Explore Aggressively, Update Conservatively: Stochastic Extragradient Methods with Variable Stepsize Scaling

Yu-Guan Hsieh∗1,2,3, Franck Iutzeler1,2, Jérôme Malick2,4, and Panayotis Mertikopoulos†1,4,5

1Univ. Grenoble Alpes, 2LJK, 3ENS et PSL, 4CNRS, 5Inria, Grenoble INP, LIG

Abstract

Owing to their stability and convergence speed, extragradient methods have become a staple for solving large-scale saddle-point problems in machine learning. The basic premise of these algorithms is the use of an extrapolation step before performing an update; thanks to this exploration step, extragradient methods overcome many of the non-convergence issues that plague gradient descent/ascent schemes. On the other hand, as we show in this paper, running vanilla extragradient with stochastic gradients may jeopardize its convergence, even in simple bilinear models. To overcome this failure, we investigate a double stepsize extragradient algorithm where the exploration step evolves at a more aggressive time-scale compared to the update step. We show that this modification allows the method to converge even with stochastic gradients, and we derive sharp convergence rates under an error bound condition.

1 Introduction

A major obstacle in the training of generative adversarial networks (GANs) is the lack of an implementable, strongly convergent method based on stochastic gradients. The reason for this is that the coupling of two (or more) neural networks gives rise to behaviors and phenomena that do not occur when minimizing an individual loss function, irrespective of the complexity of its landscape. As a result, there has been significant interest in the literature to codify the failures of GAN training, and to propose methods that could potentially overcome them.

Perhaps the most prominent of these failures is the appearance of cycles [6, 8, 9, 21, 22] and, potentially, the transition to aperiodic orbits and chaos [4, 10, 28, 30, 36]. Surprisingly, non-convergent phenomena of this kind are observed even in very simple saddle-point problems such as two-dimensional, unconstrained bilinear games [6, 9, 22]. In view of this, it is quite common to examine the convergence (or non-convergence) of a gradient training scheme in bilinear models before applying it to more complicated, non-convex/non-concave problems.

A key observation here is that the non-convergence of standard gradient descent-ascent methods in bilinear saddle-point problems can be overcome by incorporating a “gradient extrapolation” step before performing an update. The resulting algorithm, due to Korpelevich [15], is known as the extragradient (EG) method, and it has a long history in optimization; for an appetizer, see Facchinei & Pang [7], Juditsky et al. [13], Nemirovski [26], Nesterov [27], and references therein. In particular, the extragradient algorithm converges for all pseudomonotone variational inequalities (a large problem class that contains all bilinear games, cf.

*Correspondence to: yu-guan.hsieh@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr. This work has been partially supported by MIAI @ Grenoble Alpes, (ANR-19-P3IA-0003).
†P. Mertikopoulos was partially supported by the French National Research Agency (ANR) grant ORACLESS (ANR–16–CE33–0004–01) and the EU COST Action CA16228 “European Network for Game Theory” (GAMENET).
and the time-average of the generated iterates achieves an $O(1/t)$ rate of convergence in monotone problems \[26\].

The above concerns the application of extragradient methods with perfect, deterministic gradients and a non-vanishing stepsize. By contrast, in the type of saddle-point problems that are encountered in machine learning (GANs, robust optimization, etc.), there are two important points to keep in mind: First, the size of the datasets involved precludes the use of full gradients (for more than a few passes at least), so the method must be run with stochastic gradients instead. Second, because the landscapes encountered are not convex-concave, the method’s last iterate is typically preferred to its time-average (which offers no tangible benefits when Jensen’s inequality no longer applies). We are thus led to the following questions: (i) are the superior last-iterate convergence properties of the EG algorithm retained in the stochastic setting? And, if not, (ii) is there a principled modification that would restore them?

**Our contributions.** Our first contribution is that the answer to the first question is a clear “no”. Specifically, we show that the last iterate of the EG algorithm fails to converge, even in bilinear min-max problems where deterministic EG methods converge from any initialization. Importantly, this result is not particular to the distribution of the gradient noise or the method’s stepsize: the non-convergence of EG persists for any error distribution with positive variance (no matter how small), even if applied to only one of the players, and with any stepsize sequence (constant, decreasing, or otherwise).

To overcome this issue, our point of departure is the observation that the two steps in the extragradient method play a fundamentally different role. Relative to any given state, the algorithm’s interim, “extrapolation” step seeks to provide forward-looking gradient information, while the actual update step (which uses this information) generates a new iterate. However, if the gradients are stochastic, the benefit of this mechanism could be degraded by noise, so we need to reweigh the look-ahead mechanism appropriately.

In view of this, we consider a class of double stepsize extragradient (DSEG) methods with an exploration step evolving more aggressively than the update step. We show that the DSEG algorithm converges with probability 1 in a large class of problems that contains all monotone saddle-point problems, and we derive explicit convergence rates for the algorithm’s last iterate under an error bound condition. Specifically, our analysis shows that stochastic DSEG methods converge at a $O(1/t)$ rate in bilinear min-max problems, even though the standard EG algorithm fails to converge in this case. Finally, to account for fully non-monotone problems, we also provide local versions of these results that hold with (arbitrarily) high probability.

**Related Work.** The approaches that have been explored in the literature to ensure the convergence of stochastic EG methods in monotone problems and beyond include variance reduction methods and schemes with vanishing regularization (or “anchoring”). In regard to the former, Iusem et al. \[12\] recently showed that an increasing batch size can ensure convergence in pseudomonotone variational inequalities, a result which was subsequently improved by Chavdarova et al. \[3\] for finite-sum models. As for the latter, Koshal et al. \[16\] and Ryu et al. \[35\] regularized the problem via the addition of a strongly monotone term with vanishing weight; by properly controlling the weight reduction schedule of this regularization term, it is possible to show the method’s convergence in monotone problems. Both of these approaches are orthogonal to ours and there is no overlap in the results or the analysis.

In contrast to the above, our approach is based on a modification of the choice of the stepsizes, which has only been studied theoretically in the deterministic setting. In a very recent paper, Zhang & Yu \[39\] examined the convergence of several gradient-based algorithms (standard gradient, optimistic/extragradient, and methods with “momentum”) in unconstrained zero-sum bilinear games with deterministic oracle feedback. In more detail, Zhang & Yu \[39\] considered a more general version of these algorithms in which every gradient step may be taken with a different stepsize parameter. Interestingly, they show that the optimal (geometric) rate of convergence in bilinear games is recovered for asymptotically large “exploration” parameters $\gamma \to \infty$ and infinitesimally small “update” parameters $\eta \to 0$. Even though the setting of Zhang & Yu \[39\] is quite different from our own, it is interesting to note that the principle of a smaller
update stepsize also applies in their case – see also Liang & Stokes [17] and Mishchenko et al. [24] for a concurrent series of results, and Ryu et al. [35] for an empirical investigation into the stochastic setting.

2 Preliminaries

In this section, we briefly review some basics for the class of problems under consideration – namely, saddle-point problems and the associated vector field formulation.

Saddle-point problems. The flurry of activity surrounding the training of GANs has sparked renewed interest in saddle-point problems and zero-sum games. To define this class of problems formally, consider a value function $L : \mathbb{R}^{d_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_2} \to \mathbb{R}$ which assigns a cost of $L(\theta, \phi)$ to a player controlling $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1}$, and a payoff of $-L(\theta, \phi)$ to a player choosing $\phi \in \mathbb{R}^{d_2}$. Then, the saddle-point problem associated to a $L$ consists of finding a profile $(\theta^*, \phi^*) \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{d_2}$ such that, for all $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1}$, $\phi \in \mathbb{R}^{d_2}$, we have:

$$L(\theta^*, \phi) \leq L(\theta^*, \phi^*) \leq L(\theta, \phi^*).$$

In this setting, the pair $(\theta^*, \phi^*)$ is called a (global) saddle point of $L$ – or, in game-theoretic terminology, a Nash equilibrium (NE). For concision and generality, we will often abstract away from $\theta$ and $\phi$ by setting $x = (\theta, \phi) \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (where, in obvious notation, $d = d_1 + d_2$).

Vector field formulation. In most cases of interest, the objective $L$ is differentiable and is usually accessed through a first-order oracle returning values of the vector field

$$V(\theta, \phi) = (\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta, \phi), -\nabla_{\phi} L(\theta, \phi)).$$

As is usual in gradient-based methods, we will frequently (though not always) assume that $V$ is Lipschitz continuous:

**Assumption 1.** The field $V$ is $\beta$-Lipschitz continuous i.e.,

$$\|V(x') - V(x)\| \leq \beta \|x' - x\|$$

for all $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$.

The importance of the above is that (SP) is often intractable, so it is natural to examine instead the first-order stationarity conditions for $V$, i.e., the problem:

Find $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ such that $V(x^*) = 0$. 

(Opt)

This “vector field formulation” is the unconstrained case of what is known in the literature as a variational inequality (VI) problem – see e.g., Facchinei & Pang [7] for a comprehensive introduction. In what follows, we will not need the full generality of the VI framework and we will develop our results in the context of (Opt) above; our only blanket assumption in this regard is that the set of solutions $X^*$ of (Opt) is nonempty.

Feedback assumptions. Throughout the sequel, we will assume that the optimizer can access $V$ via a stochastic first-order oracle (SFO). This means that at every stage $t$ of an iterative algorithm, the optimizer can call this black-box mechanism at a point $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ to get a feedback of the for $\hat{V}_t = V(X_t) + Z_t$,

(SFO)

where $Z_t \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is an additive noise variable. Our bare-bones assumptions for this oracle will then be as follows:
Assumption 2. The noise term $Z_t$ of (SFO) satisfies

\[ a) \quad \text{Zero-mean: } \mathbb{E}[Z_t \mid \mathcal{F}_t] = 0. \]  
\[ (1a) \]

\[ b) \quad \text{Finite variance: } \mathbb{E}[\|Z_t\|_2^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_t] \leq \sigma^2. \]  
\[ (1b) \]

where $\mathcal{F}_t$ denotes the history (natural filtration) of $X_t$.

These assumptions are among the mildest in the literature (where it is common to assume $Z_t$ to be sub-Gaussian or even almost surely bounded). Since the noise is associated with $\hat{V}_t$, $Z_t$ is not $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable; however, since $X_t$ depends on all $(Z_s)_{s<t}$, $Z_t-\mathcal{F}_t$ is $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable.

3 The extragradient method and its limit

As discussed earlier, the go-to method for saddle-point problems and variational inequalities is the extragradient (EG) algorithm of Korpelevich [15] and its variants. Formally, in the general setting of the previous section, the EG algorithm can be stated recursively as:

\[ X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \gamma_t \hat{V}_t \]

\[ X_{t+1} = X_t - \gamma_t \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \]  
\[ \text{(EG)} \]

where $\gamma_t > 0$ is a variable stepsize sequence. Heuristically, the basic idea of the method is as follows: starting from a base state $X_t$, the algorithm first performs a look-ahead step to generate an intermediate — or leading — state $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$; subsequently, the oracle is called at $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$, and the method proceeds to a new state $X_{t+1}$ by taking a step from the base state $X_t$. Hence, the generation of the leading state can be seen as an exploration step while the second part is the bona fide update step.

One of the reasons for the widespread popularity of (EG) is that it achieves convergence in all monotone problems, without suffering from the non-convergence phenomena (limit cycles or otherwise) that plague vanilla one-step gradient algorithms [7]. However, this guarantee requires the method to be run with deterministic, perfect oracle feedback (i.e., $Z_t = 0$ for all $t$); if the method is run with genuinely stochastic feedback, the situation is considerably more complicated.

