde{a} - \tilde{x}\| \leq \|\tilde{y} - \tilde{y}\| \). So \( \|\tilde{a} - \tilde{x}\| \) and \( \|\tilde{b} - \tilde{y}\| \) are \( \sqrt{1 - \|\tilde{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})} - d \cos(\tilde{\alpha}) \) and...
The spherical case is similar to the hyperbolic case. We also assume without loss of generality that pass through the origin, and the Euclidean sine theorem. In \(\sin(\alpha)\), we simplify and use that the coordinates of \(\bar{y}\) are \((-\sin(\bar{y})\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|, \|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\| - \cos(\bar{y})\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|)\). Then, in (4), since \(\sin(\alpha)\) does not depend on \(\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|\), we can take the limit when \(d(x, y) \to 0\), by which we mean we take the limit \(\bar{y} \to \bar{x}\) by keeping the angle \(\bar{y}\) constant. Since a posteriori the limit of each fraction exists, we compute them one at a time. (5) uses (3) and the definition of \(\sin(d(x, y))\). In (6) we substitute \(\|\bar{a} - \bar{x}\|\) and \(\|\bar{b} - \bar{x}\|\) by their values.

The spherical case is similar to the hyperbolic case. We also assume without loss of generality that the dimension is \(d = 2\). Define \(\bar{y}\) as a point such that \(\angle x_0\bar{y} = \bar{\alpha}\). We can assume without loss of generality that the coordinates of \(\bar{x}\) are \((0, x_2)\), that \(\bar{y} = (y_1, y_2)\), for \(y_2 \leq 0\), and \(\bar{\delta} = \angle \bar{y}x_0\bar{x} \in [0, \pi/2]\), since we can make the distance \(\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|\) as small as we want. We recall that by (30) we have \(d(x_0, x) = \arctan(\|x_0 - \bar{x}\|)\) and we note that \(\sin(\arctan(t)) = \frac{t}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}}\), so that \(\sin(d(x_0, x)) = \|x_0 - \bar{x}\|/\sqrt{1 + \|x_0 - \bar{x}\|^2}\), for any \(\bar{x} \in B\). We will apply the spherical and Euclidean law of sines Fact C.3 in order to compute the value of \(\sin(\alpha)\) with respect to \(\bar{\alpha}\). We have

\[
\sqrt{1 - \|\bar{x}\|^2 \sin^2(\bar{\alpha}) + d \cos(\bar{\alpha})},
\]

respectively. We have

\[
\sin(\alpha) = \frac{\sinh(d(x_0, y)) \sin(\bar{\delta})}{\sinh(d(x, y))},
\]

\[
\frac{\|\bar{x}_0 - \bar{y}\|}{\sqrt{1 + \|x_0 - \bar{y}\|^2}}, \frac{\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\| \sin(\bar{\alpha})}{\|\bar{x}_0 - \bar{y}\|} \frac{1}{\sin(d(x, y))},
\]

\[
\frac{\sin(\bar{\alpha})}{\sqrt{1 + \|\bar{x}_0 - \bar{y}\|^2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|^2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{1 - \|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|^2 \cos(\bar{\alpha})}{\|\bar{x} - \bar{y}\|^2 + \|\bar{x}\|^2}}}.
\]

In (1) we used the spherical sine theorem. In (2) we used the expression above regarding segments that pass through the origin, and the Euclidean sine theorem. In (3), we use the fact that the co-
ordinates of \( y \) are \((-\sin(\alpha)\|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\|, d - \cos(\alpha)\|\vec{x} - \vec{y}\|)\), use the distance formula (31) and the trigonometric inequality \( \sin(\arccos(x)) = \sqrt{1-x^2}. \) Then, in (4) and (5), we multiply and simplify.

