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# Asymptotic theory of SGD with a general learning-rate

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## Abstract

1 Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with polynomially decaying step-sizes has  
2 long underpinned theoretical analyses, yielding a broad spectrum of statistically  
3 attractive guarantees. Yet in practice, such schedules find rare use due to their  
4 prohibitively slow convergence, revealing a persistent gap between theory and  
5 empirical performance. In this paper, we introduce a unified framework that  
6 quantifies the uncertainty of online SGD under arbitrary learning-rate choices. In  
7 particular, we provide the first comprehensive convergence characterizations for  
8 two widely used but theoretically under-examined schemes—cyclical learning  
9 rates and linear decay to zero. Our results not only explain the observed behavior  
10 of these schedules but also facilitate principled tools for statistical inference and  
11 algorithm design. All theoretical findings are corroborated by extensive simulations  
12 across diverse settings.

## 13 1 Introduction

14 Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) has gained popularity in modern machine learning since the  
15 seminal work of [Robbins and Monro \[1951\]](#). While its theoretical foundations are well established,  
16 the literature has largely focused on two standard step-size choices: *constant step-sizes*, which  
17 provide exponentially fast convergence to a biased stationary distribution and allow straightforward  
18 tuning, and *polynomially decaying step-sizes*, typically of the form  $\eta_t \asymp t^{-\alpha}$ , which offer statistical  
19 guarantees such as consistency and asymptotic normality [[Chung, 1954](#), [Sacks, 1958](#), [Fabian, 1968](#),  
20 [Ruppert, 1988](#), [Polyak and Juditsky, 1992](#)] and extend to many SGD variants [[Poljak, 1964](#), [Gadat  
21 and Panloup, 2023](#), [Li et al., 2024b](#)]. However, polynomially decaying schedules converge slowly  
22 in practice, while constant step-sizes require careful calibration to avoid divergence [[Bengio, 2012](#)].  
23 Hybrid schemes combining these approaches have gained traction in deep learning [[He et al., 2016](#),  
24 [Smith and Topin, 2019](#)], though learning rates are often chosen empirically or via hyper-parameter  
25 tuning over standard schedules [[Wu et al., 2018](#)]. This practical reliance leaves a notable gap in  
26 theoretical understanding of general step-size effects on SGD. The critical role of learning rates in  
27 stochastic approximation convergence has long been recognized [[Spall, 2003](#), [Nemirovski et al.,  
28 2008](#)], underscoring the need for a unified theoretical framework encompassing a broader range of  
29 step-size strategies.

30 Recent applications have introduced a variety of learning rate schedules that, despite their empirical  
31 success, lack comprehensive theoretical support. For instance, [Smith \[2017\]](#) proposes several cyclical  
32 learning rate schemes that perform well in practice across standard neural network architectures.  
33 Another under-theorized category is that of finite-horizon schedules, where the learning rate depends  
34 explicitly on the total number of iterations. In high-dimensional linear regression, for example,  
35 [Agrawalla et al. \[2023\]](#) recommends a schedule of the form  $\eta_{t,n} \propto \frac{\log n}{n}$ . Among such schedules, the  
36 linearly decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z) learning rate has seen widespread use in training large-scale  
37 architectures. Detailed discussion on the relevant literature – though by no means exhaustive – is  
38 included in Section 1.3. Despite its prevalence, the non-asymptotic behavior of Linear-D2Z and

related finite-horizon step-size policies remains poorly understood from a theoretical standpoint. In this work, we aim to bridge this theoretical gap by (i) developing a unified framework to show the non-asymptotic moment convergence, and (ii) explicitly characterizing the non-asymptotic behavior of the wide class of cyclical learning rates as well as Linear-D2Z.

## 1.1 SGD preliminaries

Before summarizing the main contributions of this article, we briefly introduce the stochastic gradient descent (SGD) problem and establish a consistent notational framework for the analysis. Consider the problem of minimizing a function  $F : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $F \in \mathcal{C}^1$ , given by:

$$\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d} F(\theta),$$

and the corresponding SGD algorithm:

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \eta_t \nabla f(\theta_{t-1}, \xi_t), \quad \theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\eta_t$  are step-sizes at  $t$ -th step, and  $\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots$ , are i.i.d. samples from some unknown distribution  $\mathbb{P}_\xi$  such that  $\mathbb{E}_{\xi \sim \mathbb{P}_\xi} [\nabla f(\theta_{t-1}, \xi_t)] = \nabla F(\theta)$  for all  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . With this formulation in place, we now proceed to outlining the main contributions of this work.

## 1.2 Main contributions

This article presents a unified framework for deriving the non-asymptotic mean-squared error for arbitrary learning rate schedules. Our results not only encompass the known theory for polynomially decaying learning rates as a specific case, but also extend the asymptotic analysis to other commonly used learning rates that previously lacked theoretical support. Our main contributions are summarized below.

(1) In our Theorem 2.1, we prove a general bound on the mean error of the SGD iterates,  $\mathbb{E}[|\theta_n - \theta^*|^p]$  involving the step sizes  $\{\eta_t\}$ . In particular, under certain regularity conditions, we prove the following.

**Theorem 1.1** (Theorem 2.1, informal). *If  $S_{s,t} = \sum_{j=s+1}^t \eta_j$  for  $t > s$ , then it holds that*

$$\mathbb{E}[|\theta_n - \theta^*|^p] \lesssim \exp(-c_p S_{1,n}) |\theta_0 - \theta^*|^p + \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp(-c_p S_{j,n}).$$

This result enables straightforward application to a wide range of learning rate schedules  $\eta_t$ , provided that the second term,  $\sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp(-c_p S_{j,n})$ , can be effectively controlled. For example, such bounds are typically tractable for many "approximately" polynomially decaying learning rates. Moreover, the result explicitly captures the influence of the initial point on the final error of the SGD iterates.

(2) A key aspect of Theorem 2.1 is that the step sizes  $\eta_j$  are allowed to depend on the total iteration count  $n$ , thereby accommodating finite-horizon learning rate schedules. Such schedules have rarely been studied in the context of mean-squared error. We specifically examine the widely used linearly decaying schedule  $\eta_t = \eta(1 - t/n)$  as a representative case. In Theorem 2.2, we leverage Theorem 2.1 to characterize the non-asymptotic moment convergence of SGD iterates under this step-size rule. Although this schedule is common in practice, Theorem 2.2 provides, to the best of our knowledge, its first explicit, rigorous analysis in the online SGD setting. Furthermore, our approach can be readily extended to a broad class of finite-horizon schedules.

(3) When the learning rate is constant ( $\eta_t \equiv \eta$ ) or cyclical ( $\eta_t = \eta_{t \bmod T}$ ), Theorem 2.1 yields only an  $O(1)$  bound, which offers only limited insight. While it is well established that, in the constant case, the SGD iterates converge to a stationary distribution, there is, to the best of our knowledge, no existing asymptotic theory for the cyclical learning rate setting. In Theorem 2.4, we address this gap by presenting a novel convergence result for SGD iterates under cyclical learning rate schedules.

**Theorem 1.2** (Theorem 2.4, informal). *For a cyclical learning rate  $\eta = (\eta_1, \dots, \eta_T)$ , if not all of the  $\eta_k$ 's are too big, then there exists a "cyclostationary" process  $\pi$  such that*

$$\theta_n \xrightarrow{w} \pi, \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty,$$

where  $\xrightarrow{w}$  denotes the convergence in distribution.

81 This result highlights a fundamental behavioral difference between SGD with cyclical learning rates  
 82 and with constant learning rates. While the latter typically converges to a stationary distribution,  
 83 resembling the behavior of a Markov chain, the former converges to a distinct type of non-stationary  
 84 distribution exhibiting periodic patterns over time- formally known as cyclostationary distribution.  
 85 To aid the reader’s understanding, we also include a brief but formal discussion of cyclostationary  
 86 processes.