To understand the issues involved, it will be convenient to consider the following elementary example:

\[ \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}} \max_{\phi \in \mathbb{R}} \theta \phi. \]  
\[ (2) \]

Trivially, the vector field associated to (2) is $V(\theta, \phi) = (\phi, -\theta)$ and the problem’s unique solution is $(\theta^*, \phi^*) = (0, 0)$. Given the problem’s simple structure, one would expect that (EG) should be easily capable of reaching a solution; however, as we discuss below, this is not the case.

Indeed, in a recent paper, Chavdarova et al. [3] showed that if (EG) is run with a constant stepsize and noise with unbounded variance, the method’s iterates actually diverge at a geometric rate. On the face of it, one could argue that this divergent behavior is due to the relaxation of the bounded variance assumption (1b). However, even if (1b) holds, running (EG) with a constant stepsize would still mean that $X_t$ is an ergodic Markov chain [2]; as a result, $X_t$ cannot converge to a point mass at 0 (almost surely, in probability, or in $L^1$).

This type of non-convergent phenomena in constant stepsize stochastic approximation processes has been well-documented in the literature since the seminal work of Robbins & Monro [33]. Indeed, to achieve last-iterate (or trajectory) convergence in the presence of noise, it is customary to employ a vanishing stepsize schedule satisfying the so-called Robbins–Monro conditions $\sum_t \gamma_t = \infty$, $\sum_t \gamma_t^2 < \infty$. However, as we show below, this remedy is not enough: if (EG) is run with noisy feedback, its trajectories remain non-convergent for any error distribution with positive variance (no matter how small), even if the noise is applied to only one of the players, and with any stepsize sequence (constant, decreasing, or otherwise).
Figure 1: Behavior of (EG) and (DSEG) on Problem (2) with Gaussian oracle noise. Even with a vanishing, square-summable stepsize $\gamma_t = 1/t^{0.6}$, the iterates of (EG) cycle; on the other hand, (DSEG) with $\gamma_t = 1/t^{0.1}$ and $\eta_t = 1/t^{0.9}$ clearly converges.

**Proposition 1.** Suppose that (EG) is run on the problem (2) with oracle feedback $\hat{V}_t = V(\theta_t, \phi_t) + (\xi_t, 0)$ for some zero-mean random variable $\xi_t$ with variance $\sigma^2 > 0$. We then have $\liminf_{t \to \infty} E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] > 0$, i.e., the iterates of (EG) remain on average a positive distance away from 0.

Importantly, Proposition 1 places no restrictions on the algorithm’s stepsize sequence and the variance of the noise could be arbitrarily small. Relegating the details to the appendix, the key to showing this result is the recursion

$$E[\theta_{t+1}^2 + \phi_{t+1}^2] = (1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + (1 + \gamma_t^2) \gamma_t^2 \sigma^2.$$  

from which it follows that $\liminf_t E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] > 0$. In turn, this implies that the iterates of (EG) remain on average a positive distance away from the origin. This behavior is illustrated clearly in Fig. 1 which shows a typical non-convergent trajectory of (EG) in the planar problem (2).

### 4 Extragradient with stepsize scaling

At a high level, Proposition 1 suggests that the benefit of the exploration step is negated by the noise as the iterates of (EG) get closer to the problem’s solution set. To rectify this issue, we will consider a more flexible, double stepsize extragradient (DSEG) method of the form

$$X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \gamma_t \hat{V}_t,$$

$$X_{t+1} = X_t - \eta_t \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}},$$

(DSEG)

with $\gamma_t \geq \eta_t > 0$. The key idea in (DSEG) is that the scaling of the method’s stepsize parameters affords us an extra degree of freedom which can be tuned to order. In particular, motivated by the failure of (EG) described in the previous section, we will take a stepsize scaling schedule in which the exploration step evolves at a more aggressive time-scale compared to the update step. In so doing, the method will keep exploring (possibly with a near-constant stepsize) while maintaining a cautious update policy that does not blindly react to the observed oracle signals.

For illustration and comparison, we plot in Fig. 1 an instance of this method with a fairly aggressive exploration schedule ($\gamma_t = 1/t^{0.1}$) and a respectively conservative update policy ($\eta_t = 1/t^{0.9}$). In contrast to (EG), the iterates of (DSEG) now converge to a solution fairly quickly. We encode this as a positive counterpart to Proposition 1 below:
Proposition 1'. Suppose that (DSEG) is run on the problem (2) with oracle feedback \( \hat{V}_t = V(\theta_t, \phi_t) + (\xi_t, 0) \) for some zero-mean random variable \( \xi_t \) with variance \( \sigma^2 > 0 \). If the method’s stepsize policies are of the form \( \gamma_t = 1/t^{r_\gamma} \) and \( \eta_t = 1/t^{r_\eta} \) for some \( r_\gamma > r_\eta \geq 0 \) with \( r_\gamma + r_\eta \leq 1 \), we have \( \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] \to 0 \).

From an analytic viewpoint, the key that distinguishes (EG) from (DSEG) is the following refined bound:

**Lemma 1.** Under Assumptions 1 and 2, the iterates of (DSEG) satisfy the inequality

\[
\mathbb{E}[\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2 | \mathcal{F}_t] \leq \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \mathbb{E}[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p) \rangle | \mathcal{F}_t] 
- \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - \gamma_t^2 \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2,
\]

for all \( t = 1, 2, \ldots \) and \( p \in \mathbb{R}^d \).

The proof of Lemma 1, which we defer to the supplement, relies on a careful analysis of the update between successive iterates to separate the deterministic and the stochastic effects. In particular, analyzing the bound of Lemma 1 term-by-term gives a clear picture of how an aggressive exploration stepsize policy can be helpful:

1. The term \( \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - \gamma_t^2 \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 \) provides a consistently negative contribution as long as \( \sup_t \gamma_t < 1/\beta \).
2. The term involving \( \sigma^2 \) is antagonistic and needs to be made as small as possible.

[Above, we drop the term \( \mathbb{E}[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p) \rangle | \mathcal{F}_t] \) because it is identically zero in bilinear problems if \( p \in \mathcal{X}^* \).]

Therefore, to obtain convergence, one needs the coefficient \( \gamma_t \eta_t \) to be as large as possible (provided of course that \( \sup_t \gamma_t < 1/\beta \)) and, concurrently, each of the terms \( \gamma_t^2 \eta_t \), \( \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \) and \( \eta_t^2 \) that appear in the last term should be as small as possible. This can be made rigorous by an argument based on a) extracting a convergent subsequence; and b) applying the Robbins–Siegmund theorem for almost-supermartingales. Formally, this leads to the requirement \( \sum_t \gamma_t \eta_t = \infty \) for the former and \( \sum_t \eta_t^2 < \infty \) for the latter. These conditions can be simultaneously achieved by a suitable choice of \( \gamma_t \) and \( \eta_t \) (cf. Proposition 1’ above), but they are mutually exclusive if \( \gamma_t = \eta_t \). This observation is the key motivation for the scale separation between the exploration and the update mechanisms in (DSEG), and is the principal reason that (EG) fails to converge in bilinear problems.

## 5 Convergence analysis

We now proceed with our main results for the DSEG algorithm. We begin in Section 5.1 with an asymptotic convergence analysis for (DSEG); subsequently, in Section 5.2, we examine the algorithm’s rate of convergence; finally, in Section 5.3, we zero in on affine problems. Given our interest in non-monotone problems, we make a clear distinction between global results (which require global assumptions) and local ones (which apply to more general problems).

### 5.1 Asymptotic convergence

**Global convergence.** Our main assumption to ensure global convergence is a variational stability condition.

**Assumption 3.** The operator \( V \) satisfies

\[
\langle V(x), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^d, x^* \in \mathcal{X}^*,
\]

(VS)
Assumption 3 is verified for all monotone operator but it also encompasses a wide range of non-monotone problems; for an overview see e.g., Facchinei & Pang [7], Iusem et al. [12], Kannan & Shanbhag [14], Liu et al. [18], Mertikopoulos et al. [22], and references therein.

To leverage this assumption, we will further need the algorithm’s update step to decrease sufficiently quickly relative to the corresponding exploration step. Formally (and with a fair degree of hindsight), this boils down to the following:

Assumption 4. The stepsize parameters of (DSEG) satisfy

\[ a) \ \gamma_t \leq \frac{1}{\beta}; \]
\[ b) \ \sum_t \gamma_t \eta_t = \infty, \ \sum_t \eta_t^2 < \infty, \ \text{and} \ \sum_t \gamma_t^2 \eta_t < \infty. \]

Assumption 4 essentially posits that \( \eta_t / \gamma_t \to 0 \) as \( t \to \infty \), so it reflects precisely the principle of “aggressive exploration, conservative updates”. In particular, Assumption 4 rules out the choice \( \gamma_t = \eta_t \) which would yield the vanilla EG algorithm, providing further evidence for the use of a double stepsize policy.

A typical stepsize policy for (DSEG) is

\[ \gamma_t = \frac{\gamma}{(t+b)^{r_\gamma}} \quad \text{and} \quad \eta_t = \frac{\eta}{(t+b)^{r_\eta}} \]  

for some \( \gamma, \eta, b > 0 \) and exponents \( r_\gamma, r_\eta \in [0, 1] \). Assumption 4-b then translates as \( r_\gamma + r_\eta \leq 1, 2r_\eta > 1, \) and \( 2r_\gamma + r_\eta > 1 \) as represented in Fig. 2.

With this in mind, we have the following convergence result.

**Theorem 1.** Under Assumptions 1–4, the iterates \( X_t \) of (DSEG) converge almost surely to a solution \( x^* \) of \((\text{Opt})\).

As far as we are aware, this is the first result of this type for stochastic first-order methods: almost sure convergence typically requires stronger hypotheses guaranteeing that \( \langle V(x), x - x^* \rangle \) is uniformly positive when \( x \notin X^* \) [14, 22]. In particular, Theorem 1 implies the almost sure convergence of the algorithm for bilinear problems like (2) where EG and standard gradient methods do not converge.

**Local convergence.** To extend Theorem 1 to fully non-monotone settings, we will consider the following local version of Assumptions 1 and 3 near a solution point \( x^* \):

Assumption 1'. (LC) holds for all \( x \) near \( x^* \).
Assumption 3’. (VS) holds for all \( x \) near \( x^* \).

Our next result shows that, with a slightly stronger assumption on the noise (finite \( q \)-th moment for \( q > 2 \)), the DSEG algorithm converges locally and with high probability to solutions that satisfy Assumptions 1’ and 3’.

**Theorem 2.** Fix a tolerance level \( \delta > 0 \) and suppose that Assumptions 1’ and 3’ hold for some isolated solution \( x^* \) of (Opt). Assume further that (DSEG) is run with SFO feedback satisfying Assumption 2 and \( \mathbb{E}[\|Z_t\|^q] \leq \sigma^q \) for some \( q > 2 \), and stepsize parameters of the form (4) with small enough \( \gamma, \eta \) and proper choice of \( r_\gamma, r_\eta \) (cf. Fig. 2). If the algorithm is not initialized too far from \( x^* \), its iterates converge to \( x^* \) with probability at least \( 1 - \delta \).

The first step towards proving Theorem 2 is to show that the generated iterates stay close to \( x^* \) with arbitrarily high probability. To achieve this, one needs to control the total noise accumulating from each noisy step, a task which is made difficult by the fact that the norm of the SFO feedback can only be upper bounded recursively and thus depends on previous iterates. In the supplement, we dedicate a lemma to the study of such recursive stochastic processes, and we build our analysis on the basis of this lemma.

