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# Convergence of constant step stochastic gradient descent for non-smooth non-convex functions

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## Abstract

This paper studies the asymptotic behavior of the constant step Stochastic Gradient Descent for the minimization of an unknown function  $F$ , defined as the expectation of a non convex, non smooth, locally Lipschitz random function. As the gradient may not exist, it is replaced by a certain operator: a reasonable choice is to use an element of the Clarke subdifferential of the random function; an other choice is the output of the celebrated backpropagation algorithm, which is popular amongst practitioners, and whose properties have recently been studied by Bolte and Pauwels [7]. Since the expectation of the chosen operator is not in general an element of the Clarke subdifferential  $\partial F$  of the mean function, it has been assumed in the literature that an oracle of  $\partial F$  is available. As a first result, it is shown in this paper that such an oracle is not needed for almost all initialization points of the algorithm. Next, in the small step size regime, it is shown that the interpolated trajectory of the algorithm converges in probability (in the compact convergence sense) towards the set of solutions of the differential inclusion  $\dot{x} = -\partial F(x)$ . Finally, viewing the iterates as a Markov chain whose transition kernel is indexed by the step size, it is shown that the invariant distribution of the kernel converge weakly to the set of invariant distribution of this differential inclusion as the step size tends to zero. These results show that when the step size is small, with large probability, the iterates eventually lie in a neighborhood of the critical points of the mean function  $F$ .

**Keywords:** Clarke subdifferential, Backpropagation algorithm, Differential inclusions, Non convex and non smooth optimization, Stochastic approximation.

## 1 Introduction

In this work, we study the asymptotic behavior of the constant step Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) when the objective function is neither differentiable nor convex. Given an integer  $d \geq 1$  and a probability space  $(\Xi, \mathcal{T}, \mu)$ , let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (x, s) \mapsto f(x, s)$  be a function which is assumed to be locally Lipschitz, generally non-differentiable and non-convex in the variable  $x$ , and  $\mu$ -integrable in the variable  $s$ . The goal is to find a local minimum, or at least a critical point of the function  $F(x) = \int f(x, s) \mu(ds) = \mathbb{E}f(x, \cdot)$ , *i.e.*, a point  $x_\star$  such that  $0 \in \partial F(x_\star)$ , where  $\partial F$  is the so-called Clarke subdifferential of  $F$ . It is assumed that the function  $f$  is available to the observer along with a sequence of independent  $\Xi$ -valued random

variables  $(\xi_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  on some probability space with the same probability law  $\mu$ . The function  $F$  itself is assumed unknown due to, *e.g.*, the difficulty of computing the integral  $\mathbb{E}f(x, \cdot)$ . Such non-smooth and non-convex problems are frequently encountered in the field of statistical learning. For instance this type of problem arises in the study of neural networks when the activation function is non-smooth, which is the case of the commonly used ReLU function.

We say that a sequence of random variables  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is a *SGD sequence* with step size  $\gamma > 0$  if, with probability one,

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \quad (1)$$

for every  $n$  such that the function  $f(\cdot, \xi_{n+1})$  is differentiable at point  $x_n$ , where  $\nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$  represents the gradient w.r.t. the variable  $x_n$ . When  $f(\cdot, \xi_{n+1})$  is non-differentiable at  $x_n$ , the update equation  $x_n \rightarrow x_{n+1}$  is left undefined. The practitioner is free to choose the value of  $x_{n+1}$  according to a predetermined selection policy. Typically, a reasonable choice is to select  $x_{n+1}$  in the set  $x_n - \gamma \partial f(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$ , where  $\partial f(x, s)$  represents the Clarke subdifferential of the function  $f(\cdot, s)$  at the point  $x$ . When such a policy is used, the resulting sequence will be referred to as a *Clarke-SGD* sequence. A second option used by practitioners is to compute the derivative using the automatic differentiation provided in popular API's such as Tensorflow, PyTorch, etc. *i.e.*, for all  $n$ ,

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma a_{f(\cdot, \xi_{n+1})}(x_n) \quad (2)$$

where  $a_h$  stands for the output of the automatic differentiation applied to a function  $h$ . We refer to such a sequence as an *autograd* sequence. This approach is useful when  $f(\cdot, s)$  is a composition of matrix multiplications and non-linear activation functions, of the form

$$f(x, s) = \ell(\sigma_L(W_L \sigma_{L-1}(W_{L-1} \cdots \sigma_1(W_1 X_s))), Y_s),$$

where  $x = (W_1, \dots, W_L)$  are the weights of the network represented by a finite sequence of  $L$  matrices,  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_L$  are vector-valued functions,  $X_s$  is a feature vector,  $Y_s$  is a label and  $\ell(\cdot, \cdot)$  is some loss function. In such a case, the automatic differentiation is computed using the chain rule of function differentiation, by means of the celebrated backpropagation algorithm. When the mappings  $\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_L, \ell(\cdot, Y_s)$  are differentiable, the chain rule indeed applies and the output coincides with the gradient. However, the chain rule fails in case of non-differentiable functions. The properties of the map  $a_h$  are studied in the recent work [7]. In general,  $a_h(x)$  may not be an element of the Clarke-subdifferential  $\partial h(x)$ . It can even happen that  $a_h(x) \neq \nabla h(x)$  at some points  $x$  where  $h$  is differentiable. However, the set of such peculiar points is proved to be Lebesgue negligible. As a consequence, if the initial point  $x_0$  is chosen random according to some density w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure, an autograd sequence can be shown to be a SGD sequence in the sense of Eq. (1) under some conditions.

The aim of this paper is to analyze the asymptotic behavior of SGD sequences in the case where the step  $\gamma$  is constant.

**About the literature.** In two recent papers [17] and [10], a closely related algorithm is analyzed under the assumption that the step size is vanishing, *i.e.*,  $\gamma$  is replaced with a sequence  $(\gamma_n)$  that tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . From a theoretical point of view, the vanishing step size is convenient because, under various assumptions, it allows to demonstrate the almost sure convergence of the iterates  $x_n$  to the set

$$S := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : 0 \in \partial F(x)\} \quad (3)$$

of critical points of  $F$ . However, in practical applications such as neural nets, a vanishing step size is rarely used because of slow convergence issues. In most computational frameworks, a possibly small but nevertheless constant step size is used by default. The price to pay is that the iterates are no longer expected to converge almost surely to the set  $S$  but to fluctuate in the vicinity of  $S$  as  $n$  is large. In this paper, we aim at establishing a result of the type

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{d}(x_n, S) > \varepsilon) \xrightarrow{\gamma \downarrow 0} 0, \quad (4)$$

where  $\mathbf{d}$  is the Euclidean distance between  $x_n$  and the set  $S$ . Although this result is weaker than in the vanishing step case, constant step stochastic algorithms can reach a neighborhood of  $S$  faster than their decreasing step analogues, which is an important advantage in the applications where the accuracy of the estimates is not essential. Moreover, in practice they are able to cope with non stationary or slowly changing environments which are frequently encountered in signal processing, and possibly track a changing set of solutions [5, 15].

The second difference between the present paper and the papers [17] and [10] lies in the algorithm under study. In [17, 10], the iterates are supposed to satisfy the inclusion

$$\frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\gamma_{n+1}} \in -\partial F(x_n) + \eta_{n+1} \quad (5)$$

for all  $n$ , where  $(\eta_n)$  is a martingale increment noise w.r.t. the filtration  $(\sigma(x_0, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n))_{n \geq 1}$ . Under the assumption that  $\gamma_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the authors of [17, 10] prove that almost surely, the continuous time linearly interpolated process constructed from a sequence  $(x_n)$  satisfying (5) is a so-called asymptotic pseudotrajectory [4] of the Differential Inclusion (DI)

$$\dot{x}(t) \in -\partial F(x(t)), \quad (6)$$

that will be defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+ = [0, \infty)$ . Heuristically, this means that a sequence  $(x_n)$  satisfying (5) shadows a solution to (6) as  $n$  tends to infinity. This result is one of the key ingredients to establish the almost sure convergence of  $x_n$  to the set  $S$ . Unfortunately, a SGD sequence does not satisfy the condition (5) in general (setting apart the fact that  $\gamma$  is constant). To be more precise, consider a Clarke-SGD sequence as defined above. For all  $n$ ,  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \partial f(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$ , which in turn implies

$$\frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\gamma} \in -\mathbb{E} \partial f(x_n, \cdot) + \eta_{n+1},$$

where  $(\eta_n)$  is a martingale increment noise sequence, and where  $\mathbb{E} \partial f(x, \cdot)$  represents the set-valued expectation  $\int \partial f(x, s) d\mu(s)$ . The above inclusion is analogous to (5) in the case where  $\partial F(x) = \mathbb{E} \partial f(x, \cdot)$  for all  $x$  i.e., if one can interchange the expectation  $\mathbb{E}$  and the Clarke subdifferential operator  $\partial$ . Although the interchange holds if e.g., the functions  $f(\cdot, s)$  are convex (in which case  $\partial f(x, s)$  would coincide with the classical convex subdifferential), one has in general  $\partial \mathbb{E} f(x, \cdot) \subset \mathbb{E} \partial f(x, \cdot)$  and the inclusion can be strict [9, Proposition 2.2.2]. As a consequence, a Clarke-SGD sequence does not admit the oracle form (5) in general. For such a sequence, the corresponding DI reads

$$\dot{x}(t) \in -\mathbb{E} \partial f(x(t), \cdot), \quad (7)$$

but unfortunately, the flow of this DI may contain spurious equilibria (an example is provided in the paper). In [17] the authors restrict their analysis to *regular* functions [9, §2.4], for

which the interchange of the expectation and the subdifferentiation applies. However, this assumption can be restrictive, since a function as simple as  $-|x|$  is not regular at the critical point zero.

A second example where the oracle form Eq. (5) does not hold is given by autograd sequences. Such an example is studied in [7], assuming that the step size is vanishing and that  $\xi$  takes its values over a finite set. It is proved that, the autograd sequence is an almost sure asymptotic pseudotrajectory of the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -D(x(t))$ , for some set-valued map  $D$  which is shown to be a *conservative* field with  $F$  as a potential. Properties of conservative fields are studied in [7]. In particular, it is proved that  $D = \{\nabla f\}$  Lebesgue almost everywhere. Despite this property, the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -D(x(t))$  substantially differs from (6). In particular, the set of equilibria may be strictly larger than the set  $S$  of critical points of  $F$ .