87 **(4)** Our theoretical results are substantiated by extensive numerical exercises. Section 3.2 focuses  
 88 on linearly decaying schedules, which empirically demonstrate both fast early convergence and  
 89 low final error, consistent with Theorem 2.2, and justifying their practical appeal. On the other  
 90 hand, Section 3.3 examines cosine schedules, where the learning rate follows a smooth periodic  
 91 pattern; the resulting error exhibits cyclical behavior, particularly in the variance of its estimate, also  
 92 complimenting Theorem 2.4. Some additional numerical exercises can be found in Appendix C.  
 93 Specifically, Appendix C.4 collects five different learning schedules, and provides a comparative  
 94 study that highlights both their behavior in the “transient” (i.e. with respect to initialization) phase, as  
 95 well as their asymptotic behavior.

### 96 1.3 Related works

97 There exists a substantial, though primarily empirical, body of literature examining gradient descent  
 98 and batched SGD in the context of neural networks. For instance, Wu et al. [2019] investigates a variety  
 99 of step-size schedules, including exponentially decaying and time-inverted schemes. Among the  
 100 many proposed strategies, our focus is on two broad and widely used classes: cyclical schedules and  
 101 linearly decaying schedules. Since the introduction of the “triangular” learning rate by Smith [2017],  
 102 periodic learning rate schemes—and their decaying variants such as cosine annealing—have become  
 103 influential in training deep architectures like convolutional neural networks (CNNs) [Loshchilov and  
 104 Hutter, 2017, Smith, 2023, Wang et al., 2023]. The periodic structure of these schedules allows for  
 105 intermittent large steps (which encourage exploration) followed by smaller steps (which promote  
 106 convergence), a behavior associated with so-called “super-convergence” as observed in both empirical  
 107 and theoretical work Smith and Topin [2019], Oymak [2021].

108 In parallel, annealing-based strategies have also played a prominent role in optimization [Huang  
 109 et al., 2017, Li et al., 2019, Nakkiran, 2020], with certain variants—such as geometrically decaying  
 110 step-sizes—proven to be minimax optimal in convex settings [Ge et al., 2019]. Within this context,  
 111 the linearly decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z) schedule has gained significant traction in applications  
 112 involving highly non-smooth or complex optimization landscapes, including state-space models  
 113 [Touvron et al., 2023], large language models [Devlin et al., 2019, Liu et al., 2019, Bergsma et al.,  
 114 2025], and vision transformers [Wu et al., 2024]. Notably, several works advocate for a “knee  
 115 schedule” [Howard and Ruder, 2018, Hoffmann et al., 2022, Iyer et al., 2023, Defazio et al., 2023,  
 116 Hägele et al., 2024, Bergsma et al., 2025], which begins with a large learning rate (a “warm start”)  
 117 followed by a Linear-D2Z phase. Despite their widespread adoption, the asymptotic behavior  
 118 of both cyclical and Linear-D2Z step-size schedules remains theoretically unexplored—even in  
 119 relatively simple convex settings. This lack of theoretical understanding presents a significant barrier  
 120 to rigorous statistical inference and uncertainty quantification, underscoring the need for systematic  
 121 analysis.

### 122 1.4 Notations

123 In this paper, we denote the set  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  by  $[n]$ . The  $d$ -dimensional Euclidean space is  $\mathbb{R}^d$ .  
 124 For a vector  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $|a|$  denotes its Euclidean norm. For a random vector  $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we denote  
 125  $\|X\| := \sqrt{\mathbb{E}[|X|^2]}$ . We also denote in-probability convergence, and stochastic boundedness by  $o_{\mathbb{P}}$   
 126 and  $O_{\mathbb{P}}$  respectively. We write  $a_n \lesssim b_n$  if  $a_n \leq Cb_n$  for some constant  $C > 0$ , and  $a_n \asymp b_n$  if  
 127  $C_1b_n \leq a_n \leq C_2b_n$  for some constants  $C_1, C_2 > 0$ . Often we denote  $a_n \lesssim b_n$  by  $a_n = O(b_n)$ .  
 128 Additionally, if  $a_n/b_n \rightarrow 0$ , we write  $a_n = o(b_n)$

## 2 Non-asymptotic moment convergence of SGD iterates with general step-sizes

This section is devoted to establishing the  $p$ -th moment convergence of SGD iterates (1.1) for any  $p \geq 2$  with a general choice of learning rate. In particular, we allow for finite-horizon schedules; in the notation of Section 1.1, we allow  $\eta_t \equiv \eta_{t,n}$ . We note that this represents a significant improvement the existing body of literature that analyzes the statistical properties of SGD and its variants under different learning rate schedules. Before we discuss our main result, it is imperative to introduce the crucial technical assumptions behind our result.

### 2.1 Technical assumptions

We assume the following regularity assumptions.

**Assumption 2.1.** *The function  $F$  is  $\mu$ -strongly convex, i.e. for a  $\mu > 0$  and for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , it holds that*

$$\langle \nabla F(x) - \nabla F(y), x - y \rangle \geq \mu |x - y|^2.$$

The strong-convexity assumption 2.1 can further be relaxed into the strong concordance assumption as follows:

**Assumption 2.2** (Local strong convexity). *There exists  $\mu^* > 0$  such that  $\nabla_2 F(\theta^*) \succeq \mu^*$ . Moreover, there exists a constant  $C > 0$ , and compact set  $\Phi \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ , such that for all  $\theta_1, \theta_2 \in \Phi$ , it holds that*

$$|\varphi'''(u)| \leq C |\theta_1 - \theta_2| \varphi''(u), \text{ where } \varphi : u \mapsto F(\theta_1 + u(\theta_2 - \theta_1)), u \in \mathbb{R}.$$

We remark that adoption of Assumption of 2.2 instead of Assumption 2.1 does not significantly alter any of our arguments; see Gu and Chen [2024] for details. For simplicity, we stick with Assumption 2.1.

**Assumption 2.3.** *For the noisy gradients  $\nabla f(\cdot, \cdot)$  and some  $p \geq 2$ , there exists a constant  $L_p > 0$  such that*

$$\mathbb{E}[|\nabla f(x, \xi) - \nabla f(y, \xi)|^p] \leq L_p^p |x - y|^p, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

*In particular, for some constant  $M_p > 0$ , it holds that*

$$(\mathbb{E}[|\nabla f(\theta^*, \xi)|^p])^{1/p} =: M_p < \infty.$$

Assumption 2.3 entails that  $F$  is  $L_p$ -smooth by Hölder's inequality; in other words, for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , it holds that

$$|\nabla F(x) - \nabla F(y)| \leq L_p |x - y|.$$

Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 are standard features of statistical analysis of convex stochastic optimization, and have appeared extensively in Ruppert [1988], Polyak and Juditsky [1992], Bottou et al. [2018], Chen et al. [2020], Zhu et al. [2023], Wei et al. [2023], Li et al. [2024a]. With these standard regularity assumptions, we can introduce our general result.

### 2.2 A general moment convergence of SGD iterates

In this section, we introduce our main contribution – an umbrella result that furnishes a ready-made upper-bound of the SGD iterates (1.1) for any choice of learning rates. In particular, we have the following result.

**Theorem 2.1** ( $L^p$  Convergence). *Suppose that Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 hold for some  $p \geq 2$ . Let  $c_0 > 0$  be some universal constant. For any  $t \geq 1$  such that  $\eta_t$  satisfies*

$$0 < \eta_t < \frac{2\mu}{(6p-5)L_p^2}, \quad (2.1)$$

*we have,*

$$\|\theta_t - \theta^*\|_p^2 \leq \exp \left\{ -c_0 \sum_{k=1}^n \eta_k \right\} |\theta_0 - \theta^*|^2 + 3(p-1)M_p^2 \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp \left\{ -c_0 \sum_{k=j+1}^n \eta_k \right\}. \quad (2.2)$$

163 Theorem 2.1 is proved in appendix Section A.1. The bound (2.2) highlights the two key terms that the  
 164 learning rates contribute in the moment bound. In particular, there is an inherent trade-off between  
 165 the potential choices of step-sizes  $\eta_t$  that goes into determining the order of the  $p$ -th moment. We  
 166 discuss this property in detail in the subsequent two remarks.