### 5.2 Convergence rates

**Global rate.** Moving forward, to study the algorithm’s convergence rate, we will require the following error bound:

**Assumption 5.** For some \( \tau > 0 \) and all \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \), we have

\[
\|V(x)\| \geq \tau \text{dist}(x, X^*) \tag{EB}
\]

This kind of error bound is standard in the literature on variational inequalities for deriving last iterate convergence rates [see e.g., 7, 19, 20, 37, 38]. In particular, Assumption 5 is satisfied by

a) **Strongly monotone operators:** here, \( \tau \) is the strong monotonicity modulus.

b) **Affine operators:** here, \( \tau \) is the minimum non-zero singular value of the matrix defining the operator.

In this sense, Assumption 5 provides a unified umbrella for two types of problems that are typically considered to be poles apart (strongly monotone vs. affine problems). Our first result in this context is as follows:

**Theorem 3.** Suppose that Assumptions 1–3 and 5 hold and assume further that \( \gamma_t \leq c/\beta \) with \( c < 1 \). Then:

1. If (DSEG) is run with \( \gamma_t \equiv \gamma, \eta_t \equiv \eta \), we have:

\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2] \leq (1 - \Delta)^{t-1} \text{dist}(X_1, X^*)^2 + \frac{C}{\Delta}
\]

with constants \( C = (2\gamma^2\eta\beta + \gamma^3\eta^2\beta^2 + \eta^2)\sigma^2 \) and \( \Delta = \gamma\eta r^2 (1 - c^2) \).

2. If (DSEG) is run with decreasing \( \gamma_t = \gamma/(t + b)^{1-\nu} \) and \( \eta_t = \eta/(t + b)\nu \) for some \( \nu \in (1/2, 1) \), we have:

\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2] \leq \frac{C}{\Delta - r} \frac{1}{t^{\nu}} + o\left(\frac{1}{t^{\nu}}\right)
\]

where \( r = \min(1 - \nu, 2\nu - 1) \) and we further assume that \( \gamma \eta r^2 (1 - c^2) > r \).

In particular, the optimal rate is attained when \( \nu = 2/3 \), which gives \( \mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2] = O(1/t^{1/3}) \).
The first part of Theorem 3 shows that, if (DSEG) is run with constant stepsizes, the initial condition is forgotten exponentially fast and the iterates converge to a neighborhood of $x^*$ (though, in line with previous results, convergence cannot be achieved in this case). To make this neighborhood small, we need to decrease both $\gamma$ and $\eta/\gamma$; this would be impossible for vanilla (EG) for which $\eta/\gamma = 1$.

The second part of Theorem 3 provides an $O(1/t^{1/3})$ last-iterate convergence rate. In Section 5.3, we further improve this rate to $O(1/t)$ for linear operators by exploiting their particular structure.

**Local rate.** To study the algorithm’s local rate of convergence, we will focus on solutions of (Opt) that satisfy the following Jacobian regularity condition:

**Assumption 5’.** $V$ is differentiable at $x^*$ and its Jacobian matrix $Jac_V(x^*)$ is invertible.

The link between Assumptions 5’ and 5 is provided by the following proposition:

**Proposition 2.** If a solution $x^*$ satisfies Assumption 5’, it also satisfies (EB) in a neighborhood of $x^*$.

The proof of Proposition 2 follows by performing a Taylor expansion of $V$ and invoking the minimax characterization of the singular values of a matrix; we give the details in the supplement. For our purposes, what is more important is that (EB) has now been reduced to a pointwise condition; under this much lighter requirement, we have:

**Theorem 4.** Fix a tolerance level $\delta > 0$ and suppose that Assumptions 1’, 3’ and 5’ hold for some solution $x^*$ of (Opt). Assume further that (DSEG) is run with SFO feedback satisfying Assumption 2 and $E[\|Z_t\|^q] \leq \sigma^q$ for some $q > 3$, and stepsize parameters of the form $\gamma_t = \gamma/(t + b)^{1/3}$ and $\eta_t = \eta/(t + b)^{2/3}$ with large enough $b, \eta > 0$. Then, there exist neighborhoods $U, U'$ of $x^*$ and an event $E_U$ such that:

a) $P(E_U \mid X_1 \in U) \geq 1 - \delta$.
b) $P(X_t \in U' \text{ for all } t \mid E_U) = 1$.
c) $E[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 \mid E_U] = O(1/t^{1/3})$

In words, if (DSEG) is not initialized too far from $x^*$, the iterates $X_t$ remain close to $x^*$ with probability at least $1 - \delta$ and, conditioned on this event, $X_t$ converges to $x^*$ at a rate $O(1/t^{1/3})$ in mean square error.

Taken together, Theorems 1 and 4 show that for all monotone stochastic problems with a non-degenerate critical point, employing the suggested stepsize policy yields an asymptotic $O(1/t^{1/3})$ rate. In more detail, the last point of Theorem 4 shows that, with the same kind of stepsizes as in the second part of Theorem 3, we can retrieve a $O(1/t^{1/3})$ convergence rate provided that the iterates stay close to the solution. Note that this rate is not a localization of Theorem 3 because, after conditioning, the unbiasedness of the noise is not guaranteed. To overcome this issues, our proof draws inspiration from Hsieh et al. [11] but the use of double stepsizes requires a much more intricate analysis which is reflected in the stronger noise assumption and the specific conditioning.

### 5.3 A case study of affine operators

We terminate our analysis with a dedicated treatment of affine operators which are commonly studied as a first step to understand the training of GANs [1, 6, 9, 17, 23, 39].

The following result improves the $O(1/t^{1/3})$ rate of Theorem 3 to $O(1/t)$ in the case of affine operators.

**Theorem 5.** Let $V$ be an affine operator satisfying Assumption 3, and suppose that Assumption 2 holds. Take a constant exploration stepsize $\gamma_t \equiv \gamma \leq c/\beta$ with $c < 1$. Then, the iterates $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$ of (DSEG) enjoy the following rates:
1. If the update stepsize is constant \( \eta_t \equiv \eta \leq \gamma \), then:

\[
E[\text{dist}(X_t, \mathcal{X}^*)^2] \leq (1 - \Delta)^{t-1} \text{dist}(X_1, \mathcal{X}^*)^2 + \frac{C}{\Delta}
\]

with \( C = \eta^2(1 + \epsilon^2)\sigma^2 \) and \( \Delta = \gamma \eta^2(1 - \epsilon^2) \).

2. If the update stepsize is of the form \( \eta_t = \eta/(t + b) \) for some \( \eta > 1/(\tau^2\gamma(1 - \epsilon^2)) \) and \( b > \eta/\gamma \), then:

\[
E[\text{dist}(X_t, \mathcal{X}^*)^2] \leq \frac{C}{\Delta - 1} \frac{1}{t} + o\left(\frac{1}{t}\right).
\]

The proof of this theorem relies on the derivation of another descent lemma similar to Lemma 1 but tailored to affine operators. Note also that Assumptions 1 and 5 are automatically verified in this case.

Theorem 5 mirrors Theorem 3; however, in Part 1 of Theorem 5, the final precision is only determined by \( \sigma^2 \) and \( \eta/\gamma \). Thus, compared to Theorem 3, there is no need to decrease \( \gamma \) to obtain an arbitrarily high accuracy solution. The weaker dependence on \( \gamma \) is further confirmed by Part 2, which shows a \( \mathcal{O}(1/t) \) rate with \( \gamma_t \) constant. This gives yet another motivation for the use of double stepsizes.

As far as we are aware, this result gives the best convergence rate for stochastic affine operators compared to the literature, and this preliminary result may shed light on how stepsizes should be chosen for more complex problems.

6 Beyond extragradient

Given the computational cost of gradient computations, the design of optimization methods solving variational problems with a single oracle call per iteration (instead of the two in EG) has attracted a lot of attention in the literature (see e.g., 11 for a recent overview). Most of these methods are similar to EG since they perform a (stochastic) gradient step – the exploration – step followed by an update. Therefore, our analysis on (DSEG) suggests essential modifications in terms of stepsizes that should be carried out in the face of stochasticity.

As an example, consider the optimistic gradient (OG) method of Daskalakis et al. [6], for which some surprising conclusions can be drawn after applying the double stepsize rule. The generalized OG recursion is commonly stated as follows [25, 35]:

\[
X_{t+1} = X_t - \eta_t \hat{V}_t - \gamma_t (\hat{V}_t - \hat{V}_{t-1})
\]

(OG)

where \( \gamma_t \) is sometimes called the optimism rate. Similarly to our conclusions, it has been empirically observed that taking large optimism rate often yields better convergence in stochastic problems [29].

Hsieh et al. [11] pointed out that OG is equivalent to the modified Arrow-Hurwitz method introduced by Popov [32] and also referred to as extragradient with extrapolation from the past (PEG) by Gidel et al. [9]. Using a double stepsize policy, PEG becomes:

\[
X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \eta_t \hat{V}_{t-\frac{1}{2}},
\]

\[
X_{t+1} = X_t - \eta_t \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}.
\]

(DSPEG)

Hence, leading states can be recursively written as

\[
X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_{t-\frac{1}{2}} - \eta_{t-\frac{1}{2}} \hat{V}_{t-\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_{t-\frac{1}{2}} (\hat{V}_{t-\frac{1}{2}} - \hat{V}_{t-\frac{3}{2}}) + \gamma_{t-\frac{1}{2}} \hat{V}_{t-\frac{3}{2}}.
\]

We thereby see that (OG) and (DSPEG) are almost equivalent and they mostly differ in the choice of vectors that the method outputs at the end.
Taking (OG) as a starting point, the original OG algorithm suggests outputting $X_t$ while PEG instead looks at $X_t + \gamma_{t-1} \hat{V}_{t-1}$. This nuance turns out to be fatal when generalized OG is applied to stochastic problems. By analogy with our analysis for (DSEG), we reasonably conjecture that taking $\eta_t < \gamma_t$ guarantees the convergence of $X_t + \gamma_{t-1} \hat{V}_{t-1}$, and this may occur even if $\gamma_t$ is set to constant. Nonetheless, this also implies that if the noise is not vanishing at the solution, $X_t$, which corresponds to the exploration state in PEG, might exhibit much slower convergence or even not converge at all.

To summarize, when running (OG) for stochastic problems, we should look at the residual iterate $X_t + \gamma_{t-1} \hat{V}_{t-1}$ instead of the optimistic iterate $X_t$. Interestingly, this conclusion is consistent with the ODE analysis of OG by Ryu et al. [35], and explains some experimental results of said work. Furthermore, taking an aggressive exploration step $\gamma_t$ and a more conservative update step $\eta_t$ may be very beneficial both in theory (for the last iterate convergence and rate) and in practice as confirmed by our experiments.

7 Numerical experiments

In this section, we investigate numerically the benefits of a double stepsize strategy. We run (DSEG) and (OG) with stepsize of the form (4) and examine their behavior when $r_\gamma$ and $r_\eta$ vary. In order to start with the same value for different exponents, we fix $b$, $\gamma_1$, and $\eta_1$, from which we deduce $\gamma = \gamma_1 (1 + b)^{r_\gamma}$ and $\eta = \eta_1 (1 + b)^{r_\eta}$.

Bilinear zero-sum games. Consider the bilinear zero-sum game

$$L(\theta, \phi) = \theta^\top C \phi$$

where $C$ is a $50 \times 50$ invertible matrix; in that case, $(\theta^*, \phi^*) = (0, 0)$ is the only equilibrium point. We simulate the stochastic oracle by adding a Gaussian noise $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma I)$ with $\sigma = 0.5$ to the vector field. We set $\gamma_1 = 1$, $\eta_1 = 0.1$, $b = 20$ for (DSEG) and $\gamma_1 = 0.5$, $\eta_1 = 0.05$, $b = 20$ for (OG).