Finally, in both cases, the cosine formula is derived from the identity \( \sin^2(\alpha) + \cos^2(\alpha) = 1 \) after noticing that the sign of \( \cos(\alpha) \) and the sign of \( \cos(\alpha) \) are the same. The latter fact can be seen to hold true by noticing that \( \alpha \) is monotonous with respect to \( \alpha \) and the fact that \( \alpha = \pi/2 \) implies \( \sin(\alpha) = 0. \)

**Fact C.5 (Constant Curvature non-Euclidean Law of Sines).** Let \( S_K(\cdot) \) denote the special sine, defined as \( S_K(t) = \sin(\sqrt{K}t) \) if \( K > 0 \), \( S_K(t) = \sinh(\sqrt{-K}t) \) if \( K < 0 \) and \( S_K(t) = t \) if \( K = 0. \) Let \( a, b, c \) be the lengths of the sides of a geodesic triangle defined in a manifold of constant sectional curvature. Let \( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) be the angles of the geodesic triangle, that are opposite to the sides \( a, b, c. \) The following holds:

\[
\frac{\sin(\alpha)}{S_K(a)} = \frac{\sin(\beta)}{S_K(b)} = \frac{\sin(\gamma)}{S_K(c)}.
\]

We refer to [29] for a proof of this classical theorem.

### C.4 Gradient deformation and smoothness of \( f \)

**Lemma C.4** with \( \alpha = \pi/2, \) shows that \( e_i \perp e_j, \) for \( i \neq j. \) The rotational symmetry implies \( e_i \perp e_j \) for \( i \neq j \) and \( i, j > 1. \) As in **Lemma 2.1** let \( x \in \mathcal{M} \) be a point and assume without loss of generality that \( \vec{x} \in \text{span}\{\hat{e}_1\} \) and \( \nabla f(\vec{x}) \in \text{span}\{\hat{e}_1, \hat{e}_2\}. \) It can be assumed without loss of generality because of the symmetries. So we can assume the dimension is \( d = 2. \) Using **Lemma 2.1** we obtain that \( \hat{\alpha} = 0 \) implies \( \alpha = 0. \) Also \( \hat{\alpha} = \pi/2 \) implies \( \alpha = \pi/2, \) so the adjoint of the differential of \( h^{-1} \) at \( x, (dh^{-1})^* \) diagonalizes and has \( e_1 \) and \( e_2 \) as eigenvectors. We only need to compute the eigenvalues. The computation of the first one uses that the geodesic passing from \( x_0 \) and \( x \) can be parametrized as \( h^{-1}(\vec{x}_0 + \text{arctan}(\lambda \hat{e}_1)) \) if \( K = 1 \) and \( h^{-1}(\vec{x}_0 + \text{arctanh}(\lambda \hat{e}_1)) \) if \( K = -1. \) by [29]. The derivative of \( \text{arctan}(\cdot) \) or \( \text{arctanh}(\cdot) \) reveals that the first eigenvector, the one corresponding to \( e_1, \) is \( 1/(1 + K\|\vec{x}\|^2), \) i.e. \( \nabla f(\vec{x})_1 = \nabla F(x)_2/(1 + K\|\vec{x}\|^2). \) For the second one, let \( x = (x_1, 0) \) and \( y = (y_1, y_2), \) with \( y_1 = x_1 \) the second eigenvector results from the computation, for \( K = -1: \)

\[
\lim_{y_2 \to 0} \frac{d(x, y)}{y_2} = \lim_{y_2 \to 0} \frac{1}{2y_2} \log \left( 1 + \frac{2y_2}{\sqrt{1 - x_1^2} - y_2} \right) = \lim_{y_2 \to 0} \frac{1}{2y_2} \log \left( 1 + \frac{2y_2}{\sqrt{1 - x_1^2} - y_2} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x_1^2}}.
\]

and for \( K = 1: \)

\[
\lim_{y_2 \to 0} \frac{d(x, y)}{y_2} = \lim_{y_2 \to 0} \frac{1}{y_2} \arccos \left( \frac{\sqrt{1 + x_1^2}}{\sqrt{1 + x_1^2 + y_2^2}} \right) = \lim_{y_2 \to 0} \sqrt{1 + x_1^2 + y_2^2} = 1.
\]

So, since \( x_1 = \|\vec{x}\|, \) we have \( \nabla f(\vec{x})_2 = \nabla F(x)_2/\sqrt{1 + K\|\vec{x}\|^2} \) for \( K \in \{1, -1\}. \) We used L’Hôpital’s rule in (1) and (2).

