ON THE IMPOSSIBILITY OF GLOBAL CONVERGENCE IN MULTI-LOSS OPTIMIZATION

ABSTRACT

Under mild regularity conditions, gradient-based methods converge globally to a critical point in the single-loss setting. This is known to break down for vanilla gradient descent when moving to *multi-loss* optimization, but can we hope to build some algorithm with global guarantees? We negatively resolve this open problem by proving that desirable convergence properties cannot simultaneously hold for *any* algorithm. Our result has more to do with the existence of games with no desirable outcomes, than with algorithms per se. More explicitly, we construct a two-player game with zero-sum interactions whose losses are both coercive and analytic, but whose only simultaneous critical point is a strict maximum. Any 'reasonable' algorithm, defined to avoid strict maxima, must fail to converge. This is fundamentally different from single losses, where coercivity implies existence of a global minimum. Moreover, we prove that a wide range of existing gradient-based methods almost surely have bounded but non-convergent iterates in a constructed *zero-sum* game for suitably small learning rates. It nonetheless remains an open question whether cycles can arise in high-dimensional games of interest to ML practitioners, such as GANs or multi-agent RL.

1 INTRODUCTION

Problem Setting As multi-agent architectures proliferate in machine learning, it is becoming increasingly important to understand the dynamics of gradient-based methods when optimizing multiple interacting goals, otherwise known as *differentiable games*. This framework encompasses GANs (Goodfellow et al., 2014), intrinsic curiosity (Pathak et al., 2017), imaginative agents (Racanière et al., 2017), synthetic gradients (Jaderberg et al., 2017), hierarchical reinforcement learning (Wayne & Abbott, 2014; Vezhnevets et al., 2017) and multi-agent RL in general (Busoniu et al., 2008). The interactions between learning agents make for vastly more complex mechanics: naively applying gradient descent on each loss simultaneously is known to diverge even in simple bilinear games.

Related Work A large number of methods have recently been proposed to alleviate the failings of simultaneous gradient descent: adaptations of single-loss algorithms such as Extragradient (EG) (Azizian et al., 2019) and Optimistic Mirror Descent (OMD) (Daskalakis et al., 2018), Alternating Gradient Descent (AGD) for finite regret Bailey et al. (2019), Consensus Optimization (CO) for GAN training (Mescheder et al., 2017), Competitive Gradient Descent (CGD) based on solving a bilinear approximation of the loss functions (Schaefer & Anandkumar, 2019), Symplectic Gradient Adjustment (SGA) based on a novel decomposition of game mechanics (Balduzzi et al., 2018; Letcher et al., 2019a), and opponent-shaping algorithms including Learning with Opponent-Learning Awareness (LOLA) (Foerster et al., 2018) and its convergent counterpart, Stable Opponent Shaping (SOS) (Letcher et al., 2019b). Let $\mathcal{A}$ be this set of algorithms.

Each has shown promising theoretical implications and empirical results, but none offers insight into global convergence in the *non-convex* setting, which includes the vast majority of machine learning applications. One of the main roadblocks compared with single-loss optimization has been noted by Schaefer & Anandkumar (2019): "a convergence proof in the nonconvex case analogue to Lee et al. (2016) is still out of reach in the competitive setting. A major obstacle to this end is the identification of a suitable measure of progress (which is given by the function value in the single agent setting), since norms of gradients can not be expected to decay monotonously for competitive dynamics in non-convex-concave games."

Global convergence has been established for some algorithms in a few special cases: potential and Hamiltonian games (Balduzzi et al., 2018), zero-sum games satisfying the two-sided Polyak-Łojasiewicz condition (Yang et al., 2020), zero-sum linear quadratic games (Zhang et al., 2019) and zero-sum games whose loss and first three derivatives are bounded (Mangoubi & Vishnoi, 2020). These are significant contributions with several applications of interest, but do not include any of the architectures mentioned above. Finally, Balduzzi et al. (2020) show that GD dynamics are bounded under a 'negative sentiment' assumption in smooth markets, which do include GANs – but this does not imply convergence, as we will show.

On the other hand, *failure* of global convergence has been shown for the Multiplicative Weights Update method by Palaiopanos et al. (2017), for policy-gradient algorithms by Mazumdar et al. (2020), and for simultaneous and alternating gradient descent (simGD and AGD) by Vlatakis-Gkaragkounis et al. (2019); Bailey et al. (2019), with interesting connections to Poincaré recurrence. Nonetheless, nothing is claimed about other optimization methods. In a different direction, Farnia & Ozdaglar (2020) show that GANs may have no Nash equilibria. However it does *not* follow that algorithms may fail to converge since there may be locally-attracting but non-Nash critical points, as pointed out for instance by Mazumdar et al. (2019, Example 2).

Finally, Hsieh et al. (2020) uploaded a preprint just after the completion of this work whose focus is similar to ours. They prove that a wide range of min-max optimization algorithms may converge with arbitrarily high probability to spurious attractors that contain no critical point. This applies to generalized Robbins-Monro schemes including simGD, AGD, stochastic EG, optimistic gradient and Kiefer-Wolfowitz. However, Hsieh et al. (2020) focus on the possible occurrence of undesirable convergence phenomena for *stochastic* algorithms. We instead prove that desirable convergence properties cannot simultaneously hold for all (including *deterministic*) algorithms. Moreover, their results apply only to decreasing step-sizes whereas ours include constant step-sizes. These distinctions are further highlighted by Hsieh et al. (2020) in the further related work section. Taken together, our works give a fuller picture of the failure of global convergence in multi-loss optimization.

Contribution   We prove that global convergence is fundamentally incompatible with a naive 'reasonable' requirement, namely that algorithms avoid strict maxima and converge only to critical points. More specifically we construct a two-player game with zero-sum interactions whose losses are coercive and analytic losses, but whose only critical point is a strict maximum. Any reasonable algorithm therefore cycles or diverges to infinite losses. Restricting the game class even further, we then construct a zero-sum game in which all algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ cycle.

One might hope that global convergence could at least be guaranteed in games with strict *minima* and no other critical points. On the contrary we show that strict minima can have arbitrarily small regions of attraction, in the sense that reasonable algorithms will fail to converge there with arbitrarily high probability for fixed initial parameter distribution.

It may be that cycles do not arise in high-dimensional games of interest including GANs. It is essential in future work to focus in on these specific architectures and prove or disprove global convergence there. This paper is meant only to prove that global convergence comes at the cost of reasonable requirements in a simple two-player game with zero-sum interactions.

2   BACKGROUND

2.1   SINGLE LOSSES: GLOBAL CONVERGENCE OF GRADIENT DESCENT

Given a continuously differentiable function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$, let

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \alpha \nabla f(\theta_k)$$

be the iterates of gradient descent with learning rate α, initialised at θ_0. Under standard regularity conditions, gradient descent converges globally to critical points:

Proposition 1. *Assume $f \in C^2$ has compact sublevel sets and is either analytic or has isolated critical points. For any $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, define $U_0 = \{f(\theta) \leq f(\theta_0)\}$ and let $L < \infty$ be a Lipschitz constant for ∇f in U_0. Then for any $0 < \alpha < 2/L$ we have $\lim_k \theta_k = \bar{\theta}$ for some critical point $\bar{\theta}$.*

The requirements for convergence are relatively mild:

1. f has compact sublevel sets iff f is coercive, $\lim_{\|\theta\| \to \infty} f(\theta) = \infty$, which mostly holds in machine learning since f is a loss function.

2. f has isolated critical points if it is a Morse function (nondegenerate Hessian at critical points), which holds for almost all C^2 functions. More precisely, Morse functions form an open, dense subset of all functions $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^d, \mathbb{R})$ in the Whitney C^2-topology.

3. Lipschitz continuity of ∇f is *not* assumed, which would fail even for cubic polynomials.

The goal of this paper is to prove that similar (even weaker) guarantees *cannot* be obtained in the multi-loss setting – not only for GD, but for any reasonable algorithm. This has to do with the more complex nature of gradient vector fields arising from multiple losses.

2.2 DIFFERENTIABLE GAMES

Following Balduzzi et al. (2018), we frame the problem of multi-loss optimization as a differentiable game among cooperating and competing agents/players. These may simply be different internal components of a single system, like the generator and discriminator in GANs.

Definition 1. *A* differentiable game *is a set of n agents with parameters $\theta = (\theta^1, \ldots, \theta^n) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and twice continuously differentiable losses $L^i : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$, where $\theta^i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_i}$ for each i and $\sum_i d_i = d$.*

Losses are *not* assumed to be convex/concave in any of the parameters. In practice, losses need only be differentiable almost-everywhere: think of neural nets with rectified linear units.

If $n = 1$, the 'game' is simply to minimise a given loss function. We write $\nabla_i L^k = \nabla_{\theta^i} L^k$ and $\nabla_{ij} L^k = \nabla_{\theta^j} \nabla_{\theta^i} L^k$ for any i, j, k, and define the simultaneous gradient of the game

$$\xi = \left(\nabla_1 L^1, \ldots, \nabla_n L^n \right)^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

as the concatenation of each player's gradient. If each agent independently minimises their loss using GD with learning rate α, the parameter update for all agents is given by $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha\xi(\theta)$. We call this simultaneous gradient descent (simGD), or GD for short. We call $\bar{\theta}$ a *critical point* if $\xi(\bar{\theta}) = 0$. Now introduce the 'Hessian' (or Jacobian) of the game as the block matrix

$$H = \nabla\xi = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{11} L^1 & \cdots & \nabla_{1n} L^1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \nabla_{n1} L^n & \cdots & \nabla_{nn} L^n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}.$$

Importantly, note that H is not symmetric in general unless $n = 1$, in which case we recover the usual Hessian $H = \nabla^2 L$. However H can be decomposed into symmetric and anti-symmetric components as $H = S + A$ (Balduzzi et al., 2018). A second useful decomposition has appeared recently in (Letcher et al., 2019b) and (Schaefer & Anandkumar, 2019): $H = H_d + H_o$ where H_d and H_o are the matrices of diagonal and off-diagonal blocks; formally, $H_d = \bigoplus_i \nabla_{ii} L^i$. One solution concept for differentiable games, analogous to the single-loss case, is defined as follows.

Definition 2. *A* critical point *$\bar{\theta}$ is a (strict, local)* minimum *if $H(\bar{\theta}) \succ 0$.*[1]

These were named (strict) stable fixed points by Balduzzi et al. (2018), but the term is usually reserved in dynamical systems to the larger class defined by Hessian eigenvalues with positive real parts, which is implied but not equivalent to $H \succ 0$ for non-symmetric matrices.

In particular, strict minima are (differential) Nash equilibria as defined by Mazumdar et al. (2019), since diagonal blocks must also be positive definite: $\nabla_{ii} L^i(\bar{\theta}) \succ 0$. The converse does not hold.