As shown in the left column of Fig. 3, the choice $\gamma_t = \eta_t$ does not yield convergence, while taking a more...
aggressive $\gamma_t$ does. Moreover, the convergence of the squared distance to the solution is in $O(1/t^r)$, as per our analysis.

For (OG), we observe roughly the same asymptotic convergence speeds for residual iterates, while the optimistic iterates tend to converge slower. In particular, choosing a constant exploration step gives the fastest convergence of the residual iterate though the optimistic iterate does not converge, in line with our discussion in Section 6.

Strongly convex-concave game. While aggressive exploration turns out to be indispensable for bilinear games, theory also tells us that (EG) with stochastic oracle provably achieves last-iterate convergence under suitable conditions. For example, when $V$ is strongly monotone, the iterates produced by (EG) with noisy feedback achieve $O(1/t)$ convergence for proper choice of $(\gamma_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$ [11, 14]. As a first attempt to understand how aggressive exploration interacts with this kind of problems, we consider the following example

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta, \phi) = (\theta^\top A_2 \theta)^2 + 2\theta^\top A_1 \theta + 4\theta^\top C \phi - 2\phi^\top B_1 \phi - (\phi^\top B_2 \phi)^2,$$

where $A_1, A_2, B_1, B_2$ are $50 \times 50$ positive definite matrices so $(\theta^*, \phi^*) = (0, 0)$ is again the only solution of the problem. For both (DSEG) and (OG), we take the same noise distribution and we set $\gamma_1 = 0.1$, $\eta_1 = 0.05$ and $b = 20$. Our experiments reveal that the convergence speed of the algorithm mainly depends on the choice of the sequence $(\eta_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$. While this is partially predicted by Lemma 1, given that the term $\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle$ is in $O(\eta_t)$, it is still surprising that the choice of $r_\gamma$ does not seem to have any influence on the convergence speed; this suggests that taking a larger exploration step may be a universal solution.

Learning a covariance matrix. We now go one step further and examine the convergence of (DSEG) in stochastic non convex-concave problems. Since aggressive exploration seems to be the most beneficial when rotation is present, we consider the following covariance matrix learning problem from Daskalakis et al. [6]:

$$\mathcal{L}(Y, W) = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)}[x^\top W x] - \mathbb{E}_{z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)}[z^\top Y^\top W Y z].$$

This saddle-point objective corresponds to the WGAN formulation without clipping when data are sampled from a normal distribution with covariance matrix $\Sigma$, i.e., $x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$, and the generator and the discriminator are respectively defined by $G(z) = Y z$, $D(x) = x^\top W x$. The stochasticity is induced by the sampling of $x$ and $z$. For the experiments we take a mini-batch of size 128, and run (DSEG), (OG) respectively with $\gamma_1 = 0.5$, $\eta_1 = 0.05$, $b = 50$ and $\gamma_1 = 0.05$, $\eta_1 = 0.025$, $b = 100$. As the game may posses multiple equilibria, the squared norm of $V$ is traced as the convergence measure. We observe the same kind of convergence behavior as for the bilinear case.

8 Concluding remarks

In this paper, we examined the benefits of employing a double stepsize extragradient method for which the exploration step is more aggressive than the update step. This additional flexibility turns out to be both necessary and sufficient for the method to achieve superior convergence properties relative to vanilla stochastic extragradient methods in a large spectrum of problems including bilinear games and some non convex-concave models.

Our results constitute a first attempt towards designing an algorithm that provably avoids cycles and similar non-convergent phenomena in a fully stochastic setting. Some interesting future directions include an extended analysis with relaxation of the variational stability assumption as well as the design of a fully adaptive and/or universal method on the basis of our results.
References

[1] Azizian, W., Scieur, D., Mitliagkas, I., Lacoste-Julien, S., and Gidel, G. Accelerating smooth games by manipulating spectral shapes. In *AISTATS ’20: Proceedings of the 23rd International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics*, 2020.

[2] Benaïm, M. Dynamics of stochastic approximation algorithms. In Azéma, J., Émery, M., Ledoux, M., and Yor, M. (eds.), *Séminaire de Probabilités XXXIII*, volume 1709 of *Lecture Notes in Mathematics*, pp. 1–68. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 1999.

[3] Chavdarova, T., Gidel, G., Fleuret, F., and Lacoste-Julien, S. Reducing noise in gan training with variance reduced extragradient. In *NeurIPS ’19: Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 391–401. 2019.

[4] Cheung, Y. K. and Piliouras, G. Vortices instead of equilibria in minmax optimization: Chaos and butterfly effects of online learning in zero-sum games. In *COLT ’19: Proceedings of the 32nd Annual Conference on Learning Theory*, 2019.

[5] Chung, K.-L. On a stochastic approximation method. *The Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 25(3): 463–483, 1954.

[6] Daskalakis, C., Ilyas, A., Syrgkanis, V., and Zeng, H. Training GANs with optimism. In *ICLR ’18: Proceedings of the 2018 International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2018.

[7] Facchinei, F. and Pang, J.-S. *Finite-Dimensional Variational Inequalities and Complementarity Problems*. Springer Series in Operations Research. Springer, 2003.

[8] Flokas, L., Vlatakis-Gkaragkounis, E. V., and Piliouras, G. Poincaré recurrence, cycles and spurious equilibria in gradient-descent-ascent for non-convex non-concave zero-sum games. In *NeurIPS ’19: Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2019.

[9] Gidel, G., Berard, H., Vignoud, G., Vincent, P., and Lacoste-Julien, S. A variational inequality perspective on generative adversarial networks. In *ICLR ’19: Proceedings of the 2019 International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2019.

[10] Hofbauer, J. and Sigmund, K. *Evolutionary Games and Population Dynamics*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 1998.

[11] Hsieh, Y.-G., Iutzeler, F., Malick, J., and Mertikopoulos, P. On the convergence of single-call stochastic extra-gradient methods. In *NeurIPS ’19: Proceedings of the 33rd International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 6936–6946, 2019.

[12] Iusem, A. N., Jofré, A., Oliveira, R. I., and Thompson, P. Extragradient method with variance reduction for stochastic variational inequalities. *SIAM Journal on Optimization*, 27(2):686–724, 2017.

[13] Juditsky, A., Nemirovski, A. S., and Tauvel, C. Solving variational inequalities with stochastic mirror-prox algorithm. *Stochastic Systems*, 1(1):17–58, 2011.

[14] Kannan, A. and Shanbhag, U. V. Optimal stochastic extragradient schemes for pseudomonotone stochastic variational inequality problems and their variants. *Computational Optimization and Applications*, 74(3):779–820, 2019.

[15] Korpelevich, G. M. The extragradient method for finding saddle points and other problems. *Èkonom. i Mat. Metody*, 12:747–756, 1976.

[16] Koshal, J., Nedic, A., and Shanbhag, U. V. Regularized iterative stochastic approximation methods for stochastic variational inequality problems. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 58(3): 594–609, 2012.
[17] Liang, T. and Stokes, J. Interaction matters: A note on non-asymptotic local convergence of generative adversarial networks. In AISTATS ’19: Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2019.

[18] Liu, M., Mroueh, Y., Ross, J., Zhang, W., Cui, X., Das, P., and Yang, T. Towards better understanding of adaptive gradient algorithms in generative adversarial nets. In ICLR ’20: Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Learning Representations, 2020.

[19] Luo, Z.-Q. and Tseng, P. Error bounds and convergence analysis of feasible descent methods: a general approach. *Annals of Operations Research*, 46(1):157–178, 1993.

[20] Malitsky, Y. Golden ratio algorithms for variational inequalities. *Mathematical Programming*, pp. 1–28, 2019.

[21] Mertikopoulos, P., Papadimitriou, C. H., and Piliouras, G. Cycles in adversarial regularized learning. In *SODA ’18: Proceedings of the 29th Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms*, 2018.

[22] Mertikopoulos, P., Lecouat, B., Zenati, H., Foo, C.-S., Chandrasekhar, V., and Piliouras, G. Optimistic mirror descent in saddle-point problems: Going the extra (gradient) mile. In ICLR ’19: Proceedings of the 2019 International Conference on Learning Representations, 2019.

[23] Mescheder, L., Nowozin, S., and Geiger, A. Which training methods for gans do actually converge? In ICML ’18: Proceedings of the 35th International Conference on Machine Learning, 2018.

[24] Mishchenko, K., Kovalev, D., Shulgin, E., Richtárik, P., and Malitsky, Y. Revisiting stochastic extragradient. In AISTATS ’20: Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2020.

[25] Mokhtari, A., Ozdaglar, A., and Pattathil, S. A unified analysis of extra-gradient and optimistic gradient methods for saddle point problems: proximal point approach. In AISTATS ’20: Proceedings of the 23rd International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics, 2020.

[26] Nemirovski, A. S. Prox-method with rate of convergence $O(1/t)$ for variational inequalities with Lipschitz continuous monotone operators and smooth convex-concave saddle point problems. *SIAM Journal on Optimization*, 15(1):229–251, 2004.

[27] Nesterov, Y. Dual extrapolation and its applications to solving variational inequalities and related problems. *Mathematical Programming*, 109(2):319–344, 2007.

[28] Palaiopanos, G., Panageas, I., and Piliouras, G. Multiplicative weights update with constant step-size in congestion games: Convergence, limit cycles and chaos. In *NIPS ’17: Proceedings of the 30th International Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems*, 2017.

[29] Peng, W., Dai, Y.-H., Zhang, H., and Cheng, L. Training GANs with centripetal acceleration. [https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.08949](https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.08949), 2019.

[30] Piliouras, G. and Shamma, J. S. Optimization despite chaos: Convex relaxations to complex limit sets via Poincaré recurrence. In *SODA ’14: Proceedings of the 25th Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms*, 2014.

[31] Polyak, B. T. *Introduction to Optimization*. Optimization Software, New York, NY, USA, 1987.

[32] Popov, L. D. A modification of the Arrow–Hurwicz method for search of saddle points. *Mathematical Notes of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR*, 28(5):845–848, 1980.

[33] Robbins, H. and Monro, S. A stochastic approximation method. *Annals of Mathematical Statistics*, 22:400–407, 1951.
[34] Robbins, H. and Siegmund, D. A convergence theorem for non negative almost supermartingales and some applications. In *Optimizing methods in statistics*, pp. 233–257. Elsevier, 1971.

[35] Ryu, E. K., Yuan, K., and Yin, W. ODE analysis of stochastic gradient methods with optimism and anchoring for minimax problems and GANs. https://arxiv.org/abs/1905.10899, 2019.

[36] Sandholm, W. H. *Population Games and Evolutionary Dynamics*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, 2010.

[37] Solodov, M. V. Convergence rate analysis of iterative algorithms for solving variational inequality problems. *Mathematical Programming*, 96(3):513–528, 2003.

[38] Tseng, P. On linear convergence of iterative methods for the variational inequality problem. *Journal of Computational and Applied Mathematics*, 60(1-2):237–252, June 1995.

[39] Zhang, G. and Yu, Y. Convergence behaviour of some gradient-based methods on bilinear zero-sum games. In *ICLR ’20: Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Learning Representations*, 2020.
### A Technical lemmas

In this section we recall several important lemmas that are frequently used in the analysis of stochastic iterative methods. The first three lemmas on numerical sequences are useful for deriving convergence rates of the algorithms. See e.g., Polyak [31] for an abundance of results of this type.

**Lemma A.1.** Let \((a_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) be a sequence of real numbers such that for all \(t\),
\[
a_{t+1} \leq (1 - q)a_t + q',
\]
where \(1 > q > 0\) and \(q' > 0\). Then,
\[
a_t \leq (1 - q)^t a_1 + \frac{q'}{q}.
\]

The above lemma comes into play when an algorithm is run with constant stepsize sequences, whereas we resort to the following two lemmas in case of decreasing stepsize sequences of the form (4).

