

Training diagonal linear networks  
Semester project report

Salim Najib  
Supervised by Antoine Bodin and Nicolas Macris

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# Introduction

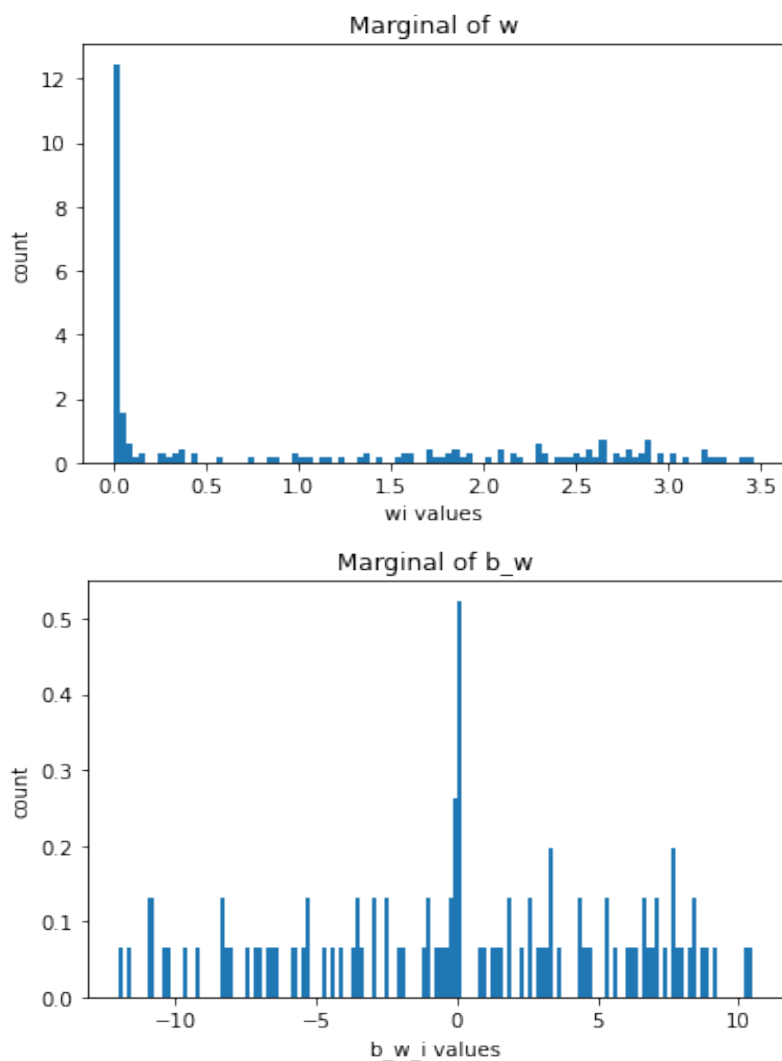
Diagonal linear networks are a toy model that has been studied to uncover phenomena taking place in larger neural networks. In this project, motivated by [1] we have sequentially studied - or tried to study - the sparsity of the parameters obtained through stochastic gradient descent training, the impact of the structure and norm of the initialization vector, and finally we have reached a related result in what we have called perturbed linear regression.

# Chapter 1

## Sparsity of SGD solution

This chapter is based on numerical computation, thus we defer the reader's attention to the associated notebook `diagonal_networks.ipynb`, link: [https://github.com/Dicedead/diagonalNetworksProject/blob/main/diagonal\\_networks.ipynb](https://github.com/Dicedead/diagonalNetworksProject/blob/main/diagonal_networks.ipynb) where the diagonal linear neural network model has been implemented - it is thus defined there.

Here, we will simply plot the obtained marginals of SGD solutions:



The sparsity discussed by [1] is numerically observed. However, getting a closed form for the marginal of  $\beta_w$  in full generality proved to be an intractable problem. Therefore, in the next section, we will look at a more specific case.