Also note that if \( v \in T_x \mathcal{M} \) is a vector normal to \( \nabla F(x) \), then \( \hat{v} \) is normal to \( \nabla f(x). \) It is easy to see this geometrically: Indeed, no matter how \( h \) changes the geometry, since it is a geodesic map, a geodesic in the direction of first-order constant increase of \( F \) is mapped via \( h \) to a geodesic in the direction of first-order constant increase of \( f. \) And the respective gradients must be perpendicular to all these directions. Alternatively, this can been seen algebraically. Suppose first \( d = 2, \) then \( v \) is
We want to take the derivative of this expression with respect to $f$ written in this basis. Then we can compute the gradient of vector $\tilde{v}$ proportional to $\nabla f(x)$ at $x$. Let $\alpha$ be the angle formed by $v$ and $-e_1$, $\tilde{\alpha}$ the corresponding angle formed between $\tilde{v}$ and $-\tilde{e}_1$. Then we have, using the expression for the vectors proportional to $v$ and $\tilde{v}$:

$$
\sin(\alpha) = \frac{-f(x_2)}{\sqrt{\nabla f(x_2)^2 + (1 + \|x\|^2)\nabla f(x_1)}} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin(\tilde{\alpha}) = \frac{-f(x_2)}{\sqrt{\nabla f(x_2)^2 + \nabla f(x_1)}}
$$

and an easy computation yields $\sin(\alpha) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha})\sqrt{(1 + K\|x\|^2)/(1 + K\|x\|^2)}$, which after applying Lemma C.4 we obtain $\sin(\tilde{\alpha}) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha})$ from which we conclude that $\tilde{\alpha} = \tilde{\alpha}$ given that the angles are in the same quadrant. So $\tilde{v} \perp \nabla f(x)$. In order to prove this for $d \geq 3$ one can apply the reduction (42) to the case $d = 2$ that we obtain in the next section.

Combining the results obtained so far in Appendix C, we can prove Lemma 2.1. We continue by proving Lemma 2.3, which will generalize the computations we just performed, in order to analyze this Section C.4.

**Proof of Lemma 2.1.** The lemma follows from Lemmas C.2, C.3, C.4 and the previous reasoning in this Section C.4.

**Proof of Lemma 2.3.** We will compute the Hessian of $f = F \circ h^{-1}$ and we will bound its spectral norm for any point $\hat{x} \in \mathcal{B}$. We can assume without loss of generality that $d = 2$ and $\hat{x} = (\ell, 0)$, for $\ell > 0$ (the case $\ell = 0$ is trivial), since there is a rotational symmetry with $e_1$ as axis. This means that by rotating we could align the top eigenvector of the Hessian at a point so that it is in span$\{e_1, e_2\}$. Let $y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathcal{B}$ be another point, with $y_1 = \ell$. We can also assume that $y_2 > 0$ without loss of generality, because of our symmetry. Our approach will be the following. We know by Lemma C.4 and by the beginning of this section C.4 that the adjoint of the differential of $h^{-1}$ at $y$, $(dh^{-1})^*_y$, has Exp$_y^{-1}(x_0)$ and a normal vector to it as eigenvectors. Their corresponding eigenvalues are $1/(1 + K\|\hat{y}\|^2)$ and $1/\sqrt{1 + K\|\hat{y}\|^2}$, respectively. Consider the basis of $T_xM \{e_1, e_2\}$ as defined at the beginning of this section, i.e. where $e_1$ is a unit vector proportional to $-\text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0)$ and $e_2$ is the normal vector to $e_1$ that makes the basis orthonormal. Consider this basis being transported to $y$ using parallel transport and denote the result $\{v_y, v_y^\top\}$. Assume we have the gradient $\nabla f(y)$ written in this basis. Then we can compute the gradient of $f$ at $y$ by applying $(dh^{-1})^*_y$. In order to do that, we compose the change of basis from $\{v_y, v_y^\top\}$ to the basis of eigenvectors of $(dh^{-1})^*_y$, then we apply a diagonal transformation given by the eigenvalues and finally we change the basis to $\{\tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_2\}$. Once this is done, we can differentiate with respect to $y_2$ in order to compute a column of the Hessian. Let $\tilde{\alpha}$ be the angle formed by the vectors $\tilde{y}$ and $\hat{x}$. Note that $\tilde{\alpha} = \arctan(y_2/y_1)$. Let $\tilde{\gamma}$ be the angle formed by the vectors $(\hat{y} - \hat{x})$ and $-\hat{y}$. That is, the angle $\tilde{\gamma} = \pi - \angle \hat{x}\hat{y}\hat{x}_0$. Since $v_y^\top$ is the parallel transport of $e_2^\top$, the angle between $v_y^\top$ and the vector Exp$_x^{-1}(x_0)$ is $\gamma$. Note we use the same convention as before for the angles, i.e. $\gamma$ is the corresponding angle to $\tilde{\gamma}$, meaning that if $\gamma$ is the angle between two intersecting geodesics in $M$, then $\tilde{\gamma}$ is the angle between the respective corresponding geodesics in $\mathcal{B}$. Note the first change of basis is a rotation and that the angle of rotation is $\gamma - \pi/2$. The last change of basis is a rotation with angle equal to the angle formed by a vector $\hat{v}$ normal to $-\hat{y}$ ( $\hat{v}$ is the one such that $-\hat{y} \times \hat{v} > 0$) and the vector $\tilde{e}_2$. It is easy to see that this vector is equal to $\tilde{\alpha}$. So we have