**Lemma A.2** (Chung [5, Lemma 1]). Let \((a_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) be a sequence of real numbers and \(b \in \mathbb{N}\) such that for all \(t\),
\[
a_{t+1} \leq \left(1 - \frac{q}{t + b}\right)a_t + \frac{q'}{(t + b)^{r+1}},
\]
where \(q > r > 0\) and \(q' > 0\). Then,
\[
a_t \leq \frac{q'}{q - r t^r} + o\left(\frac{1}{t^r}\right).
\]

**Lemma A.3** (Chung [5, Lemma 4]). Let \((a_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) be a sequence of real numbers and \(b \in \mathbb{N}\) such that for all \(t\),
\[
a_{t+1} \leq \left(1 - \frac{q}{(t + b)^\nu}\right)a_t + \frac{q'}{(t + b)^{r+\nu}},
\]
where \(1 > \nu > 0\) and \(r, q, q' > 0\). Then,
\[
a_t = O\left(\frac{1}{t^r}\right).
\]

To establish almost sure convergence of the iterates, we rely on the Robbins–Siegmund theorem which apply to non-negative almost-supermartingales.

**Lemma A.4** (Robbins & Siegmund [34]). Consider a filtration \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) and four non-negative \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\)-adapted processes \((U_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\lambda_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\chi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\zeta_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) such that \(\sum_t \lambda_t < \infty\) and \(\sum_t \chi_t < \infty\) with probability one and \(\forall t \in \mathbb{N}\),
\[
E[U_{t+1} | \mathcal{F}_t] \leq (1 + \lambda_t)U_t + \chi_t - \zeta_t.
\]

Then \((U_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) converges almost surely to a random variable \(U_\infty\) and \(\sum_t \zeta_t < \infty\) almost surely.

### B Proofs for global convergence results

We then start with the proofs of the global results to highlight the effect of double stepsize, before tackling the more challenging local convergence analysis.
B.1 Proof of Proposition 1: failure of stochastic extragradient

We write the updates of the algorithm

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{t+\frac{1}{2}} &= \theta_t - \eta_t \phi_t - \gamma_t \xi_t \\
\phi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} &= \phi_t + \gamma_t \theta_t \\
\theta_{t+1} &= \theta_t - \eta_t \phi_t - \gamma_t^2 \theta_t - \gamma_t \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \\
\phi_{t+1} &= \phi_t + \gamma_t \theta_t - \gamma_t^2 \phi_t - \gamma_t^2 \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}}
\end{align*}
\]

Therefore

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{t+1}^2 + \phi_{t+1}^2 &= (1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4)(\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2) + \gamma_t^2 \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}}^2 + \gamma_t^4 \xi_t^2 \\
&\quad - 2 \gamma_t \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}}((1 - \gamma_t^2)\theta_t - \gamma_t \phi_t) - 2 \gamma_t^2 \xi_t((1 - \gamma_t^2)\phi_t + \gamma_t \theta_t).
\end{align*}
\]

Taking expectation leads to

\[
E[\theta_{t+1}^2 + \phi_{t+1}^2] = (1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + (\gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4) \sigma^2.
\]

For sake of simplicity, let us denote \( a_t = E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] \). We consider two scenarios:

Case 1: \( \gamma_t^2 \geq 1 \). We have \( 1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4 \geq 1 \) and consequently \( a_{t+1} \geq a_t \).

Case 2: \( \gamma_t^2 < 1 \). Notice that

\[
a_{t+1} - \frac{(1 + \gamma_t^2)\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma_t^2} = (1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4) \left( a_t - \frac{(1 + \gamma_t^2)\sigma^2}{1 - \gamma_t^2} \right).
\]

We then set \( \nu_t = (1 + \gamma_t^2)/(1 - \gamma_t^2) \). Since \( 1 - \gamma_t^2 + \gamma_t^4 < 1 \), \( a_{t+1} \) gets closer to \( \nu_t \sigma^2 \) than \( a_t \). In particular, if \( a_t < \nu_t \sigma^2 \), we have \( a_t < a_{t+1} < \nu_t \sigma^2 \); otherwise, \( a_t \geq a_{t+1} \geq \nu_t \sigma^2 \). As \( \nu_t \geq 1 \), the above implies \( a_{t+1} \geq \min(a_t, \nu_t \sigma^2) \geq \min(a_t, \sigma^2) \).

To conclude, in the two cases we have \( a_{t+1} \geq \min(a_t, \sigma^2) \), showing clearly \( \liminf_{t \to \infty} E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] > 0 \).

A remedy with double stepsize extragradient. With different stepsizes, the updates of the algorithm write

\[
\begin{align*}
\theta_{t+\frac{1}{2}} &= \theta_t - \eta_t \phi_t - \gamma_t \xi_t \\
\phi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} &= \phi_t + \gamma_t \theta_t \\
\theta_{t+1} &= \theta_t - \eta_t \phi_t - \gamma_t \eta_t \theta_t - \eta_t \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \\
\phi_{t+1} &= \phi_t + \eta_t \theta_t - \gamma_t \eta_t \phi_t - \gamma_t \eta_t \xi_t
\end{align*}
\]

This now leads to

\[
E[\theta_{t+1}^2 + \phi_{t+1}^2] = ((1 - \gamma_t \eta_t)^2 + \eta_t^2) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + (\eta_t^2 + \gamma_t \eta_t^2) \sigma^2 \\
= (1 - 2 \gamma_t \eta_t + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + (\eta_t^2 + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2) \sigma^2.
\]

Taking \( \gamma_t = \frac{1}{\ell_m} \) and \( \eta_t = \frac{1}{\ell_n} \), we get

\[
E[\theta_{t+1}^2 + \phi_{t+1}^2] = \left( 1 - \frac{2}{\ell(t_r + r_n)} + \frac{1}{\ell^2 r_n} + \frac{1}{\ell^2 (r_r + r_n)} \right) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + \left( \frac{1}{\ell^2 r_n} + \frac{1}{\ell^2 (r_r + r_n)} \right) \sigma^2 \\
\leq \left( 1 - \frac{1.5}{\ell(t_r + r_n)} \right) E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] + \frac{2 \sigma^2}{\ell^2 r_n} \\
= O\left( \frac{\ell}{\ell(t_r + r_n)} \right)
\]

where the inequality comes from \( 1 - 2/\ell(t_r + r_n) + 1/\ell^2 r_n + 1/\ell^2 (r_r + r_n) \leq 1 - 1.5/\ell(t_r + r_n) \) for large enough \( t \) and the last part is an application of either Lemma A.2 or Lemma A.3 with \( q = 1.5 > r = r_n - r_r > 0 \) (starting at large enough \( t \)).

Hence, \( E[\theta_t^2 + \phi_t^2] \to 0 \), i.e. we can find a double stepsize choice, with an aggressive extrapolation step and a conservative update step \( (r_r < r_n) \) such that \( (\theta_t, \phi_t) \to (0, 0) \) in mean squared error.
B.2 Proof of Lemma 1

Let us denote by $E_t[\cdot] = E[\cdot | \mathcal{F}_t]$ the conditional expectation with respect to the filtration up to time $t$ and $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \gamma_t V(X_t)$ the leading state that is generated with deterministic update so that $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_t Z_t$. We develop

$$\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2 = \|X_t - \eta_t \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p\|^2$$

$$= \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t - p \rangle + \eta_t^2 \|\hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2$$

$$= \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle - 2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, V(X_t) \rangle + \eta_t^2 \|\hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2. \quad (B.1)$$

We would then like to bound the different terms appearing on the right-hand side (RHS) of the equality. With the zero-mean assumption (1a), conditioning on $\mathcal{F}_t$ leads to

$$E_t[\langle \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t \rangle] = E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \hat{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_t Z_t \rangle]$$

$$= E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_t Z_t \rangle] + E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle]$$

$$= E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_t Z_t \rangle] + \gamma_t E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle], \quad (B.2)$$

where in the last line we use the fact that $V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})$ is $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable so

$$E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle] = \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), E_t[Z_t] \rangle = 0.$$ 

By Lipschitz continuity of $V$

$$- \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle \leq \|V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\| \|Z_t\| \leq \gamma_t \beta \|Z_t\|^2. \quad (B.3)$$

On the other hand, $E_t[\langle \hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, V(X_t) \rangle] = E_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle]$ and $E_t[\|\hat{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2] = E_t[\|V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2] + E_t[\|Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2]$. By $\eta_t \leq \gamma_t$, Lipschitz continuity of $V$ and $X_t - X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = \gamma_t \hat{V}_t$, we get

$$-2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle + \eta_t^2 \|V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2$$

$$\leq -2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle + \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2$$

$$= \gamma_t \eta_t (\|V(X_t) - V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2 - \|V(X_t)\|^2)$$

$$\leq \gamma_t \eta_t \beta^2 \|V_t\|^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(X_t)\|^2. \quad (B.4)$$

Similar to before we may write $E_t[\|\hat{V}_t\|^2] = E_t[\|V(X_t)\|^2] + E_t[\|Z_t\|^2]$. Therefore, combining (B.1), (B.2), (B.3), (B.4) and recalling the finite variance assumption (1b), we deduce the following

$$E_t[\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2] \leq \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle - (\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta + \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2,$$

which is exactly (3).

B.3 Proof of Theorem 1

We divide our proof into three key steps.

(1) With probability 1, $\liminf_{t \to \infty} \|V(X_t)\| = 0$. Applying Lemma 1 to a point $x^* \in \mathcal{X}^*$, we get

$$\mathbb{E}_t[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2] \leq \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - 2\eta_t \mathbb{E}_t[\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle]$$

$$- (\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta + \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2,$$

$$\leq \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - (\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta + \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2. \quad (B.5)$$
In the last line we use Assumption 3 so that $$\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle \geq 0.$$ Since $$\gamma_t \leq 1/\beta$$, the coefficient $$\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2$$ is non-negative. Recalling $$\sum_t \eta_t^2 < \infty$$, $$\sum_t \gamma_t^2 \eta_t < \infty$$ and $$(\gamma_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$$ is upper-bounded, we can apply the Robbins–Siegmund theorem (Lemma A.4) to get that (i) $$\|X_t - x^*\|$$ converges almost surely and (ii) $$\sum_t (\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2)\|V(X_t)\|^2 < \infty$$ almost surely. As the steps size conditions also imply $$\sum_t (\gamma_t \eta_t - \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2) = \infty$$, using (ii), we deduce immediately $$\liminf_{t \to \infty} \|V(X_t)\| = 0$$ almost surely.

(2) With probability 1, $$\|X_t - x^*\|$$ converges for all $$x^* \in X^*$$. In other words, we would like to prove the existence of an event $$\mathcal{E} \subset \Omega$$ satisfying $$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) = 1$$ and that for every realization of the event and every $$x^* \in X^*$$, $$\|X_t - x^*\|$$ converges. Since $$\mathbb{R}^d$$ is a separable metric space, $$X^*$$ is also separable and we can find a countable set $$\mathcal{Z}$$ such that $$\mathcal{X}^* = c(\mathcal{Z})$$ ($$\mathcal{X}^*$$ is closed by continuity of $$V$$). We claim that the choice $$\mathcal{E} = \{\|X_t - z\| \text{ converges for all } z \in \mathcal{Z}\}$$ is the good candidate.