## Chapter 2

# Characterizing initialization's impact on test error for the kernel regime

### 2.1 Introduction, setup and goals

We set out to study least squares interpolation, motivated by [2] and by findings in the kernel regime of [1]. Indeed, in the latter paper, when the initialization hyperparameter  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$  and we take  $\beta_0 = (\alpha)_{i \in [1..d]}$ ,  $\beta_\infty^\alpha = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta=y}} \phi_{\alpha_\infty}(\beta) \rightarrow \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta=y}} \frac{1}{16\alpha^2} \|\beta\|_2^2$ , because  $\alpha_\infty \rightarrow \alpha$ , which simplifies to minimum  $l_2$  norm least squares:

$$\beta_\alpha^\infty = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta=y}} \|\beta\|_2^2$$

But what happens when  $\beta_0$  is not a vector with constant coefficients? Do we improve the training and test errors by choosing  $\beta_0$  not to be constant, but rather, for example, split into two constant halves?

The setup is the following. Assume we are given  $n$  samples  $x_1, \dots, x_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} P_x$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\beta^* \sim P_{\beta^*}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , such that the distribution  $P_{\beta^*}$  has mean  $0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and covariance matrix  $\Sigma = I_d \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ , and  $P_x = \mathcal{N}_d(0, I_d)$ .  $\beta^*$  and  $x_i$  are independent  $\forall i \in [1..n]$ . In the following, we may restrict either or both distributions to become Gaussian  $\mathcal{N}(0, I_d)$ .

Then, we define  $y_i = x_i^T \beta^* + \epsilon_i$ ,  $\forall i \in [1..n]$  where  $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} P_\epsilon$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  a distribution with mean  $0 \in \mathbb{R}$  which are independent from  $\beta^*$  and all  $x_i$ .

Now, we estimate  $\beta^*$  using least-squares linear regression *with **weighted** minimum  $l_2$  norm*, and our interest lies especially in the over-parameterized case where  $d > n$ . That is, denoting this estimate by  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ :

$$\beta = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta=y}} \beta^T \Lambda \beta$$

where the equation  $X\beta = y$  is understood in the least squares sense, and:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}, \quad \Lambda = \text{diag}\left(\frac{1}{\alpha^2}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\alpha_1^2} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha_2^2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha_d^2} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \text{ with } \alpha \in (\mathbb{R}_+^*)^d.$$

Define the training and test errors:

$$R^{\text{train}} = \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|X\beta - y\|_2^2]$$

$$R^{\text{test}} = \mathbb{E}_{x, \beta^*} [(x^T(\beta - \beta^*))^2]$$

where  $x \sim P_x$  is independent from  $\beta^*$ .

In the following, we also set  $\alpha$  as the concatenation of potentially differently sized vectors with total

dimensionality  $d$ , with  $q \in \llbracket 0..d \rrbracket$  and  $\gamma = \frac{q}{d}$ :

$$\alpha = \left( \underbrace{\alpha_1}_{[1, d\gamma]} \mid \underbrace{\alpha_2}_{[d\gamma+1, d]} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Observe that without loss of generality, by factoring by  $\alpha_2^{-2}$  in  $\beta\Lambda\beta^*$ , it is sufficient to consider the case where  $\alpha_2 = 1$  and  $\alpha_1 \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$ .

Now, the hope is to obtain an expression for each of  $R^{\text{train}}$  and  $R^{\text{test}}$  and show that they depend only on  $\gamma, \alpha_1$  and  $\frac{n}{d}$ .

## 2.2 Noiseless case

Assume  $P_\epsilon$  has variance 0  $\in \mathbb{R}$ , that is:  $\forall i \in \llbracket 1..n \rrbracket y_i = x_i^T \beta^*$ , thus  $y = X\beta^*$ . Then the training error simplifies to:

$$R^{\text{train}} = \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|X(\beta - \beta^*)\|_2^2]$$

and the feasible set of the optimization also simplifies:

$$\beta = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \beta^T \Lambda \beta$$

since this time, the equation  $X\beta = X\beta^*$  has at least one solution,  $\beta^*$ , and is thus no longer a linear system in the least squares sense.