## Contributions

- We analyze the SGD algorithm (1) in the non-smooth, non-convex setting, under realistic assumptions: the step size is assumed to be constant along the iterations, and we do not assume the regularity of the functions involved or the knowledge of an oracle of  $\partial F$  as in (5). Our assumptions encompass Clarke SGD sequences and autograd sequences as special cases.
- Under mild conditions, we prove that when the initialization  $x_0$  is randomly chosen with a density, all SGD sequences coincide almost surely, irrespective to the particular selection policy used at the points of non-differentiability. In this case,  $x_n$  almost never hits a non-differentiable point of  $f(\cdot, \xi_{n+1})$  and Eq. (1) actually holds for all  $n$ . Moreover, we prove that

$$\frac{x_{n+1} - x_n}{\gamma} = -\nabla F(x_n) + \eta_{n+1},$$

where  $(\eta_n)$  is a martingale difference sequence, and  $\nabla F(x_n)$  is the true gradient of  $F$  at  $x_n$ . This argument allows to bypass the oracle assumption of [17, 10].

- We establish that the continuous process obtained by piecewise affine interpolation of  $(x_n)$  is a *weak asymptotic pseudotrajectory* of the DI (6). In other words, the interpolated process converges in probability to the set of solutions to the DI, as  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ , for the metric of uniform convergence on compact intervals.
- We establish the long run convergence of the iterates  $x_n$  to the set  $S$  of Clarke critical points of  $F$ , in the sense of Eq. (4). This result holds under two main assumptions. First, it assumed that  $F$  admits a chain rule, which is satisfied for instance if  $F$  is a so-called tame function. Second, we assume a standard drift condition on the Markov chain (1). Finally, we provide verifiable conditions of the functions  $f(\cdot, s)$  under which the drift condition holds.

## Paper organization

Section 2 recalls some known facts about Clarke subdifferentials, conservative fields and differential inclusions. In Section 3, we study the elementary properties of almost-everywhere gradient functions, defined as the functions  $\varphi(x, s)$  which coincide with  $\nabla f(x, s)$  almost everywhere. Practical examples are provided. In Section 4, we study the elementary properties

of SGD sequences. Section 5 establishes the convergence in probability of the interpolated process to the set of solutions to the DI. In Section 6, we establish the long run convergence of the iterates to the set of Clarke critical points. Section 7 is devoted to the proofs.

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notations

If  $\nu, \nu'$  are two measures on some measurable space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ ,  $\nu \ll \nu'$  means that  $\nu$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t.  $\nu'$ . The  $\nu$ -completion of  $\mathcal{F}$  is defined as the sigma-algebra consisting of the sets  $S \subset \Omega$  such that there exist  $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$  with  $A \subset S \subset B$  and  $\nu(B \setminus A) = 0$ . For these sets,  $\nu(S) = \nu(A)$ .

If  $E$  is a metric space, we denote by  $\mathcal{B}(E)$  the Borel sigma field on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Let  $d$  be an integer. We denote by  $\mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  the set of probability measures on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and by  $\mathcal{M}_1(\mathbb{R}^d) := \{\nu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) : \int \|x\| \nu(dx) < \infty\}$ . For a subset  $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ , we denote by

$$\mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathcal{K}) := \{\nu \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d) : \nu \ll \lambda \text{ and } \text{supp}(\nu) \subset \mathcal{K}\},$$

where  $\text{supp}(\nu)$  represents the support of  $\nu$ , and  $\lambda$  is the Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . If  $P$  is a Markov kernel on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a measurable function,  $Pg$  represents the function on  $\mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by  $Pg(x) = \int P(x, dy)g(y)$ , whenever the integral is well defined. For every measure  $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we denote by  $\pi P$  the measure given by  $\pi P = \int \pi(dx)P(x, \cdot)$ . We use the notation  $\pi(g) = \int g d\pi$  whenever the integral is well defined.

For every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $r > 0$ ,  $B(x, r)$  is the open Euclidean ball with center  $x$  and radius  $r$ . The notation  $\mathbb{1}_A$  stands for the indicator function of a set  $A$ , equal to one on that set and to zero otherwise. The notation  $A^c$  represents the complementary set of a set  $A$ .

### 2.2 Clarke Subdifferential and Conservative Fields

A set valued map  $H : \mathbb{R}^d \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$  is a map such that for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $H(x)$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . For any function  $F : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , we denote by  $\mathcal{D}_F$  the set of points  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $F$  is differentiable at  $x$ . If  $F$  is locally Lipschitz continuous, it is by Rademacher's theorem almost everywhere differentiable. In this case, the Clarke's subdifferential of  $F$  coincides with the set-valued map  $\partial F : \mathbb{R}^d \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$  given for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  by

$$\partial F(x) = \text{co} \left\{ y \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in \mathcal{D}_F^{\mathbb{N}} \text{ s.t. } (x_n, \nabla F(x_n)) \rightarrow (x, y) \right\},$$

where  $\text{co}$  stands for the convex hull [9].

We now briefly review some recent results of [7]. A set-valued map  $D : \mathbb{R}^d \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$  is called a *conservative field*, if for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $D(x)$  is a nonempty and compact subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $D$  has a closed graph, and for each absolutely continuous  $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ , with  $a(0) = a(1)$ , it holds that:

$$\int_0^1 \min_{v \in D(a(t))} \langle \dot{a}(t), v \rangle dt = \int_0^1 \max_{v \in D(a(t))} \langle \dot{a}(t), v \rangle dt = 0.$$

We say that a function  $F : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a *potential* for the conservative field  $D$  if for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and every absolutely continuous  $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ , with  $a(0) = 0$  and  $a(1) = x$ ,

$$F(x) = F(0) + \int_0^1 \min_{v \in D(a(t))} \langle \dot{a}(t), v \rangle dt. \quad (8)$$

In this case, such a function  $F$  is locally Lipschitz continuous, and for every absolutely continuous curve  $a : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ , the function  $t \mapsto F(a(t))$  satisfies for almost every  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\frac{d}{dt}F(a(t)) = \langle v, \dot{a}(t) \rangle \quad (\forall v \in D(a(t))),$$

that is to say,  $F$  admits a “chain rule” [7, Lemma 2]. Moreover, by [7, Theorem 1], it holds that  $D = \{\nabla F\}$  Lebesgue almost everywhere.

We say that a function  $F$  is *path differentiable* if there exists a conservative field  $D$  such that  $F$  is a potential for  $D$ . If  $F$  is path differentiable, then the Clarke subdifferential  $\partial F$  is a conservative field for the potential  $F$  [7, Corollary 2]. Another useful example of a conservative field for composite functions is the automatic differentiation field [7, Section 5]. A broad class of functions used in optimization are path differentiable, e.g. any convex, concave, regular or tame. A tame function is a function defined in some o-minimal structure ([21]), they enjoy some nice stability properties such as any elementary operation on them remain tame (e.g. composition, sum, inverse). The domain  $f$  of a tame function admits a so-called Whitney stratification, that is to say a collection of manifolds  $(S_i)$  on each of which  $f$  is smooth with the additional property that the various gradients fit well together (see [8] for more details). The exponential and the logarithm are tame, as well as any semialgebraic function, an interested reader can find more on tameness and its usefulness in optimization in [13], and more details in [21], [8] and [10].

## 2.3 Differential Inclusions

We endow the set of continuous function from  $\mathbb{R}_+$  to  $\mathbb{R}^d$  with the metric of uniform convergence on compact intervals of  $\mathbb{R}_+$ :

$$d_C(x, y) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{N}} 2^{-n} \left( 1 \wedge \sup_{t \in [0, n]} \|x(t) - y(t)\| \right) \quad (9)$$

Given a set valued map  $H : \mathbb{R}^d \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$ , we say that  $x : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$  is a solution of the differential inclusion

$$\dot{x}(t) \in H(x(t)) \quad (10)$$

with initial condition  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , if  $x$  is absolutely continuous,  $x(0) = x_0$  and (10) holds for almost every  $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ . We denote by  $\Phi_H : E \rightrightarrows C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d)$  the set-valued mapping such that for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\Phi_H(a)$  is set of solutions of (10) with  $x_0 = a$ . We refer to  $\Phi_H$  as the evolution system induced by  $H$ . For every subset  $A \subset E$ , we define  $\Phi_H(A) = \bigcup_{a \in A} \Phi_H(a)$ .

If a map  $H$  has nonempty values we will say that it is upper semicontinuous if the graph of  $H$ ,  $\{(x, y) : y \in H(x)\}$ , is closed. In the case where  $H$  is upper semicontinuous with compact and convex values and satisfies the condition

$$\exists K \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \sup\{\|v\| : v \in H(x)\} \leq K(1 + \|x\|) \quad (11)$$

then  $\Phi_H(a)$  is non empty for each  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and moreover,  $\Phi_H(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is closed in the metric space  $(C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d), d_C)$  [2]. The Clarke subdifferential of a locally Lipschitz function is upper semicontinuous set valued map with nonempty compact convex values [9, Chap. 3].



### 3 Almost-Everywhere Gradient Functions

#### 3.1 Definition

Let  $(\Xi, \mathcal{T}, \mu)$  be a probability space, where the  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{T}$  is  $\mu$ -complete. Let  $d > 0$  be an integer. Consider a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We denote by  $\Delta_f := \{(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi : x \in \mathcal{D}_{f(\cdot, s)}\}$  the set of points  $(x, s)$  s.t.  $f(\cdot, s)$  is differentiable at  $x$ . We denote by  $\nabla f(x, s)$  the gradient of  $f(\cdot, s)$  at  $x$ , whenever it exists.

The following technical lemma, whose proof is provided in Section 7.1, is essential.

**Lemma 1.** *Assume that  $f$  is  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$ -measurable and that  $f(\cdot, s)$  is continuous for every  $s \in \Xi$ . Then  $\Delta_f \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$ , and the function  $\varphi_0 : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  defined as*

$$\varphi_0(x, s) = \begin{cases} \nabla f(x, s) & \text{if } (x, s) \in \Delta_f \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

*is  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$ -measurable. Moreover, if  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz continuous for every  $s \in \Xi$ , then  $(\lambda \otimes \mu)(\Delta_f^c) = 0$ .*

Thanks to this lemma, the following definition makes sense.

**Definition 1.** *Assume that  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz continuous for every  $s \in \Xi$ . A function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is called an almost everywhere (a.e.)-gradient of  $f$  if  $\varphi = \nabla f \lambda \otimes \mu$ -almost everywhere.*

By Lemma 1, we observe that a.e.-gradients exist, since  $(\lambda \otimes \mu)(\Delta_f^c) = 0$ . Note that in Definition 1, we do not assume that  $\varphi$  is  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T} / \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ -measurable. The reason is that this property is not always easy to check on practical examples. However, if one denotes by  $\overline{\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}}$  the  $\lambda \otimes \mu$  completion of the  $\sigma$ -field  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$ , an immediate consequence of Lemma 1 is that any a.e.-gradient of  $f$  is a  $\overline{\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}} / \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ -measurable function.