In effect, taking an arbitrary $$z$$ from $$\mathcal{Z}$$, from (i) we know that

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\|X_t - z\| \text{ converges}\}) = 1.$$

Therefore from the countability of $$\mathcal{Z}$$ we have $$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}) = 1$$. We now fix $$x^* \in X^*$$. As $$\mathcal{Z}$$ is dense in $$X^*$$, there exists a sequence $$(z_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$$ of points in $$\mathcal{Z}$$ such that $$\lim_{i \to \infty} z_i = x^*$$. Consider a realization of $$\mathcal{E}$$, for every $$z_i$$ we have $$\lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - z_i\| = \nu_t$$ for some $$\nu_t \geq 0$$. The triangular inequality gives

$$-\|z_i - x^*\| \leq \|X_t - x^*\| - \|X_t - z_i\| \leq \|z_i - x^*\|$$

for all $$i, t \in \mathbb{N}$$. Consequently, for all $$i \in \mathbb{N},$$

$$-\|z_i - x^*\| \leq \liminf_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x^*\| - \lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - z_i\|$$

$$= \liminf_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x^*\| - \nu_t$$

$$\leq \limsup_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x^*\| - \nu_t$$

$$= \limsup_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x^*\| - \lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - z_i\| \leq \|z_i - x^*\|.$$

Taking the limit as $$i \to \infty$$ we obtain the convergence of $$\{\|X_t - x^*\|\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$$; more precisely, $$\lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x^*\| = \lim_{i \to \infty} \nu_t$$. We have thus proved $$\mathcal{E}$$ satisfies the requirements.

(3) Conclude. Combining the points (1) and (2), we get

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E} \cap \{\liminf_{t \to \infty} \|V(X_t)\| = 0\}) = 1.$$

Let us take a realization of this event. It holds $$\liminf_{t \to \infty} \|V(X_t)\| = 0$$ and we can thus extract a subsequence $$(X_{\omega(t)})_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$$ such that $$\lim_{t \to \infty} \|V(X_{\omega(t)})\| = 0$$. Let $$x^* \in X^*$$, we know that $$\|X_t - x^*\|$$ converges, implying that $$(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$$ is bounded. As $$\mathbb{R}^d$$ is finite dimensional, we can then further extract $$(X_{\omega(\psi(t)))})_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$$ such that $$\lim_{t \to \infty} X_{\omega(\psi(t)))} = x_\infty$$ for some $$x_\infty \in \mathbb{R}^d$$. By continuity of $$V$$, we have $$V(x_\infty) = 0$$, i.e., $$x_\infty \in X^*$$. By the choice of $$\mathcal{E}$$, we have the convergence of $$\|X_t - x_\infty\|$$, and

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_t - x_\infty\| = \lim_{t \to \infty} \|X_{\omega(\psi(t))} - x_\infty\| = \|x_\infty - x_\infty\| = 0.$$

To conclude, we have proved that that $$X_t$$ converges to some $$x^* \in X^*$$ almost surely.

B.4 Proof of Theorem 3

Since $$\gamma_t \leq c/\beta$$, from (B.5) we can further deduce

$$E_t[[X_{t+1} - x^*]^2] \leq \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2)\|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta + \gamma_t^3 \eta_t \beta^2 + \eta_t^2)\sigma^2.$$
By concavity of the minimum operator, we then obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}_t\{ \min_{x^* \in X^*} \|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2 \} \leq \min_{x^* \in X^*} \mathbb{E}_t[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2] \\
\leq \min_{x^* \in X^*} \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 + \gamma_t \eta_t^3 \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2.
\]
In other words,
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\text{dist}(X_{t+1}, X^*)^2] \leq \text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 \beta^2 + \gamma_t \eta_t^3 \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2.
\]
Using Assumption 5 and the law of total expectation, this gives
\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_{t+1}, X^*)^2] \leq (1 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2)) \mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2] + (2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 \beta^2 + \gamma_t \eta_t^3 \beta^2 + \eta_t^2) \sigma^2.
\]
1 and 2 are obtained respectively by applying Lemma A.1 and Lemma A.2.

B.5 Proof of Theorem 5

The crucial step of the proof is the derivation of a stochastic descent inequality in the form of (3). This is again based on (B.1). Writing \(V(x) = Mx + v\), we can expand
\[
\dot{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = MX_t - \gamma_t MX_t - \gamma_t M v - \gamma_t M Z_t + v + Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - \gamma_t M Z_t + Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}.
\]
We recall that \(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \gamma_t V(X_t)\). Let \(x^* \in X^*\). Together with the zero-mean assumption (1a), the above shows that
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[(\dot{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^*)] = \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle,
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[(\dot{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, V(X_t))] = \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle,
\]
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\|\dot{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2] = \|V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2 + \mathbb{E}_t[\|M Z_t\|^2] + \mathbb{E}_t[\|Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2].
\]
Similar to (B.4), we write
\[
-2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle + \eta_t^2 \|V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2 \\
\leq -2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle + \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2 \\
= \gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(X_t) - V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle^2 - \|V(X_t)\|^2 \\
\leq \gamma_t \eta_t (\gamma_t^2 \beta^2 - 1) \|V(X_t)\|^2.
\]
We have \(\langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle \geq 0\) by Assumption 3 and \(\mathbb{E}_t[\|M Z_t\|^2] + \mathbb{E}_t[\|Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2] \leq (\gamma_t^2 \beta^2 + 1) \sigma^2\) by Lipschitz continuity of \(V\) and the finite variance assumption (1b). Taking expectation with respect to \(F_t\) over (B.1) with \(p = x^*\) then leads to
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2] \leq \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - \gamma_t^2 \beta^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + \eta_t^2 (\gamma_t^2 \beta^2 + 1) \sigma^2 \\
= \|X_t - x^*\|^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + \eta_t^2 (1 + c^2) \sigma^2.
\]
Proceeding as in the proof of Theorem 3, we get
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[\text{dist}(X_{t+1}, X^*)^2] \leq \text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2 - \gamma_t \eta_t (1 - c^2) \|V(X_t)\|^2 + \eta_t^2 (1 + c^2) \sigma^2.
\]
Since \(V\) is affine, it verifies the error bound condition (EB). Writing \(\gamma\) in the place of \(\gamma_t\) and applying the law of total expectation, we obtain
\[
\mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_{t+1}, X^*)^2] \leq (1 - \gamma \eta_t \tau^2 (1 - c^2)) \mathbb{E}[\text{dist}(X_t, X^*)^2] + \eta_t^2 (1 + c^2) \sigma^2.
\]
We conclude with help of Lemma A.1 and Lemma A.2.
C Proofs for local convergence results

C.1 Preparatory lemmas

The proofs of the local statements are much more demanding. The principle pillar of our analysis is a stability result formally stated in Appendix C.2 that shares similarity with the points a) and b) of Theorem 4. To prepare us for the challenge, we start by introducing the following lemma for bounding a recursive stochastic process.

**Lemma C.1.** Consider a filtration \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) and four \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\)-adapted processes \((D_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\zeta_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\chi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}, (\xi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) such that \((\chi_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) is non-negative and the following recursive inequality is satisfied for all \(t \geq 1\)

\[ D_{t+1} \leq D_t - \zeta_t + \chi_{t+1} + \xi_{t+1}. \]

Fixing a constant \(C > 0\), we define the events \((A_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) by

\[ A_1 := \{ D_1 \leq C/2 \} \quad \text{and} \quad A_t := \{ D_t \leq C \} \cap \{ \chi_t \leq C/4 \} \quad \text{for} \quad t \geq 2. \]

We consider also the decreasing sequence of events \((I_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\) defined by

\[ I_t := \bigcap_{1 \leq s \leq t} A_s. \]

If the following three assumptions hold true

(i) \(\forall t, \zeta_t \mathbb{1}_{I_t} \geq 0\),
(ii) \(\forall t, E[\zeta_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{F}_t] \mathbb{1}_{I_t} = 0\),
(iii) \(\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} E[(\xi_{t+1}^2 + \chi_{t+1}) \mathbb{1}_{I_t}] \leq \delta \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(A_1)\),

where \(\varepsilon = \min(C^2/16, C/4)\) and \(\delta \in (0, 1)\), then \(\mathbb{P}\left( \bigcap_{t \geq 1} A_t \mid A_1 \right) \geq 1 - \delta\).

**Proof.** Let us start by introducing the following two \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}\)-adapted submartingale sequences

\[ S_t := \sum_{s=2}^{t} \xi_s \quad \text{and} \quad Q_t := S_t^2 + \sum_{s=2}^{t} \chi_s. \]

Subsequently, we define an auxiliary sequence of events

\[ H_t := A_1 \cap \{ \max_{2 \leq s \leq t} Q_s \leq \varepsilon \} \]

which is also decreasing. With this at hand, we are ready to start our proof.

1. **Inclusion** \(H_t \subset I_t\). We prove the inclusion by induction. The statement is true when \(t = 1\) as \(H_1 = I_1 = A_1\). For \(t \geq 2\), we write

\[ D_t \leq D_1 - \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \xi_s + \sum_{s=2}^{t-1} \chi_{s+1} + \sum_{s=2}^{t-1} \xi_{s+1}. \quad \text{(C.1)} \]

By induction hypothesis, \(H_{t-1} \subset I_{t-1}\), and thus for all \(s \leq t - 1\), we have \(H_t \subset I_{t-1} \subset I_s\). Combining with (i) we deduce that for any realization of \(H_t\), \(\sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \zeta_s \geq 0\). On the other hand, by definition of \(H_t\), it holds \(Q_t \mathbb{1}_{H_t} \leq \varepsilon\). This implies

\[ \left( \sum_{s=2}^{t-1} \xi_{s+1} \right) \mathbb{1}_{H_t} = S_t \mathbb{1}_{H_t} \leq \sqrt{\varepsilon} \leq C/4, \quad \text{(C.2)} \]

\[ \left( \sum_{s=2}^{t-1} \chi_{s+1} \right) \mathbb{1}_{H_t} \leq \varepsilon \leq C/4. \quad \text{(C.3)} \]

Finally as \(H_t \subset A_1\) we have \(D_1 \mathbb{1}_{H_t} \leq C/2\). Therefore, for any realization of \(H_t\), using (C.1) gives

\[ D_t \leq C/2 - 0 + C/4 + C/4 = C. \]
In the meantime (C.2) ensures as well $\chi_t \mathbb{I}_{H_t} \leq C/4$ and we have thus proven $H_t \subset A_t$. Using $H_t \subset H_{t-1} \subset I_{t-1}$, we conclude $H_t \subset I_t$.