It will be useful to denote  $\beta = A\beta^*$  for some matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ , that (trivially) always exists, and its properties will be made more precise later.

We can thus greatly simplify the expression of  $R^{\text{test}}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} R^{\text{test}} &= \mathbb{E}_{x, \beta^*} [(x^T(\beta - \beta^*))^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\mathbb{E}_x [(x^T(\beta - \beta^*))^2 \mid \beta^*]] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\mathbb{E}_x [(\beta - \beta^*)^T x x^T (\beta - \beta^*)]] && \text{using independence of } x \text{ and } \beta^* \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [(\beta - \beta^*)^T \mathbb{E}_x [x x^T] (\beta - \beta^*)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [(\beta - \beta^*)^T (\beta - \beta^*)] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|\beta - \beta^*\|_2^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|(A - I_d)\beta^*\|_2^2] \\ &= \text{Tr}((A - I_d)^T \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\beta^* \beta^{*T}] (A - I_d)) \\ &= \text{Tr}((A - I_d)^T (A - I_d)) && \text{which equals } \|A - I_d\|_F^2 \\ R^{\text{test}} &= \text{Tr}(A^T A) + \text{Tr}(I_d) - 2\text{Tr}(A) \end{aligned}$$

A case studied with greater generality in [2] (Theorem 1, page 10) is when  $\alpha_1 = 1 = \alpha_2$ , and thus  $\Lambda = I_d$ . In that case, the optimization problem  $\beta = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \beta^T \beta$  is simply the least squares problem with

minimum  $l_2$  norm, and setting  $p = \frac{d}{n}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} A &= (X^T X)^+ X^T X \\ \beta &= (X^T X)^+ X^T X \beta^* \\ R^{\text{test}} &= \begin{cases} \frac{p}{1-p} & \text{if } p < 1 \\ \frac{1}{p-1} & \text{if } p > 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

We can now try to reduce the more general case where  $\alpha_1 := \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_+^*$  to this special case, by considering block matrices. Recall that we had set  $\alpha_2 = 1$  without loss of generality, since one can consider  $\alpha = \frac{\alpha_1}{\alpha_2}$

equivalently. It may be useful to remember that  $\alpha$  is equal to the ratio of the two chosen initialisation values.

$$\begin{aligned}
\beta &= \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \beta^T \Lambda \beta \\
&= \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \beta^T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \frac{1}{\alpha^2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \beta \\
&= \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \sum_{i=1}^{d\gamma} \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \beta_i^2 + \sum_{i=d\gamma+1}^d \beta_i^2 \\
&= \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \|\beta_{[1, d\gamma]}\|_2^2 + \|\beta_{[d\gamma+1, d]}\|_2^2
\end{aligned}$$

For concision, denote  $s_d = [1, d\gamma]$  and  $e_d = [d\gamma + 1, d]$ , thus  $\beta_{[1, d\gamma]}$  by  $\beta_{s_d}$  ( $s$  for start) and  $\beta_{[d\gamma+1, d]}$  by  $\beta_{e_d}$  ( $e$  for end).

$$\beta = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \|\beta_{s_d}\|_2^2 + \|\beta_{e_d}\|_2^2$$