167 *Remark 2.1* (Effect of initialization). Firstly, the  $\exp$  term in (2.2) highlights that in order to neglect  
 168 the effect of initialization, one must have  $\sum_{k=1}^n \eta_k \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; in other words, the step-sizes  
 169 cannot be too small. For example, Wu et al. [2019] discusses exponentially decaying step-sizes  
 170  $\eta_t = \gamma^t$ , whose performance heavily depends on the initial point even for large  $n$ , indicating that the  
 171 effect of initialization cannot be ignored in this case.

172 *Remark 2.2* (Effect of exploration). The second term  $\sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp \left\{ -c_0 \sum_{k=j+1}^n \eta_k \right\}$  encodes the  
 173 exploration property of the SGD iterates  $\theta_t$ . Intuitively, if  $\eta_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then this second term  
 174 is also  $o(1)$ . Therefore, this term essentially ensures that  $\eta_j$  has to be decaying, and not all of them  
 175 can be too big.

176 It is instructive to examine specific learning rate choices and their implications as reflected by the  
 177 bound in (2.2). For example, with the commonly used polynomially decaying schedule  $\eta_t \asymp t^{-\beta}$ , the  
 178 first term behaves like  $\exp(-t^{1-\beta})$ , while the second term is on the order of  $O(\eta_t)$ , recovering the  
 179 classical mean square error (MSE) rate for this setting. In the following section, we apply Theorem  
 180 2.1 to analyze another important and theoretically less-explored finite-horizon schedule: the linearly  
 181 decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z) learning rate.

### 182 2.3 Linear decaying step-sizes

183 As an important application of Theorem 2.1, consider the Linear-D2Z learning rate  $\eta_t = \eta(1 - t/n)$ .  
 184 This learning schedule has recently been at the forefront of training large architectures, and its  
 185 optimality properties have been investigated both theoretically [Defazio et al., 2023] and empirically  
 186 Bergsma et al. [2025] in different context. Despite this interest, its non-asymptotic convergence rate  
 187 remains unknown in the literature. Leveraging the bound in (2.2), we analyze the  $L_p$  convergence  
 188 behavior of SGD under this learning rate schedule.

**Theorem 2.2.** Recall  $\theta_n$  from (1.1). Under the conditions of Theorem 2.1, we have

$$\|\theta_n - \theta^*\|_p^2 \leq \|\theta_0 - \theta^*\|_p^2 e^{-c_0 \eta(n-1)/2} + \frac{C}{\sqrt{n}},$$

189 where  $C > 0$  is a universal constant.

190 *Remark 2.3.* Theorem 2.2 offers a remarkable insight into the behavior of the linearly decaying  
 191 learning rate: it effectively combines the advantages of both constant and polynomially decaying  
 192 step-sizes by being consistent and forgetting the initial condition at an exponential rate. Specifically,  
 193 for any  $c \in (0, 1)$  and all iterations  $t \leq \lfloor nc \rfloor$ , the step size satisfies  $\eta_t \geq \eta(1 - c)$ ; that is, the learning  
 194 rate behaves like a constant for a substantial portion of the optimization process, providing a “warm  
 195 start” and ensuring exponential decay relative to the initial point. Conversely, when  $t = \lceil n - c_0 n^{1-c} \rceil$   
 196 for some  $c > \frac{1}{2}$  and  $c_0 > 0$ , the step size satisfies  $\eta_t = \eta c_0 n^{-c} \asymp t^{-c}$ , mimicking a polynomially  
 197 decaying schedule that yields the MSE of order  $O(n^{-1/2})$ . Therefore, by leveraging the strengths of  
 198 both constant and polynomially decaying learning rates, the linearly decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z)  
 199 schedule achieves a “best-of-both-worlds” effect. This theoretical insight is empirically validated in  
 200 Section 2.3.

### 201 2.4 Asymptotic convergence in distribution of cyclical step-sizes

202 Note that for constant or cyclical learning rate schemes, Theorem 2.1 can only guarantee an MSE  
 203 bound of order  $O(1)$ . This naturally motivates a deeper investigation into the convergence properties  
 204 of these schedules. Specifically, an SGD sequence as defined in (1.1) with a constant step size  
 205  $\eta_t \equiv \eta$  can be interpreted as an aperiodic Markov chain. Under standard regularity conditions, it is  
 206 well-known that the iterates  $\theta_t$  converge weakly to a stationary distribution. However, as discussed,  
 207 recent empirical work has highlighted the benefits of periodic or cyclical step-size schedules, such as  
 208  $\eta_t \equiv \eta_{t \bmod T}$ . In this setting, the time-varying learning rate breaks the asymptotic stationarity of the  
 209 SGD chain. Nonetheless, the periodic structure of the step-size schedule induces a corresponding  
 210 periodicity in the asymptotic behavior of the iterates. Such non-stationary processes, characterized by

recurring statistical properties over time, are known as cyclostationary processes, which we briefly introduce below.

**Definition 2.3** (Cyclostationary process). *A stochastic process  $\{X_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}}$  is said to be cyclostationary with period  $T > 0$  if it holds that for all  $s \in [T]$ , and  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\{X_i, \dots, X_{i+s}\} \stackrel{d}{=} \{X_{i+T}, \dots, X_{i+T+s}\}$ .*

Cyclostationary process were introduced as a model of communications systems in [Bennett \[1958\]](#) and [Franks \[1969\]](#), later finding wide use in econometrics [[Parzen and Pagano, 1979](#)] as well as atmospheric sciences [[Bloomfield et al., 1994](#)] – the reader is encouraged to look into [[Gardner et al., 1994](#), [Napolitano, 2016](#)], and the references therein for an introduction and a comprehensive list of all its applications. In the context of SGD, it is instructive to look at the iterative random function construction of the cyclostationary process, as introduced by [Bonnerjee et al. \[2024\]](#):

$$X_t = g(\phi_t, \mathcal{F}_t), \mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(\varepsilon_s : s \leq t), \phi_t = \phi_{t \bmod T}, \text{ for some period } T \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (2.3)$$

This representation suggests an immediate connection to the SGD iterates  $\theta_t$  in (1.1), which, in the case of cyclical learning schedules, can be represented as

$$\theta_t = F_{\xi_t}(\eta_t, \theta_{t-1}), \eta_t = \eta_{t \bmod T}, \text{ for some period } T \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ with } F_{\xi}(\eta, \theta) = \theta - \eta \nabla f(\theta, \xi). \quad (2.4)$$

Equations (2.3) and (2.4) suggest an immediate connection between the cyclostationary process and SGD with cyclic learning rate, with the choice  $\phi_t = \eta_t$  for  $t \in [T]$ . The following result, proved in appendix Section A.2, makes this connection precise by establishing a novel asymptotic convergence result.

**Theorem 2.4.** *Suppose that Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 hold for some  $p > 2$ . Let  $\rho_p(\gamma)^p := (1 + \gamma L_p)^p - p\gamma L_p - p\mu\gamma$ ,  $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\mu$  and  $L_p$  are as in Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 respectively. Consider a periodic step-size schedule with fixed period  $T$ . Then there exist  $T$  stationary processes  $\pi_1, \dots, \pi_T$  such that for all  $\eta := (\eta_1, \dots, \eta_T) \in \mathbb{R}^T$  satisfying*

$$\rho_p(\eta_1) \dots \rho_p(\eta_T) < 1, \quad (2.5)$$

it holds that

$$\theta_{nT+i} \xrightarrow{w} \pi_i \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ for all } i \in [T]. \quad (2.6)$$

Moreover, if  $\eta$  further satisfies

$$\min_s \mathcal{J}_p(s) < 1, \text{ with } \mathcal{J}_p(s) = \sum_{k=1}^T \prod_{j=1}^k \rho_p(\eta_{s+j})^p, \quad (2.7)$$

where  $\eta_j = \eta_{j \bmod T}$  for  $j > T$ , then there exists a cyclostationary process  $\pi$ , such that

$$\theta_n \xrightarrow{w} \pi \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (2.8)$$

**Remark 2.4.** Note that (2.5) ensures that  $\rho_p(\eta_{s^*}) < 1$ , where  $s^* = \arg \min_s \mathcal{J}_p(s)$ . In contrast to the SGD with constant learning rate, none of the conditions (2.5) and (2.7) presupposes that  $\eta_i$ 's are required to satisfy  $\rho_p(\eta_i) < 1$  for each  $i \in [T]$ . In particular, at least some of the  $\eta_i$ 's may be taken to be large, which helps in faster convergence, which is also seen empirically in Figure 4. This result underpins the flexibility and the resulting popularity of the periodic step-size schedule over its constant counter-part, guaranteeing convergence under very mild conditions (2.5) and (2.7) respectively.