$$
\nabla f(y) = \begin{pmatrix}
\cos(\tilde{\alpha}) & -\sin(\tilde{\alpha}) \\
\sin(\tilde{\alpha}) & \cos(\tilde{\alpha})
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
\frac{1}{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2)} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2)}}
\end{pmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
\sin(\gamma) & -\cos(\gamma) \\
\cos(\gamma) & \sin(\gamma)
\end{pmatrix}
\nabla F(y)
$$

We want to take the derivative of this expression with respect to $y_2$ and we want to evaluate it at $y_2 = 0$. Let the matrices above be $A$, $B$ and $C$ so that $\nabla f(y) = ABC\nabla F(y)$. Using Lemma C.4
we have
\[
\sin(\gamma) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2)}{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2) \sin^2(\tilde{\alpha})}} \leq \frac{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2)}{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2) \cos^2(\tilde{\alpha})},
\]
\[
\cos(\gamma) = -\sin(\tilde{\alpha}) \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 + K(y_1^2 + y_2^2) \cos^2(\tilde{\alpha})}},
\]
where \(^1\) follows from \(\sin(\tilde{\alpha}) = \sin(\tilde{\alpha} + \pi/2) = \cos(\tilde{\alpha})\). Now we can easily compute some quantities
\[
A|_{y_2=0} = I, \quad B|_{y_2=0} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{1+K y_1^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad C|_{y_2=0} = I,
\]
\[
\frac{\partial A}{\partial y_2} \bigg|_{y_2=0} = 0, \quad \frac{\partial C}{\partial y_2} \bigg|_{y_2=0} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{1+K y_1^2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \end{pmatrix},
\]
\[
\frac{\partial B}{\partial y_2} \bigg|_{y_2=0} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2K y_2}{1+K(y_1^2+y_2^2)^{3/2}} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2K y_2}{2(1+K(y_1^2+y_2^2)^{3/2})} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix},
\]
\[
\frac{\partial C}{\partial y_2} \bigg|_{y_2=0} = \frac{1}{y_1 \sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.
\]
Equalities \(^1\) and \(^2\) follow after using \(37\), \(\tilde{\alpha} = \arctan(\frac{\gamma}{y_2})\) and taking derivatives. Now we differentiate \(36\) with respect to \(y_2\) and evaluate to \(y_2 = 0\) using the chain rule. The result is
\[
\begin{pmatrix} \nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{11} \\ \nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \partial A \partial y_2 & \partial B \partial y_2 & \partial C \partial y_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \nabla F(x) + A \cdot \frac{\partial F}{\partial y_2} \nabla F(x) + A \cdot \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial y_2^2} \nabla F(x) + ABC \cdot \frac{\partial^3 F}{\partial y_2^3} \end{pmatrix} \bigg|_{y_2=0}
\]
\[
= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{2K y_2}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \frac{\nabla f(\hat{x})_{1}}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{2K y_2}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \frac{\nabla f(\hat{x})_{2}}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{11}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} & \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{12}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} \\ \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{21}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} & \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{22}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} \end{pmatrix}.
\]
Computing the other column of the Hessian is easier. We can just consider \(36\) with \(\tilde{\alpha} = 0\) and \(\gamma = \pi/2\) and vary \(y_1\). Taking derivatives with respect to \(y_1\) gives
\[