#### 3.2 Examples

**Lazy gradient function.** The function  $\varphi_0$  given by Eq. (12) is an a.e. gradient function.

**Clarke gradient function.** We shall refer to as a Clarke gradient function as any function  $\varphi(x, s)$  such that

$$\begin{cases} \varphi(x, s) = \nabla f(x, s) & \text{if } (x, s) \in \Delta_f, \\ \varphi(x, s) \in \partial f(x, s) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

Note that the inclusion  $\varphi(x, s) \in \partial f(x, s)$  obviously holds for *all*  $(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi$ , because  $\nabla f(x, s)$  is an element of  $\partial f(x, s)$  when the former exists. However, conversely, a function  $\psi(x, s) \in \partial f(x, s)$  does not necessarily satisfy  $\psi(x, s) = \nabla f(x, s)$  if  $(x, s) \in \Delta_f$  (see the footnote<sup>1</sup>). By construction, a Clarke gradient function is an a.e. gradient function.

#### Selections of conservative fields.

<sup>1</sup>If a locally Lipschitz function  $g$  is differentiable at a point  $x$ , we have  $\{\nabla g(x)\} \subset \partial g(x)$  but the inclusion could be strict (the two sets are equal if  $g$  is regular at  $x$ ): for example,  $g(x) = x^2 \sin(1/x)$  is s.t.  $\nabla g(0) = 0$  and  $\partial g(0) = [-1, 1]$ . There even exist functions for which the set of  $x$  s.t.  $\{\nabla g(x)\} \subsetneq \partial g(x)$  is a set of full measure (see [16, Proposition 1.9]).



**Proposition 1.** Assume that for every  $s \in \Xi$ ,  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz, path differentiable, and is a potential of some conservative field  $D_s : \mathbb{R}^d \rightrightarrows \mathbb{R}^d$ . Consider a function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  which is  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T} / \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  measurable and satisfies  $\varphi(x, s) \in D_s(x)$  for all  $(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi$ . Then,  $\varphi$  is an a.e. gradient function for  $f$ .

*Proof.* Define  $A := \{(x, s) \text{ s.t. } \varphi(x, s) \neq \nabla f(x, s)\}$ . Applying Fubini's theorem we have:

$$\int 1_A(z) \lambda \otimes \mu(dz) = \int \int 1_A((x, s)) \lambda(dx) \mu(ds) = 0,$$

where the last equality comes from the fact that for every  $s$ ,  $D_s = \{\nabla f(\cdot, s)\}$   $\lambda$ -a.e. [7, Theorem 1].  $\square$

We provide below an application of Proposition 1.

**Autograd function.** Automatic differentiation deals with functions that can be expressed as a closed formula of simple functions. Such a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  can be represented by a directed graph. More formally define a directed graph with  $q$  vertices ( $q > d$ ), through a set-valued function  $\mathbf{parents}(i) \subset \{1, \dots, i-1\}$ , a directed edge in this setting will be  $j \rightarrow i$  with  $j \in \mathbf{parents}(i)$ . Associate to each vertex a simple function  $g_i : \mathbb{R}^{|\mathbf{parents}(i)|} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and given an input  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbb{R}^d$  we recursively define  $x_i = g((x_j)_{j \in \mathbf{parents}(i)})$  for  $i > d$  and  $f(x) = x_q$ . A concrete example would be  $f$  a cross entropy loss of a neural network with activation functions being ReLu or sigmoid functions, in which case  $g_i$  would be compositions of simple functions **log**, **exp**,  $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ , norms and piecewise polynomial functions, all being path differentiable [7, section 6], [10, Section 5.2]. Automatic differentiation libraries calculate the gradient of  $f$  by successively applying the chain rule (in the sense  $(g_1 \circ g_2)' = (g_1' \circ g_2)g_2'$ ) to the simple functions  $g_i$ . While the chain rule is no longer valid in a nonsmooth setting (see e.g. [14]), it is shown in [7, Section 5] that when the simple functions are path-differentiable, the output of automatic differentiation (e.g. **autograd** in PyTorch ([19])) is a selection of some conservative field  $D$  for  $f$ . We refer to [7] for a more detailed account. We denote by  $a_f(x)$  the output of automatic differentiation of a function  $f$  at some point  $x$ .

Assume that  $\Xi = \mathbb{N}$  and for each  $s \in \Xi$ ,  $f(\cdot, s)$  is defined through a recursive graph of path differentiable functions (in the machine learning paradigm  $f(\cdot, s)$  will represent the loss related to one data point, while  $F(\cdot)$  is the average loss). By Proposition 1, the map  $(x, s) \mapsto a_{f(\cdot, s)}(x)$  is an a.e. gradient function for  $f$ .

## 4 SGD Sequences

### 4.1 Definition

Given a probability measure  $\nu$  on  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , define the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}^\nu)$  as  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi^\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ , and  $\mathbb{P}^\nu = \nu \otimes \mu^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ . We denote by  $(x_0, (\xi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*})$  the canonical process on  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  i.e., writing an elementary event in the space  $\Omega$  as  $\omega = (\omega_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , we set  $x_0(\omega) = \omega_0$  and  $\xi_n(\omega) = \omega_n$  for each  $n \geq 1$ . Under  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$ ,  $x_0$  is a  $\mathbb{R}^d$ -valued random variable with the probability distribution  $\nu$ , and the process  $(\xi_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$  is an independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) process such that the distribution of  $\xi_1$  is  $\mu$ , and  $x_0$  and  $(\xi_n)$  are independent. We denote by  $\overline{\mathcal{F}}$  the  $\lambda \otimes \mu^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ -completion of  $\mathcal{F}$ .

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T} / \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ -measurable function.

**Definition 2.** Assume that  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz continuous for every  $s \in \Xi$ . A sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$  of functions on  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  is called an SGD sequence for  $f$  with the step  $\gamma > 0$  if there exists an a.e.-gradient  $\varphi$  of  $f$  such that

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \varphi(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \quad (\forall n \geq 0).$$

## 4.2 All SGD Sequences Are Almost Surely Equal

Consider the SGD sequence

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \varphi_0(x_n, \xi_{n+1}), \quad (14)$$

generated by the lazy a.e. gradient  $\varphi_0$ . Denote by  $P_\gamma : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow [0, 1]$  the kernel of the homogeneous Markov process defined by this equation, which exists thanks to the  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$ -measurability of  $\varphi_0$ . This kernel is defined by the fact that its action on a measurable function  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ , denoted as  $P_\gamma g(\cdot)$ , is

$$P_\gamma g(x) = \int g(x - \gamma \varphi_0(x, s)) \mu(ds). \quad (15)$$

Define  $\Gamma$  as the set of all steps  $\gamma > 0$  such that  $P_\gamma$  maps  $\mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  into itself:

$$\Gamma := \{\gamma \in (0, +\infty) : \forall \rho \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathbb{R}^d), \rho P_\gamma \ll \lambda\}.$$

**Proposition 2.** Consider  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  and  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ . Then, each SGD sequence  $(x_n)$  with the step  $\gamma$  is  $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ -measurable. Moreover, for any two SGD sequences  $(x_n)$  and  $(x'_n)$  with the step  $\gamma$ , it holds that  $\mathbb{P}^\nu[(x_n) \neq (x'_n)] = 0$ . Finally, the probability distribution of  $x_n$  under  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$  is Lebesgue-absolutely continuous for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Note that  $\mathbb{P}^\nu \ll \lambda \otimes \mu^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$  since  $\nu \ll \lambda$ . Thus, the probability  $\mathbb{P}^\nu[(x_n) \neq (x'_n)]$  is well-defined as an integral w.r.t.  $\lambda \otimes \mu^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $(x_n)$  be the lazy SGD sequence given by (14). Given an a.e. gradient  $\varphi$ , define the SGD sequence  $(z_n)$  as  $z_0 = x_0$ ,  $z_{n+1} = z_n - \gamma \varphi(z_n, \xi_{n+1})$  for  $n \geq 0$ . The sequence  $(x_n)$  is  $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ -measurable thanks to Lemma 1. Moreover, applying recursively the property that  $\rho P_\gamma \ll \lambda$  when  $\rho \ll \lambda$ , we obtain that the distribution of  $x_n$  is absolutely continuous for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

To establish the proposition, it suffices to show that  $z_n$  is  $\mathcal{F}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ -measurable for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and that  $\mathbb{P}^\nu[z_n \neq x_n] = 0$ , which results in particular in the absolute continuity of the distribution of  $z_n$ . We shall prove these two properties by induction on  $n$ . They are trivial for  $n = 0$ . Assume they are true for  $n$ . Recall that  $z_{n+1} = z_n - \gamma \nabla f(z_n, \xi_{n+1})$  if  $(z_n, \xi_{n+1}) \in A$ , where  $A \in \overline{\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}}$  is such that  $(\lambda \otimes \mu)(A^c) = 0$ , and  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \mathbb{1}_{(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \in \Delta_f}$ . The set  $B = \{\omega \in \Omega : z_{n+1} \neq x_{n+1}\}$  satisfies  $B \subset B_1 \cup B_2$ , where

$$B_1 = \{\omega \in \Omega : z_n \neq x_n\} \quad \text{and} \quad B_2 = \{\omega \in \Omega : (z_n, \xi_{n+1}) \notin A\}.$$

By induction,  $B_1 \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathbb{P}^\nu(B_1) = 0$ . By the aforementioned properties of  $A$ , the  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurability of  $z_n$ , and the absolute continuity of its distribution, we also obtain that  $B_2 \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathbb{P}^\nu(B_2) = 0$ . Thus,  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  and  $\mathbb{P}^\nu(B) = 0$ , and since  $x_{n+1}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable,  $z_{n+1}$  is  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable.  $\square$

Proposition 2 means that the SGD sequence does not depend on the specific a.e. gradient used by the practitioner, provided that the law of  $x_0$  has a density and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ . Note that the conclusions of Proposition 2 cannot hold in general for *all*  $\gamma > 0$ . Consider for instance  $d = 1$  and suppose that  $f(x, s) = 0.5x^2$  for all  $s$ . If  $\gamma = 1$ , the SGD sequence  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma x_n$  satisfies  $x_1 = 0$  for any initial point and thus, does not admit a density, whereas for any other value of  $\gamma$ ,  $x_n$  has a density for all  $n$ , provided that  $x_0$  has a density. Otherwise stated,  $1 \notin \Gamma$  in this example. Nevertheless, the next proposition shows that, under mild conditions, almost all steps  $\gamma$  belong to  $\Gamma$ . The proof is given in 7.2.