### 3 Simulation

To validate our theoretical analysis, we conduct an empirical study of SGD with various learning rate schedules. The goal is to assess how different step-size strategies affect convergence behavior and mean squared error, and how these compare with the theoretical predictions in Theorems 2.1, 2.2 and 2.4. For simplicity, all experiments use a simple linear regression model with known ground truth and are repeated across multiple Monte Carlo runs to estimate average performance and variability. In particular, Section 3.1 provides the model specifications. Section 3.2, we study the linearly



decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z) schedule  $\eta_t = \eta_0(1 - t/n)$ , confirming its "best-of-both-worlds" performance—fast early convergence and diminishing final error—as predicted by Theorem 2.2. Finally, Section 3.3 examines cosine learning rate schedules of the form  $\eta_t = \eta_0(1 + \cos(\pi t/T))$ , where we observe periodic error fluctuations that empirically confirm the cyclostationary behavior predicted by Theorem 2.4. Additional empirical studies can be found in Appendix C, where we also include a particularly illuminating comparative study between the different schedules in Section C.4. All the code files are available in [github](#).

### 3.1 Model specification

All the experiments are based on the following simple linear regression model:

$$y_i = \theta^{(0)} + \theta^{(1)}x_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \text{ i.i.d.}, \quad \theta^* = (\theta^{(0)}, \theta^{(1)})^\top \in \mathbb{R}^2. \quad (3.1)$$

where  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  denotes the observed data and  $\theta^* \in \mathbb{R}^2$  is the unknown parameter. The true parameter vector is fixed at  $\theta^* = (2, -3)^\top$  throughout all experiments. For all the subsequent simulation studies, we initialize the SGD chain at  $(0, 0)^\top$ , which provides sufficient distance for meaningful comparisons across different learning rate schedules, while not being so far away from the ground truth so that it fails to converge and denies us the full picture. Subsequently, we focus on an empirical evaluation of both the convergence trajectory and the distribution of the final error across different learning rate strategies.

### 3.2 Linear-D2Z rate

We consider Linear-D2Z schedules of the form  $\eta_t = \eta_0(1 - t/n)$ , which, despite their widespread use, have received comparatively little theoretical attention. Similar to Section 3.3, we let  $\eta_0 \in \{0.01, 0.05, 0.1\}$ , and for each experiment, the mean errors are estimated via  $n_{iter} = 500$  many independent repetitions. Firstly, to analyze the non-asymptotic MSE of the end-term SGD iterates,  $\theta_n$ , we run SGD on the same regression task with  $n \in \{100, 200, \dots, 10^4\}$ , using 500 independent repetitions for each  $n$ . Figure ?? displays the terminal squared error, which decays polynomially with  $n$ , in line with Theorems 2.1 and 2.2.

The appeal of the Linear-D2Z schedule lies in its hybrid structure: as explained in Remark 2.3, early iterations benefit from relatively large step sizes, enabling rapid descent—potentially faster than a constant-rate scheme. Later, the schedule tapers off, reducing variance and yielding low final error. We numerically investigate this as follows. For a fixed  $n = 10^4$ , Figure 2 shows the first 100 iterations for  $\eta_0 \in \{0.05, 0.1, 0.5\}$ . Across all settings, the error drops sharply, even under the high-variance  $\eta_0 = 0.5$  case, demonstrating the robustness of the approach. Later in training, as shown in Figure 3) the error decay appears nearly linear before plateauing, with the stabilization occurring earlier for larger  $\eta_0$ .

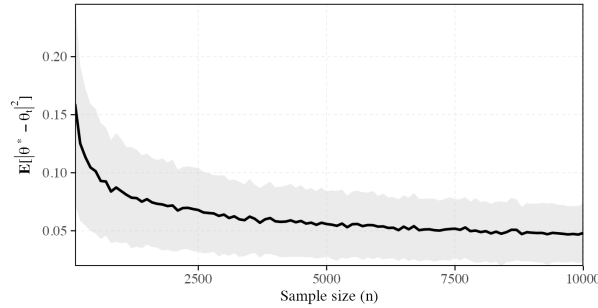


Figure 1: Plot of the terminal MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $n = 100$  to  $n = 10^4$ .

### 3.3 Cosine learning rate

As an example of the cyclical learning rate, we employ the widely-used cosine scheduling. Specifically, we employ the schedule:

$$\eta_t = \eta_0 \left( 1 + \cos \left( \frac{2\pi t}{T} \right) \right), \quad (3.2)$$

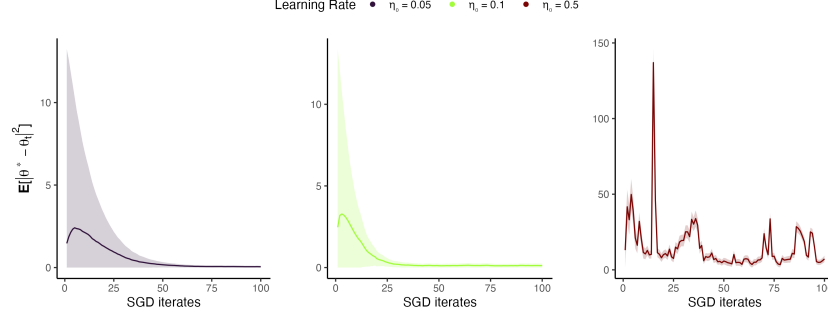


Figure 2: Plot of the MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $n = 10^4$  iterations under a Linear-D2Z schedule, observing from step 1 to 100.

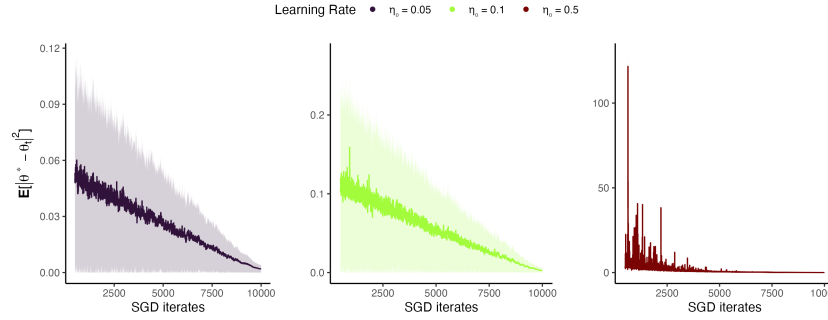


Figure 3: Plot of the MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $n = 10^4$  iterations under a Linear-D2Z schedule, observing from step 500 onward.

where  $\eta_0$  is the base learning rate and  $T$  denotes the period.

To assess the behavior induced by such schedules, we perform online SGD for  $n = 10^4$  iterations with  $\eta_0 \in \{0.01, 0.05, 0.1\}$  and  $T = 3$ , averaging results over  $n_{iter} = 500$  independent trials. Figure 4 presents the resulting mean squared error (MSE) trajectories. Across all settings, the MSE exhibits an exponentially fast decay from the initial points before exhibiting persistent fluctuations about a steady-state level. The periodicity, as predicted by Theorem 2.4 is not apparent from this plot. To further probe this structure, we examine the *standard deviation* of the MSE across runs over the final 100 iterations in Figure 5. Despite autocorrelation between estimates (due to small step sizes), periodicity remains visible in the standard deviation curves. Even for  $\eta_0 = 0.01$ , where the process converges slowly, the periodicity of order 3 is easily discernible on the plot. This empirically confirms Theorem 2.4: despite the huge auto-correlation between successive iterations, with cyclical learning rates SGD iterates  $\theta_t$  do not settle but oscillate periodically, reflecting the learning rate’s structure. The oscillation’s amplitude and frequency depend on  $\eta_0$ , with larger values causing stronger fluctuations and faster initial progress. This nuanced behavior highlights the balance between exploration and convergence enabled specifically by periodic schedules. For comparison, Figure 6 shows standard deviation curves under constant learning rates, which lack periodicity, confirming that the patterns in Figure 5 arise from the cosine schedule.