\begin{pmatrix} \nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{11} \\ \nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{21} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2K y_1}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \frac{\nabla f(\hat{x})_{1}}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} & \frac{2K y_1}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \frac{\nabla f(\hat{x})_{2}}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{11}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} & \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{12}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} \\ \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{21}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} & \frac{\nabla^2 F(x)_{22}}{(1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} \end{pmatrix}.
\]
Note in the computations of both of the columns of the Hessian we have used
\[
\frac{\partial \nabla F(y_i)}{\partial y_i} = \nabla F(x)_{11} \cdot \frac{1}{1+K y_1^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \nabla F(y_i)}{\partial y_i} \bigg|_{y_2=0} = \nabla F(x)_{22} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+K y_1^2}}.
\]
for \(i = 1, 2\). The eigenvalues of the adjoint of the differential of \(h^{-1}\) appear as a factor because we are differentiating with respect to the geodesic in \(\mathcal{B}\) which moves at a different speed than the corresponding geodesic in \(\mathcal{M}\). Note as well, as a sanity check, that the cross derivatives are equal, since
\[
-\frac{1}{y_1 \sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} + \frac{1}{y_1 (1+K y_1^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{1}{y_1 \sqrt{1+K y_1^2}} \frac{1}{1+K y_1^2} \frac{1}{1+K y_1^2} = -\frac{K y_1}{(1-y_1^2)^{3/2}}.
\]
Finally, we bound the new smoothness constant \(\hat{L}\) by bounding the spectral norm of this Hessian. First note that using \(y_1 = \hat{\ell}\) we have that \(\sqrt{1+K \hat{\ell}^2} = C_K(\hat{\ell})\) and then for \(K = -1\) it is \(\hat{\ell} = \tanh(\hat{\ell})\) and for \(K = 1\) it is \(\hat{\ell} = \tan(\hat{\ell})\), where \(\ell = d(x, x_0) < R\). We have that since there is a point \(x^* \in \mathcal{M}\) such that \(\nabla F(x^*) = 0\) and \(F\) is L-smooth, then it is \(\|\nabla F(x)\| \leq 2LR\). Similarly, by \(L\)-smoothness \(\|\nabla^2 F(x)_{ij}\| \leq L\). We are now ready prove smoothness:
\[
\hat{L}^2 \leq \|\nabla^2 f(\hat{x})\|_F^2 \leq \|\nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{11}\| + 2\|\nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{12}\| + 2\|\nabla^2 f(\hat{x})_{22}\| \leq \hat{L}^2 (C_K^2(R) + 4RS_K(R)C_K^2(R))^2 + 2(C_K^4(R) + 2RS_K(R)C_K^2(R))^2 + C_K^4(R)
\]
and this can be bounded by \(44L^2 \max\{1, R^2\}\) if \(K = 1\) and \(44L^2 \max\{1, R^2\} C_K^2(R)\) if \(K = -1\). In any case, it is \(O(L^2)\).
C.5 Proof of Lemma 2.2

Proof of Lemma 2.2 Assume for the moment the dimension is $d = 2$. We can assume without loss of generality that $\tilde{x} = (\tilde{t}, 0)$. We are given two vectors, that are the gradients $\nabla F(x), \nabla f(\tilde{x})$ and a vector $w \in T_x M$. Let $\delta$ be the angle between $\tilde{w}$ and $-\tilde{x}$. Let $\delta$ be the corresponding angle, i.e. the angle between $w$ and $u \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0)$. Let $\alpha$ be the angle in between $\nabla F(x)$ and $u$. Let $\tilde{\beta}$ be the angle in between $\nabla f(\tilde{x})$ and $-\tilde{x}$. $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are defined similarly. We claim

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\langle \nabla F(x), w \rangle}{\|\nabla F(x)\| \cdot \|w\|} &= \frac{1 + K \ell^2}{(1 + K \ell^2 \sin^2(\delta))(1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta))}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Let’s see how to arrive to this expression. By Lemma 2.1(c) we have

$$
\tan(\alpha) = \frac{\cos(\tilde{\beta})}{\sqrt{1 + K \ell^2}}.
$$

From this relationship we can deduce

$$
\cos(\alpha) = \cos(\tilde{\beta}) \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \ell^2}{1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta)}}.
$$