Preparing for block matrix operations, we'll write  $\Phi = X^T X$ :

$$\Phi = X^T X = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

Since the rows of  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$  are  $\mathcal{N}_d(0, I_d)$  and (statistically) independent, it is almost sure that the  $d$  columns and  $n$  rows of  $X$  are linearly independent, thus, almost surely:  $\text{rank}(X) = \min(d, n)$ . Expanding the interpolation requirement:

$$\begin{aligned}
X\beta &= X\beta^* \\
\implies X^T X\beta &= X^T X\beta^* \\
\iff \Phi\beta &= \Phi\beta^* \\
\iff \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_{s_d} \\ \beta_{e_d} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \beta_{s_d}^* \\ \beta_{e_d}^* \end{bmatrix} \\
\iff \begin{bmatrix} \beta_{s_d} \\ \beta_{e_d} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{cases} \Phi^{-1} \Phi\beta^* = \beta^* & \text{if } d \leq n \\ \Phi^+ \Phi\beta^* & \text{if } d > n \end{cases}
\end{aligned}$$

Notice that the noiseless case is not interesting when  $d \leq n$ . In the rest of this section, we take  $d > n$ . Instead of considering pseudoinverses, we can consider the equivalence between the following problems as introduced in [2]:

$$\beta = \arg \min_{\substack{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ X\beta = X\beta^*}} \beta^T \Lambda \beta = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \beta_\lambda = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \overbrace{\arg \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|X(\beta - \beta^*)\|_2^2 + \lambda \beta^T \Lambda \beta}^{:= f_\lambda(\beta)}$$

$f_\lambda$  is differentiable, thus we can compute its gradient:

$$\nabla f_\lambda(\beta) = 2X^T X\beta + 2\lambda \Lambda \beta - 2X^T y$$

And setting the gradient to 0, since this function is  $(2\lambda)$ -strongly convex, we yield:

$$\beta = (X^T X + \lambda \Lambda)^{-1} X^T y$$

Note that this expression is also valid in the noisy case, so we will add noise to the problem before continuing.

## 2.3 Noisy case

Let's go back to  $d \leq n$  in the noisy case, where the variance of  $P_\epsilon$  is  $\sigma^2$ . Here  $y = X\beta^* + \epsilon$  with  $\epsilon = (\epsilon_i)_{i \in [1..n]}$ , thus  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}_n(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
X\beta &= y \\
\implies X^T X\beta &= X^T y \\
\iff \Phi\beta &= X^T(X\beta^* + \epsilon) \\
\iff \Phi\beta &= \Phi\beta^* + X^T\epsilon \\
\iff \beta &= \beta^* + \Phi^{-1}X^T\epsilon \\
\iff \beta &= \beta^* + \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} X^T\epsilon
\end{aligned}$$

Computing  $\Phi^{-1}X^T$  using standard block matrix inversion and multiplication formulae:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Phi^{-1}X^T &= \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} X^T \\
\Phi^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} (\Phi_{s_d, s_d} - \Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1}\Phi_{e_d, s_d})^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & (\Phi_{e_d, e_d} - \Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1}\Phi_{s_d, e_d})^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \\
&\quad \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} I_{d\gamma} & -\Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1} \\ -\Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1} & I_{d-d\gamma} \end{bmatrix}}_{:=\kappa}
\end{aligned}$$

The matrix on top is scary. Let's focus on  $\kappa X^T$ . First, notice that  $\kappa$ , in the expression above, is decomposed into blocks of the following sizes:

$$\kappa = \begin{bmatrix} I_{d\gamma} & -\Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1} \\ -\Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1} & I_{d-d\gamma} \end{bmatrix} \in \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times d\gamma} & \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times d-d\gamma} \\ \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times d\gamma} & \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times d-d\gamma} \end{bmatrix}$$

We'll compute  $\kappa X^T$  by first decomposing  $X^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$  into 4 blocks of product compatible sizes, as follows:

$$X^T \in \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times a} & \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times b} \\ \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times a} & \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times b} \end{bmatrix}$$

Here,  $a$  should be chosen such that  $a = n$  when  $\gamma = 1$ , and  $b = n$  when  $\gamma = 0$ , then  $a + b = n$ . Thus:  $a = n\gamma$  and  $b = n - n\gamma$ , and:

$$X^T \in \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times n\gamma} & \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times n-n\gamma} \\ \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times n\gamma} & \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times n-n\gamma} \end{bmatrix}$$