**Proposition 3.** *Assume that for  $\mu$ -almost every  $s \in \Xi$ , the function  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz and  $C^2$  at  $\lambda$ -almost every point of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Then,  $\Gamma^c$  is Lebesgue negligible.*

This assumption holds true as soon as for  $\mu$ -almost all  $s$ ,  $f(\cdot, s)$  is tame, since in this case  $\mathbb{R}^d$  can be partitioned in manifolds on each of which  $f(\cdot, s)$  is  $C^2$  ([8]), and therefore  $f(\cdot, s)$  is  $C^2$  (in the classical sense) on the union of manifolds of full dimension, and therefore almost everywhere.

### 4.3 SGD as a Robbins-Monro Algorithm

We make the following assumption on the function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

**Assumption 1.** *i) There exists a measurable function  $\kappa : \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  s.t. for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\int \kappa(x, s) \mu(ds) < \infty$  and there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  for which*

$$\forall y, z \in B(x, \varepsilon), \forall s \in \Xi, |f(y, s) - f(z, s)| \leq \kappa(x, s) \|y - z\|.$$

*ii) There exists  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $f(x, \cdot)$  is  $\mu$ -integrable.*

By this assumption,  $f(x, \cdot)$  is  $\mu$ -integrable for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and the function

$$F : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto \int f(x, s) \mu(ds) \quad (16)$$

is locally Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . We denote by  $S$  the set of (Clarke) critical points of  $F$ , as defined in Eq. (3).

Let  $(\mathcal{F}_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be the filtration  $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(x_0, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)$ . We denote by  $\mathbb{E}_n = \mathbb{E}[\cdot | \mathcal{F}_n]$  the conditional expectation w.r.t.  $\mathcal{F}_n$ , where  $\overline{\mathcal{F}}_n$ , stands for the  $\lambda \otimes \mu^{\mathbb{N}}$ -completion of  $\mathcal{F}_n$ .

**Theorem 1.** *Let Assumption 1 holds true. Consider  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  and  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathbb{R}^d) \cap \mathcal{M}_1(\mathbb{R}^d)$ . Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$  be a SGD sequence for  $f$  with the step  $\gamma$ . Then, for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , it holds  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$ -a.e. that*

- i)  $F$ ,  $f(\cdot, \xi_{n+1})$  and  $f(\cdot, s)$  (for  $\mu$ -almost every  $s$ ) are differentiable at  $x_n$ .*
- ii)  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$ .*
- iii)  $\mathbb{E}_n[x_{n+1}] = x_n - \gamma \nabla F(x_n)$ .*

Theorem 1 is important because it shows that  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$ -a.e., the SGD sequence  $(x_n)$  verifies

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \nabla F(x_n) + \gamma \eta_{n+1}$$

for some random sequence  $(\eta_n)$  which is a martingale difference sequence adapted to  $(\overline{\mathcal{F}}_n)$ .

## 5 Dynamical Behavior

### 5.1 Assumptions and Result

In this section we prove that the SGD sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$  (which is by Theorem 1, under the stated assumptions, unique) closely follows a trajectory of a solution to the DI (6) as the step size  $\gamma$  tends to zero. To state the main result of this section, we need to strengthen Assumption 1.

**Assumption 2.** *The function  $\kappa$  of Assumption 1 satisfies:*

- i) *There exists a constant  $K \geq 0$  s.t.  $\int \kappa(x, s) \mu(ds) \leq K(1 + \|x\|)$  for all  $x$ .*
- ii) *For each compact set  $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\sup_{x \in \mathcal{K}} \int \kappa(x, s)^2 \mu(ds) < \infty$ .*

The first point guarantees the existence of global solutions to (6) starting from any initial point (see Section 2.3).

**Assumption 3.** *The closure of  $\Gamma$  contains 0.*

By Proposition 3, Assumption 3 is mild. It holds for instance if every  $f(\cdot, s)$  is a tame function.

We recall that  $\Phi_{-\partial F}(A)$  is the set of solutions to (6) that start from any point in the set  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ .

**Theorem 2.** *Let Assumptions 1–3 hold true. Let  $\{(x_n^\gamma)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*} : \gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]\}$  be a collection of SGD sequences of steps  $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]$ . Denote by  $\mathbf{x}^\gamma$  the piecewise affine interpolated process*

$$\mathbf{x}^\gamma(t) = x_n^\gamma + (t/\gamma - n)(x_{n+1}^\gamma - x_n^\gamma) \quad (\forall t \in [n\gamma, (n+1)\gamma)).$$

*Then, for every compact set  $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ ,*

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \lim_{\substack{\gamma \rightarrow 0 \\ \gamma \in \Gamma}} \left( \sup_{\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathcal{K})} \mathbb{P}^\nu(\mathbf{d}_C(\mathbf{x}^\gamma, \Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathcal{K})) > \varepsilon) \right) = 0,$$

*where the distance  $\mathbf{d}_C$  is defined in (9). Moreover, the family of distributions  $\{\mathbb{P}^\nu(\mathbf{x}^\gamma)^{-1} : \nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathcal{K}), 0 < \gamma < \gamma_0, \gamma \in \Gamma\}$  is tight.*

The proof is given in Section 7.4.

Theorem 2 implies that the interpolated process  $\mathbf{x}^\gamma$  converges in probability as  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$  to the set of solutions to (6). Moreover, the convergence is uniform w.r.t. to the choice of the initial distribution  $\nu$  in the set of absolutely continuous measures supported by a given compact set.

### 5.2 Importance of the Randomization of $x_0$

In this paragraph, we discuss the case where  $x_0$  is no longer random, but set to an arbitrary point in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . In this case, there is no longer any guarantee that the iterates  $x_n$  only hit the points where a gradient exist. We focus on the case where  $(x_n)$  is a Clarke-SGD sequence of the form (13), where the function  $\varphi$  is assumed  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}/\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  measurable for simplicity. By Assumption 1, it is not difficult to see that  $\varphi(x, \cdot)$  is  $\mu$ -integrable for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and,

denoting by  $\mathbb{E}(\varphi(x, \cdot))$  the corresponding integral w.r.t.  $\mu$ , we can rewrite the iterates under the form:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \mathbb{E}\varphi(x_n, \cdot) + \gamma \eta_{n+1},$$

where  $\eta_{n+1} = \mathbb{E}[\varphi(x_n, \cdot)] - \varphi(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$  is a martingale difference sequence for the filtration  $(\mathcal{F}_n)$ . Obviously,  $\mathbb{E}\varphi(x, \cdot) \in \mathbb{E}\partial f(x, \cdot)$ . As said in the introduction, we need  $\mathbb{E}\varphi(x, \cdot)$  to belong to  $\partial F(x)$  in order to make sure that the algorithm trajectory shadows the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -\partial F(x(t))$ . Unfortunately, the inclusion  $\partial F(x) \subset \mathbb{E}\partial f(x, \cdot)$  can be strict, which can result in the fact that the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -\mathbb{E}\partial f(x(t), \cdot)$  generates spurious trajectories that converge to spurious zeroes. The following example, which can be easily adapted to an arbitrary dimension, shows a case where this phenomenon happens.

**Example 1.** Take a finite probability space  $\Xi = \{1, 2\}$  and  $\mu(\{1\}) = \mu(\{2\}) = 1/2$ . Let  $f(x, 1) = 2x\mathbb{1}_{x \leq 0}$  and  $f(x, 2) = 2x\mathbb{1}_{x \geq 0}$ . We have  $F(x) = x$ , and therefore  $\partial F(0) = \{1\}$ , whereas  $\partial f(0, 1) = \partial f(0, 2) = [0, 2]$  and therefore  $\int \partial f(0, s)\mu(ds) = [0, 1]$ . We see that  $0 \in \mathbb{E}\partial f(0, \cdot)$  while  $0 \notin \partial F(0)$ . Furthermore, the trajectory defined on  $\mathbb{R}_+$  as

$$x(t) = \begin{cases} 1-t & \text{for } t \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{for } t > 1 \end{cases}, \quad x(0) = 1,$$

is a solution to the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -\mathbb{E}\partial f(x(t), \cdot)$ , but not to the DI  $\dot{x}(t) \in -\partial F(x(t))$ .

## 6 Long Run Convergence

### 6.1 Assumptions and Result

As discussed in the introduction, the SGD sequence  $(x_n)$  is not expected to converge in probability to  $S$  when the step is constant. Instead, we shall establish the convergence (4). The “long run” convergence referred to here is understood in this sense.

In all this section, we shall focus on the lazy SGD sequences described by Eq. (14). This incurs no loss of generality, since any two SGD sequences are equal  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$ -a.e. by Proposition 2 as long as  $\nu \ll \lambda$ . Our starting point is to see the process  $(x_n)$  as a Markov process which kernel  $P_\gamma$  is defined by Eq. (15). Our first task is to establish the ergodicity of this Markov process under the convenient assumptions. Namely, we show that  $P_\gamma$  has a unique invariant probability measure  $\pi_\gamma$ , i.e.,  $\pi_\gamma P_\gamma = \pi_\gamma$ , and that  $\|P_\gamma^n(x, \cdot) - \pi_\gamma\|_{\text{TV}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , where  $\|\cdot\|_{\text{TV}}$  is the total variation norm. Further, we need to show that the family of invariant distributions  $\{\pi_\gamma\}_{\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]}$  for a certain  $\gamma_0 > 0$  is tight. The long run behavior referred to above is then intimately connected with the properties of the accumulation points of this family as  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$ . To study these properties, we get back to the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  induced by the DI  $\dot{x} \in -\partial F(x)$  (we recall that a concise account of the notions relative to these dynamical systems and needed in this paper is provided in Section 2.3). The crucial point here is to show, with the help of Theorem 2, that the accumulation points of  $\{\pi_\gamma\}$  as  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$  are invariant measures for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ . In its original form, this idea dates back to the work of Has'minskiĭ [12]. We observe here that while the notion of invariant measure for a single-valued semiflow induced by, say, an ordinary differential equation, is classical, it is probably less known in the case of the set-valued evolution systems, such as  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ . We borrow it from the work of Roth and Sandholm [20].

Having shown that the accumulation points of  $\{\pi_\gamma\}$  are invariant for  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ , the final step of the proof is to make use of Poincaré's recurrence theorem, that asserts that the invariant

measures of a semiflow are supported by the so-called Birkhoff center of this semiflow (again, a set-valued version of Poincaré's recurrence theorem is provided in [3, 11]). To establish the convergence (4), it remains to show that the Birkhoff center of  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  coincides with  $S = \text{zer } \partial F$ . The natural assumption that ensures the identity of these two sets will be that  $F$  admits a chain rule [9, 8, 10].

Our assumption regarding the behavior of the Markov kernels  $P_\gamma$  reads as follows.