This comes from squaring (39), reorganizing terms and noting that $\text{sign}(\cos(\alpha)) = \text{sign}(\cos(\tilde{\beta}))$ which is implied by Lemma 2.1(c). We are now ready to prove the claim (38) (for $d = 2$). We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle \nabla F(x), w \rangle &= \cos(\alpha - \delta) \\
\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), w \rangle &= \frac{\cos(\delta) + \tan(\alpha) \sin(\delta)}{\cos(\beta) \cos(\delta) + \sin(\beta) \sin(\delta)} \cos(\alpha) \\
&\overset{2}{=} \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \ell^2 \sin^2(\delta)}{1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta)}} \cos(\beta) \cos(\delta) + \sin(\beta) \sin(\delta) \\
&\overset{3}{=} \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \ell^2}{1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta)}} \cos(\beta) \cos(\delta) + \sin(\beta) \sin(\delta) \\
&\overset{4}{=} \sqrt{1 + K \ell^2} \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \ell^2}{1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta)}} \\
&= \frac{1 + K \ell^2}{(1 + K \ell^2 \sin^2(\delta))(1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta))}.
\end{aligned}
$$

Equality (1) follows by the definition of $\alpha, \delta, \tilde{\alpha}$ and $\tilde{\beta}$. In (2), we used trigonometric identities. In (3) we used Lemma C.3 (39) and (40). By reordering the expression, the denominator cancels out with a factor of the numerator in (4).

In order to work with arbitrary dimension, we note it is enough to prove it for $d = 3$, since in order to bound

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle \nabla F(x), w \rangle &= \frac{1}{\|\nabla F(x)\| \cdot \|w\|} \\
\langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), w \rangle &= \frac{1}{\|\nabla f(\tilde{x})\| \cdot \|w\|}
\end{aligned}
$$

it is enough to consider the following submanifold

$$
M' \overset{\text{def}}{=} \text{Exp}_x(\text{span}\{v, \text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0), \nabla F(x)\}).
$$

for an arbitrary vector $v \in T_x M$ and a point $x$ defined as above. The case $d = 3$ can be further reduced to the case $d = 2$ in the following way. Suppose $M'$ is a three dimensional manifold (if it is one or two dimensional there is nothing to do). Define the following orthonormal basis of $T_x M$, $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ where $e_1 = -\text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0)/\|\text{Exp}_x^{-1}(x_0)\|$, $e_2$ is a unit vector, normal to $e_1$ such that $e_2 \in \text{span}\{e_1, \nabla F(x)\}$, and $e_3$ is a vector that completes the orthonormal basis. In this basis, let $v$ be parameterized by $\|v\|(\sin(\delta), \cos(\nu) \cos(\delta), \sin(\nu) \cos(\delta))$, where $\delta$ can be thought as the angle between the vector $v$ and its projection onto the plane $\text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$ and $\nu$ can be thought as the angle between this projection and its projection onto $e_2$. Similarly we parameterize $\tilde{v}$ by $\|\tilde{v}\|(\sin(\tilde{\delta}), \cos(\nu) \cos(\delta), \sin(\nu) \cos(\delta))$, where the base used is the analogous base to the previous
one, i.e. The vectors \( \{\tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_2, \tilde{e}_3\} \). Taking into account that \( e_2 \perp e_1, e_3 \perp e_1, \tilde{e}_2 \perp \tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_3 \perp \tilde{e}_1 \), and the fact that \( e_1 \) is parallel to \(-\text{Exp}_x(x_0)\), by the radial symmetry of the geodesic map we have that \( \nu = \tilde{\nu} \). Also, by looking at the submanifold \( \text{Exp}_x(\text{span}\{e_1, v\}) \) and using Lemma C.4 we have

\[
\sin(\delta) = \sin(\tilde{\delta}) \sqrt{1 + K\ell^2}.
\]