## 4 Conclusion

Sharp theoretical MSE bounds offer critical insights into the behavior of SGD for given learning rate schedules, yet most prior work has focused on polynomially decaying step sizes, often sacrificing convergence speed for statistical tractability. To the best of our knowledge, this paper is the first to systematically develop a unified framework that provides explicit MSE upper bounds for a broad class of learning rates. In particular, we establish novel convergence guarantees for cyclical and linearly decaying to zero (Linear-D2Z) learning rates—two popular but previously under-



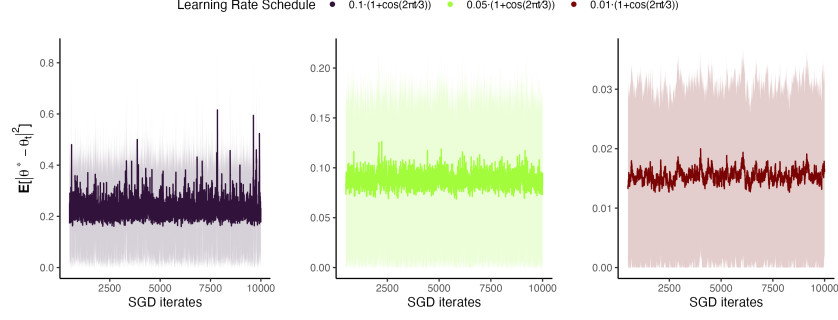


Figure 4: MSE estimates over 500 SGD runs ( $10^4$  steps) with cosine learning rates, observing from step 500 onward. Periodic error fluctuations are evident, indicating cyclostationary dynamics.

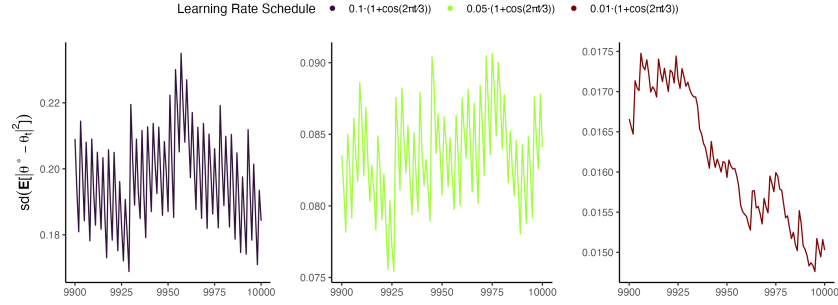


Figure 5: Standard deviation of the MSE over the final 100 iterations (across 500 runs) with cosine learning rates. Periodic fluctuation is clearly observed, even at a small  $\eta_0$ .

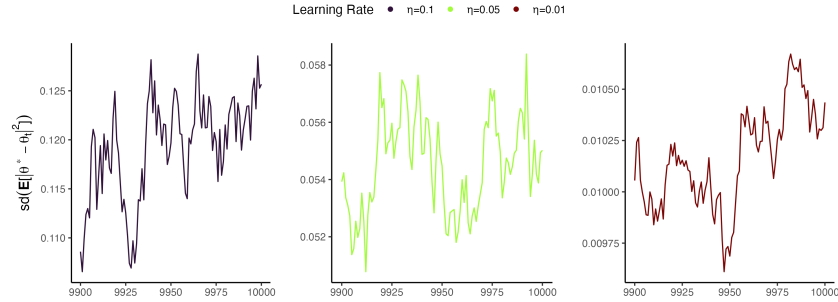


Figure 6: Standard deviation of the MSE over the final 100 iterations with constant learning rates. No periodicity is observed.

308 theorized choices—shedding light on their strong empirical performance. Our results motivate further  
 309 exploration beyond the convex setting into non-convex and non-smooth landscapes, with an emphasis  
 310 on understanding the statistical behavior of these schedules, including the potential for central limit  
 311 theorems and refined uncertainty quantification. In this context, this work provides new insights into  
 312 the practically important yet theoretically underexplored area of learning rate selection, and serves  
 313 as a foundation for bridging practical success and theoretical understanding of SGD across diverse  
 314 learning schedules regimes.

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Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

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## 825 A Postponed Proofs

### 826 A.1 Proof of Theorem 2.1

827 *Proof of Theorem 2.1.* By recursively applying Lemma B.2, we have

$$\|\theta_n - \theta^*\|_p^2 \leq \prod_{k=1}^n (1 - c_0 \eta_k) |\theta_0 - \theta^*|^2 + 3(p-1)M_p^2 \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \prod_{k=j+1}^n (1 - c_0 \eta_k).$$

828 The proof is completed by noting that

$$\prod_{k=1}^n (1 - c_0 \eta_k) \leq \exp \left\{ -c_0 \sum_{k=1}^n \eta_k \right\}.$$

829 □

### 830 A.2 Proof of Theorem 2.4

831 *Proof of Theorem 2.4.* Suppose  $F_{X,\gamma}(\theta) = \theta - \gamma \nabla f(\theta, \xi)$  encodes the iterative random function  
832 governing the SGD trajectory (1.1). Fix  $i \in [T]$ . For (2.6), observe that

$$\theta_{nT+i} = F_{(\xi_{(n-1)T+i+1}, \dots, \xi_{nT+i})}^i(\theta_{(n-1)T+i}, \boldsymbol{\eta}),$$

833 where, for  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_T)$ , we define  $F_{\mathbf{X}}^i(\theta, \boldsymbol{\eta}) := F_{X_1, \eta_{i+1}} \circ \dots \circ F_{X_T, \eta_{i+T}}(\theta)$ , with  $\eta_{i+s} =$   
834  $\eta_{i+s \bmod T}$  with slight abuse of notation. Applying Theorem 2.2 of Li et al. [2024a] successively on  
835 the function compositions of  $F^i$ , it holds that

$$\|F_{\mathbf{X}}^i(\theta, \boldsymbol{\eta}) - F_{\mathbf{X}}^i(\theta', \boldsymbol{\eta})\| \leq \rho_p(\eta_1) \dots \rho_p(\eta_T),$$

836 from which, (2.6) follows in light of (2.5) and Theorem 2.2 of Li et al. [2024a]. To ensure (2.8), note  
837 that if  $\pi$  is a cyclostationary process with period  $T$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then  $X \sim \pi$  iff  $(X_1, \dots, X_T) \sim \tilde{\pi}$   
838 for some stationary process  $\pi$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{d \times T}$ . Therefore, it is enough to show

$$(\theta_{nT+s} : \dots : \theta_{(n+1)T+s}) \rightarrow \tilde{\pi} \tag{A.1}$$

839 for some stationary process  $\tilde{\pi}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^{d \times T}$ , and some  $s \in [T]$ . Choose  $s = s^*$  such that

$$s^* = \arg \min_{s \in [T]} \sum_{k=1}^T \prod_{j=1}^k \rho_p(\eta_{s+j})^p$$

840 Define

$$\tilde{F}_{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta}) = (F_{X_1, \eta_{s+1}}(\theta_t), F_{X_2, \eta_{s+2}} \circ F_{X_1, \eta_{s+1}}(\theta_t), \dots, F_{X_T, \eta_{s+T}} \circ \dots \circ F_{X_1, \eta_{s+1}}(\theta_t)),$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\Theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_T) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times T}.$$

841 Clearly, one derives

$$\begin{aligned} \|\tilde{F}_{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, \boldsymbol{\eta}) - \tilde{F}_{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}', \boldsymbol{\eta})\|_p^p &= \sum_{k=1}^T \|F_{X_k, \eta_{s+k}} \circ \dots \circ F_{X_1, \eta_{s+1}}(\theta_t) - F_{X_k, \eta_k} \circ \dots \circ F_{X_1, \eta_1}(\theta'_t)\|_p^p \\ &\leq \|\theta_t - \theta'_t\|_p^p \sum_{k=1}^T \prod_{j=1}^k \rho_p(\eta_{s+j})^p. \end{aligned} \tag{A.2}$$