Denoting  $s_n = [1, n\gamma]$  and  $e_n = [n\gamma + 1, n]$ :

$$X^T = \begin{bmatrix} X_{s_d, s_n}^T & X_{s_d, e_n}^T \\ X_{e_d, s_n}^T & X_{e_d, e_n}^T \end{bmatrix}$$

This also gives us a suitable block decomposition of  $X$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
X &= (X^T)^T = \begin{bmatrix} X_{s_d, s_n}^T & X_{s_d, e_n}^T \\ X_{e_d, s_n}^T & X_{e_d, e_n}^T \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} X_{s_n, s_d} & X_{s_n, e_d} \\ X_{e_n, s_d} & X_{e_n, e_d} \end{bmatrix} \\
X^T &= \begin{bmatrix} (X_{s_n, s_d})^T & (X_{e_n, s_d})^T \\ (X_{s_n, e_d})^T & (X_{e_n, e_d})^T \end{bmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

And now, the blocks of  $\Phi = X^T X$  can be made more explicit:

$$\Phi = \begin{bmatrix} \Phi_{s_d, s_d} & \Phi_{s_d, e_d} \\ \Phi_{e_d, s_d} & \Phi_{e_d, e_d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d} & (X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d} \\ (X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d} & (X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

Some more preparatory computations before computing  $\kappa X^T$ ; computing the blocks of  $B$ :

$$-\Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1} = -[(X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}] [(X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}]^{-1}$$



$$\begin{aligned} &\iff \Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1} [(X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}] = (X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d} \\ &\iff [(X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}]^T (\Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1})^T = [(X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}]^T \end{aligned}$$

Set  $W^T = \Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1}$ . Thus, we seek the matrix  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{d-d\gamma \times d\gamma}$  such that:

$$[(X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d}] W = (X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d}$$

This has the structure:

$$(A^T A + B^T B)W = A^T C + B^T D$$

with  $A = X_{s_n, e_d} \in \mathbb{R}^{n\gamma \times d-d\gamma}$  and  $B = X_{e_n, e_d} \in \mathbb{R}^{n-n\gamma \times d-d\gamma}$  thus it suffices that  $AW = C$  and  $BW = D$ . To get some intuition on whether this can work or not, assume  $n = d$ , then  $B$  is a square matrix, and  $W = B^{-1}D = (X_{e_n, e_d})^{-1}X_{e_n, s_d}$ . Is it the case that  $AW = C$ ?

$$AW = X_{s_n, e_d}(X_{e_n, e_d})^{-1}X_{e_n, s_d} \stackrel{?}{=} X_{s_n, s_d} = C$$

Which is not the case...

Similarly, setting  $Z^T = \Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1}$  with  $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{d\gamma \times d-d\gamma}$ , we seek for  $Z$  such that:

$$\begin{aligned} Z^T &= \Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1} = [(X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d}] [(X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d}]^{-1} \\ &\iff Z^T [(X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d}] = (X_{s_n, e_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, e_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d} \\ &\iff [(X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, s_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, s_d}] Z = (X_{s_n, s_d})^T X_{s_n, e_d} + (X_{e_n, s_d})^T X_{e_n, e_d} \end{aligned}$$

This equation follows the same structure as the one for  $W$  mentioned above.

Moving forward on  $\kappa X^T$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa X^T &= \begin{bmatrix} I_{d\gamma} & -\Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1} \\ -\Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1} & I_{d-d\gamma} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (X_{s_n, s_d})^T & (X_{e_n, s_d})^T \\ (X_{s_n, e_d})^T & (X_{e_n, e_d})^T \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (X_{s_n, s_d})^T - \Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1}(X_{s_n, e_d})^T & (X_{e_n, s_d})^T - \Phi_{s_d, e_d}(\Phi_{e_d, e_d})^{-1}(X_{e_n, e_d})^T \\ (X_{s_n, e_d})^T - \Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1}(X_{s_n, s_d})^T & (X_{e_n, e_d})^T - \Phi_{e_d, s_d}(\Phi_{s_d, s_d})^{-1}(X_{e_n, s_d})^T \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

This is proving to be rather intractable, we should rethink our original problem and see how we can tone it down without losing too much generality.