If we want to compare \( \langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle \) with \( \langle \nabla f(\tilde{x}), \tilde{v} \rangle \) we should be able to just zero out the third components of \( v \) and \( \tilde{v} \) and work in \( d = 2 \). But in order to completely reduce to the two-dimensional case we studied a few paragraphs above, we would need to prove that if we call \( w \equiv (\sin(\delta), \cos(\nu) \cos(\delta), 0) \) the vector \( v \) with the third component made 0, then \( \tilde{w} \) is in the same direction of the vector \( \tilde{v} \), when the third component is made 0. The norm of these two vectors will not be the same, however. Let \( \tilde{w}' = (\sin(\delta), \cos(\nu) \cos(\delta), 0) \) be the vector \( \tilde{v} \) when the third component is made 0. Then

\[
\|w\| = \|v\| \sqrt{\sin^2(\delta) + \cos^2(\delta) \cos^2(\nu)} \quad \text{and} \quad \|\tilde{w}'\| = \|\tilde{v}\| \sqrt{\sin^2(\tilde{\delta}) + \cos^2(\tilde{\delta}) \cos^2(\nu)}. \tag{41}
\]

But indeed, we claim

\( \tilde{w} \) and \( \tilde{w}' \) have the same direction. \tag{42}

This is easy to see geometrically: since we are working with a geodesic map, the submanifolds \( \text{Exp}_x(\text{span}\{v, e_3\}) \) and \( \text{Exp}_x(\text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}) \) contain \( w \). Similarly the submanifolds \( x + \text{span}\{\tilde{v}, e_3\} \) and \( x + \text{span}\{\tilde{e}_1, \tilde{e}_2\} \) contain \( \tilde{w}' \). If the intersections of each of these pair of manifolds is a geodesic then the geodesic map must map one intersection to the other one, implying \( \tilde{w} \) is proportional to \( \tilde{w}' \). If the intersections are degenerate the case is trivial. Alternatively, one can prove this fact algebraically after some computations. If we call \( \delta^* \) and \( \tilde{\delta}' \) the angles formed by, respectively, the vectors \( e_2 \) and \( w \), and the vectors \( \tilde{e}_2 \) and \( \tilde{w}' \), then we have \( \tilde{w}' \) is proportional to \( \tilde{w} \) iff \( \delta^* = \tilde{\delta}' \), or equivalently \( \delta^* = \tilde{\delta}' \). Using the definitions of \( w \) and \( \tilde{w}' \) we have

\[
\sin(\delta^*) = \sin\left(\arctan\left(\frac{\sin(\delta)}{\cos(\nu) \cos(\delta)}\right)\right) = \frac{\tan(\delta) / \cos(\nu)}{(\tan(\delta) / \cos(\nu))^2 + 1} = \frac{\sin(\delta)}{\sqrt{\sin^2(\delta) + \cos^2(\nu) \cos^2(\delta)}},
\]

and analogously

\[
\sin(\tilde{\delta}') = \sin\left(\arctan\left(\frac{\sin(\tilde{\delta})}{\cos(\nu) \cos(\tilde{\delta})}\right)\right) = \frac{\tan(\tilde{\delta}) / \cos(\nu)}{(\tan(\tilde{\delta}) / \cos(\nu))^2 + 1} = \frac{\sin(\tilde{\delta})}{\sqrt{\sin^2(\tilde{\delta}) + \cos^2(\nu) \cos^2(\tilde{\delta})}}. \tag{43}
\]

Using Lemma C.4 for the pairs \( \delta', \tilde{\delta}' \) and \( \delta^*, \tilde{\delta}' \), and the equations above we obtain

\[
\sin(\delta^*) = \frac{\sin(\delta)}{\sqrt{1 + K\ell^2}} \frac{1 + K\ell^2}{1 + K\ell^2 \sin^2(\delta)} = \frac{\sin(\delta)}{\sqrt{\sin^2(\delta)(1 + K\ell^2) + \cos^2(\nu) \cos^2(\delta)}},
\]

and

\[
\sin(\tilde{\delta}') = \frac{\sin(\tilde{\delta})}{\sqrt{\sin^2(\tilde{\delta}) + \cos^2(\nu) \cos^2(\tilde{\delta})}} \frac{1 + K\ell^2}{\sin^2(\delta) + \cos^2(\nu) \cos^2(\delta)}. \tag{44}
\]

The two expressions on the right hand side are equal. This implies \( \sin(\delta') = \sin(\delta^*) \). Since the angles were in the same quadrant we have \( \delta' = \delta^* \) by checking in which sectors the angles must be.