842 Writing (1.1) as

$$(\theta_{nT+s+1}, \dots, \theta_{(n+1)T+s}) = \tilde{F}_{\xi_{nT+s+1}, \dots, \xi_{(n+1)T+s}}((\theta_{(n-1)T+s+1}, \dots, \theta_{nT+s}), \boldsymbol{\eta}), \quad n \geq 1$$

843 yet another application of Theorem 2.2 of Li et al. [2024a] yields (A.1) in light of (A.2) and (2.7). □

### 844 A.3 Proof of Corollary 2.2

*Proof of Corollary 2.2.* The first term in (2.2) becomes  $e^{-c_0\eta(n-1)/2}$ . For the second term, set  $m = n - j$ . Then  $m = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$ , and

$$\eta_j = \eta \frac{n-j}{n} = \eta \frac{m}{n}, \quad \sum_{k=j+1}^n \eta_k = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \eta \frac{k}{n} = \frac{\eta}{n} \frac{(m-1)m}{2} = \frac{\eta}{2n} (m^2 - m).$$

Let  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp \left\{ -c_0 \sum_{k=j+1}^n \eta_k \right\}$ , then since  $m \leq n$ ,

$$S_n = \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \left( \eta \frac{m}{n} \right)^2 \exp \left\{ -c_0 \frac{\eta}{2n} (m^2 - m) \right\} \leq \eta^2 \exp \left( \frac{c_0 \eta}{2} \right) \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \frac{m^2}{n^2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{c_0 \eta m^2}{2n} \right\}.$$

845 The sum can be further bounded by the integration. Since the function  $x^2 \exp\{c_0 \eta x^2 / 2\}$  is eventually  
846 decreasing with  $x$ , we have

$$\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \frac{m^2}{n^2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{c_0 \eta m^2}{2n} \right\} \leq \frac{C'}{\sqrt{n}} \int_0^\infty x^2 \exp \left\{ -\frac{c_0 \eta x^2}{2} \right\} dx = O(1/\sqrt{n})$$

847 where  $C'$  is a universal constant, and the inequality is obtained by substituting  $x = \frac{m^2}{n}$ . This  
848 completes the proof.  $\square$

## 849 B Auxiliary Section

850 In this section we collect two crucial auxiliary results that contribute towards the proof of Theorem  
851 2.1.

852 **Lemma B.1** (Rio's inequality [Rio, 2009]). *Let  $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be two random vectors such*  
853 *that  $\mathbb{E}|X|^p < \infty$  and  $\mathbb{E}|Y|^p < \infty$  for some  $p \geq 2$ . Then we have*

$$\|X + Y\|_p^2 \leq \|X\|_p^2 + (p-1)\|Y\|_p^2.$$

854 **Lemma B.2.** *Consider the SGD iterates  $\{\theta_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  in (1.1). Suppose that Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 for*  
855  *$p \geq 2$ . Then, for some constant  $c_0 > 0$  such that for all  $t \geq 1$ ,*

$$c_0 \leq \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\eta_t}, 2\mu - (6p-5)L_p^2 \eta_t \right\},$$

856 *we have, for all  $t \geq 1$ ,*

$$\|\theta_t - \theta^*\|_p^2 \leq (1 - c_0 \eta_t) \|\theta_{t-1} - \theta^*\|_p^2 + 3(p-1)\eta_t^2 M_p^2.$$

### 857 B.1 Proof of Lemma B.2

858 *Proof of Lemma B.2.* Since  $\xi_t$ , for  $t \geq 1$ , are i.i.d. random samples, it follows from the tower rule  
859 that

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla f(\theta_{n-1}, \xi_n) - \nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) \mid \theta_{n-1}] = 0.$$

860 Therefore, by applying Rio's inequality in Lemma B.1, for  $p \geq 2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\theta_n - \theta^*\|_p^2 &\leq \|\theta_{n-1} - \theta^* - \eta_n \nabla F(\theta_{n-1})\|_p^2 + (p-1)\eta_n^2 \|\nabla f(\theta_{n-1}, \xi_n) - \nabla F(\theta_{n-1})\|_p^2 \\ &=: \mathbb{I}_1 + \mathbb{I}_2. \end{aligned}$$

861 We shall bound the two parts  $\mathbb{I}_1$  and  $\mathbb{I}_2$  separately. For the first part  $\mathbb{I}_1$ , note that  $\nabla F(\theta^*) = 0$  and by  
862 the triangle inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{I}_1 &= \|\theta_{n-1} - \theta^* - \eta_n \nabla F(\theta_{n-1})\|_p^2 \\ &= \left\| \langle \theta_{n-1} - \theta^*, \theta_{n-1} - \theta^* \rangle - 2\eta_n \langle \theta_{n-1} - \theta^*, \nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*) \rangle \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \eta_n^2 \langle \nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*), \nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*) \rangle \right\|_{p/2} \\ &\leq \left\| \langle \theta_{n-1} - \theta^*, \theta_{n-1} - \theta^* \rangle - 2\eta_n \langle \theta_{n-1} - \theta^*, \nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*) \rangle \right\|_{p/2} \\ &\quad + \eta_n^2 \|\nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*)\|_p^2. \end{aligned}$$

By applying Assumption 2.1 to the first term and Assumption 2.3 to the second term, we can obtain

$$\mathbb{I}_1 \leq (1 - 2\eta_n\mu + \eta_n^2 L_p^2) \|\theta_{n-1} - \theta^*\|_p^2.$$

Regarding the second part  $\mathbb{I}_2$ , since  $\nabla F(\theta^*) = 0$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\nabla f(\theta_{n-1}, \xi_n) - \nabla F(\theta_{n-1})\|_p \\ & \leq \|\nabla f(\theta_{n-1}, \xi_n) - \nabla f(\theta^*, \xi_n)\|_p + \|\nabla F(\theta_{n-1}) - \nabla F(\theta^*)\|_p + \|\nabla f(\theta^*, \xi_n)\|_p. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, by Assumption 2.3, we can achieve

$$\|\nabla f(\theta_{n-1}, \xi_n) - \nabla F(\theta_{n-1})\|_p^2 \leq 6L_p^2 \|\theta_{n-1} - \theta^*\|_p^2 + 3\|\nabla f(\theta^*, \xi_n)\|_p^2.$$

Combining results from  $\mathbb{I}_1$  and  $\mathbb{I}_2$ , we can obtain

$$\|\theta_n - \theta^*\|_p^2 \leq (1 - 2\eta_n\mu + (6p - 5)\eta_n^2 L_p^2) \|\theta_{n-1} - \theta^*\|_p^2 + 3(p - 1)\eta_n^2 \|\nabla f(\theta^*, \xi_n)\|_p^2.$$

This can directly lead to the desired inequality.  $\square$

## C Additional simulations

In this section, we collect some additional simulation studies, complimenting the numerical exercises of Section 3. In particular, in Appendix C.1, we begin with constant learning rates ( $\eta_t \equiv \eta$ ), which serve as a baseline and exhibit the expected bias-variance tradeoff, with final error scaling linearly in  $\eta$ . Appendix C.2 turns to polynomially decaying learning rates,  $\eta_t = \eta_0 t^{-\beta}$ , and demonstrates how different values of  $\beta \in (1/2, 1)$  influence the tradeoff between fast initial descent and long-run variance control, consistent with the structure of Theorem 2.1. Moreover, Appendix C.3 examines alternating schedules that interleave two polynomial decay rates or combine a constant rate with a decaying one, highlighting how the more aggressive schedule tends to dominate long-run behavior. Finally, Appendix C.4 includes a detailed comparison study of the different step-sizes considered in this paper, with particular focus into the initial phase, as well as asymptotic behavior upon convergence.

### C.1 Constant learning rate

To ground our analysis, we start with the familiar case of constant learning rates—long favored for their simplicity, but known to encode a fundamental tradeoff. We test three fixed values,  $\eta = 0.1, 0.05$ , and  $0.01$ , and track their performance over  $10^4$  SGD iterations. The patterns are predictable but instructive: larger step sizes yield faster initial progress, yet settle into higher-variance regimes; smaller ones move more cautiously, but converge closer to the optimum with lower final error.