(2) Recursive bound on $\mathbb{E}[Q_t \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}]$. Since $H_{t-1} \subset H_{t-2}$, it holds $H_{t-1} = H_{t-2} \setminus (H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1})$. We can therefore decompose

$$
\mathbb{E}[Q_t \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] = \mathbb{E}[(Q_t - Q_{t-1}) \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] + \mathbb{E}[Q_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] = \mathbb{E}[\xi_t^2 + 2\xi_t S_{t-1} + \chi_t \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] + \mathbb{E}[Q_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-2}}] - \mathbb{E}[Q_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}}].
$$

From the law of total expectation, $H_{t-1} \subset I_{t-1}$ and (ii) we have

$$
\mathbb{E}[\xi_t S_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] = \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}) S_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] = 0.
$$

As $\xi_t^2 + \chi_t$ is non-negative, using again $H_{t-1} \subset I_{t-1}$, we get

$$
\mathbb{E}[\xi_t^2 + \chi_t \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] \leq \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t^2 + \chi_t) \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}].
$$

By definition for any realization in $H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}$, it holds $Q_{t-1} > \varepsilon$ and thus

$$
\mathbb{E}[Q_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}}] \geq \varepsilon \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}_{H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}}] = \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}).
$$

Combining the above we deduce the following recursive bound

$$
\mathbb{E}[Q_t \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-1}}] \leq \mathbb{E}[Q_{t-1} \mathbb{I}_{H_{t-2}}] + \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t^2 + \chi_t) \mathbb{I}_{I_{t-1}}] - \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1}).
$$

(3) Conclude. Summing (C.4) from $t = 2$ to $T$ we obtain

$$
\mathbb{E}[Q_T \mathbb{I}_{H_{T-1}}] \leq \mathbb{E}[Q_2 \mathbb{I}_{H_1}] + \sum_{t=3}^{T} \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t^2 + \chi_t) \mathbb{I}_{I_{t-1}}] - \varepsilon \sum_{t=3}^{T} \mathbb{P}(H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1})
$$

$$
= \sum_{t=2}^{T} \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t^2 + \chi_t) \mathbb{I}_{I_{t-1}}] - \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_{T-1}),
$$

where in the second line we use $Q_2 = \xi_2^2 + \chi_2$, $H_1 = I_1 = A_1$ and $H_1 \setminus H_{T-1} = \bigcup_{3 \leq t \leq T} (H_{t-2} \setminus H_{t-1})$ with $\bigcup$ denoting the disjoint union (true since $(H_t)_{t \geq 1}$ is a decreasing sequence of events). By repeating the same arguments that are used before and using the fact that $Q_T$ is non-negative,

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_T) = \mathbb{P}(H_{T-1} \setminus H_T) + \mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_{T-1})
$$

$$
\leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathbb{E}[Q_T \mathbb{I}_{H_{T-1} \setminus H_T}] + \mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_{T-1})
$$

$$
\leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \mathbb{E}[Q_T \mathbb{I}_{H_{T-1}}] + \mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_{T-1}).
$$

(C.6), (C.5) along with (iii) lead to

$$
\mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_T) \leq \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \sum_{t=2}^{T} \mathbb{E}[(\xi_t^2 + \chi_t) \mathbb{I}_{I_{t-1}}] \leq \delta \mathbb{P}(A_1).
$$

Subsequently,

$$
\mathbb{P}(H_T \mid A_1) = 1 - \frac{\mathbb{P}(A_1 \setminus H_T)}{\mathbb{P}(A_1)} \geq 1 - \delta.
$$

With $H_T \subset I_T$ this also gives $\mathbb{P}(I_T \mid A_1) \geq 1 - \delta$. We notice that $\bigcap_{t \geq 1} I_t = \bigcap_{t \geq 1} A_t$. As $(I_t)_{t \geq 1}$ is decreasing, by continuity from above we conclude

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{t \geq 1} A_t \mid A_1\right) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(I_t \mid A_1) \geq 1 - \delta.
$$

$\square$
To apply Lemma C.1, we establish another quasi-descent lemma which holds without taking expectation values.

**Lemma C.2.** For all $p \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $t \in \mathbb{N}$, the iterates generated by (DSEG) satisfies the following inequality
\[
\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2 \leq \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle - 2\gamma_t \eta_t \left\| V(X_t) \langle V(X_t) \rangle - \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_t) \rangle \right\| - 2\eta_t \langle Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t - p \rangle - 2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle + 2\gamma_t \eta_t \left\| V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_t) \right\|^2 + \eta_t^2 \left\| \tilde{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \right\|^2.
\]

If we assume Assumption 1' for some solution $x^*$ and that $X_t$, $\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$, $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$ all lie in this neighborhood, then
\[
\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2 \leq \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle - 2\gamma_t \eta_t (1 - \gamma_t \beta) \| V(X_t) \|^2 - 2\gamma_t \eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle + 2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 \beta \| Z_t \| \| \tilde{V}_t \| + \eta_t^2 \left\| \tilde{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \right\|^2. \tag{C.8}
\]

**Proof.** Similar to (B.1), we develop
\[
\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2 = \|X_t - p\|^2 - 2\eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle - 2\eta_t \langle Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t - p \rangle + \eta_t^2 \left\| \tilde{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \right\|^2.
\]
We further develop the second term on the RHS of the equality
\[
\langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_t - p \rangle = \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle + \gamma_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \tilde{V}_t \rangle
\]
\[
= \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle + \gamma_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_t), \tilde{V}_t \rangle + \gamma_t \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \tilde{V}_t \rangle.
\]
To deal with the last term
\[
\langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), \tilde{V}_t \rangle = \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), V(X_t) \rangle + \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle
\]
\[
= \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_t), V(X_t) \rangle + \| V(X_t) \|^2 + \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t \rangle.
\]
By combining all the above, we readily get (C.7) with Cauchy’s inequality. If Assumption 1' holds on a set that $X_t$, $\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$, $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$ belong to, we can further bound
\[
2\gamma_t \eta_t \| V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) \| \| \tilde{V}_t \| \leq 2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta \| Z_t \| \| \tilde{V}_t \|
\]
\[
2\gamma_t \eta_t \| V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(X_t) \| \| V(X_t) \| \leq 2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta \| V(X_t) \|^2,
\]
which gives (C.8).

**C.2 A stability result**

The following theorem characterizes the stability of the algorithm around a solution. The subsequent stepsize condition encompasses the stepsizes employed in Theorem 2 and Theorem 4 as special cases. We recall that $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = X_t - \gamma_t V(X_t)$.

**Theorem C.1.** Let $x^*$ be an isolated solution of (Opt) such that Assumptions 1' and 3' is satisfied on $B_r(x^*)$ for some $r > 0$. Let the noise verify Assumption 2 with the additional assumption that $E[\| Z_t \|^q | F_t ] \leq \sigma_q$ for some $q > 2$. We fix a tolerance level $\delta \in (0,1)$. For every $p \in (0,1)$, there is a neighborhood $U_{\rho}$ of $x^*$ and a constant $\Gamma > 0$ such that if (DSEG) is initialized at $X_1 \in U_{\rho}$ and is run with stepsizes satisfying $\sum_t \gamma_t \eta_t = \infty$, $\sum_t \eta_t^2 < \Gamma$, $\sum_t \gamma_t^2 \eta_t < \Gamma$ and $\sum_t \gamma_t^2 < \Gamma$, then
\[
E_{\infty}^p = \{ X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in B_r(x^*), X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in B_{pr}(x^*) \text{ for all } t = 1,2,\ldots \}
\]
occurs with probability at least $1 - \delta$, i.e., $P(E_{\infty}^p | X_1 \in U_{\rho}) \geq 1 - \delta$. 

23
Proof. We would like to apply Lemma C.1, but instead of indexing by \( t \in \mathbb{N} \), we index by \( s \in \mathbb{N}/2 \). We invoke (C.7) from Lemma C.2 and set the random variables accordingly

\[
\frac{\|X_{t+1} - p\|^2}{D_{t+1}} \leq \frac{\|X_t - p\|^2}{D_t} - 2\eta_t \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - p \rangle_{\mathcal{F}_t} - 2\gamma \eta_t \|V(X_t)\| \langle \|\|V(X_t)\| - \|\|\tilde{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - V(X_t)\|\| \rangle_{\mathcal{F}_t} + (-2\eta_t (Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t - p)) + (-2\gamma \eta_t (V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t)) \quad \gamma \eta_t \|\tilde{V}_t\| \langle \|V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) - V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\| + \eta_t^2 \|\tilde{V}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2 \rangle_{\mathcal{F}_t+1}
\]

(C.9)

We additionally define \( \chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} := \gamma_t^2 \|Z_t\|^2 \) and \( D_{t+\frac{1}{2}} := D_t - \zeta_t + \chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} + \xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \) so that (C.9) implies \( D_{t+1} \leq D_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \zeta_{t+\frac{1}{2}} + \chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} + \xi_{t+1} \). We should now verify that the assumptions (i), (ii) and (iii) in Lemma C.1 are satisfied for a \( C \) that is properly chosen. Let \( M \) denote the supremum of \( \|V(x)\| \) for \( x \in U' \) where \( U' = \mathbb{B}_r(x^*) \) and \( r' := \rho r \). We then choose \( C := \min(r'^2/9, 4(r'/3)^2) \). We also set \( \Gamma \) small enough to guarantee \( \eta_t \leq \min(r'/3M, 1/\beta) \).

(a.0) Inclusion \( I_t \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \) and \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \). Since \( I_t \subset A_t \), for any realization of \( I_t \), we have \( \|X_t - x^*\|^2 \leq C \leq r'^2/9 \). It follows

\[\|\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^*\|^2 \leq 2\|X_t - x^*\|^2 + 2\gamma_t^2 \|V(X_t)\|^2 \leq \frac{2r'^2}{9} + 2\gamma_t^2 M^2 \leq \frac{4r'^2}{9} \]

We have shown \( I_t \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \). On the other hand, \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset A_t \cap A_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{D_t \leq C\} \cap \{X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \leq C/4\} \). Therefore for any realization of \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \),

\[\gamma_t^2 \|Z_t\|^2 \leq \chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \leq \frac{C}{4} \leq (r'/3)^2 \]

Subsequently,

\[\|X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^*\|^2 \leq 3\|X_t - x^*\|^2 + 3\eta_t^2 \|V(X_t)\|^2 + 3\eta_t^2 \|Z_t\|^2 \leq \frac{r'^2}{3} + \frac{r'^2}{3} + 3 \left( \frac{r'}{3} \right)^2 \leq r'^2 \]

This proves \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \).

(a.1) Assumption (i). We start by \( \zeta_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \|I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \geq 0 \). This is true because \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \) and \( U' \subset \mathbb{B}_r(x^*) \), which allows us to apply Assumption 3’ to obtain \( \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle \geq 0 \) whenever \( I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \) occurs. Similarly, by \( I_t \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \) and Assumption 1’ we then have

\[\zeta_t \|I_t \geq 2\gamma_t \eta_t (1 - \gamma_t \beta) \|V(X_t)\|^2 \geq 0 \]

(a.2) Assumption (ii). Immediate from (1a) and the law of the total expectation.

(a.3) Assumption (iii). By using that \( I_t \subset \{\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\} \), we get

\[\mathbb{E}[\xi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \|I_t \] \leq 4\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 \mathbb{E}[\|V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}})\|^2 \|I_t \|Z_t\|^2] \leq 4\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 M^2 \mathbb{E}[\|Z_t\|^2] \leq 4\gamma_t^2 \eta_t^2 M^2 \sigma^2 \]

24
Notice that $\mathbb{E}[||Z_t||] \leq \sigma$ by Jensen’s inequality. Using $I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{X_t, \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\}$ and Assumption 1' then gives
\[
\mathbb{E}[\chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}}] \leq 2\gamma^2 \eta \beta E[||Z_t||][||V(X_t)|| + \|Z_t\|] I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} + \eta^2 E[||V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})||^2 + \|Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}\|^2] I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \\
\leq 2\gamma^2 \eta \beta (E[||Z_t||^2] + E[||Z_t|| ||V(X_t)|| I_{\{X_t \in U'\}}]) \\
+ \eta^2 (E[||V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}})||^2 I_{\{X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in U'\}}] + E[||Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}||^2]) \\
\leq 2\gamma^2 \eta \beta (M\sigma + \sigma^2) + \eta^2 (M^2 + \sigma^2).
\]

By similar arguments and in particular by invoking $I_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{D_t \leq C\}$ and the definition of $C$, it follows
\[
\mathbb{E}[\xi_{t+1}^2 I_{t+\frac{1}{2}}] \leq \frac{4}{9} \eta^2 \sqrt{2}\sigma^2,
\]

Combining the above with $\mathbb{E}[\chi_{t+\frac{1}{2}} I_{t+\frac{1}{2}}] \leq \gamma^2 \sigma^q$, we have
\[
\sum_{s \in \{1, \frac{1}{2}, \ldots\}} \left( \xi_{s+\frac{1}{2}}^2 + \chi_{s+\frac{1}{2}} \right) I_{s+\frac{1}{2}} \\
\leq \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \left( \gamma^2 \sigma^q + 2\gamma^2 \eta \beta (M\sigma + \sigma^2) + 4\gamma^2 \eta^2 M^2 \sigma^2 + \eta^2 (M^2 + \sigma^2 + \frac{4}{9} \sqrt{2}\sigma^2) \right) \\
\leq \left( \sigma^q + 2\beta (M\sigma + \sigma^2) + \frac{4}{9} M^2 \sigma^2 + M^2 + \sigma^2 + \frac{4}{9} \sqrt{2}\sigma^2 \right) \Gamma.
\]

We can thus pick $\Gamma$ small enough to make (iii) verified.