We can now come back to the study of \( \frac{\langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle}{\|
\nabla F(x)\|} \). By (41) we have

\[
\frac{\langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle}{\|
\nabla f(\tilde{x})\|} \|\tilde{v}\| = \frac{\nabla F(x) \|v\|}{\|
\nabla f(\tilde{x})\|} \|\tilde{v}\| \sqrt{\sin^2(\delta) + \cos^2(\delta) \cos^2(\nu)} \]
The last two factors can be simplified. Using (38) and (41) we get that this product is equal to
\[
\sqrt{1 + K \ell^2} \sqrt{\sin^2(\tilde{\delta}) \left(\frac{1 + K \ell^2}{1 + K \ell^2 \sin^2(\tilde{\delta})}\right) + \cos^2(\nu) \frac{\cos^2(\tilde{\delta})}{1 + K \ell^2 \sin(\tilde{\delta})}}
\]
which after using (43) (recall \(\tilde{\delta}^* = \tilde{\delta}\)), and simplifying it yields
\[
\sqrt{1 + K \ell^2} \sqrt{\sin^2(\tilde{\delta}) + \cos^2(\tilde{\delta}) \cos^2(\nu)}
\]
So finally we have
\[
\frac{\langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle}{\langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{v} \rangle} = \frac{\|\nabla F(x)\| \|v\|}{\|\nabla f(\bar{x})\| \|\bar{v}\|} \sqrt{\frac{1 + K \ell^2}{(1 + K \ell^2 \sin^2(\delta))(1 + K \ell^2 \cos^2(\beta))}}.
\]
We use now [Lemma 2.1]a) and [Lemma 2.1]c), and bound \(\sin^2(\tilde{\delta})\) and \(\cos^2(\tilde{\beta})\) in order to bound the previous expression. Recall that, by (30) we have \(1/\sqrt{1 + K \ell^2} = C_K(\ell)\), for \(\ell = d(x, x_0) \leq R\).

Let’s proceed. We obtain, for \(K = -1\)
\[
cosh^{-3}(R) \leq \frac{1}{\cosh^2(\ell)} \cdot \frac{1}{\cosh(\ell)} \leq \frac{\langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle}{\langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{v} \rangle} \leq \frac{1}{\cosh(\ell)} \cdot \cosh^2(\ell) \cdot \cosh(\ell) \leq \cosh^2(R).
\]
and for \(K = 1\) it is
\[
\cos^2(R) \leq \frac{1}{\cos^2(\ell)} \cdot \cos^2(\ell) \cdot \cos(\ell) \leq \frac{\langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle}{\langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{v} \rangle} \leq \frac{1}{\cos^2(\ell)} \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{\cos(\ell)} \leq \cos^{-3}(R).
\]

The first part of [Lemma 2.2] follows, for \(\gamma_p = \cosh^{-3}(R)\) and \(\gamma_n = \cosh^{-2}(R)\) when \(K = -1\), and \(\gamma_p = \cos^2(R)\) and \(\gamma_n = \cos^3(R)\) when \(K = 1\).

The second part of [Lemma 2.2] follows readily from the first one and g-convexity of \(F\), as in the following. It holds
\[
f(\bar{x}) + \frac{1}{\gamma_n} (\nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{y} - \bar{x}) \overset{\text{1}}{\leq} F(x) + \langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle \overset{\text{2}}{\leq} F(y) = f(\bar{y}),
\]
and
\[
f(\bar{x}) + \gamma_p (\nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{y} - \bar{x}) \overset{\text{3}}{\leq} F(x) + \langle \nabla F(x), y - x \rangle \overset{\text{4}}{\leq} F(y) = f(\bar{y}),
\]
where \(\text{1}\) and \(\text{3}\) hold if \(\langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{y} - \bar{x} \rangle \leq 0\) and \(\langle \nabla f(\bar{x}), \bar{y} - \bar{x} \rangle \geq 0\), respectively. Inequalities \(\text{2}\) and \(\text{4}\) hold by g-convexity of \(F\).