Because the early dynamics often involve rapid error reduction—sometimes several orders of magnitude—we focus the MSE plot on later stages: starting from  $t = 100$  for  $\eta = 0.1$  and  $0.05$ , and from  $t = 500$  for  $\eta = 0.01$ . This lets us zoom in on the asymptotic behavior, where the long-term effects of each learning rate become more clearly visible.

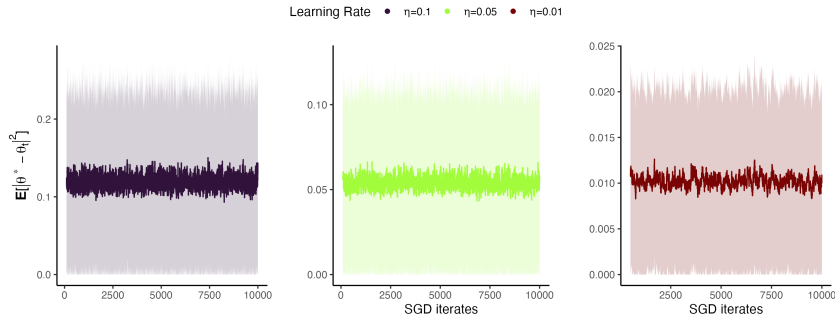


Figure 7: MSE estimates over 500 SGD runs ( $10^4$  steps) with constant learning rates.

The empirical trajectories in Figure 7 reflect this tradeoff. Larger learning rates lead to faster early reduction in error but exhibit higher variance and stabilize farther from the optimum. In contrast, smaller learning rates result in slower progress but achieve significantly lower terminal error.

893 To complement this, Figure 8 plots the final mean squared error against a dense grid of fixed learning  
 894 rates ranging from  $\eta = 0.01$  to  $\eta = 0.1$ . The trend is unmistakable: terminal MSE scales linearly  
 895 with  $\eta$ , matching the  $O(\eta)$  variance bound predicted by theory. This reinforces the fundamental  
 896 tension in fixed-rate SGD: speed comes at the cost of noise, and there’s no single value of  $\eta$  that  
 897 avoids the tradeoff entirely.

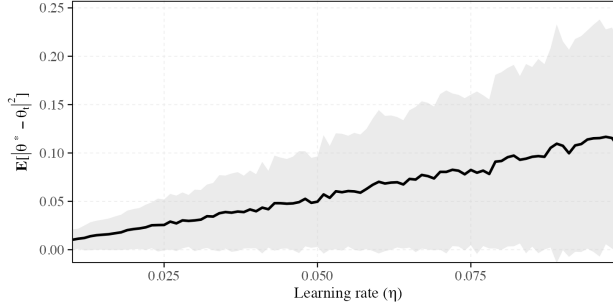


Figure 8: Plot of the terminal MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $10^4$  steps, for constant values for  $\eta$  between 0.01 and 0.1.

## 898 C.2 Polynomially decaying learning rate

899 We now turn to the classical regime of polynomially decaying learning rates. These schedules take the  
 900 form  $\eta_t = \eta_0 t^{-\beta}$ , where  $\eta_0 > 0$  and  $\beta \in (0, 1]$  controls the rate of decay. The general non-asymptotic  
 901 error bound given in Theorem 2.1 applies to this setting directly, and allows us to capture the tradeoffs  
 902 these schedules induce. In particular, when  $\beta > \frac{1}{2}$ , the sum  $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \eta_t^2$  converges, ensuring that  
 903 variance contributions decay to zero; whereas the condition  $\beta < 1$  guarantees  $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \eta_t = \infty$ , which  
 904 is necessary for the bias to vanish. These facts jointly imply that SGD with  $\beta \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  is consistent  
 905 and convergent, with error rates depending sensitively on the balance between the two terms in the  
 906 bound.

907 To explore these effects empirically, we simulate SGD with learning rates of the form  $\eta_t = \eta_0 t^{-\beta}$   
 908 using two values of  $\beta$ : 0.505 and 0.75, each tested with base rates  $\eta_0 = 0.1, 0.05, 0.01$ . Figure 9  
 909 shows the mean squared error over time for these settings, averaged over 500 independent runs. The  
 910 results highlight the central tradeoff: smaller values of  $\beta$  yield faster initial descent but larger long-run  
 911 fluctuations, while larger  $\beta$  dampen early progress but reduce terminal error. This qualitative pattern  
 912 matches the structure of Theorem 2.1, in which the exponential forgetting term dominates early on,  
 913 and the variance accumulation term becomes decisive in the long run.

914 Because the early dynamics often involve rapid error reduction—sometimes several orders of mag-  
 915 nitude—we focus the MSE plot on later stages: starting from  $t = 1000$  for  $\eta = 0.1, \beta = 0.505$ ,  
 916  $t = 4000$  for  $\eta = 0.05, \beta = 0.505$  and  $t = 5000$  for  $\beta = 0.75$ . This lets us zoom in on the  
 917 asymptotic behavior, where the long-term effects of each learning rate become more clearly visible.

918 An interesting feature of these experiments is the relative importance of  $\beta$  compared to  $\eta_0$ . While  
 919 smaller base rates do modestly influence early error and variance, the dominant effect stems from  
 920 the decay exponent. The case  $\beta = 0.505$ , being just above the variance threshold, achieves a strong  
 921 balance between speed and consistency—converging faster than  $\beta = 0.75$  while eventually achieving  
 922 comparably low error. This behavior reflects the non-asymptotic structure predicted by Theorem 2.1,  
 923 which separates the error into two components: a bias decay term, of the form  $\exp(-c \sum_{t=1}^n \eta_t)$ ,  
 924 and a cumulative variance term, of the form  $\sum_{j=1}^n \eta_j^2 \exp(-c \sum_{t=j+1}^n \eta_t)$ . For polynomial learning  
 925 rates, the bias term vanishes polynomially in  $n$ , and the variance term converges to zero if  $\beta > \frac{1}{2}$ , but  
 926 only slowly. These dynamics explain the empirical behavior observed:  $\beta = 0.505$  gives faster early  
 927 convergence due to slower bias decay, while  $\beta = 0.75$  leads to more effective long-run averaging,  
 928 with reduced variance. The simulations thus concretely illustrate the tension between forgetting and  
 929 fluctuation that the theory encodes, and validate the asymptotics of polynomial decay schedules as  
 930 captured by Theorem 2.1.

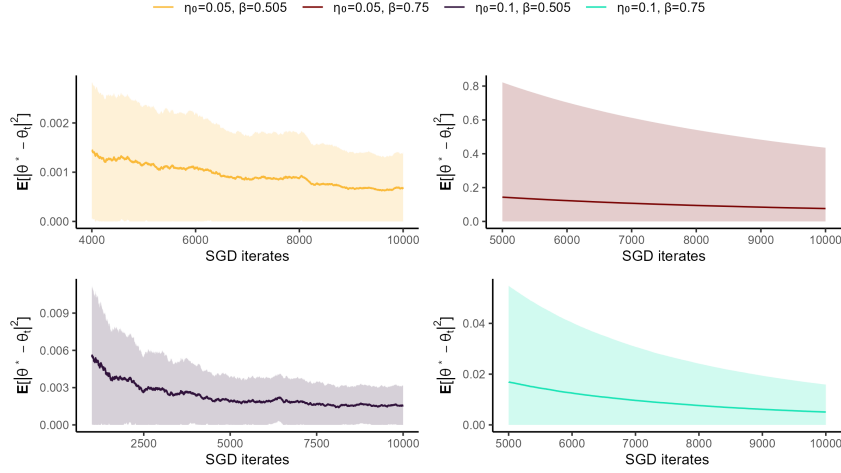


Figure 9: MSE estimates over 500 SGD runs ( $10^4$  steps) with polynomially decaying learning rates.