## 2.4 The perturbation model

Recall:

$$\beta = KX^T y$$

where  $K = (X^T X + \lambda \Lambda)^{-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  obtained from the noiseless case. We explore a modeling technique for  $\Lambda$ . Namely, we set:

$$\tilde{\Lambda} = I_d + uu^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

where  $u$  is a random vector on  $\mathbb{R}^d$  such that it's components are *i.i.d.*, following a distribution  $P_u$  and  $\tilde{K} = (X^T X + \lambda \tilde{\Lambda})^{-1} = \underbrace{(X^T X + \lambda I_d)}_{:= K_I^{-1}} + \lambda uu^T)^{-1} = (K_I^{-1} + \lambda uu^T)^{-1}$ .

By Sherman-Morrison :

$$\tilde{K} = K_I - \lambda \frac{K_I uu^T K_I}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u}$$

Realizing something quite general, for  $K = (X^T X + \lambda \Lambda)^{-1}$  for any matrix  $\Lambda$  that keeps  $K$  well defined:

$$\begin{aligned} \beta - \beta^* &= KX^T(X\beta^* + \epsilon) - \beta^* \\ &= (KX^T X - I)\beta^* + KX^T \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Focus on the first term, for some unknown matrix  $A$ :

$$\begin{aligned} KX^T X &= I + A \\ \iff X^T X &= K^{-1} + K^{-1}A = X^T X + \lambda\Lambda + K^{-1}A \\ \iff A &= -\lambda K\Lambda \end{aligned}$$

Then we can apply this result to  $\tilde{K}$ : if  $\tilde{\beta} = \tilde{K}X^T y$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\beta} - \beta^* &= (\tilde{K}X^T X - I)\beta^* + \tilde{K}X^T \epsilon \\ &= -\lambda\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\beta^* + \tilde{K}X^T \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

This gives, generalizing slightly with  $\beta^* \sim P_{\beta^*}$  with mean 0 and covariance matrix  $r^2 I_d$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*, \epsilon} [\|\tilde{\beta} - \beta^*\|_2^2] &= \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*, \epsilon} [\|\tilde{K}X^T \epsilon - \lambda\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\beta^*\|_2^2] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} [\|\tilde{K}X^T \epsilon\|_2^2] + \lambda^2 \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\beta^*\|_2^2] - 2\lambda \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*, \epsilon} [(\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\beta^*)^T \tilde{K}X^T \epsilon] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} [\|\tilde{K}X^T \epsilon\|_2^2] + \lambda^2 \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\|\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\beta^*\|_2^2] - 2\lambda (\tilde{K}(I + uu^T)\mathbb{E}_{\beta^*}[\beta^*])^T \tilde{K}X^T \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}[\epsilon] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon} [\text{Tr}(\epsilon^T X \tilde{K}^2 X^T \epsilon)] + \lambda^2 \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*} [\text{Tr}(\beta^{*T} (I + uu^T) \tilde{K}^2 (I + uu^T) \beta^*)] \\ &= \text{Tr}(\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon}[\epsilon \epsilon^T] X \tilde{K}^2 X^T) + \lambda^2 \text{Tr}(\mathbb{E}_{\beta^*}[\beta^* \beta^{*T}] \tilde{K}^2 (I + uu^T)^2) \\ &= \sigma^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}X^T X \tilde{K}) + r^2 \lambda^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2 (I + uu^T)^2) \\ &= \sigma^2 \text{Tr}((I - \lambda\tilde{K}(I + uu^T))\tilde{K}) + r^2 \lambda^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2 (I + (2 + \|u\|_2^2)uu^T)) \\ &= \sigma^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K} - \lambda(\tilde{K} + \tilde{K}uu^T)\tilde{K}) + r^2 \lambda^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2 + (2 + \|u\|_2^2)\tilde{K}uu^T) \\ &= \sigma^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}) - \sigma^2 \lambda (\text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2) + \text{Tr}(uu^T \tilde{K}^2)) + r^2 \lambda^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2) + r^2 \lambda^2 (2 + \|u\|_2^2) \text{Tr}(uu^T \tilde{K}) \\ &= \sigma^2 \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}) + (r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda) \text{Tr}(\tilde{K}^2) + r^2 \lambda^2 (2 + \|u\|_2^2) \text{Tr}(uu^T \tilde{K}) - \sigma^2 \lambda \text{Tr}(uu^T \tilde{K}^2) \end{aligned}$$