Algorithm class. This paper is concerned with any algorithm whose iterates θ_k are obtained by initialising θ_0 and applying a continuous function F to the previous iterates, namely $\theta_{k+1} = F(\theta_k, \ldots, \theta_0)$. This holds for all known gradient-based methods; most of them are only functions of the current iterate θ_k, so that $\theta_k = F^k(\theta_0)$. All probabilistic statements in this paper assume that θ_0 is initialised following any bounded and continuous measure ν on $\mathbb{R}^d$. Continuity is a weak

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[1] For non-symmetric matrices, positive definiteness is defined as $H \succ 0$ iff $u^T H u > 0$ for all non-zero $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$. This is equivalent to the symmetric part S of H being positive definite.

requirement and widely holds across machine learning, while boundedness mostly holds in practice since the bounded region can be made large enough to accommodate required initial points.

For single-player games, the goal of such algorithms is for θ_k to converge to a local (perhaps global) minimum as $k \to \infty$. The goal is less clear for differentiable games, but is generally to reach a minimum or a Nash equilibrium. In the case of GANs the goal might be to reach parameters that produce realistic images, which is more challenging to define formally.

Throughout the text we use the term *(limit) cycle* to mean *bounded but non-convergent iterates*. This terminology is used because bounded iterates are non-convergent if and only if they have at least two accumulation points, close to which they must 'cycle' infinitely often. This is not to be taken literally: the set of accumulation points may not even be connected. Hsieh et al. (2020) provide a more complete characterisation of these cycles.

Game class. Expecting global guarantees in *all* differentiable games is excessive, since every continuous dynamical system arises as simultaneous GD on the loss functions of a differentiable game (Balduzzi et al., 2020, Lemma 1). For this reason, the aforementioned authors have introduced a vastly more tractable class of games called *markets*.

Definition 3. *A (smooth) market is a differentiable game where interactions between players are pairwise zero-sum, namely,*

$$L^i(\theta) = L^i(\theta^i) + \sum_{j \neq i} g_{ij}(\theta^i, \theta^j)$$

with $g_{ij}(\theta^i, \theta^j) + g_{ji}(\theta^j, \theta^i) = 0$ for all i, j.

This generalises zero-sum games while remaining amenable to optimization and aggregation, meaning that "we can draw conclusions about the gradient-based dynamics of the collective by summing over properties of its members" (Balduzzi et al., 2020). Moreover, this class captures a large number of applications including GANs and related architectures, intrinsic curiosity modules, adversarial training, task-suites and population self-play. One would modestly hope for *some* reasonable algorithm to converge globally in markets. We will prove that even this is too much to ask.

2.3 REASONABLE ALGORITHMS

We wish to prove that global convergence is at odds with weak, 'reasonable' desiderata. The first requirement is that fixed points of an optimization algorithm F are critical points. Formally,

$$F(\theta) = \theta \implies \xi(\theta) = 0. \tag{R1}$$

If not, some agent i could strictly improve its losses by following the gradient $-\nabla_i L^i \neq 0$. There is no reason for a gradient-based algorithm to stop improving if its gradient is non-zero.

The second requirement is that algorithms avoid strict maxima. These are defined by a negative-definite Hessian $H \prec 0$ for single losses; converging to such a point $\bar{\theta}$ is the opposite goal of any meaningful algorithm since moving *anywhere* away from $\bar{\theta}$ decreases the loss. There are multiple ways of generalising this concept for multiple losses, but Proposition 2 below justifies that $H \prec 0$ is the weakest one. Further details and discussion in Appendix C.

Definition 4. *A critical point $\bar{\theta}$ is a (strict, local) maximum if $H(\bar{\theta}) \prec 0$.*

Proposition 2. *Write $\lambda(A) = \mathrm{Re}(\mathrm{Spec}(A))$ for real parts of the eigenvalues of a matrix A. We have the following implications, and none of them are equivalences.*

The weakest possible requirement is therefore that algorithms avoid strict maxima. Note that the bottom-left implication Proposition 2 is equivalent to $\nabla_{ii} L^i \prec 0$ for all i, so strict maxima are

also strict maxima of each player's individual loss function. Players can *all* decrease their losses by moving *anywhere* away from them. It is exceedingly reasonable to ask that optimization algorithms avoid these points almost surely. Formally, we require that for any strict maximum $\bar{\theta}$ and bounded region U there are hyperparameters such that

$$\mu\left(\{\theta_0 \in U \mid \lim_k \theta_k = \bar{\theta}\}\right) = 0\,. \tag{R2}$$

μ denotes Lebesgue measure. Hyperparameters may depend on the given game and the region U, as is typical for learning rates in gradient-based methods.

Definition 5 (Reason). *An algorithm is* reasonable *if it satisfies R1 and R2.*

Reason is not equivalent to *rationality* or *self-interest*. Reason is much weaker, imposing only that agents are well-behaved regarding strict maxima even if their individual behaviour is not self-interested. For instance, SGA agents do not behave out of self-interest (Balduzzi et al., 2018).

3 GLOBAL CONVERGENCE IN DIFFERENTIABLE GAMES

3.1 REASONABLE ALGORITHMS FAIL TO CONVERGE GLOBALLY

Our main contribution is to show that global guarantees do not exist for *any* reasonable algorithm. First recall that global convergence should not be expected in *all* games, since there may be a divergent direction with minimal loss (imagine minimising $L = x$ or $L = e^x$). It should however be asked that algorithms have bounded iterates in *coercive* games, defined by coercive losses

$$\lim_{\|\theta\| \to \infty} L^i(\theta) = \infty$$

for all i. Indeed, unbounded iterates in coercive games would lead to infinite losses for *all* agents, the worst possible outcome. Given bounded iterates, convergence should hold if the Hessian is nondegenerate at critical points (which must therefore be isolated, recall Proposition 1). We call such a game *nondegenerate*. This condition can also be replaced by analyticity of the loss. In the spirit of weakest assumptions, we ask for convergence when *both* conditions hold.

Definition 6 (Globality). *An algorithm is* global *if, in a coercive, analytic and nondegenerate game, for any fixed θ_0, iterates θ_k are bounded and converge for suitable hyperparameters.* (G1)

Note that GD is global for *single-player* games by Proposition 1. Unfortunately, reason and globality are fundamentally at odds as soon as we move even to two-player markets.

Theorem 1. *There is a coercive, nondegenerate, analytic two-player market $\mathcal{M}$ whose only critical point is a strict maximum. In particular, algorithms only have four possible outcomes in $\mathcal{M}$:*

1. *Iterates are unbounded, and all players diverge to infinite loss. [Not global]*

2. *Iterates are bounded and converge to the strict maximum. [Not reasonable]*

3. *Iterates are bounded and converge to a non-critical point. [Not reasonable]*

4. *Iterates are bounded but do not converge. [Not global]*

Proof. Consider the analytic market $\mathcal{M}$ given by

$$L^1(x, y) = x^6/6 - x^2/2 + xy + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right)$$

$$L^2(x, y) = y^6/6 - y^2/2 - xy - \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right)\,.$$

We prove in the appendix that $\mathcal{M}$ is coercive, nondegenerate, and has a unique critical point at the origin, which is a strict maximum. □

Figure 1: Algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ fail to converge in $\mathcal{M}$ with learning rate $\alpha = 0.02$ and $\gamma = 0.1$. The behaviour of SGA is slightly different, explained by the presence of a non-continuous parameter λ jumping between ± 1 according to an alignment criterion.

Constructing an algorithm with global guarantees is therefore doomed to be unreasonable in that it will converge to strict maxima or non-critical points in $\mathcal{M}$.

None of the outcomes of $\mathcal{M}$ are satisfactory. The first three are highly objectionable, as already discussed. The fourth is less obvious, and may even have game-theoretic significance (Papadimitriou & Piliouras, 2019), but is counter-intuitive from an optimization standpoint. Terminating the iteration would lead to a non-critical point, much like the third outcome. Even if we let agents update parameters continuously as they play a game or solve a task, they will have oscillatory behaviour and fail to produce consistent outcomes (e.g. when generating an image or playing Starcraft).

The hope for machine learning is that such predicaments do not arise in applications we care about, such as GANs or intrinsic curiosity. This may well be the case, but proving or disproving global convergence in these specific settings is beyond the scope of this paper.

Remark. Why can this approach not be used to *disprove* global convergence for single losses? One reason is that we cannot construct a coercive loss with no critical points other than strict maxima: coercive losses, unlike games, always have a global minimum.

3.2 WHAT IF THERE ARE STRICT MINIMA?

One might wonder if it is purely the absence of strict minima that causes non-convergence, since strict minima are locally attracting under gradient dynamics. Can we guarantee global convergence if we impose existence of a minimum, and more, the absence of any other critical points?

Unfortunately, strict minima may have an arbitrarily small region of attraction. Assuming parameters are initialised following any bounded continuous measure ν on $\mathbb{R}^d$, we can always modify $\mathcal{M}$ by deforming a correspondingly small region around the origin, turning it into a minimum while leaving the dynamics unchanged outside of this region.

For a fixed initial distribution, any reasonable algorithm can therefore produce limit cycles or diverge to infinite loss with arbitrarily high probability.

Theorem 2. *Given a reasonable algorithm with bounded continuous distribution on θ_0 and a real number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a coercive, nondegenerate, almost-everywhere analytic two-player market with a strict minimum and no other critical points, such that θ_k either cycles or diverges to infinite losses for both players with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$.*

Proof. Let $0 < \sigma < 0.1$ and define

$$f_\sigma(\theta) = \begin{cases} (x^2 + y^2 - \sigma^2)/2 & \text{if } \|\theta\| \geq \sigma \\ (y^2 - 3x^2)(x^2 + y^2 - \sigma^2)/(2\sigma^2) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $\theta = (x, y)$ and $\|\theta\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ is the standard $L2$-norm. Note that f_σ is continuous since

$$\lim_{\|\mathbf{x}\| \to \sigma^+} f_\sigma(x, y) = 0 = \lim_{\|\mathbf{x}\| \to \sigma^-} f_\sigma(x).$$

Now consider the two-player market $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ given by

$$L^1(x, y) = x^6/6 - x^2 + f_\sigma(x, y) + xy + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1 + x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1 + y^2}\right)$$

$$L^2(x, y) = y^6/6 - f_\sigma(x, y) - xy - \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1 + x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1 + y^2}\right).$$

We prove in the appendix that $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ is a coercive, nondegenerate, almost-everywhere analytic game whose only critical points is a strict minimum at the origin. We then prove that θ_k cycles or diverges with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$. $\qquad\square$

3.3 HOW DO EXISTING ALGORITHMS BEHAVE IN $\mathcal{M}$?

All algorithms will either fail to be reasonable or global in $\mathcal{M}$. Nonetheless, it would be interesting to determine the specific failure that each algorithm in $\mathcal{A}$ exhibits. Each of them is defined formally in Appendix A. For suitably small hyperparameters, we expect each algorithm to be reasonable and moreover to have bounded iterates in $\mathcal{M}$. If this holds, they must cycle by Theorem 1.