**Assumption 4.** *There exist measurable functions  $V : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ ,  $p : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ ,  $\alpha : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow (0, +\infty)$  and a constant  $C \geq 0$  s.t. the following holds for every  $\gamma \in \Gamma \cap (0, \gamma_0]$ .*

i) *There exists  $R > 0$  and a positive Borel measure  $\rho$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  ( $R, \rho$  possibly depending on  $\gamma$ ) such that*

$$\forall x \in \overline{B}(0, R), \forall A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d), P_\gamma(x, A) \geq \rho(A).$$

ii)  *$\sup_{\overline{B}(0, R)} V < \infty$  and  $\inf_{B(0, R)^c} p > 0$ . Moreover, for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,*

$$P_\gamma V(x) \leq V(x) - \alpha(\gamma)p(x) + C\alpha(\gamma)\mathbb{1}_{\|x\| \leq R}. \quad (17)$$

iii) *The function  $p(x)$  converges to infinity as  $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ .*

Assumptions of this type are frequently encountered in the field of Markov chains. Assumption 4-(i) states that  $\overline{B}(0, R)$  is a so-called small set for the kernel  $P_\gamma$ , and Assumption 4-(ii) is a standard drift assumption. Taken together, they ensure that the kernel  $P_\gamma$  is a so-called Harris-recurrent kernel, that it admits a unique invariant probability distribution  $\pi_\gamma$ , and finally, that this kernel is ergodic in the sense that  $\|P_\gamma(x, \cdot) - \pi_\gamma\|_{\text{TV}} \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (see [18]). The introduction of the factors  $\alpha(\gamma)$  and  $C\alpha(\gamma)$  in Eq. (17) guarantees moreover the tightness of the family  $\{\pi_\gamma\}_{\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]}$ .

In Section 6.2, we provide sufficient and verifiable conditions ensuring the validity of Assumption 4.

**Assumption 5.** *The function  $F$  defined by (16) admits a chain rule, namely, for any absolutely continuous curve  $z : \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ , for almost all  $t > 0$ ,  $\forall v \in \partial F(z(t))$ ,  $\langle v, \dot{z}(t) \rangle = (F \circ z)'(t)$ .*

Assumption 5 is satisfied as soon as  $F$  is path-differentiable, for instance when  $F$  is either convex, regular, Whitney stratifiable or tame (see [7, Proposition 1] and [8, 10]).

**Theorem 3.** *Let Assumptions 1-5 hold true. Let  $\{(x_n^\gamma)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^*} : \gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]\}$  be a collection of SGD sequences of step-size  $\gamma$ . Then, the set  $S = \{x : 0 \in \partial F(x)\}$  is nonempty and for all  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{\text{abs}}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,*

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}^\nu(\mathbf{d}(x_n^\gamma, S) > \varepsilon) \xrightarrow[\gamma \in \Gamma]{\gamma \rightarrow 0} 0. \quad (18)$$

## 6.2 The Validity of Assumption 4

In this paragraph, we provide sufficient conditions under which Assumption 4 holds true. We start with Assumption 4-(i).

**Proposition 4.** *Given  $R > 0$ , assume that for each  $x \in \overline{B}(0, R)$ , the image of  $\mu$  by  $\varphi_0(x, \cdot)$  has an absolutely continuous component with the density  $g_x$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . Assume furthermore that there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that*

$$\inf_{x \in \overline{B}(0, R)} \inf_{v \in \overline{B}(0, (R+1)/\gamma)} g_x(v) \geq \varepsilon.$$

*Then, Assumption 4-(i) is satisfied with the same  $R$ , and with  $\rho(A) = (\varepsilon/\gamma) \lambda(A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1))$ .*

Another simple way to ensure the truth of Assumption 4-(i) is to add a small random perturbation to the function  $\varphi_0(x, s)$ . Formally, we modify the algorithm described by Eq. (14), and write

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \gamma \varphi_0(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) + \gamma \epsilon_{n+1},$$

where  $(\epsilon_n)$  is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables, independent from  $\{x_0, (\xi_n)\}$ , and such that the distribution of  $\epsilon_1$  has a continuous and positive density on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . The Gaussian case  $\epsilon_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, aI_d)$  where  $a > 0$  is some small variance is of course a typical example of such a perturbation. Consider a fixed  $\gamma$  and denote by  $\tilde{P}$  the Markov kernel induced by this equation.

**Proposition 5.** *Let Assumption 2 hold true. Then, for each  $R > 0$ , there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that*

$$\forall x \in \overline{B}(0, R), \forall A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d), \tilde{P}(x, A) \geq \varepsilon \lambda(A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)).$$

*Thus, Assumption 4-(i) is satisfied for the kernel  $\tilde{P}$ .*

We now turn to the assumptions 4-(ii) and 4-(iii):

**Proposition 6.** *Assume that there exists  $R \geq 0$ ,  $C > 0$ , and a measurable function  $\beta : \Xi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$  such that the following conditions hold:*

- i) For every  $s \in \Xi$ , the function  $f(\cdot, s)$  is differentiable outside the ball  $\overline{B}(0, R)$ . Moreover, for each  $x, x' \notin \overline{B}(0, R)$ ,  $\|\nabla f(x, s) - \nabla f(x', s)\| \leq \beta(s)\|x - x'\|$  and  $\int \beta^2 d\mu < \infty$ .*
- ii) For all  $x \notin \overline{B}(0, R)$ ,  $\int \|\nabla f(x, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \leq C(1 + \|\nabla F(x)\|^2)$ .*
- iii)  $\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow \infty} \|\nabla F(x)\| = +\infty$ .*
- iv) Function  $F$  is lower bounded i.e.,  $\inf F > -\infty$ .*

*Then, it holds that*

$$P_\gamma F(x) \leq F(x) - \gamma(1 - \gamma K) \mathbb{1}_{\|x\| > 2R} \|\nabla F(x)\|^2 + \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x\| > 2R} + \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x\| \leq 2R} \quad (19)$$

*for some constant  $K > 0$ . In particular, Assumptions 4-(ii) and 4-(iii) hold true.*

We finally observe that this proposition can be easily adapted to the case where the kernel  $P_\gamma$  is replaced with the kernel  $\tilde{P}$  of Proposition 5.



## 7 Proofs

### 7.1 Proof of Lemma 1

By definition,  $(x, s) \in \Delta_f$  means that there exists  $d_x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  (the gradient) s.t.  $f(x + h, s) = f(x, s) + \langle d_x, h \rangle + o(\|h\|)$ . That is to say  $(x, s)$  belongs to the set:

$$\bigcap_{\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Q}} \bigcup_{\delta \in \mathbb{Q}} \bigcap_{0 < \|h\| \leq \delta} \left\{ (y, s) : \left| \frac{f(y + h, s) - f(y, s) - \langle d_x, h \rangle}{\|h\|} \right| < \varepsilon \right\}. \quad (20)$$

In addition, using that  $f(\cdot, s)$  is continuous, the above set is unchanged if the inner intersection over  $0 < \|h\| \leq \delta$  is replaced by an intersection over the  $h$  s.t.  $0 < \|h\| \leq \delta$  and having *rational* coordinates *i.e.*,  $h \in \mathbb{Q}^d$ . Define:

$$\Delta'_f := \bigcap_{\varepsilon' \in \mathbb{Q}} \bigcup_{d \in \mathbb{Q}^d} \bigcap_{\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Q}} \bigcup_{\delta \in \mathbb{Q}} \bigcap_{\substack{0 < \|h\| \leq \delta \\ h \in \mathbb{Q}^d}} \left\{ (x, s) : \left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d, h \rangle}{\|h\|} \right| < \varepsilon + \varepsilon' \right\} \quad (21)$$

By construction,  $\Delta'_f$  is a measurable set. We prove that  $\Delta'_f = \Delta_f$ . Consider  $(x, s) \in \Delta_f$  and let  $d_x$  be the gradient of  $f(\cdot, s)$  at  $x$ . By (20) for all  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{Q}$ , there is a  $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that:

$$(x, s) \in \bigcap_{h \leq \delta, h \in \mathbb{Q}^d} \left\{ \left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d_x, h \rangle}{h} \right| < \varepsilon \right\}$$

For any  $\varepsilon' > 0$ , choose  $d' \in \mathbb{Q}^d$  such that  $\|d' - d_x\| \leq \varepsilon'$ . Using the previous inclusion, for all  $\varepsilon$ , there exists therefore  $\delta \in \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.

$$(x, s) \in \bigcap_{h \leq \delta, h \in \mathbb{Q}^d} \left\{ \left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d_q, h \rangle}{h} \right| < \varepsilon + \varepsilon' \right\}$$

which means  $\Delta_f \subset \Delta'_f$ . To show the converse, consider  $(x, s) \in \Delta'_f$ . Let  $(\varepsilon'_k)$  be a positive sequence of rationals converging to zero. By definition, for every  $k$ , there exists  $d_k \in \mathbb{Q}^d$  s.t. for all  $\varepsilon$ , there exists  $\delta_k(\varepsilon)$ , s.t. for all (rational)  $h \leq \delta_k(\varepsilon)$ ,

$$\left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d_k, h \rangle}{h} \right| < \varepsilon + \varepsilon'_k. \quad (22)$$

Moreover, one may choose  $\delta_k(\varepsilon) \leq \delta_0(\varepsilon)$ . Inspecting first the inequality (22) for  $k = 0$ , we easily obtain that the quantity  $\frac{f(x+h,s)-f(x,s)}{h}$  is bounded uniformly in  $h$  s.t.  $0 < \|h\| \leq \delta_0(\varepsilon)$ . Using this observation and again Eq. (22), this in turn implies that  $(d_k)$  is a bounded sequence. There exists  $d \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and s.t.  $d_k \rightarrow d$  along some extracted subsequence. Now consider  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose  $k$  such that  $\|d_k - d\| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  and  $\varepsilon'_k < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . For all  $h \leq \delta_k(\varepsilon/2)$ ,

$$\left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d, h \rangle}{h} \right| \leq \left| \frac{f(x + h, s) - f(x, s) - \langle d_k, h \rangle}{h} \right| + \|d - d_k\| < \varepsilon$$

This means that  $d$  is the gradient of  $f(\cdot, s)$  at  $x$ , hence  $\Delta'_f \subset \Delta_f$ . Hence, the first point of the Lemma 1 is proved.

Denoting as  $e_i$  the  $i^{\text{th}}$  canonical vector of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , the  $i^{\text{th}}$ -component  $[\varphi_0]_i$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  of the function  $\varphi_0$  is given as

$$[\varphi_0(x, s)]_i = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + te_i, s) - f(x, s)}{t} \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s),$$

and the measurability of  $\varphi_0$  follows from the measurability of  $f$  and the measurability of  $\mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}$ .