Let inputs  $x_i \sim P_x$  with mean 0 and covariance matrix  $I_d$ , we define the test error and recap our findings so far:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}} &= \mathbb{E}_{x, \epsilon, \beta^*} [x^T \tilde{\beta} - x^T \beta^* + \epsilon]^2 \\ &= \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{d} \mathbb{E}_{\beta^*, \epsilon} [\|\tilde{\beta} - \beta^*\|_2^2] \\ &= \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}) + (r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda) \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}^2) + r^2 \lambda^2 (2 + \|u\|_2^2) \text{Tr}_d(uu^T \tilde{K}) - \sigma^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(uu^T \tilde{K}^2) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{Tr}_d(M) = \frac{1}{d} \text{Tr}(M)$ .

Say  $P_u$  has mean  $\mu = 0$  and variance  $\nu^2$ .  $\frac{1}{d} \|u\|_2^2 \xrightarrow[d \rightarrow \infty]{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}_u[\|u\|_2^2] = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{E}_{u_i}[u_i^2] = \frac{\nu^2}{d}$ , by the law of large numbers. We also have:

$$\text{Tr}_d(uu^T M) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \mathbb{E}_u [\text{Tr}_d(uu^T M)] = \nu^2 \text{Tr}_d(M)$$

This derives from:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_u [\text{Tr}(uu^T M)] &= \mathbb{E}_u [\text{Tr}(u^T M u)] \\ &= \text{Tr}(M \mathbb{E}_u [uu^T]) \\ &= \text{Tr}(M \Sigma_u) \\ &= \nu^2 \text{Tr}(M) \text{ as } \Sigma_u = \nu^2 I_d \end{aligned}$$

So we can simplify  $\tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}$ , we will see later how this impacts numerical correctness.

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}} &= \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}) + (r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda) \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}^2) + r^2 \lambda^2 \nu^2 (2 + d\nu^2) \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}) - \sigma^2 \lambda \nu^2 \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}^2) \\ &= \sigma^2 + [\sigma^2 + r^2 \lambda^2 \nu^2 (2 + d\nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}) + [r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda (1 + \nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}^2) \end{aligned}$$

Next, we compute  $\tilde{K}^2$  using the formula obtained through Sherman-Morrison above:

$$\tilde{K}^2 = \left( K_I - \lambda \frac{K_I u u^T K_I}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u} \right)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= K_I^2 - \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u} K_I u u^T K_I^2 - \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u} K_I^2 u u^T K_I + \frac{\lambda^2}{(1 + \lambda u^T K_I u)^2} (K_I u u^T K_I)^2 \\
&= K_I^2 - \frac{\lambda}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u} (K_I u u^T K_I^2 + K_I^2 u u^T K_I) + \frac{\lambda^2}{(1 + \lambda u^T K_I u)^2} K_I u u^T K_I^2 u u^T K_I
\end{aligned}$$