This is confirmed experimentally in Figure 1 for $\alpha = 0.02$ and $\gamma = 0.1$. They may of course follow one of the three other outcomes for other hyperparameters, for instance diverging to infinite loss if α is too large or converging to the strict maximum for CO if γ is too large. The point here is to characterise the 'regular' behaviour which can be seen as that occurring for sufficiently small hyperparameters.

Instead of proving that algorithms cycle in $\mathcal{M}$, we construct a *zero-sum* game $\mathcal{M}'$ with similar properties as $\mathcal{M}$ and prove below that algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ almost surely fail to converge there for small α, γ. This is stronger than proving the analogous result for $\mathcal{M}$, since $\mathcal{M}'$ belongs to the even smaller class of zero-sum games which one might have hoped was well-behaved.

In this light, one might wish to extend Theorem 1 to zero-sum games. However, zero-sum games *cannot* be coercive since $L^1 \to \infty$ implies $L^2 \to -\infty$. It is therefore unclear whether global guarantees should be expected in this non-coercive setting. Note however that $\mathcal{M}'$ will be *weakly-coercive* in the sense that

$$\lim_{\|\theta^i\| \to \infty} L^i(\theta^i, \theta^{-i}) = \infty$$

for all i and fixed θ^{-i}.

Theorem 3. *There is a weakly-coercive, nondegenerate, analytic two-player zero-sum game $\mathcal{M}'$ whose only critical point is a strict maximum. All algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ have* bounded *non-convergent iterates in $\mathcal{M}'$ for α, γ sufficiently small.*

Proof. Consider the analytic zero-sum game $\mathcal{M}'$ given by

$$L^1 = xy - x^2/2 + y^2/2 + x^4/4 - y^4/4 = -L^2.$$

We prove in the appendix that $\mathcal{M}'$ is weakly-coercive, nondegenerate, and has a unique critical point at the origin which is a strict maximum. We then prove our claims regarding the behaviour of each algorithm in $\mathcal{A}$. $\qquad\square$

As in $\mathcal{M}$, the behaviour of each algorithm may differ for larger hyperparameters. EG and OMD may converge to a non-critical point for large α (see proof to see why this may occur), and all algorithms may converge to the strict maximum or have unbounded iterates for large α. All such outcomes are as unsatisfactory as for $\mathcal{M}$, except unbounded iteration which will not result in positive infinite losses for *both* players since $L^1 = -L^2$.

3.4 COROLLARY: THERE ARE NO SUITABLE MEASURES OF PROGRESS

A crucial step in proving global convergence of GD on single losses is showing that the set of accumulation points is a subset of critical points, using the function value as a 'measure of progress'. The fact that this fails for differentiable games implies that there can be no suitable measures of progress for reasonable algorithms with bounded iterates. We formalise this below, answering the question of Schaefer & Anandkumar (2019) quoted in the introduction.

Definition 7. *A measure of progress for an algorithm given by $\theta_{k+1} = F(\theta_k)$ is a continuous map $M : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$, bounded below, such that $M(F(\theta)) \leq M(\theta)$ and $M(F(\theta)) = M(\theta)$ iff $F(\theta) = \theta$.*

Measures of progress are very similar to *descent functions*, as defined by Luenberger & Ye (1984), and somewhat akin to Lyapunov functions. The function value f is a measure of progress for single-loss GD under the usual regularity conditions, while the gradient norm $\|\xi\|$ is a measure of progress for GD in *strictly convex* differentiable games:

$$\|\xi(\theta - \alpha\xi)\|^2 = \|\xi\|^2 - \alpha\xi^T H^t \xi + o(\alpha) \leq \|\xi\|^2$$

for small α. Unfortunately, games like $\mathcal{M}$ prevent the existence of such measures in general.

Corollary 1. *There are no measures of progress for reasonable algorithms which produce bounded iterates in $\mathcal{M}$ or $\mathcal{M}'$.*

Assuming the algorithm to be reasonable is necessary: any map is a measure of progress for the unreasonable algorithm $F(\theta) = \theta$. Assuming the algorithm to have bounded iterates in $\mathcal{M}$ or $\mathcal{M}'$ is necessary: $M(\theta) = \exp(-\theta \cdot \mathbf{1})$ is a measure of progress for the reasonable but always-divergent algorithm $F(\theta) = \theta + \mathbf{1}$, where $\mathbf{1}$ is the constant vector of ones.

4 CONCLUSION

We have proven that global convergence is too much to hope for in multi-loss optimization. Any reasonable algorithm can exhibit limit cycles or diverge to infinite losses, even in simple two-player markets. This arises because coercive games, unlike losses, may have no critical points other than strict maxima. However, this is not the only point of failure: even in markets with a strict minimum and no other critical points, reasonable algorithms will almost surely fail to converge.

Limit cycles are not necessarily bad; they may even have game-theoretic significance (Papadimitriou & Piliouras, 2019). This paper nonetheless shows that some games, even in the class of two-player markets, have no satisfactory outcome. Players should neither escape to infinite losses, nor converge to strict maxima or non-critical points, so cycling may be the lesser evil. The community is accustomed to optimization problems whose solutions are single points, but cycles may have to be accepted as solutions in themselves.

The hope for machine learning practitioners is that local minima with large regions of attraction prevent limit cycles from arising in applications of interest, including GANs. Proving or disproving this is an interesting and important avenue for further research, with real implications on what to expect when agents learn while interacting with others. Cycles may for instance be unacceptable in self-driving cars, where oscillatory predictions may have life-threatening implications.

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APPENDIX

A   EXISTING ALGORITHMS AND EXPERIMENT HYPERPARAMETERS

Each algorithm in $\mathcal{A}$ cited in the 'Related Work' section can be defined as $F(\theta) = \theta - \alpha G(\theta)$ for some continuous $G : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$. We have already seen that simultaneous GD is given by $G_{GD} = \xi$. We specify G for the other algorithms below:

$$G_{\text{EG}} = \xi \circ (\text{id} - \alpha\xi) \qquad\qquad\qquad G_{\text{OMD}} = 2\xi - \xi \circ (\text{id} - \alpha\xi)^{-1}$$

$$G_{\text{CO}} = (I + \gamma H^T)\xi \qquad\qquad\qquad G_{\text{SGA}} = (I + \lambda A^T)\xi$$

$$G_{\text{CGD}} = (I + \alpha H_o)^{-1}\xi \qquad\qquad\quad G_{\text{LA}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi$$

$$G_{\text{LOLA}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi - \alpha\,\text{diag}(H_o^T\nabla L) \qquad G_{\text{SOS}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi - p\alpha\,\text{diag}(H_o^T\nabla L)$$

The only examples in this paper are two-player games, for which AGD is given by

$$G_{\text{AGD}} = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1(\theta_1, \theta_2) \\ \xi_2(\theta_1 - \alpha\xi_1, \theta_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

For OMD, we can recover the previous iterate if $\|H\| \leq L$ and $\alpha < 1/L$ using the proximal point algorithm, namely $\theta_{k-1} = (\text{id} - \alpha\xi)^{-1}(\theta_k)$. If not, G should also be a function of θ_{k-1}.

In all experiments we use a learning rate $\alpha = 0.02$, $\gamma = 0.1$ for CO and $a = b = 0.5$ for SOS. The λ parameter for SGA is obtained by the alignment criterion introduced in the original paper,

$$\lambda = \text{sign}\left(\langle\xi, H^T\xi\rangle\langle A^T\xi, H^T\xi\rangle\right) = \pm 1\,.$$

Similarly, the p parameter for SOS is given by a two-part criterion which need not be described here. We emphasise that learning rates α_i may be different for each player i, but we set them to be equal throughout this paper for simplicity. Claims regarding the behaviour of each algorithm for sufficiently small α mean that all α_i should be sufficiently small.

Accompanying code for all experiments will be submitted with this paper.

B   PROOFS

The following variable changes

$$\begin{cases} (x', y') = (y, -x) \\ (x', y') = (-y, x) \\ (x', y') = (-x, -y) \end{cases} \tag{†}$$

will be useful, taking the positive quadrant $x, y \geq 0$ to the other three quadrants.

B.1   PROOF OF PROPOSITION 1

We first prove a lemma and state a standard optimization result.

Lemma 0. *Let $G \in C^1(U, \mathbb{R}^d)$ for an open set U. If G is L-Lipschitz then $\sup_{\theta \in U} \|\nabla G(\theta)\| \leq L$.*

The proof is a straightforward adaptation of (Panageas & Piliouras, 2017, Lemma 7), without requiring U to be convex.

Proof. Fix any $\theta \in U$ and $\epsilon > 0$. Since U is open, the ball $B_r(\theta)$ of radius r centered at θ is contained in U for some $r > 0$. By Taylor expansion, for any unit vector θ',

$$\|G(\theta + r\theta') - G(\theta)\| \geq r\,\|\nabla G(\theta)\theta'\| - o(r) \geq r\,\|\nabla G(\theta)\theta'\| - \epsilon r$$

for r sufficiently small. Since G is L-Lipschitz, we obtain

$$r\,\|\nabla G(\theta)\theta'\| \leq \|G(\theta + r\theta') - G(\theta)\| + r\epsilon \leq r(L + \epsilon)\,.$$

Since ϵ was arbitrary, $\|\nabla G(\theta)\theta'\| \leq L$ for any unit θ'. By definition of the norm, we obtain

$$\|\nabla G(\theta)\| = \sup_{\|\theta'\|=1} \|\nabla G(\theta)\theta'\| \leq L$$

for all $\theta \in U$ and hence $\sup_{\theta \in U} \|\nabla G(\theta)\| \leq L$. □

Proposition ((Lange, 2013, Prop. 12.4.4) and (Absil et al., 2005, Th. 4.1)). *Assume f has L-Lipschitz gradient and is either analytic or has isolated critical points. Then for any $0 < \alpha < 2/L$ and $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ we have*

$$\lim_k \|\theta_k\| = \infty \quad or \quad \lim_k \theta_k = \bar{\theta}$$

for some critical point $\bar{\theta}$. If f moreover has compact sublevel sets then the latter holds, $\lim_k \theta_k = \bar{\theta}$.

We can now prove Proposition 1, which avoids requiring Lipschitz continuity by proving that iterates are contained in the sublevel set given by θ_0 for appropriate learning rate α.