Finally, assume that  $f(\cdot, s)$  is locally Lipschitz continuous for every  $s \in \Xi$ . From Rademacher's theorem [9, Ch. 3],  $f(\cdot, s)$  is almost everywhere differentiable, which reads  $\int (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s)) \lambda(dx) = 0$ . Using Fubini's theorem,  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi} (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s)) \lambda(dx) \otimes \mu(ds) = 0$ , and the last point is proved.

## 7.2 Proof of Proposition 3

The idea of the proof is to show that for almost every  $\gamma$  and  $s$  we have that  $g_{s,\gamma}(x) := (x - \gamma \nabla f(x, s)) \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s)$  is almost everywhere a local diffeomorphism.

In order to prove that we define for each  $(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \Xi$  the pseudo-hessian  $\mathcal{H}(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  as

$$\mathcal{H}(x, s)_{i,j} = \limsup_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\langle \nabla f(x + te_j, s) \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x + te_j, s) - \nabla f(x, s), e_i \rangle}{t} \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s).$$

Since it is a limit of measurable functions,  $\mathcal{H}$  is  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T}$  measurable, and if  $f(\cdot, s)$  is two times differentiable at  $x$  then  $\mathcal{H}(x, s)$  is just the ordinary hessian. Now we define  $l(x, s, \gamma) = \det(\gamma \mathcal{H}(x, s) - \text{Id})$  if every entry in  $\mathcal{H}(x, s)$  is finite, and  $l(x, s, \gamma) = 1$  otherwise, it is a  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \otimes \mathcal{T} \otimes \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}_+)$  measurable function (as a sum of two measurable functions). By the inverse function theorem we have that if  $f(\cdot, s)$  is  $C^2$  at  $x$  and if  $\det(\gamma \mathcal{H}(x, s) - \text{Id}) \neq 0$ , then  $g_{s,\gamma}(\cdot)$  is a local diffeomorphism at  $x$ . Therefore  $l(x, s, \gamma) \neq 0$  implies either the latter or  $f(\cdot, s)$  is not  $C^2$  at  $x$  (or both).

Let  $\lambda_d, \lambda_1$  denote Lebesgue measures respectively on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\mathbb{R}_+$ , we have by Fubini's theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mathbb{1}_{l(x,s,\gamma)=0} \lambda_d(dx) \otimes \mu(ds) \otimes \lambda_1(d\gamma) &= \int \lambda_d \otimes \mu(\{(x, s) : l(x, s, \gamma) = 0\}) \lambda_1(d\gamma) \\ &= \int \int \int \mathbb{1}_{l(x,s,\gamma)=0} \lambda_1(d\gamma) \lambda_d(dx) \mu(ds) \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

where the last equality comes from the fact that for  $(x, s)$  fixed  $l(x, s, \gamma) = 0$  only if  $1/\gamma$  is in the spectrum of  $\mathcal{H}(x, s)$  which is finite. Therefore we have a  $\Gamma$  a set of full measure in  $\mathbb{R}_+$  such that for  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  we have  $\lambda_d \otimes \mu(\{(x, s) : l(x, s, \gamma) = 0\}) = 0$ . Once again applying Fubini's theorem we get that for almost every  $s \in \Xi$  we have  $\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(\cdot)$  is a local diffeomorphism at  $x\}$  is of  $\lambda_d$ -full measure (since for each  $s$ ,  $f(\cdot, s)$  is almost everywhere  $C^2$ ). Finally, for  $A \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  and  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we have

$$\nu P_\gamma(A) = \nu \otimes \mu(\{(x, s) : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\}) \leq \lambda_d \otimes \mu(\{(x, s) : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\}),$$

and by Fubini's theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_d \otimes \mu(\{(x, s) : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\}) &= \int \lambda_d(\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\}) \mu(ds) \\ &= \int \lambda_d(\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A \text{ and } f(\cdot, s) \text{ is } C^2 \text{ at } x\}) \mu(ds) \\ &= \int \lambda_d(\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A \text{ and } g_{s,\gamma}(\cdot) \text{ is a local diffeomorphism at } x\}) \mu(ds). \end{aligned}$$

Now by separability of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  there is a countable family of open neighborhoods  $(V_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  such that for any open set  $O$  we have  $O = \bigcup_{j \in J} V_j$ . The set of  $x$  where  $g(\cdot, s, \gamma)$  is a local diffeomorphism is an open set, hence

$$\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A \text{ and } g_{s,\gamma}(\cdot) \text{ is a local diffeomorphism at } x\} = \bigcup_{i \in I} V_i \cap \{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\}.$$

Since an image of a null set by a diffeomorphism is a null set we have

$$\lambda_d(\{x : g_{s,\gamma}(x) \in A\} \cap V_i) = 0.$$

Hence,  $\nu P_\gamma(A) = 0$ , which proves our claim.

### 7.3 Proof of Theorem 1

Take  $\nu \ll \lambda$  and a SGD sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ , let  $S_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  be the set of  $x$  for which  $\nabla f(x, s)$  exists for  $\mu$ -almost every  $s$ , *i.e.*,

$$S_1 := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^d : \int_{\Xi} (1 - \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s)) \mu(ds) = 0 \right\}.$$

When Assumption 1 holds, Rademacher's theorem, lemma 1 and Fubini's theorem imply that  $S_1 \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  and  $\lambda(\mathbb{R}^d \setminus S_1) = 0$ . Hence for  $\mu$ -a.e.  $s$  we have  $f(\cdot, s)$  differentiable at  $x_0$ , and since  $\xi_1 \sim \mu$ ,  $f(\cdot, \xi_1)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$ . Now by Rademacher's theorem again, the set  $S_2 \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  where  $F$  is differentiable satisfies  $\lambda(\mathbb{R}^d \setminus S_2) = 0$ , therefore  $F$  is differentiable at  $x_0$ . Moreover with probability one  $x_0$  is in  $S_1 \cap S_2$ . Define  $A(x) := \{s \in \Xi : (x, s) \notin \Delta_f\}$ . By Assumption 1,  $\|\nabla f(x, \cdot)\|$  is  $\mu$ -integrable. Moreover, for all  $x \in S_1 \cap S_2$  and all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$\begin{aligned} \left\langle \int \nabla f(x, s) \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s) \mu(ds), v \right\rangle &= \int_{\Xi \setminus A(x)} \langle \nabla f(x, s), v \rangle \mu(ds) \\ &= \int_{\Xi \setminus A(x)} \lim_{t \in \mathbb{R}^* \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + tv, s) - f(x, s)}{t} \mu(ds) \\ &= \lim_{t \in \mathbb{R}^* \rightarrow 0} \int_{\Xi} \frac{f(x + tv, s) - f(x, s)}{t} \mu(ds) \\ &= \lim_{t \in \mathbb{R}^* \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x + tv) - F(x)}{t} = \langle \nabla F(x), v \rangle \end{aligned}$$

where the interchange between the limit and the integral follows from Assumption 1 and the dominated convergence theorem. Hence,  $\nabla F(x) = \int \nabla f(x, s) \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x, s) \mu(ds)$  for all  $x \in S_1 \cap S_2$ . Now denote by  $\nu_n$  the law of  $x_n$ . Since we assumed that  $\nu_0 \ll \lambda$ , it holds that  $\mathbb{P}^\nu(x_0 \in S_1 \cap S_2) = 1$ . Therefore, with probability one,

$$x_1 = x_1 \mathbb{1}_{S_1 \cap S_2}(x_0) = (x_0 - \gamma \nabla f(x_0, \xi_1)) \mathbb{1}_{S_1 \cap S_2}(x_0) = x_0 - \gamma \nabla f(x_0, \xi_1).$$

Thus,  $x_1$  is integrable whenever  $x_0$  is integrable, and  $\mathbb{E}_0(x_1) = x_0 - \gamma \nabla F(x_0)$ . Since by Assumption  $\nu_1 \ll \lambda$  we can iterate our argument for  $x_2$  and then for all  $x_n$  and the conclusions of Theorem 1 follow.

## 7.4 Proof of Theorem 2

We want to apply [6, Theorem 5.1.], and therefore verify its assumptions [6, Assumption RM]. In order to fall in its setting we first need to rewrite our kernel in a more appropriate way. As  $\partial F$  takes nonempty compact values, it admits a measurable selection  $\varphi(x) \in \partial F(x)$  [1, Lemma 18.2 and Corollary 18.15]. Take  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ , a SGD sequence  $(x_n^\gamma)$  and notice that by Theorem 1 it is  $\mathbb{P}^\nu$  almost surely always in  $\mathcal{D}_F \cap S_1$ , where  $S_1$  is the set of  $x$  where  $\nabla f(x, s)$  exists for  $\mu$ -a.e.  $s$ . Therefore its Markov kernel can be equivalently defined as:

$$P'_\gamma(x, g) := \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{D}_F \cap S_1}(x)P_\gamma(x, g) + \mathbb{1}_{(\mathcal{D}_F \cap S_1)^c}(x)g(x - \gamma\varphi(x)).$$

Now we can apply [6, Theorem 5.1.] with  $h_\gamma(s, x) = -(\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{D}_F \cap S_1}(x)\nabla F(x) + \mathbb{1}_{(\mathcal{D}_F \cap S_1)^c}(x)\varphi(x))$  (notice that it is independent of  $s$ ) and we have  $h(x, s) \in H(x, s) = H(x) := -\partial F(x)$ . As we show next, [6, Assumption RM] now easily follows.

First, it is immediate from the general properties of the Clarke subdifferential that the set-valued map  $-\partial F$  is proper and uppersemicontinuous with convex and compact values, hence the assumption (iii) of [6, Assumption RM]. Assumption (ii) is immediate by the uppersemicontinuity of  $-\partial F$ . Moreover, we obtain from Assumption 2 that there exists a constant  $K \geq 0$  such that

$$\|\partial F(x)\| \leq K(1 + \|x\|).$$

Thus,  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is defined on the whole  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is closed in  $(C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d), \mathbf{d})$  (see [2]), hence assumption (v). Finally assumption (vi) comes from Assumption 2.

We remark that although, [6, Theorem 5.1] deals with a family of measures  $(\mathbb{P}^a)_{a \in \mathcal{K}}$ , the proofs remain unchanged when we consider  $(\mathbb{P}^\nu)_{\nu \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(\mathcal{K})}$ .

## 7.5 Proof of Theorem 3

This proof will be done in three steps:

- Lemma 2:  $P_\gamma$  has a unique invariant probability distribution  $\pi_\gamma$  which is Lebesgue-absolutely continuous, and  $P_\gamma$  is ergodic in the sense of the Total Variation norm.
- Lemma 3: The family  $\{\pi_\gamma\}_{\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]}$  is tight.
- Proposition 8: The accumulation points of  $\{\pi_\gamma\}_{\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]}$  as  $\gamma \rightarrow 0$  are invariant for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ .

Before stating Lemma 2, we recall a general result on Markov processes. Let  $Q : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow [0, 1]$  be a Markov kernel on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . A set  $B \subset \mathbb{R}^d$  is said a small-set for the kernel  $Q$  if there exists a positive measure  $\rho$  on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $Q(x, A) \geq \rho(A)$  for each  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ ,  $x \in B$ .

**Proposition 7.** *Assume that  $B$  is a small set for  $Q$ . Furthermore, assume that there exists a measurable function  $W : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  that is defined on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and bounded on  $B$ , and a real number  $b \geq 0$ , such that*

$$QW \leq W - 1 + b\mathbb{1}_B. \quad (23)$$

*Then,  $Q$  admits a unique invariant probability distribution  $\pi$ , and moreover, the ergodicity result*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \|Q^n(x, \cdot) - \pi\|_{TV} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 \quad (24)$$

*holds true.*

Indeed, by [18, Th. 11.3.4], the kernel  $Q$  is a so-called positive Harris recurrent, meaning among others that it has a unique invariant probability distribution. Moreover,  $Q$  is aperiodic, hence the convergence (24), as shown by, e.g., [18, Th. 13.0.1].

**Lemma 2.** *Under Assumptions 4-(i) and 4-(ii), for every  $\gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]$ , the kernel  $P_\gamma$  admits a unique invariant measure  $\pi_\gamma$ . Moreover,*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \|P_\gamma^n(x, \cdot) - \pi_\gamma\|_{TV} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 0. \quad (25)$$

Finally, if let the Assumptions of Theorem 1 hold true and  $\gamma \in \Gamma$  then  $\pi_\gamma$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure.

*Proof.* By the inequality (17), the kernel  $P_\gamma$  satisfies an inequality of the type (23), namely,  $P_\gamma V \leq V - \alpha(\gamma)\theta + C\alpha(\gamma)\mathbb{1}_{\|x\| \leq R}$ , for some  $\theta, C > 0$ , hence the first two statements.

To prove that  $\pi_\gamma$  is absolutely continuous w.r.t. the Lebesgue measure, consider a  $\lambda$ -null set  $A$ . By the convergence (25), we obtain that for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $P_\gamma^n(x, A) \rightarrow \pi_\gamma(A)$ . Now take  $\nu \ll \lambda$ . By Theorem 1, we have that  $\nu P_\gamma^n \ll \lambda$ . Hence, by the dominated convergence theorem,

$$0 = \nu P_\gamma^n(A) = \int P_\gamma^n(x, A) \nu(dx) \rightarrow \int \pi_\gamma(A) \nu(dx) = \pi_\gamma(A).$$

□

**Lemma 3.** *Let Assumptions 4-i – 4-(iii) hold true. Let  $\pi_\gamma$  be the invariant distribution of  $P_\gamma$ . Then, the family  $\{\pi_\gamma : \gamma \in (0, \gamma_0]\}$  is tight.*

*Proof.* Iterating (17), we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n P_\gamma^{k+1} V \leq \sum_{k=0}^n P_\gamma^k V - \alpha(\gamma) \sum_{k=0}^n P_\gamma^k p + C(n+1)\alpha(\gamma).$$

Therefore, since  $0 \leq P_\gamma^k V < +\infty$  we have:

$$\alpha(\gamma) \sum_{k=0}^n P_\gamma^k p \leq V + C(n+1)\alpha(\gamma).$$

For a fixed  $M > 0$  we will bound now  $\pi_\gamma(p \wedge M)$ . Since  $\pi_\gamma$  is an invariant distribution for  $P_\gamma$ , we have  $\pi_\gamma P_\gamma^k = \pi_\gamma$ . Hence we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_\gamma(p \wedge M) &= \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n \pi_\gamma P_\gamma^k(p \wedge M) \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \sum_{k=0}^n \pi_\gamma(P_\gamma^k p \wedge M) \\ &\leq \pi_\gamma \left( \left[ \frac{V}{(n+1)\alpha(\gamma)} + C \right] \wedge M \right). \end{aligned}$$

Letting  $n \rightarrow +\infty$ , by the dominated convergence theorem we obtain  $\pi_\gamma(p \wedge M) \leq \pi_\gamma(C \wedge M)$ . And therefore by monotone convergence theorem  $\pi_\gamma(p) \leq C$ .

Fix now  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a  $K > 0$  such that  $\frac{C}{K} \leq \varepsilon$ , and by coercivity of  $p$  there is  $r > 0$  such that:

$$\pi_\gamma(\|x\| > r) \leq \pi_\gamma(p > K) \leq \frac{C}{K}$$

where the last bound comes from Markov's inequality. This concludes the proof. □

The next proposition will show that any accumulation point of  $\pi_\gamma$  is an invariant measure for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ , first we introduce some definitions. Define the shift operator  $\Theta_t : C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d)$  by  $\Theta_t(x) = x(t + \cdot)$ , and the projection operator  $p_0 : C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  by  $p_0(x) = x(0)$ . Then, we have the following definition (see [20] for details):

**Definition 3.** We say that  $\pi \in \mathcal{M}(\mathbb{R}^d)$  is an invariant distribution for the flow  $\Phi_H$ , if there is  $\nu \in \mathcal{M}(C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d))$ , such that:

- i)  $\text{supp } \nu \in \overline{\Phi_H(\mathbb{R}^d)}$ ,
- ii)  $\nu \Theta_t^{-1} = \nu$ ,
- iii)  $\nu p_0^{-1} = \pi$ .

**Proposition 8.** Let Assumptions 1–4 hold true. Denote by  $\pi_\gamma$  the unique invariant distribution of  $P_\gamma$ . Let  $(\gamma_n)$  be a sequence on  $(0, \gamma_0] \cap \Gamma$  s.t.  $\gamma_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $\pi_{\gamma_n}$  converges narrowly to some probability measure  $\pi$ . Then,  $\pi$  is an invariant distribution for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ .

*Proof.* The proof essentially follows [6, section 7.]. Fix an  $\varepsilon > 0$  and write  $\pi_n$  instead of  $\pi_{\gamma_n}$  for simplicity. By Lemma 3 we have a compact  $K$  such that  $\pi_n(K) > 1 - \varepsilon$ , we thus can define the conditional measures  $\pi_n^K(A) := \frac{\pi_n(A \cap K)}{\pi_n(K)}$ . Moreover, we have  $\pi_n^K \in \mathcal{M}_{abs}(K)$ , therefore we can apply Theorem 2 and get that there is a compact set  $\mathcal{C}$  of  $C(\mathbb{R}^+, \mathbb{R}^d)$  such that  $\mathbb{P}^{\pi_n^K, \gamma_n} \mathbf{X}_{\gamma_n}^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \geq 1 - \varepsilon$ . Now we have

$$\mathbb{P}^{\pi_n, \gamma_n}(\cdot) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \mathbb{P}^{a, \gamma_n}(\cdot) \pi_n(da) \geq \int_K \mathbb{P}^{a, \gamma_n}(\cdot) \pi_n(da) \geq \pi_n(K) \mathbb{P}^{\pi_n^K, \gamma_n}(\cdot),$$

hence

$$\mathbb{P}^{\pi_n, \gamma_n} \mathbf{X}_{\gamma_n}^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \geq \pi_n(K) \mathbb{P}^{\pi_n^K, \gamma_n} \mathbf{X}_{\gamma_n}^{-1}(\mathcal{C}) \geq (1 - \varepsilon)^2.$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary this proves the tightness of  $v_n := \mathbb{P}^{\pi_n, \gamma_n} \mathbf{X}_{\gamma_n}^{-1}$ . Take  $\pi_n \rightarrow \pi$  and  $v_n \rightarrow v \in \mathcal{M}(C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d))$ . We now prove that  $v$  is an invariant distribution for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  (see Definition 3.)

We have  $\pi_n = v_n p_0^{-1}$ , by continuity of  $p_0$ . Thus,  $\pi = v p_0^{-1}$ . Therefore, we have (iii) of Definition 3. Let  $\eta > 0$ . By weak convergence of  $v_n$ ,

$$v(\{x \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) : d(x, \Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathbb{R}^d)) \leq \eta\}) \geq \limsup_n v_n(\{x \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) : d(x, \Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathbb{R}^d)) \leq \eta\})$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} v(\{x \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) : d(x, \Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathbb{R}^d)) \leq \eta\}) &\geq v_n(\{x \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) : d(x, \Phi_{-\partial F}(K)) < \eta\}) \\ &\geq \pi_n(K) \mathbb{P}^{\pi_n^K, \gamma_n}(d(\mathbf{X}^{\gamma_n}, \Phi_{-\partial F}(K)) < \eta) \\ &\geq (1 - \varepsilon) \mathbb{P}^{\pi_n^K, \gamma_n}(d(\mathbf{X}^{\gamma_n}, \Phi_{-\partial F}(K)) < \eta). \end{aligned}$$

The last term converges to  $1 - \varepsilon$ , by Theorem 2, and by weak convergence we have  $v(\{x \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d) : d(x, \Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathbb{R}^d)) \geq \eta\}) \geq (1 - \varepsilon)$ , now letting  $\eta \rightarrow 0$ , by monotone convergence we have  $v(\Phi_{-\partial F}(\mathbb{R}^d)) \geq 1 - \varepsilon$  which proves (i) of Definition 3. Finally the second point of Definition 3 is shown just like in [6, section 7.]  $\square$

After some definitions we recall an important result about the support of a flow-invariant measure. The limit set  $L_f$  of a function  $f \in C(\mathbb{R}_+, \mathbb{R}^d)$  is

$$L_f = \bigcap_{t \geq 0} \overline{f([t, \infty))},$$

and the limit set  $L_{\Phi_{-\partial F}(a)}$  of a point  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$  for  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is

$$L_{\Phi_{-\partial F}(a)} = \bigcup_{x \in \Phi_{-\partial F}(a)} L_x.$$

A point  $a \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is said  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ -recurrent if  $a \in L_{\Phi_{-\partial F}(a)}$ . The Birkhoff center  $\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}}$  of  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is the closure of the set of its recurrent points:

$$\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}} = \overline{\left\{ a \in \mathbb{R}^d : a \in L_{\Phi_{-\partial F}(a)} \right\}}.$$

In [11] (see also [3]), a version of Poincaré's recurrence theorem, well-suited for our set-valued evolution systems, was provided:

**Proposition 9.** *Each invariant measure for  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is supported by  $\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}}$ .*

With the help of Proposition 9 we can finally prove Theorem 3.