(a.4) **Conclude.** We set $U_\rho = \mathbb{B} \cup \sqrt{C/\rho}(x^*)$ so that $A_1 = \{X_1 \in U_\rho\}$. By invoking Lemma C.1 we get $\mathbb{P} \left( \cap_{t \geq 1} A_t \mid A_1 \right) \geq 1 - \delta$. Additionally, (a.0) along with $U' \subset \mathbb{B}_r(x^*)$ imply $\cap_{t \geq 1} A_t \subset E_\infty$, concluding the proof.

**C.3 Proof of Theorem 2**

Let $r > 0$, $\rho \in (0, 1)$. By Theorem C.1, we know that if (DSEG) is run as stated in Theorem 2 with $r_{\gamma} + r_{\eta} \leq 1$, $2r_{\eta} > 1$, $2r_{\gamma} + r_{\eta} > 1$, $r_{\gamma} q > 1$ and small enough $\gamma$, $\eta$, the event $E_\infty$ occurs with probability $1 - \delta$. With this at hand we are ready to prove the large probability convergence result. For $t \in \mathbb{N}$, let us define the following events
\[
E_t := \{X_s, \tilde{X}_{s+\frac{1}{2}} \in \mathbb{B}_r(x^*) \text{ for all } s = 1, \ldots, t\} \\
E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} := E_t \cap \{X_{s+\frac{1}{2}} \in \mathbb{B}_r(x^*) \text{ for all } s = 1, \ldots, t\}.
\]

We notice that $E_\infty = \bigcap_{t \geq 1} E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$. We would like to establish a recursive inequality in the form of (A.7) by taking $U_t = ||X_t - x^*|| I_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}}$. The main difficulty consists in controlling the term $\mathbb{E}_t[||V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t|| I_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} ]$, which is generally non-zero as $I_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}$ is not $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable. To achieve this, we rely on the following key observation.
\[
\mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_t}] = \mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] + \mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}].
\]

As $I_{E_t}$ is $\mathcal{F}_t$-measurable, $\mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_t}]$ is indeed zero and this implies
\[
||\mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}|| = ||\mathbb{E}_t[Z_t I_{E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}||].
\]

The problem then reduces to finding an upper bound of $||\mathbb{E}[Z_t I_{E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}||]$. By definition, for any realization of $E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$, $\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \in \mathbb{B}_r(x^*)$ and $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \notin \mathbb{B}_r(x^*)$. Since $X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} = \tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - \gamma_t Z_t$, we deduce $E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset \{||\gamma_t Z_t|| \geq (1 - \rho)r\}$.
Therefore, along with the Chebyshev’s inequality,
\[ \mathbb{P}(E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \mid \mathcal{F}_t) \leq \mathbb{P}\left( \|Z_t\| \geq \frac{(1-\rho)r}{\gamma_t} \mid \mathcal{F}_t \right) \leq \frac{\sigma^2 \gamma_t^2}{(1-\rho)^2 r^2}. \]

Applying the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality leads to
\[ \|E_t[Z_t \mathbb{1}_{E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}]\| \leq \sqrt{E_t[\|Z_t\|^2]} \sqrt{E_t[\mathbb{1}_{E_t \setminus E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}]^2] \leq \frac{\sigma^2 \gamma_t}{(1-\rho)r}. \]  
(C.12)

Then, by using (C.11), (C.12) and \( E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset E_t \),
\[ E_t[(V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), Z_t) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}'] = E_t[(V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}, Z_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}})] \]
\[ = \langle V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t}}, E_t[Z_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] \rangle \]
\[ \leq ||V(\tilde{X}_{t+\frac{1}{2}}) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t}}|| \|E_t[Z_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}]\| \]
\[ \leq \frac{M \sigma^2 \gamma_t}{(1-\rho)r}. \]  
(C.13)

where \( M := \sup_{x \in \mathcal{B}(x_*)} ||V(x)||. \) We can now derive a recursive bound on \( E[||X_{t+1} - x^*||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] \) by invoking Lemma C.2 with \( p \leftarrow x^* \). The inequality (C.8) multiplied by \( \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} \) holds true by definition of \( E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \) and Assumption 1’. The desired inequality can then be obtained by taking expectation conditioned on \( \mathcal{F}_t \). On the one hand, we use
\[ \langle V(X_{t+\frac{1}{2}}), X_{t+\frac{1}{2}} - x^* \rangle \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} \geq 0 \]
\[ E_t[(Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}, X_t - x^*) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] = E_t[\langle E_t[Z_{t+\frac{1}{2}}], X_t - x^* \rangle \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} = 0. \]

On the other hand, the last two terms of (C.8) can be bounded similarly as in (C.10) and the antepenultimate term can now be bounded thanks to (C.13). We then obtain
\[ E_t[||X_{t+1} - x^*||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} \leq E_t[(||X_t - x^*||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} - 0 - 2\gamma_t \eta_t (1-\gamma_t \beta) E_t[||V(X_t)||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}]
\]
\[ - 0 + 2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t M \frac{\sigma^2}{(1-\rho)r} + \eta_t^2 (M^2 + \sigma^2) + 2\gamma_t^2 \eta_t \beta (M \sigma + \sigma^2). \]  
(C.14)

Without loss of generality we may suppose \( \gamma_t \beta \leq 1/2 \). To simplify the notation, we set
\[ \zeta_t = \min\left(\|X_t - x^*\|^2, \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(X_t)\|^2\right), \quad M_1 = 2 \frac{M \sigma^2}{(1-\rho)r} + 2 \beta (M \sigma + \sigma^2), \quad M_2 = M^2 + \sigma^2. \]

It follows from (C.14)
\[ E_t[||X_{t+1} - x^*||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} \leq E_t[(||X_t - x^*\|^2 - \zeta_t) \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t M_1 + \eta_t^2 M_2. \]

As \( ||X_t - x^*||^2 - \zeta_t \geq 0 \) and \( E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}, \) this implies
\[ E_t[||X_{t+1} - x^*||_1 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} \leq ||X_t - x^*\|^2 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} - \zeta_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t M_1 + \eta_t^2 M_2. \]

Invoking the Robbins–Siegmund theorem (Lemma A.4) gives the almost sure convergence of \( \sum_t \zeta_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} \) and \( ||X_t - x^*\|^2 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} \). We use \( \mathbb{P}(E_\infty) > 1 - \delta \) and deduce that
\[ \mathbb{P}\left( E_\infty \cap \left\{ \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \zeta_t \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} < \infty \right\} \cap \left\{ ||X_t - x^*\|^2 \mathbb{1}_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} \text{converges} \right\} \right) \geq 1 - \delta. \]
Since $E_t^\infty = \bigcap_{t\geq 1} E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}$, for any realization of the above event it holds $\sum_t \zeta_t < \infty$ and $\|X_t - x^*\|^2$ converges. We assume by contradiction that $\|X_t - x^*\|^2$ converges to some constant $\nu > 0$. From the summability of $(\zeta_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$ we know that $\zeta_t \to 0$ and therefore for all $t$ large enough we have in fact $\zeta_t = \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(X_t)\|^2$. It follows that $\sum_t \gamma_t \eta_t \|V(X_t)\|^2 < \infty$. Repeating the arguments of Theorem 1 we then show that $\|X_t - x^*\| \to 0$, which is a contradiction (we take $r$ small enough so that $x^*$ is the only solution of $(\text{Opt})$ in $\mathbb{E}_r(x^*)$). We have therefore proved that $\|X_t - x^*\| \to 0$ for any realization of $\mathcal{E}$. In conclusion, $X_t$ converges to $x^*$ with probability at least $1 - \delta$.

### C.4 Proof of Proposition 2

Below we restate Proposition 2 in a more detailed manner to explicit the constant $\tau$.

**Proposition 2'.** If a solution $x^*$ satisfies Assumption 3', then for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a neighborhood $U$ of $x^*$ such that the error bound condition (EB) is satisfied on $U$ with constant $\tau = \sigma_{\min} - \varepsilon$ where $\sigma_{\min}$ denotes the smallest singular value of $\text{Jac}_V(x^*)$.

**Proof.** By definition of Jacobian we have

$$V(x) = V(x^*) + \text{Jac}_V(x^*)(x - x^*) + o(\|x - x^*\|).$$

(C.15)

By the min-max principle of singular value it holds

$$||\text{Jac}_V(x^*)(x - x^*)|| \geq \sigma_{\min} \|x - x^*\|.$$  

(C.16)

Since $V(x^*) = 0$, combining (C.15) and (C.16) gives

$$\|V(x)\| \geq \sigma_{\min} \|x - x^*\| - o(\|x - x^*\|).$$

We conclude by noticing $\text{dist}(x, X^*) = \|x - x^*\|$ when $U$ is small enough. \(\square\)

### C.5 Proof of Theorem 4

Both $a)$ and $b)$ are direct consequences of Theorem C.1. In effect, since $q > 3$, the sum of the series $\sum_t \eta_t^2$, $\sum_t \gamma_t^2 \eta_t$ and $\sum_t \gamma_t^2$ can be made arbitrarily small by taking sufficiently large $b$. Moreover, $x^*$ is an isolated solution because $\text{Jac}_V(x^*)$ is non-singular. Therefore, taking $E_U := E_\infty^0$, $U := U^\rho$ and $U' := \mathbb{E}_{\rho r}(x^*)$ readily gives $a)$ and $b)$.

Finally, to guarantee $c)$, we need to have $\rho$ small enough and enforce $\gamma \eta \sigma_{\min}^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta) > 1/6$. In fact, from $\gamma \eta \sigma_{\min}^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta) > 1/6$ we deduce the existence of $\varepsilon \in (0, \sigma_{\min})$ such that $\gamma \eta (\sigma_{\min} - \varepsilon)^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta) > 1/6$.

Since $\text{Jac}_V(x^*)$ is non-singular, by Proposition 2' we can choose $\rho > 0$ so that the error bound condition (EB) is satisfied on $\mathbb{E}_{\rho r}(x^*)$ with $\tau = \sigma_{\min} - \varepsilon$. Let $M_1$, $M_2$ be defined as in Appendix C.3. We then obtained from (C.14)

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] \leq (1 - 2\gamma \eta \tau^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta)) \mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t M_1 + \eta_t^2 M_2].$$

By using $E_{t+\frac{1}{2}} \subset E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}$, we get

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}} \leq (1 - 2\gamma \eta \tau^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta)) \mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}} + \gamma_t^2 \eta_t M_1 + \eta_t^2 M_2]$$

Therefore, with the specified stepsize policy and the condition $\gamma \eta \tau^2 (1 - \gamma_1 \beta) > 1/6$, applying Lemma A.2 yields $\mathbb{E}[\|X_{t+1} - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}] = O(1/t^{1/3})$. Finally

$$\mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 | E_\infty^0] = \frac{\mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t+\frac{1}{2}}}| E_{E_\infty^0}]}{\mathbb{P}(E_\infty^0)} \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 1_{E_{t-\frac{1}{2}}}| E_{E_\infty^0}]}{1 - \delta},$$

which proves $\mathbb{E}[\|X_t - x^*\|^2 | E_{E_\infty^0}] = O(1/t^{1/3})$. 

27