Proposition 1. *Assume $f \in C^2$ has compact sublevel sets and is either analytic or has isolated critical points. For any $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, define $U_0 = \{f(\theta) \leq f(\theta_0)\}$ and let $L < \infty$ be a Lipschitz constant for ∇f in U_0. Then for any $0 < \alpha < 2/L$ we have $\lim_k \theta_k = \bar{\theta}$ for some critical point $\bar{\theta}$.*

Proof. Note that $\nabla f \in C^1$, so f has L-Lipschitz gradient inside any compact set U for some finite L, and $\sup_{\theta \in U} \|\nabla^2 f(\theta)\| \leq L$ by Lemma 0. Now define $U_\alpha = \{\theta - t\alpha\nabla f(\theta) \mid t \in [0,1], \theta \in U_0\}$ and the continuous function $L(\alpha) = \sup_{\theta \in U_\alpha} \|\nabla^2 f(\theta)\|$. Notice that $U_0 \subset U_{\alpha'}$ for all α. We prove that $\alpha L(\alpha) < 2$ implies $U_\alpha = U_0$ and in particular, $L(\alpha) = L(0)$. By Taylor expansion,

$$f(\theta - t\alpha\nabla f) = f(\theta) - \alpha \|\nabla f(\theta)\|^2 + \frac{t^2\alpha^2}{2} \nabla f(\theta)^T \nabla^2 f(\theta - t'\alpha\nabla f)f(\theta)$$

for some $t' \in [0,t] \subset [0,1]$. Since $\theta - t'\alpha\nabla f \in U_\alpha$, it follows that

$$f(\theta - t\alpha\nabla f) \leq f(\theta) - \alpha \|\nabla f(\theta)\|^2 (1 - \alpha L(\alpha)/2) \leq f(\theta)$$

for all $\alpha L(\alpha) < 2$. In particular, $\theta - t\alpha\nabla f \in U_0$ and hence $U_\alpha = U_0$. We conclude that $\alpha L(\alpha) < 2$ implies $L(\alpha) = L(0)$, implying in turn $\alpha L(0) < 2$. We now claim the converse, namely that $\alpha L(0) < 2$ implies $\alpha L(\alpha) < 2$. For contradiction, assume otherwise that there exists $\alpha' L(0) < 2$ with $\alpha' L(\alpha') \geq 2$. Since $\alpha L(\alpha)$ is continuous and $0L(0) = 0 < 2$, there exists $\bar{\alpha} \leq \alpha'$ such that $\bar{\alpha}L(0) < 2$ and $\bar{\alpha}L(\bar{\alpha}) = 2$. This is in contradiction with continuity:

$$2 = \bar{\alpha}L(\bar{\alpha}) = \lim_{\alpha \to \bar{\alpha}^-} \alpha L(\alpha) = \lim_{\alpha \to \bar{\alpha}^-} \alpha L(0) = \bar{\alpha}L(0).$$

Finally we conclude that $U_\alpha = U_0$ for all $\alpha L(0) < 2$, and in particular, for all $\alpha L < 2$. Finally, $\theta_k \in U_0$ implies $\theta_{k+1} \in U_\alpha = U_0$ and hence $\theta_k \in U_0$ by induction. The result now follows by applying the previous proposition to $f|_{U_0}$. $\square$

B.2 PROOF OF PROPOSITION 2

Proposition 2. *Write $\lambda(A) = \mathrm{Re}(\mathrm{Spec}(A))$ for real parts of the eigenvalues of a matrix A. We have the following implications, and none of them are equivalences.*

Note that the top row is dynamics-based, governed by the collective Hessian, while the bottom row is game-theoretic whereby $H_d = \bigoplus \nabla_{ii} L^i$ decomposes into agentwise Hessians. The left and right triangles collide respectively to strict maxima and saddles for single losses, since $H = S = H_d = \nabla^2 L$.

Proof. First note that $H \prec 0 \iff S \prec 0 \iff \max\lambda(S) < 0$, so the leftmost term can be replaced by $\max\lambda(S) < 0$.

We begin with the leftmost implications. If $\max\lambda(S) < 0$ then $S \prec 0$ by symmetry of S, implying both $H \prec 0$ since $u^T H u = u^T S u$ for all $u \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and negative definite diagonal blocks $\nabla^2 L^i_i \prec 0$;

finally $H_d \prec 0$. In particular this implies $\max \lambda(H) < 0$ and $\max \lambda(H_d) \prec 0$ since real parts of eigenvalues of a negative definite matrix are negative.

The rightmost implications follow as above by contraposition: if $\min \lambda(S) \geq 0$ then $S \succeq 0$, which implies $H \succeq 0$ and $H_d \succeq 0$ and hence $\min \lambda(H) \geq 0$, $\min \lambda(H_d) \geq 0$.

The top and bottom implications are trivial.

The diagonal implications hold by a trace argument:

$$\sum_i \lambda_i(H) = Tr(H) = \mathrm{Tr}(H_d) = \sum_i \lambda_i(H_d),$$

hence $\max \lambda(H) < 0$ implies the LHS is negative and thus $\sum_i \lambda_i(H_d) < 0$. It follows that $\lambda_i(H_d) < 0$ for some i and finally $\min \lambda(H_d) < 0$. The other diagonal holds identically.

We now prove that no implication is an equivalence. For the leftmost implications,

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has $\max \lambda(H_d) = -1 < 0$ while $\max \lambda(S) = 3 > 0$, and

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ -4 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

has $\max \lambda(H) = -1 < 0$ while $\max \lambda(S) = 2 > 0$. This also proves the diagonal implications: the first matrix has $\min \lambda(H_d) = -1 < 0$ but $\max \lambda(H) = 3 > 0$, and the second matrix has $\min \lambda(H) = -1 < 0$ but $\max \lambda(H_d) = 2 > 0$.

For the rightmost implications, swap the sign of the diagonal elements for the two matrices above.

The top and bottom implications are trivially not equivalences:

$$H = H_d = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has $\min \lambda(H) = \min \lambda(H_d) = -1 < 0$ but $\max \lambda(H) = \max \lambda(H_d) = 1 > 0$. $\qquad \square$

B.3 PROOF OF THEOREM 1

Theorem 1. *There is a coercive, nondegenerate, analytic two-player market $\mathcal{M}$ whose only critical point is a strict maximum. In particular, any reasonable algorithm almost surely produces bounded but non-convergent iterates or divergent iterates with infinite loss for all players.*

Proof. Write $\theta = (x, y)$ and consider the analytic market $\mathcal{M}$ given by

$$L^1 = x^6/6 - x^2/2 + xy + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right)$$

$$L^2 = y^6/6 - y^2/2 - xy - \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right)$$

with simultaneous gradient

$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} x^5 - x + y - \frac{y^4 x}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} \\ y^5 - y - x - \frac{x^4 y}{2(1+y^2)^2} - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

We prove 'by hand' that the origin $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is the only critical point (solution to $\xi = 0$). See further down for an easier approach based on Sturm's theorem, computer-assisted though equally rigorous.

We can assume $x, y \geq 0$ since any other solution can be obtained by a quadrant variable change (†). Now assume for contradiction that $\xi = 0$ with $y \neq 0$.

1. We first show that $y > 1$. Indeed,

$$0 = \xi_2 = y^5 - y - x - \frac{x^4 y}{2(1+y^2)^2} - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} < y^5 - y = y(y^4 - 1)$$

implies $y > 1$.

2. We now show that $y < 1.5$. First assume for contradiction that $x \geq y$, then

$$\xi_1 = y - x + x^5 - \frac{xy^4}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} > 1 - x + x^5 - x^5/8 - x^3/2 =: h(x).$$

Now

$$h'(x) = \frac{35}{8}x^4 - \frac{3}{2}x^2 - 1$$

has unique positive root

$$x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{6 + 2\sqrt{79}}{35}}$$

and $h(x) \to \infty$ as $x \to \infty$, hence h attains its minimum at x_0 and plugging x_0 yields a contradiction

$$\xi_1 > h(x_0) > 0.$$

We conclude that $x < y$, but combining this with $x \geq 0$ yields

$$\xi_2 > -2y + y^5 - y^5/8 - y^3 = y(7y^4/8 - y^2 - 2) > 7y^4/8 - y^2 - 2 > 0$$

for all $y \geq 1.5$, since the rightmost polynomial is positive at $y = 1.5$ and has positive derivative

$$7y^3/2 - 2y = y(7y^2/2 - 2) \geq 7(1.5)^2/2 - 2 > 0.$$

We must therefore have $y < 1.5$ as required.

3. It remains only to show that $\xi_1 > 0$ for all $1 < y < 1.5$. First notice that $f_x(y) = \xi_1(x, y)$ is concave in y for any fixed $x \geq 0$ since

$$f'_x(y) = 1 - \frac{2y^3 x}{(1+x^2)^2} + 2x^3 \frac{y}{(1+y^2)^2}$$

and so

$$f''_x(y) = -\frac{6y^2 x}{(1+x^2)^2} + 2x^3 \frac{1 + y^2 - 4y^2}{(1+y^2)^3} = -\frac{6y^2 x}{(1+x^2)^2} - 2x^3 \frac{3y^2 - 1}{(1+y^2)^3} \leq 0$$

for $y > 1$. It follows that f_x attains its infimum on the boundary $y \in \{1, 1.5\}$, so it suffices to check that $\xi_1(x, 1) > 0$ and $\xi_1(x, 1.5) > 0$ for all $x \geq 0$. First notice that

$$g(x) := \frac{x}{2(1+x^2)^2}$$

satisfies

$$g'(x) = \frac{1 + x^2 - 4x^2}{2(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{1 - 3x^2}{2(1+x^2)^2},$$

which has a unique positive root at $x_0 = 1/\sqrt{3}$. This critical point of g must be a maximum since $g(x) > 0$ for $x > 0$ and $g(x) \to 0$ as $x \to \infty$. It follows that

$$g(x) \leq g(x_0) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}(1 + 1/3)^2} = 3\sqrt{3}/32.$$

We now obtain

$$\xi_1(x, 1) \geq x^5 - x^3/2 - x + 1 - 3\sqrt{3}/32 =: p(x)$$

and

$$\xi_1(x, 1.5) \geq x^5 - 4x^3/13 - x + 1.5 - (1.5)^4 3\sqrt{3}/32 =: q(x).$$

Notice that

$$p'(x) = 5x^4 - 3x^2/2 - 1$$

has unique positive root

$$x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{3 + \sqrt{89}}{20}}$$

and $p(x) \to \infty$ as $x \to \infty$, hence p attains its minimum at x_0 and plugging x_0 yields

$$\xi_1(x, 1) \geq p(x_0) > 0 .$$

Similarly for q we have

$$q'(x) = 5x^4 - 12x^2/13 - 1$$

has unique positive root

$$x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{6 + \sqrt{881}}{65}}$$

and plugging x_0 yields

$$\xi_1(x, 1.5) \geq q(x_0) > 0 .$$

We conclude that

$$\xi_1(x, y) \geq \min(\xi_1(x, 1), \xi_1(x, 1.5)) > 0$$

and the contradiction is complete, hence $y = 0$. Finally $\xi_2 = 0 = x$, so $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is the unique critical point as required. Now the Hessian at $\bar{\theta}$ is

$$H(\bar{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

which is negative definite since $S(\bar{\theta}) = -I \prec 0$, so $\bar{\theta}$ is a nondegenerate strict maximum and $\mathcal{M}$ is nondegenerate. It remains only to prove coercivity of $\mathcal{M}$, namely coercivity of L^1 and L^2. Coercivity of L^1 follows by noticing that the dominant terms are $x^6/6$ and $y^4/(1 + x^2)$. Formally, first note that $\frac{x^4}{1+y^2} \leq x^4$, hence

$$L^1 \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - x^2/2 + xy + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1 + x^2}\right) .$$