*Proof.* Take  $\gamma \in \Gamma$ ,  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $(x_n^\gamma)$  an associated SGD sequence. We have by (24):

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}^\nu [\text{dist}(x_n^\gamma, S) > \varepsilon] = \pi_\gamma(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : d(x, S) > \varepsilon\}).$$

Now take any sequence  $\gamma_i \rightarrow 0$  with  $\gamma_i \in \Gamma$ , and  $\pi_{\gamma_i}$  the associated invariant distribution, we know from Lemmas 3-8 that we can extract a subsequence such that  $\pi_{\gamma_i} \rightarrow \pi$ , with  $\pi$  an invariant measure for the evolution system  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$ . Therefore by weak convergence we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{i \rightarrow +\infty} \pi_{\gamma_i}(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : d(x, S) > 2\varepsilon\}) &\leq \lim_{i \rightarrow +\infty} \pi_{\gamma_i}(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : d(x, S) \geq \varepsilon\}) \\ &\leq \pi(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : d(x, S) \geq \varepsilon\}), \end{aligned}$$

where the last line comes from the Portmanteau theorem. We show that  $\text{supp } \pi \subset S$ , and therefore the last term is equal to zero, which concludes the proof. To that end, we make use of Proposition 9, that shows that each invariant measure of  $\Phi_{-\partial F}$  is supported by  $\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}}$ . Thus, it remains to show that  $\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}} = S$  (which at the same time will ensure us that  $S$  is nonempty). It is obvious that  $S \subset \text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}}$ . To show the reverse inclusion, take  $a \in L_{\Phi_{-\partial F}(a)}$ . Then, there exists a solution  $x$  to the differential inclusion such that  $x(0) = a$  and  $a \in L_x$ . But under Assumption 5 it holds ([10, lemma 5.2]) that  $\|\dot{x}(t)\| = \|\partial_0 F(x(t))\|$  almost everywhere, and, moreover,

$$\forall t \geq 0, \quad F(x(t)) - F(x(0)) = - \int_0^t \|\partial_0 F(x(u))\|^2 du.$$

Therefore  $x(t) = a$  for each  $t \geq 0$ , thus,  $a \in S$ . Observing that  $S$  is a closed set (since  $\partial F$  is graph-closed, see [9, Prop. 2.1.5]), we obtain that  $\text{BC}_{\Phi_{-\partial F}} = S$ . □



## 7.6 Proof of Proposition 4

For each  $x \in \overline{B}(0, R)$  and each  $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_\gamma(x, A) &= \mu[s : \varphi_0(x, s) \in \gamma^{-1}(x - A)] \\ &\geq \int_{\gamma^{-1}(x-A)} g_x(u) du = \gamma^{-1} \int_A g_x((x - v)/\gamma) dv \\ &\geq \int_{A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)} g_x((x - v)/\gamma) dv \\ &\geq (\varepsilon/\gamma) \lambda(A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)). \end{aligned}$$

## 7.7 Proof of Proposition 5

Denote as  $\rho$  the probability distribution of the random variable  $\gamma\eta_1$ . By assumption,  $\rho$  has a continuous density that is positive at each point of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . We denote as  $f$  this density. Let  $\theta_x$  be the probability distribution of the random variable  $Z = x - \gamma\varphi_0(x, \xi_1)$ , which is the image of  $\mu$  by the function  $x - \gamma\varphi_0(x, \cdot)$ . Our purpose is to show that

$$\exists \varepsilon > 0, \forall x \in \overline{B}(0, R), \forall A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^d), (\theta_x \otimes \rho)[Z + \gamma\eta_1 \in A] \geq \varepsilon \lambda(A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)).$$

Given  $L > 0$ , we have by Assumption 2 and Markov's inequality that there exists a constant  $K > 0$  such that

$$\theta_x[Z \notin \overline{B}(0, L)] \leq \frac{K}{L}(1 + \|x\|).$$

Thus, taking  $L$  large enough, we obtain that  $\forall x \in \overline{B}(0, R)$ ,  $\theta_x[Z \notin \overline{B}(0, L)] < 1/2$ . Moreover, we can always choose  $\varepsilon > 0$  is such a way that  $f(u) \geq 2\varepsilon$  for  $u \in \overline{B}(0, L+1)$ , by the continuity and the positivity of  $f$  on the compact  $\overline{B}(0, L+1)$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (\theta_x \otimes \rho)[Z + \gamma\eta_1 \in A] &= \int_A du \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \theta_x(dv) f(u - v) \\ &\geq \int_{A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)} du \int_{\overline{B}(0, L)} \theta_x(dv) f(u - v) \\ &\geq 2\varepsilon \int_{A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)} du \int_{\overline{B}(0, L)} \theta_x(dv) \\ &\geq \varepsilon \lambda(A \cap \overline{B}(0, 1)). \end{aligned}$$

## 7.8 Proof of Proposition 6

By Lebourg's mean value theorem [9, Th. 2.4], for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists  $\alpha_n \in [0, 1]$  and  $\zeta_n \in \partial F(u_n)$  with  $u_n = x_n - \alpha_n \gamma \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$ , such that

$$F(x_{n+1}) = F(x_n) - \gamma \langle \zeta_n, \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1}),$$

and the proof of this theorem (see [9, Th. 2.4] again) shows that  $u_n$  can be chosen measurably as a function of  $(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$ .

In the following, for the ease of readability, we make use of shorthand (and abusive) notations of the type  $\mathbb{1}_{\|x\| > 2R} \langle \nabla F(x), \dots \rangle$  to refer to  $\langle \nabla F(x), \dots \rangle$  if  $\|x\| > 2R$  and to zero if

not. We also denote  $\nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1})$  as  $\nabla f_{n+1}$  to shorten the equations. We write

$$\begin{aligned} F(x_{n+1}) &= F(x_n) - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \\ &\quad - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \langle \zeta_n - \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \langle \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

We shall prove that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_n F(x_{n+1}) &\leq F(x_n) - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla F(x_n)\|^2 + \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \\ &\quad + \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \left( (1 + \|\nabla F(x_n)\|) \left( \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \right)^{1/2} + \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \right) \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

where the constant  $K > 0$  is an absolute finite constant that can change from line to line in the derivations below. To that end, we write

$$\begin{aligned} F(x_{n+1}) &= F(x_n) - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} \langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \\ &\quad - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} \langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \\ &\quad - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} \langle \zeta_n - \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \\ &\quad - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} \langle \nabla F(u_n) - \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \\ &\quad - \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \langle \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

We start with the second term at the right hand side of this inequality. Noting from Assumption 2 that

$$\mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} \|\zeta_n\| \leq \sup_{\|x\| \leq R} \|\partial F(x)\| \leq \sup_{\|x\| \leq R} \int \|\partial f(x, s)\| \mu(ds) \leq \sup_{\|x\| \leq R} \int \kappa(x, s) \mu(ds) \leq K,$$

we have

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f(x_n, \xi_{n+1}) \rangle| \leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \|\nabla f_{n+1}\|,$$

and by integrating with respect to  $\xi_{n+1}$  and using Assumption 2 again, we get that

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{E}_n [\mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1})|] \leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R}. \quad (28)$$

Using Assumption 2, the next term at the right hand side of (27) can be bounded as

$$\begin{aligned} &\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1})| \\ &\leq \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} \|\nabla F(u_n)\| \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \\ &\leq \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} K (1 + \|x_n\| + \gamma \|\nabla f_{n+1}\|) \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \\ &\leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} (1 + \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| + \gamma \|\nabla f_{n+1}\|^2), \end{aligned}$$

which leads to

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \mathbb{E}_n [\mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle \mathbb{1}_{\Delta_f}(x_n, \xi_{n+1})|] \leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| \leq 2R} \quad (29)$$

by using Assumption 2.

We tackle the next term at the right hand side of (27). Fix a  $x_\star \notin \overline{B}(0, R)$ . By our assumptions it holds that each  $x \notin \overline{B}(0, R)$ ,

$$\|\nabla f(x, s)\| \leq \|\nabla f(x_\star, s)\| + \beta(s) \|x - x_\star\| \leq \beta'(s) (1 + \|x\|),$$

where  $\beta'(\cdot)$  is square integrable thanks to Assumption 2. Since

$$\int \beta'(s)^2 \mu(ds) = \int_0^\infty \mu[\beta'(\cdot) \geq \sqrt{t}] dt < \infty,$$

it holds that  $\mu[\beta'(\cdot) \geq 1/t] = o_{t \rightarrow 0}(t^2)$ . Using triangle inequality, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} &= \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n - \alpha_n \gamma \nabla f_{n+1}\| \leq R} \leq \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \geq (\|x_n\| - R)/\gamma} \\ &\leq \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\beta'(\xi_{n+1}) \geq \frac{\|x_n\| - R}{\gamma(1 + \|x_n\|)}} \leq \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\beta'(\xi_{n+1}) \geq \frac{R}{\gamma(1 + 2R)}}. \end{aligned}$$

Using this result, we write

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle| &\leq K \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \\ &\leq K \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \mathbb{1}_{\beta'(\xi_{n+1}) \geq \frac{R}{\gamma(1 + 2R)}} \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{E}_n [\mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \zeta_n, \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle|] &\leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \left( \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \right)^{1/2} \mu[\beta'(\cdot) \geq K/\gamma]^{1/2} \\ &\leq \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \left( \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \right)^{1/2}. \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

Similarly,

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle| \leq \gamma K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla F(x_n)\| \|\nabla f_{n+1}\| \mathbb{1}_{\beta'(\xi_{n+1}) \geq \frac{R}{\gamma(1 + 2R)}},$$

thus,

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{E}_n [\mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| \leq R} |\langle \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle|] \leq \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla F(x_n)\| \left( \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds) \right)^{1/2}. \quad (31)$$

We have that  $\nabla F$  is Lipschitz outside  $\overline{B}(0, R)$ . Thus, the next to last term at the right hand side of (27) satisfies

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} |\langle \nabla F(u_n) - \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle| \leq \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla f_{n+1}\|^2,$$

and we get that

$$\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{1}_{\|u_n\| > R} \mathbb{E}_n [|\langle \nabla F(u_n) - \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle|] \leq \gamma^2 K \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \int \|\nabla f(x_n, s)\|^2 \mu(ds). \quad (32)$$

Finally, we have

$$-\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \mathbb{E}_n [\langle \nabla F(x_n), \nabla f_{n+1} \rangle] = -\gamma \mathbb{1}_{\|x_n\| > 2R} \|\nabla F(x_n)\|^2. \quad (33)$$

Inequalities (28)–(33) lead to (26).

Using Assumption (iii) of Proposition 6, Inequality (26) leads to Inequality (19). The validity of Assumptions 4-(ii) and 4-(iii) can then be checked easily.

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