### 931 C.3 Alternating polynomially decaying learning rate

932 Building on our observations from the previous experiments, we explore combining the strengths of  
 933 both polynomially decaying and cyclical approaches. In particular, the cyclical schedules demonstrate  
 934 superior initial convergence through their ability to take larger steps early in optimization, while  
 935 polynomial decay provides better asymptotic properties and lower final error. To this end, we tried  
 936 two forms of dual schedules:

- 937 1. Set a base rate  $\eta_0$  and alternate between two polynomial decay rates or a polynomial decay  
 938 rate and a constant rate. Using two values for  $\eta_0$  (0.1, 0.05), a constant rate and two  
 939 exponents for polynomial decay rates  $\beta = 0.505, 0.75$  gives us six total combinations. In all  
 940 of these cases, we present the plots for the mixture of a decay schedule and a constant rate  
 941 from  $t = 500$  and for the mixture of two polynomial decay schedules from  $t = 1000$ , again  
 942 to observe the general trend rather than the initial decay by several orders of magnitude in a  
 943 short amount of time.
- 944 2. Set a fixed polynomial decay rate and alternate between two base rates, a "large" one and a  
 945 "small" one. Plotted from  $t = 2000$  for the same consideration as above.

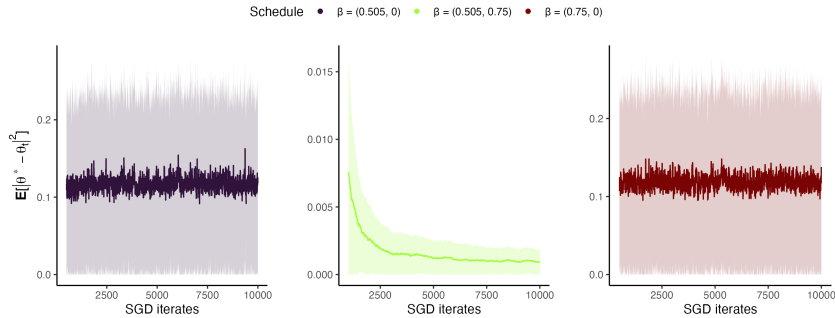


Figure 10: Plot of the MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $10^4$  steps.

946 For both  $\eta_0 = 0.1$  and  $\eta_0 = 0.05$ , if the constant learning rate schedule is one of the two included,  
 947 the process seems to behave in the same way over the long run. However, when we alternate between  
 948  $\beta = 0.505$  and  $\beta = 0.75$ , we get an outcome more similar to just selecting  $\beta = 0.505$ . In all of  
 949 these cases, the larger learning rate plays the dominant role in determining the convergence rate and  
 950 terminal error of the process.

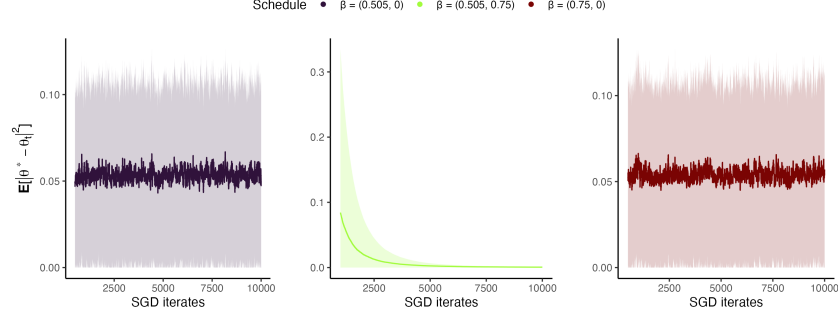


Figure 11: Plot of the MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $10^4$  steps.

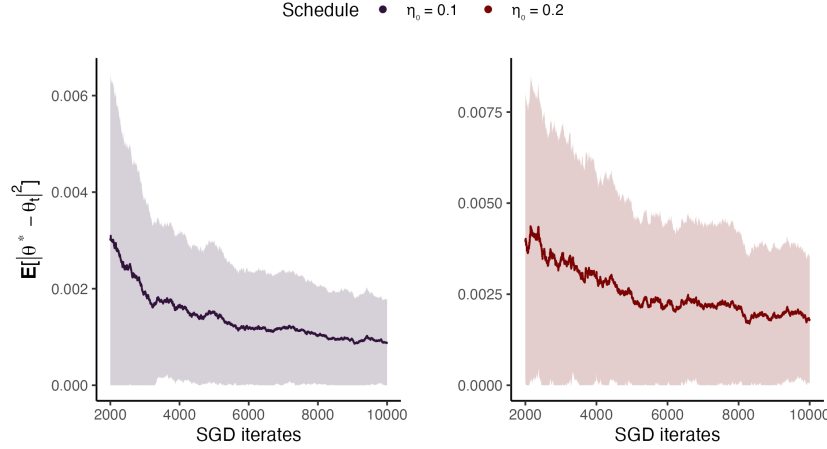


Figure 12: Plot of the MSE estimate averaged over 500 SGD runs for  $10^4$  steps.

951 The two plots look almost identical and even have error rates that seem to scale sublinearly with  $\eta_0$ .  
 952 Compared with the earlier plots in this section and our observations in section 3.3, we have empirical  
 953 evidence that in polynomial decay and mixed polynomial decay regimes, the choice of the rate of  
 954 decay  $\beta$  is far more important than the choice of the base rate  $\eta_0$ .

#### 955 C.4 Comparison of different learning rates

956 In this section, we numerically investigate the comparative performance of the different learning rate  
 957 schedules analyzed in this paper. Specifically, we plot the estimates of  $\mathbb{E}[|\theta^* - \theta_n|^2]$  against  $n$  for  
 958  $n = 10^4$ , and five different learning rate schedules corresponding to Sections 2.3-3.3, along with the  
 959 additional studies in the appendix C. For careful comparison of both the effect of initialization as  
 960 well as behavior at convergence, we investigate the MSE of  $\theta_n$  for the initial 100 iterates, in Figure  
 961 13, as well as the final 100 iterates, in Figure 14.

962 In the early stages of the process, the models that have a non-decaying rate (constant learning rate and  
 963 cosine schedule), as well as the Linear-D2Z model, which as discussed in Sections 2.3-3.3, exhibits  
 964 superlinear convergence speed away from initialization, while the polynomial decay and mixed  
 965 polynomial decay model both move more slowly. This is almost reversed in the later stages of the  
 966 process - while all five models have converged to a small error, Linear-D2Z and the two polynomial  
 967 decay-based models end up with a far smaller error estimate compared to the constant learning  
 968 rate and the cosine schedule, which demonstrate a consistent bias. This demonstrates well-known  
 969 theoretical results - larger learning rates converge faster but at the cost of a larger terminal bias.  
 970 Linear-D2Z manages to reach an acceptably small error rather quickly and also enjoys a small  
 971 terminal error due to being defined in a way that starts off with large step sizes that then taper off  
 972 quickly, reinforcing its view as a “best-of-both-worlds” learning schedule.



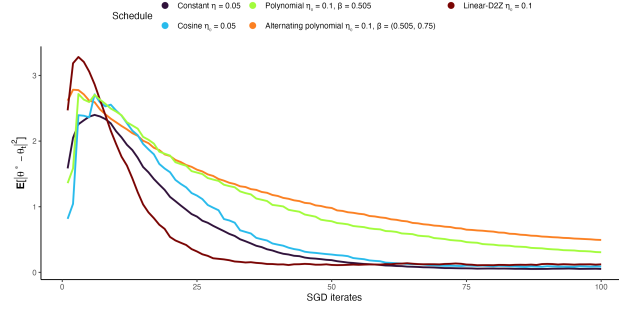


Figure 13: Plot of the evolution of the MSE estimate for the first 100 SGD iterations for five learning rate schedules.

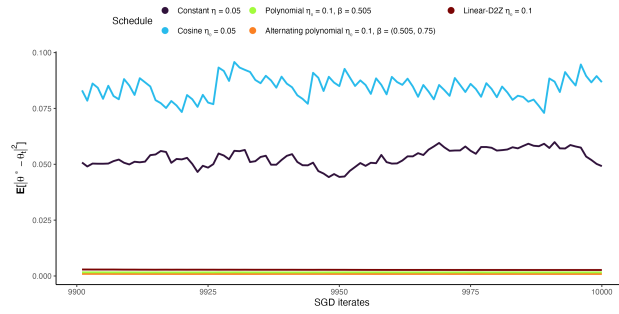


Figure 14: Plot of the evolution of the MSE estimate for the last 100 SGD iterations for five learning rate schedules.