Now $xy \geq -|xy| \geq -(2x^2 + y^2/8)$ by Young's inequality, hence

$$L^1 \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 - y^2/8 + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1 + x^2}\right) .$$

For any sequence $\|\theta\| \to \infty$, either $|x| \to \infty$ or $|x|$ is bounded above by some $k \in \mathbb{R}$ and $|y| \to \infty$. In the latter case, we have

$$\lim_{\|\theta\| \to \infty} L^1 \geq \lim_{|y| \to \infty} -k^4/4 - 5k^2/2 - y^2/8 + \frac{y^4}{4(1 + k^2)} = \infty$$

since the leading term y^4 is of even degree and has positive coefficient, so we are done. Otherwise, for $|x| \to \infty$, we pursue the previous inequality to obtain

$$L^1 \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 + \frac{y^2}{8}\left(\frac{2y^2}{1 + x^2} - 1\right) .$$

Now notice that $y^2 \geq x^2 \geq 1$ implies

$$L^1 \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 + \frac{x^2}{8}\left(\frac{x^2 - 1}{1 + x^2}\right) \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 - x^2/8 .$$

On the other hand, $x^2 \geq y^2$ also implies

$$L^1 \geq x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 - x^2/8$$

by discarding the first (positive) term in the brackets. Both cases lead to the same inequality and hence, for any sequence with $|x| \to \infty$,

$$\lim_{\|\theta\| \to \infty} L^1 \geq \lim_{|x| \to \infty} x^6/6 - x^4/4 - 5x^2/2 - x^2/8 = \infty$$

since the leading term x^6 has even degree and positive coefficient. Hence L^1 is coercive, and the same argument holds for L^2 by swapping x and y. As required we have constructed a coercive, nondegenerate, analytic two-player market $\mathcal{M}$ whose only critical point is a strict maximum.

In particular, any algorithm either has unbounded iterates with infinite losses or bounded iterates. If they are bounded, they either fail to converge or converge. If they converge, they either converge to a non-critical point or a critical point, which can only be the strict maximum.

For an alternative proof that $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is the only critical point, we may take advantage of computer algebra systems to find the exact number of real roots using the resultant matrix and Sturm's theorem. Singular (Decker et al., 2019) is one such free and open-source system for polynomial computations, backed by published computer algebra references. In particular, the `rootsur` library used below is based on the book by Basu et al. (2006). First convert the equations into polynomials:

$$\begin{cases} 2(1+x^2)^2(1+y^2)(x^5 - x + y) - y^4 x(1+y^2) - 2x^3(1+x^2)^2 = 0 \\ 2(1+y^2)^2(1+x^2)(y^5 - y - x) - x^4 y(1+x^2) - 2y^3(1+y^2)^2 = 0. \end{cases}$$

We compute the resultant matrix determinant of the system with respect to y, a univariate polynomial P in x whose zeros are guaranteed to contain all solutions in x of the initial system. We then use the Sturm sequence of P to find its exact number of real roots. This is implemented with the Singular code below, whose output is 1.

```
LIB "solve.lib"; LIB "rootsur.lib";
ring r = (0,x),(y),dp;
poly p1 = 2*(1+x^2)^2*(1+y^2)*(x^5-x+y)-y^4*x*(1+y^2)-2*x^3*(1+x^2)^2;
poly p2 = 2*(1+y^2)^2*(1+x^2)*(y^5-y-x)-x^4*y*(1+x^2)-2*y^3*(1+y^2)^2;
ideal i = p1,p2;
poly f = det(mp_res_mat(i));
ring s = 0,(x,y),dp; poly f = imap(r, f);
nrroots(f);
```

We know that $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is a real solution, so $\bar{\theta}$ must be the unique critical point. $\qquad\square$

B.4 NON-CONVERGENCE OF EXISTING ALGORITHMS IN A ZERO-SUM GAME

Proposition 3. *There is a weakly-coercive, nondegenerate, analytic two-player zero-sum game $\mathcal{M}'$ whose only critical point is a strict maximum. All algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ have* bounded *non-convergent iterates in $\mathcal{M}'$ for α, γ sufficiently small.*

Proof. Consider the analytic zero-sum game $\mathcal{M}'$ given by

$$L^1 = xy - x^2/2 + y^2/2 + x^4/4 - y^4/4 = -L^2$$

with simultaneous gradient

$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} y - x + x^3 \\ -x - y + y^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

and Hessian

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + 3x^2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 + 3y^2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We show that the only solution to $\xi = 0$ is the origin. First we can assume $x, y \geq 0$ since any other solution can be obtained by a quadrant variable change (†). Now assume for contradiction that $y \neq 0$, then

$$\xi_2 = 0 = -x - y + y^3 \leq -y + y^3 = y(y^2 - 1)$$

implies $y \geq 1$ and hence

$$\xi_1 = 0 = y - x + x^3 \geq 1 - x + x^3$$

which is a contradiction, since the polynomial is strictly increasing in x and evaluates to 1 at $x = 0$. It follows that $y = 0$ and hence $\xi_2 = 0 = x$ as required. Now the origin has invertible, negative-definite Hessian

$$H(0) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

so the unique critical point is a strict maximum. The game is nondegenerate since the only critical point has invertible Hessian. The game is weakly-coercive since $L^1(x, \bar{y}) \to \infty$ for any fixed $\bar{y}$ by domination of the x^4 term; similarly for $L^2(\bar{x}, y)$ by domination of the y^4 term.

Bounded iterates: strategy. We begin by showing that all algorithms have bounded iterates in $\mathcal{M}'$ for α, γ sufficiently small. For each algorithm F, our strategy is to show that there exists $r > 0$ such that for any $s > 0$ we have $\|F(\theta)\| < \|\theta\|$ for all $r < \|\theta\| < s$ and α, γ sufficiently small. This will be enough to prove bounded iteration upon bounded initialisation. Denote by B_r the ball of radius r centered at the origin.

GD. We have

$$\begin{aligned}
\theta^T \xi &= x(y - x + x^3) + y(-x - y + y^3) \\
&= x^4 - x^2 + y^4 - y^2 \\
&= (x^2 - 1)^2 + (y^2 - 1)^2 + x^2 + y^2 - 2 > 1
\end{aligned}$$

for all $\|\theta\|^2 = x^2 + y^2 > 3$. For any $s > 0$ we obtain

$$\|F(\theta)\|^2 = \|\theta - \alpha \xi\|^2 = \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha \theta^T \xi + \alpha^2 \|\xi\|^2 < \|\theta\| - \alpha \left(2 - \alpha \|\xi\|^2\right) < \|\theta\|^2$$

for all $\sqrt{3} < \|\theta\| < s$ and α sufficiently small, namely $0 < \alpha < 2/\sup_{\theta \in B_s} \|\xi\|^2$.

EG. For any $s > 0$ and $\sqrt{4} < \|\theta\| < s$ we have

$$\|\theta - \alpha \xi(\theta)\|^2 > 4 - 2\alpha \theta^T \xi > 3$$

for $\alpha < 1/\sup_{\theta \in B_s} 2\theta^T \xi$. Now using $\theta^T \xi > 1$ for all $\|\theta\|^2 > 3$ by the argument for GD above,

$$\begin{aligned}
\|F(\theta)\|^2 &= \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha \theta^T \xi(\theta - \alpha \xi(\theta)) + \alpha^2 \|\xi(\theta - \alpha \xi(\theta))\|^2 \\
&= \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha(\theta - \alpha \xi(\theta))^T \xi(\theta - \alpha \xi(\theta)) + O(\alpha^2) \\
&< \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha \left(2 - O(\alpha)\right) < \|\theta\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

for α sufficiently small.

AGD. For any $s > 0$, notice by continuity of ξ that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\theta^T (\xi_1, \xi_2(\theta_1 - \alpha \xi_1, \theta_2)) > \theta^T \xi - 1/2$$

for all $\alpha < \delta$ and $\theta \in B_s$, since B_s is bounded and $\theta_1 - \alpha \xi_1 \to \theta_1$ as $\alpha \to 0$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|F(\theta)\|^2 &= \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha \theta^T (\xi_1, \xi_2(\theta_1 - \alpha \xi_1, \theta_2)) + O(\alpha^2) \\
&< \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha(\theta^T \xi - 1/2) + O(\alpha^2) \\
&< \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha(1 - 1/2) + O(\alpha^2) \\
&< \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha(1 - O(\alpha)) < \|\theta\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

for all $\sqrt{3} < \|\theta\| < s$ and $\alpha < \delta$ sufficiently small.

OMD. For any $s > 0$, notice by continuity of ξ that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\left| \theta^T (\xi(\theta) - \xi((\mathrm{id} - \alpha \xi)^{-1}(\theta))) \right| < 1/2$$

for all $\alpha < \delta$ and $\theta \in B_s$, since B_s is bounded and $(\mathrm{id} - \alpha \xi)^{-1}(\theta) \to \theta$ as $\alpha \to 0$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|F(\theta)\|^2 &= \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha \theta^T \xi - 2\alpha \theta^T (\xi(\theta) - \xi((\mathrm{id} - \alpha \xi)^{-1}(\theta))) + O(\alpha^2) \\
&< \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha + \alpha + O(\alpha^2) \\
&= \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha(1 - O(\alpha)) < \|\theta\|^2
\end{aligned}$$

for all $\sqrt{3} < \|\theta\| < s$ and $\alpha < \delta$ sufficiently small.

CO, CGD, LA, LOLA, SOS. Writing ν for γ if $F = F_{CO}$ and ν for α otherwise, for each algorithm we have

$$F(\theta) = \theta - \alpha\xi + \alpha\nu K$$

for some continuous function $K : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$. For instance, $K = -H^T\xi$ for CO (see Appendix A). We obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|F(\theta)\|^2 &= \|\theta - \alpha\xi + \alpha\nu K\|^2 \\
&= \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha\theta^T\xi + 2\alpha\nu\theta^T K - 2\alpha^2\nu\xi^T K + \alpha^2\|\xi\|^2 + \alpha^2\nu^2\|K\| \\
&= \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha\left(2\theta^T\xi - 2\nu\theta^T K + 2\alpha\nu\xi^T K - \alpha\|\xi\|^2 - \alpha\nu^2\|K\|\right).
\end{aligned}
$$

Notice that every term in the brackets contains an α or ν. We have already shown that $\theta^T\xi > 1$ for all $\|\theta\|^2 > 3$ for GD above, hence for any $s > 0$ we have

$$
\|F(\theta)\|^2 < \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha\left(2 - 2\nu \sup_{\theta\in B_s} \theta^T K + 2\alpha\nu \inf_{\theta\in B_s} \xi^T K - \alpha \sup_{\theta\in B_s} \|\xi\|^2 - \alpha \sup_{\theta\in B_s} \nu^2\|K\|\right)
$$

$$
= \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha\left(2 - O(\alpha,\nu)\right) < \|\theta\|^2
$$

for all $\sqrt{3} < \|\theta\|^2 < s$ and α, ν sufficiently small.

SGA. The situation differs from the above since parameter λ follows an alignment criterion, namely $\lambda = \text{sign}\left(\langle\xi, H^T\xi\rangle\langle A^T\xi, H^T\xi\rangle\right) = \pm 1$, which cannot be made small. First note that

$$\theta^T G_{SGA} = \theta^t\xi + \lambda\theta^T(A^T\xi) = x^4 + y^4 - x^2 - y^2 + \lambda(x^2 + y^2 + x^3y - xy^3).$$

If $\lambda = -1$,

$$\theta^T G_{SGA} = x^4 + y^4 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 - x^3y + xy^3$$

and splitting $x^4 + y^4$ in two yields

$$\frac{x^4 + y^4}{2} - 2x^2 - 2y^2 = \frac{1}{4}\left[(x^2 - y^2)^2 + (x^2 + y^2)(x^2 + y^2 - 8)\right] > 1$$

for $\|\theta\|^2 = x^2 + y^2 > 9$, while

$$\frac{x^4 + y^4}{2} - x^3y + xy^3 = \frac{1}{2}\left[(-x^2 + xy + y^2)^2 + x^2y^2\right] > 0$$

for $\|\theta\| > 0$. Summing the two yields $\theta^T G_{SGA} > 1$ for $\|\theta\|^2 > 9$ and $\lambda = -1$. If $\lambda = 1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\theta^T G_{SGA} &= x^4 + y^4 + x^3y - xy^3 \\
&= x^4 + y^4 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 + x^3y - xy^3 + 2(x^2 + y^2) \\
&\geq x^4 + y^4 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 + x^3y - xy^3 > 1
\end{aligned}
$$

for $\|\theta\|^2 > 9$ by swapping x and y in the $\lambda = -1$ case above. We conclude $\theta^T G_{SGA} > 1$ for $\|\theta\|^2 > 9$ regardless of λ. For any $s > 0$ we obtain

$$\|F(\theta)\|^2 = \|\theta\|^2 - 2\alpha\theta^T G_{SGA} + \alpha^2\|G_{SGA}\|^2 < \|\theta\|^2 - \alpha\left(2 - \alpha\|G_{SGA}\|^2\right) < \|\theta\|^2$$

for all $3 < \|\theta\| < s$ and $\alpha < 2/\sup_{\theta\in B_s} G_{SGA}$.

Bounded iterates: conclusion. Now assume as usual that θ_0 is initalised in any bounded region U. For each algorithm we have found r such that for any $s > 0$ we have $\|F(\theta)\| < \|\theta\|$ for all $r < \|\theta\| < s$ and α, γ sufficiently small. Now pick $r' \geq r$ such that $U \subset B_{r'}$. Define the bounded region

$$V = \{\theta - tG(\theta) \mid t \in [0, 1], \theta \in B_{r'}\}.$$

and pick $s \geq r'$ such that $V \subset B_s$. By the above we have $\|F(\theta)\| < \|\theta\|$ for all $r < \|\theta\| < s$ and α, γ sufficiently small. In particular, fix any $\alpha, \gamma < 1$ satisfying this condition. We claim that $F(\theta) \in B_s$ for all $\theta \in B_s$. Indeed, either $\theta \in B_r$ implies $F(\theta) = \theta - \alpha G(\theta) \in V \subset B_s$ or $\theta \notin B_r$ implies $\|F(\theta)\| < \|\theta\| < s$ and so $F(\theta) \in B_s$. We conclude that $\theta_0 \in U \subset B_s$ implies bounded iterates $\theta_k = F^k(\theta) \in B_s$ for all k.

Non-convergence: strategy. We show that all methods in $\mathcal{A}$ have the origin as unique fixed points for α, γ sufficiently small. Fixed points of each gradient-based method are given by $G = 0$, where G is given in Appendix A, and we moreover show that the Jacobian ∇G at the origin is negative-definite. Non-convergence will then follow from the stable manifold theorem for α sufficiently small.

GD. Fixed points of simultaneous GD correspond by definition to critical points:

$$G_{\text{GD}} = \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0.$$

The Jacobian of G at 0 is

$$\nabla \xi = H = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \prec 0.$$

AGD. We have

$$G_{\text{AGD}} = 0 \iff \begin{cases} \xi_1 = 0 \\ \xi_2(\theta_1 - \alpha\xi_1, \theta_2) = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} \xi_1 = 0 \\ \xi_2 = 0 \end{cases} \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0.$$

Now

$$\xi_2(x - \alpha\xi_1(x,y), y) = -(x - \alpha(y - x + x^3)) - y + y^3 = x(-1 - \alpha) + y(-1 + \alpha) + \alpha x^3 + y^3$$

and so the Jacobian at the origin is

$$J_{AGD} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 - \alpha & -1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

with symmetric part

$$S_{AGD} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -\alpha/2 \\ -\alpha/2 & -1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

which has negative trace for all $\alpha < 2$ and positive determinant

$$-\alpha^2/2 - \alpha + 1 = -(\alpha + 1)^2/2 + 3/2 > -9/8 + 3/2 > 0$$

for all $\alpha < 1/2$, which together imply negative eigenvalues and hence $S_{AGD} \prec 0$. Recall that a matrix is negative-definite iff its symmetric part is, hence $J_{AGD} \prec 0$ for all $\alpha < 1/2$.

EG. We have

$$G_{\text{EG}} = \xi \circ (\text{id} - \alpha\xi) = 0 \iff \text{id} - \alpha\xi = 0 \iff \begin{cases} x - \alpha(y - x + x^3) = 0 \\ y - \alpha(-x - y + y^3) = 0. \end{cases}$$

We have shown that any bounded initialisation results in bounded iterates for EG. Let U be this bounded region and assume for contradiction that $\text{id} - \alpha\xi = 0$ with $x, y \neq 0$ (noting that $x = 0$ implies $y = 0$ by the first equation and vice-versa). We can assume $x, y > 0$ since any other solution can be obtained by a quadrant change of variable (†). We first prove that $x, y < 1$ for $0 < \alpha < 1/\sup_{\theta \in U}\{y - x + x^3\}$. Indeed we have

$$0 = \xi_1 > x - \alpha \sup_{\theta \in U} > x - 1$$

hence $x < 1$. A similar derivation holds for y, hence $0 < x, y < 1$. But now $x \geq y$ implies

$$0 = \xi_1 \geq x - \alpha(y - y + x^3) = x(1 - \alpha x^2) \geq x(1 - \alpha) > 0$$

for $\alpha < 1$ while $x < y$ implies

$$0 = \xi_2 \geq y - \alpha(-x - x + y^3) = y(1 - \alpha y^2) \geq y(1 - \alpha) > 0$$

and the contradiction is complete, hence $\theta = 0$ is the only fixed point of EG. Now

$$J_{EG} = H(I - \alpha H) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 + \alpha & -\alpha \\ \alpha & 1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 + 2\alpha \\ -1 - 2\alpha & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

with $S_{EG} = -I \prec 0$, hence $J_{EG} \prec 0$ for all α.

OMD. By Daskalakis & Panageas (2018, Remark 1.5), fixed points of OMD must satisfy $\xi = 0$ by viewing OMD as mapping pairs (θ_k, θ_{k-1}) to pairs (θ_{k+1}, θ_k), hence $\theta = 0$. Now

$$J_{OMD} = 2H - H(I - \alpha H)^{-1} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{1 + 2\alpha + 2\alpha^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 - 2\alpha & 1 \\ -1 & -1 - 2\alpha \end{pmatrix} .$$

Now notice that

$$\frac{1 + 2\alpha}{1 + 2\alpha + 2\alpha^2} \leq 1$$

and so

$$S_{OMD} = \begin{pmatrix} -2 + \frac{1+2\alpha}{1+2\alpha+2\alpha^2} & 0 \\ 0 & -2 + \frac{1+2\alpha}{1+2\alpha+2\alpha^2} \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

for all α.

CO. We have

$$G_{\text{CO}} = (I + \gamma H^T)\xi = 0 \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0$$

for all γ since the matrix

$$(I + \gamma H^T) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \gamma & -\gamma \\ \gamma & 1 - \gamma \end{pmatrix}$$

is always invertible with determinant $(1 - \gamma)^2 + \gamma^2 > 0$. Now

$$J_{CO} = (I + \gamma H^T)H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \gamma & -\gamma \\ \gamma & 1 - \gamma \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + 2\gamma & 1 \\ -1 & -1 + 2\gamma \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

for all $\gamma < 1/2$.

SGA. We have

$$G_{\text{SGA}} = (I + \lambda A^T)\xi = 0 \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0$$

since antisymmetric A with eigenvalues ia, $a \in \mathbb{R}$ implies that $I + \lambda A^T$ is always invertible with eigenvalues $1 + i\lambda a \neq 0$. Now recall that λ is given by

$$\lambda = \text{sign}\left(\langle \xi, H^T \xi \rangle \langle A^T, H^T \xi \rangle\right) = \text{sign}\left(\xi^T H^T \xi \cdot \xi^T A H^T \xi\right) .$$

We have

$$H^T = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + 3x^2 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 + 3y^2 \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

and

$$A H^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 + 3y^2 \\ -(-1 + 3x^2) & 1 \end{pmatrix} \succ 0$$

for all $\|\theta\|$ sufficiently small, hence $\xi^T H^T \xi \leq 0$ and $\xi^T A H^T \xi \geq 0$ and thus

$$\lambda = \text{sign}\left(\langle \xi, H^T \xi \rangle \langle A^T, H^T \xi \rangle\right) = \text{sign}\left(\xi^T H^T \xi \cdot \xi^T A H^T \xi\right) \leq 0$$

around the origin. Now

$$J_{SGA} = (I + \lambda A^T)H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\lambda \\ \lambda & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \lambda & 1 + \lambda \\ -1 - \lambda & -1 + \lambda \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

for all $\lambda < 1$, which holds in particular for $\lambda \leq 0$ around (at) the origin.

CGD. Note that

$$H_o = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = A$$

is always antisymmetric in $\mathcal{M}'$, hence $I + \alpha H_o$ is always invertible as for SGA and

$$G_{\text{CGD}} = (I + \alpha H_o)^{-1}\xi = 0 \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0 .$$

Now

$$J_{CGD} = (I + \alpha H_o)^{-1}H = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -\alpha \\ \alpha & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{1 + \alpha^2} \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \alpha & 1 + \alpha \\ -1 - \alpha & -1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$

for all $\alpha < 1$.

LA. As above,
$$G_{\text{LA}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi = 0 \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0$$
since $(I - \alpha H_o)$ is always invertible. Now
$$J_{LA} = (I - \alpha H_o)H = (I - \alpha A)H = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \alpha & 1 + \alpha \\ -1 - \alpha & -1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$
for all $\alpha < 1$.

LOLA. Notice that
$$\text{diag}\left(H_o^T \nabla L\right) = \text{diag}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y - x + x^3 & -y + x - x^3 \\ x + y - y^3 & -x - y + y^3 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} -x - y + y^3 \\ -y + x - x^3 \end{pmatrix} = H_o \xi$$
and so
$$G_{\text{LOLA}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi - \alpha \, \text{diag}\left(H_o^T \nabla L\right) = (I - 2\alpha H_o)\xi \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0$$
as for LA. Similarly, substituting 2α for α in the derivation for LA yields
$$J_{LOLA} = (I - 2\alpha H_o)H \prec 0$$
for all $\alpha < 1/2$.

SOS. As for LOLA we have
$$G_{\text{SOS}} = (I - \alpha H_o)\xi - p\alpha \, \text{diag}\left(H_o^T \nabla L\right) = (I - \alpha(1 + p)H_o)\xi \iff \xi = 0 \iff \theta = 0$$
for any α, p. Now
$$J_{SOS} = J_{LA} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \alpha & 1 + \alpha \\ -1 - \alpha & -1 + \alpha \end{pmatrix} \prec 0$$
for all $\alpha < 1$ since $\nabla p(\theta) = 0$ for fixed points θ.

Non-convergence: conclusion. We conclude that all algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ have the origin as unique fixed points, with negative-definite Jacobian, for α, γ sufficiently small. If a method converges, it can therefore only converge to the origin. It now follows from the Stable Manifold Theorem that every method converges with zero probability for α sufficiently small. Since all algorithms were also shown to produce bounded iterates, they must have bounded but non-convergent iterates. The proof is complete, and iterates are illustrated experimentally in Figure 2 for $\alpha = 0.02, \gamma = 0.1$. $\square$

Figure 2: Existing algorithms cycle in $\mathcal{M}'$ with learning rate $\alpha = 0.02$ and $\gamma = 0.1$.

B.5 PROOF OF THEOREM 2

Parameters are initialised following any continuous measure ν on $\mathbb{R}^d$.

Theorem 2. *There are no reasonable global algorithms, even for two-player markets with a strict minimum and no other critical points. [There is a coercive, nondegenerate, almost-everywhere analytic two-player market with a unique and minimum critical point such that any reasonable algorithm produces bounded but non-convergent iterates, or divergent iterates with infinite losses for all players, with arbitrarily high probability.]*

Proof. We modify the construction from Theorem 1 by deforming a small region around the maximum to replace it with a minimum. First write $\theta = (x, y)$, let $0 < \sigma < 0.1$ and define

$$f_\sigma(\theta) = \begin{cases} (x^2 + y^2 - \sigma^2)/2 & \text{if } \|\theta\| \geq \sigma \\ (y^2 - 3x^2)(x^2 + y^2 - \sigma^2)/(2\sigma^2) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$\|\theta\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ is the standard $L2$-norm. Note that f_σ is continuous since

$$\lim_{\|\theta\| \to \sigma^+} f_\sigma(x, y) = 0 = \lim_{\|\theta\| \to \sigma^-} f_\sigma(x).$$

Now consider the two-player market $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ given by

$$L^1 = x^6/6 - x^2 + f_\sigma + xy + \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right)$$

$$L^2 = y^6/6 - f_\sigma - xy - \frac{1}{4}\left(\frac{y^4}{1+x^2} - \frac{x^4}{1+y^2}\right).$$

The resulting losses are continuous but not differentiable; however, they are analytic (in particular smooth) almost everywhere, namely, for all θ not on the circle of radius σ. This is sufficient for the purposes of gradient-based optimization, noting that games such as GANs also fail to be everywhere-differentiable in the presence of rectified linear units.

We claim that $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ has a single critical point at the origin $\bar{\theta} = 0$, for any $0 < \sigma < 0.1$. First note that

$$\xi_{\mathcal{M}_\sigma} = \xi_{\mathcal{M}_0} = \begin{pmatrix} x^5 - x + y - \frac{y^4 x}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} \\ y^5 - y - x - \frac{x^4 y}{2(1+y^2)^2} - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} \end{pmatrix} = \xi_{\mathcal{M}}$$

for all $\|\theta\| \geq \sigma$, where $\mathcal{M}$ is the game from Theorem 1. It was proved there that the only real solution to $\xi = 0$ is the origin, which does not satisfy $\|\theta\| \geq \sigma$. Any critical point must therefore satisfy $\|\theta\| < \sigma$, for which

$$\xi = \xi_{\mathcal{M}_\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} x^5 + x + y - 2x(3x^2 + y^2)/\sigma^2 - \frac{y^4 x}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} \\ y^5 + y - x - 2y(y^2 - x^2)/\sigma^2 - \frac{x^4 y}{2(1+y^2)^2} - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

First note that $\bar{\theta} = 0$ is a critical point; we prove that there are no others. The continuous parameter σ prevents us from using a formal verification system as in Theorem 1, so we must work 'by hand'. Warning: the proof is a long inelegant string of case-by-case inequalities.

Assume for contradiction that $\xi = 0$ with $\theta \neq 0$. First note that $\|\theta\| < \sigma$ implies $|x|, |y| < \sigma$, and $x = 0$ or $y = 0$ implies $x = y = 0$ using $\xi_1 = 0$ or $\xi_2 = 0$ respectively. We can therefore assume $0 < |x|, |y| < \sigma$. We can moreover assume that $x > 0$, the opposite case following by the quadrant change of variables $(x', y') = (-x, -y)$.

1. We begin with the case $\sigma/2 \leq x < \sigma$. First notice that

$$x + y - 2x(3x^2 + y^2)/\sigma^2 = x(1 - 6x^2/\sigma^2) + y(1 - 2xy/\sigma^2) \leq x(1 - 3/2) + y(1 - y/\sigma)$$

and the rightmost term attains its maximum value for $y = \sigma/2$, hence

$$x + y - 2x(3x^2 + y^2)/\sigma^2 \leq -x/2 + \sigma/4 \leq 0.$$

This implies

$$\xi_1 \le x^5 - \frac{y^4 x}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} < x^5 - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} < x^3 \left(1 - y^2 - \frac{1}{1+y^2}\right) = \frac{-x^3 y^4}{1+y^2} < 0$$

using $x^2 + y^2 < 1$, which is a contradiction to $\xi = 0$.

2. We proceed with the case $x < \sigma/2$ and $|y| \le \sigma/2$. First, $y < 0$ implies the contradiction

$$\xi_2 < y - 2y^3/\sigma^2 - \frac{x^4 y}{2(1+y^2)^2} - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} < y/2 - y\left(\frac{\sigma^4}{2^5} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2^2}\right) < y\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2^5} - \frac{1}{2^2}\right) < 0,$$

so we can assume $y > 0$. In particular we have $(1 - 2y(y+x)/\sigma^2) > 0$. If $y \le x$, we also obtain

$$\xi_2 < y^5 + (y - x)\left(1 - 2y(y+x)/\sigma^2\right) - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} < y^3\left(y^2 - \frac{1}{1+x^2}\right) < \frac{-y^3 x^4}{1+x^2} < 0,$$

so we can assume $x < y$. There are again two cases to distinguish. If $x < \sigma/2 - b\sigma^2$ with $b = 0.08$,

$$x(1 - 6x^2/\sigma^2) + y(1 - 2xy/\sigma^2) > x(1 - 3(1/2 - \sigma b)) + x(1 - (1/2 - \sigma b)) > 4\sigma bx$$

which implies the contradiction

$$\xi_1 > 4\sigma bx - \frac{y^4 x}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^3}{1+y^2} > \sigma x\left(4b - \frac{\sigma^4}{2^5} - \frac{\sigma^2}{2^2}\right) > \sigma x\left(4b - \frac{1}{2^5} - \frac{1}{2^2}\right) > 0.$$

Finally assume $x \ge \sigma/2 - b\sigma^2$. Then we have

$$(y - x)(1 - 2y(x+y)/\sigma^2) < b\sigma^2(1 - 4x^2/\sigma^2) < b\sigma^2(1 - (1 - 2\sigma b)^2) = 4\sigma^3 b^2(1 - \sigma b) < 4\sigma^3 b^2$$

and obtain

$$\xi_2 < y^5 + 4\sigma^3 b^2 - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} < \sigma^3\left(\sigma^2/2^5 + 4b^2 - \frac{(1/2 - \sigma b)^3}{1 + \sigma^2/4}\right).$$

We claim that the rightmost term is negative. Indeed, the quantity inside the brackets has derivative

$$\sigma/2^4 + \frac{(1/2 - \sigma b)^2}{(1 + \sigma^2/4)^2}\left(3b(1 + \sigma^2/4) + \sigma(1/2 - \sigma b)/2\right) > 0$$

and so its supremum across $\sigma \in [0, 0.1]$ must be attained at $\sigma = 0.1$. We obtain the contradiction

$$\xi_2 < \sigma^3\left(0.01/2^5 + 4b^2 - \frac{(1/2 - b)^3}{1 + 0.01/4}\right) < 0$$

for $b = 0.08$ and $\sigma > 0$, as required.

3. Finally, consider the case $x < \sigma/2$ and $|y| > \sigma/2$. First, $y < 0$ implies the contradiction

$$\xi_1 < x + y - 2x(3x^2 + y^2)/\sigma^2 < -2x(3x^2 + y^2) < 0$$

so we can assume $y > 0$. Now assume $y < \sigma - x(1 + \sigma^2)$. Then

$$x(1 - 6x^2/\sigma^2) + y(1 - 2xy/\sigma^2) > -x/2 + y(1 - y/\sigma) > -x/2 + x(1 + \sigma^2) > x(1/2 + \sigma^2),$$

which yields the contradiction

$$\xi_1 > x\left(\frac{1}{2} + \sigma^2 - \frac{y^4}{2(1+x^2)^2} - \frac{x^2}{1+y^2}\right) > x\left(1/2 + \sigma^2 - \sigma^4 - \sigma^2/4\right) > x(1/2 - 1/4) > 0.$$

We can therefore assume $y \ge \sigma - x(1 + \sigma^2)$. We have

$$(y - x)(1 - 2y(y+x)/\sigma^2) < (y - x)(1 - (y+x)/\sigma) \le (y - x)(1 - (1 - \sigma x)) < \sigma x(y - x)$$

which attains its maximum in x at $x = y/2$, hence

$$\xi_2 < y^5 - \frac{y^3}{1+x^2} + \frac{\sigma y^2}{4} < \frac{\sigma y^2}{4}\left(4\sigma^2 - \frac{2}{1+\sigma^2} + 4\right).$$

Finally we obtain the contradiction

$$\xi_2 < \frac{\sigma y^2}{4}\left(\frac{5\sigma^2 + 4\sigma^4 - 1}{1 + \sigma^2}\right) < 0$$

for all $\sigma < 0.1$. All cases lead to contradictions, so we conclude that $\bar{\theta}$ is the only critical point, with positive definite Hessian

$$H(\bar{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \succ 0\,,$$

hence $\bar{\theta}$ is a strict minimum. Now notice that $\mathcal{M}_0$ has the same dominant terms as $\mathcal{M}$ from Theorem 1, so coercivity of $\mathcal{M}_0$ follows from the same argument. Since $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ is identical to $\mathcal{M}_0$ outside the σ-ball $B_\sigma = \{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \|\theta\| < \sigma\}$, coercivity of $\mathcal{M}_0$ implies coercivity of $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ for any σ.

Fix any reasonable algorithm $\mathcal{A}$, any continuous measure ν on $\mathbb{R}^d$ and any $\epsilon > 0$. We abuse notation somewhat and write $F_\sigma^k(\theta_0)$ for the kth iterate of $\mathcal{A}$ in $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ with initial parameters θ_0. We claim that for any bounded region U, there exists $\sigma > 0$ satisfying

$$P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in U \text{ and } \lim_k F_\sigma^k(\theta_0) = \bar{\theta}\right) < \epsilon\,.$$

Since $\bar{\theta}$ is the only critical point and $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ is coercive, this implies bounded but non-convergent iterates or divergent iterates with infinite loss with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$, proving the theorem.

First, by continuity of ν with respect to Lebesgue measure, we can choose $\sigma' > 0$ such that $P_\nu(\theta_0 \in B_{\sigma'}) < \epsilon/2$, since $\mu(B_\sigma) \to 0$ as $\sigma \to 0$.

Now let $\bar{U}$ be the closure of U and define $D = \bar{U} \cap \{\|\theta\| \geq \sigma'\}$. Note that D is compact since $\bar{U}$ is compact and closed subsets of a compact set are compact. $\mathcal{A}$ is reasonable, D is bounded and $\bar{\theta}$ is a strict maximum in $\mathcal{M}_0$, so there are hyperparameters such that the stable set

$$Z = \{\theta_0 \in D \mid \lim_k F_0^k(\theta_0) = \bar{\theta}\}$$

has zero measure. By the regularity theorem for Lebesgue measure, there exist open sets which contain Z with arbitrary small measure. By continuity of μ, we can therefore find Z' open such that

$$P_\nu(\theta_0 \in Z') < \epsilon/2$$

with $Z \subset Z' \subset D$. Now for any $\theta_0 \in D \setminus Z'$, we know that $\lim_k F_0^k(\theta_0) \neq 0$ and in particular, $\inf_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\{\|F_0^k(\theta_0)\|\} > 0$. We can thus define the continuous function $h : D \setminus Z' \to \mathbb{R}^+$ given by

$$h(\theta_0) = \inf_{k \in \mathbb{N}}\left\{\|F_0^k(x_0)\|\right\}\,.$$

Since Z' is open and D is compact, $D \setminus Z'$ is compact and hence $h(D \setminus Z')$ is compact in $\mathbb{R}^+$. In particular, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $h(\theta_0) \geq \delta$ and thus $\|F_0^k(\theta_0)\| \geq \delta$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\theta_0 \in D \setminus Z'$. Now let $\sigma = \min\{\sigma', \delta\}$ and notice that

$$\theta_0 \in D \setminus Z' \quad\implies\quad \inf_k \|F_0^k(\theta_0)\| \geq \delta \geq \sigma \quad\implies\quad \inf_k \|F_\sigma^k(\theta_0)\| \geq \sigma\,.$$

The last implication holds since $\mathcal{M}_\sigma$ and $\mathcal{M}_0$ are indistinguishable in $\{\|\theta\| \geq \sigma\}$, so the algorithm must have identical iterates $F_\sigma^k(\theta_0) = F_0^k(\theta_0)$ for all k. It follows in particular that $\lim_k F_\sigma^k(\theta_0) = \bar{\theta}$ implies $\theta_0 \notin D \setminus Z'$, and so $\theta_0 \in Z'$ or $\theta_0 \notin D$. Finally we obtain

$$P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in U \text{ and } \lim_k F_\sigma^k(\theta_0) = \bar{\theta}\right) = P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in U \cap Z' \text{ or } \theta_0 \in U \setminus D\right)$$

$$\leq P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in U \cap Z'\right) + P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in U \setminus D\right)$$

$$\leq P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in Z'\right) + P_\nu\left(\theta_0 \in B_{\sigma'}\right)$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

as required. $\qquad\square$

B.6 PROOF OF COROLLARY 1

Corollary 1. *There are no measures of progress for reasonable algorithms which produce bounded iterates in $\mathcal{M}$ or $\mathcal{M}'$.*

Proof. Assume for contradiction that a measure of progress M exists for some reasonable algorithm F and consider the iterates θ_k produced in the game $\mathcal{M}$ or $\mathcal{M}'$. We prove that the set of accumulation points of θ_k is a subset of critical points, following Lange (2013, Prop. 12.4.2). Consider any accumulation point $\bar{\theta} = \lim_{m \to \infty} \theta_{k_m}$. The sequence $M(\theta_k)$ is monotonically decreasing and bounded below, hence convergent. In particular,

$$\lim_m M(F(\theta_{k_m})) = \lim_m M(\theta_{k_m+1}) = \lim_m M(\theta_{k_m}).$$

By continuity of M and F, we obtain

$$M(F(\bar{\theta})) = M(\lim_m F(\theta_{k_m})) = \lim_m M(F(\theta_{k_m})) = \lim_m M(\theta_{k_m}) = M(\bar{\theta})$$

and hence $F(\bar{\theta}) = \bar{\theta}$. Since F is reasonable, $\bar{\theta}$ must be a critical point. Now the only critical point of $\mathcal{M}$ or $\mathcal{M}'$ is the strict maximum $\bar{\theta} = 0$, so any accumulation point of θ_k must be $\bar{\theta}$. The sequence θ_k is assumed to be bounded, so it must have at least one accumulation point by Bolzano-Weierstrass. A sequence with exactly one accumulation point is convergent, hence $\theta_k \to \bar{\theta}$. This is in contradiction with the algorithm being reasonable. $\square$

C SOLUTION CONCEPTS IN DIFFERENTIABLE GAMES

As highlighted by Proposition 2, standard optimization concepts (minima, maxima, saddles) generalise in different ways to differentiable games, giving rise to a rich set of concepts. Let us consider here the case of strict saddles, which are defined for single losses as critical points $\bar{\theta}$ whose Hessian $H(\bar{\theta})$ has at least one negative eigenvalue, namely, $\min \lambda(H) < 0$. We consider three possible generalisations below, corresponding to the right-hand triangle in Proposition 2. Recall that $\lambda(A) = \mathrm{Re}(\mathrm{Spec}(A))$.

Definition 8. *Let $\bar{\theta}$ be a critical point.*

1. *$\bar{\theta}$ is called a* strict saddle *if $\min \lambda(H(\bar{\theta})) < 0$.*

2. *$\bar{\theta}$ is called a* strict Nash saddle *if $\min \lambda(H_d(\bar{\theta})) < 0$.*

3. *$\bar{\theta}$ is called a* strict symmetric saddle *if $\min \lambda(S(\bar{\theta})) < 0$.*

This already-rich set of concepts does not arise in single-player games since all three concepts collide: $H = H_d = S = \nabla^2 L$. The terminology is justified as follows:

1. Strict saddles are the most immediate generalisation, and correspond to those points almost surely avoided by GD, as shown in Proposition **??**. In this sense, they are the 'natural' or 'simultaneous' generalisation of single-player strict saddles.

2. Since $H_d = \bigoplus_i \nabla_{ii} L^i$, strict Nash saddles are also defined by $\nabla_{ii} L^i(\bar{\theta})$ having a negative eigenvalue for some i. In other words, player i can decrease its loss locally around $\bar{\theta}$ to second order, at odds with the concept of Nash equilibrium.

3. Strict symmetric saddles refer to the symmetric part S of the Hessian. The authors do not believe this concept to be particularly intuitive or appropriate, but define it here for the sake of completeness. However, the class is a superset of the other two, see Proposition 2.

The first two classes are appealing in their own respects, but neither is a subset of the other.

Proposition 3. *In a given game, let $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$ be the set of strict saddles and Nash saddles respectively. Then there exist games such that*

$$\mathcal{X} \nsubseteq \mathcal{Y} \quad and \quad \mathcal{Y} \nsubseteq \mathcal{X}.$$

Proof. For $\mathcal{X} \nsubseteq \mathcal{Y}$, consider the game

$$L_1 = x^2/2 + 2xy \quad \text{and} \quad L^2 = y^2/2 + 2xy$$

with

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} .$$

There is a unique fixed point at the origin, where H has a negative eigenvalue -1, while $H_d = I$ has positive eigenvalues 1.

For $\mathcal{Y} \nsubseteq \mathcal{X}$, consider the game

$$L_1 = -x^2 + 4xy \quad \text{and} \quad L_2 = 2y^2 + 4xy .$$

with

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & 4 \\ -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

There is a unique fixed point at the origin, where H has positive eigenvalues $1 \pm i\sqrt{7}$, while H_d has a negative eigenvalue -2. □

Let us dissect the two examples above to see how the concepts differ. In the first game, the origin is a strict saddle, but also a *strict and global Nash equilibrium*. This is rather surprising, and some of the community may rule out strict saddles as inappropriate for this reason. However, note crucially that both players can achieve arbitrarily low losses by following the anti-diagonal direction $y = -x \to \pm\infty$ instead of staying put at the origin. In this sense, the origin is to be avoided, despite being a Nash equilibrium, both justifying the 'saddle' terminology and challenging the validity of Nash equilibria as a solution concept in the context of optimization.

In the second game, the origin is a strict Nash saddle, but not a strict saddle. In fact, the origin is a stable equilibrium with respect to GD dynamics, and we notice experimentally that all algorithms in $\mathcal{A}$ converge there. Again, this may be counterintuitive to game theorists since the first player always has a local incentive to move away from the origin, so converging there seems irrational. However, it is *not* advantageous to move away in the long run, since the second player will always respond by moving in the opposite direction and lead to a positive loss, at which point the first player will have to cross the origin again. In this sense, the origin is 'stable' and perhaps more reasonable than perpetual cycling around it.

It is clear now that both concepts have their *raison d'être*. The authors personally prefer strict saddles in the context of optimization, for the reasons discussed above, but it is intelligible to prefer one or the other in different settings.

In the same vein, maxima generalise in different ways to games. Recall that strict maxima are defined by $H \prec 0$ for single losses, or equivalently $\max \lambda(H) < 0$. This again may be generalised to $\max \lambda(H) < 0$, $\max \lambda(H_d) < 0$ or $\max \lambda(S) < 0$. This final concept is equivalent to $H \prec 0$. In this sense it is perhaps the 'closest' to the single-loss case, thus our naming them 'strict maxima'. It is also the smallest, being contained in the other two by Proposition 2.

Imposing that reasonable algorithms avoid strict maxima is therefore the weakest possible requirement of this kind, hoping to further convince the community of the impossibility of global convergence.