Trace-wise, let's detail a tricky step first:

$$\text{Tr}(K_I u u^T K_I^2 u u^T K_I) = \text{Tr}(u^T K_I^2 u u^T K_I^2 u) = u^T K_I^2 u u^T K_I^2 u = \text{Tr}(u^T K_I^2 u)^2 = \text{Tr}(u u^T K_I^2)^2$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}^2) &= \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) - \frac{2\lambda}{1 + \lambda u^T K_I u} \text{Tr}_d(u u^T K_I^3) + \frac{\lambda^2}{(1 + \lambda u^T K_I u)^2} \text{Tr}_d(u u^T K_I^2)^2 \\
&= \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) - \frac{2\lambda}{1 + \lambda \text{Tr}(u u^T K_I)} \text{Tr}_d(u u^T K_I^3) + \frac{\lambda^2}{(1 + \lambda \text{Tr}(u u^T K_I))^2} \text{Tr}_d(u u^T K_I^2)^2
\end{aligned}$$

For completeness:

$$\text{Tr}_d(\tilde{K}) \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \frac{\lambda \nu^2}{1 + \lambda \text{Tr}(u u^T K_I)} \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)$$

Notice that the denominators have  $\text{Tr}(K_I)$  and not  $\text{Tr}_d(K_I)$ , thus they grow arbitrarily when  $d \rightarrow \infty$ .

We can thus substitute in  $\tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}} &\stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \sigma^2 + [\sigma^2 + r^2 \lambda^2 \nu^2 (2 + d\nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(K_I) + [r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda (1 + \nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \\
&= \sigma^2 + [\sigma^2 + 2r^2 \lambda^2 \nu^2 + dr^2 \lambda^2 \nu^4] \text{Tr}_d(K_I) + [r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda (1 + \nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)
\end{aligned}$$

We can ask the question: does the test error improve with this added perturbation  $u \sim P_u$ ? In other words, is the test error minimised for  $\nu = 0$ , and if not, what is the optimal value of  $\nu$  with respect to the other parameters? We can differentiate with respect to  $\nu$  to find out, recalling that  $\nu \in [0, +\infty[$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu}(\nu) &= 4r^2 \lambda^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I) (\nu + d\nu^3) - 2\sigma^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \nu \\
&= 2\lambda (2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) \nu^3 + [2r^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)] \nu) \\
&= 2\lambda \nu (2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) \nu^2 + 2r^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)) \\
\frac{1}{2\lambda} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu^2}(\nu) &= 6dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) \nu^2 + 2r^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \\
\frac{1}{2\lambda} \frac{\partial^3 \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu^3}(\nu) &= 12dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) \nu \\
\frac{1}{2\lambda} \frac{\partial^4 \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu^4}(\nu) &= 12dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) > 0 \text{ when } r > 0
\end{aligned}$$

Setting the derivative to 0: when  $r = 0$ ,  $\frac{\partial \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu}(\nu) = -2\sigma^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \nu \xrightarrow{\nu \rightarrow \infty} -\infty$  because  $\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) > 0$  (by symmetry of  $K_I$ , this is the Frobenius norm squared of  $K_I$  which is nonzero), and  $\nu = 0$  is actually a local (and global) maximum - so this is a case where arbitrarily growing  $\nu$  is beneficial. This is no surprise since in that case:

$$\tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}} \approx \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \sigma^2 \lambda (1 + \nu^2) \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)$$

For  $r > 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial \tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu}(\nu) = 0 &\iff \nu (2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) \nu^2 + 2r^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) - \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)) = 0 \\
&\iff \nu = 0 \vee \nu^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I)} - 1 \\
&\stackrel{\nu \geq 0}{\iff} \nu = 0 \vee \left( \nu = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I)} - 1} \wedge 2dr^2 \lambda \text{Tr}_d(K_I) < \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \right)
\end{aligned}$$

Three cases arise here. Precompute:

$$\tilde{R}_d^{\text{test}}(\nu = 0) = \sigma^2 + \sigma^2 \text{Tr}_d(K_I) + [r^2 \lambda^2 - \sigma^2 \lambda] \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)$$

- $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) = \sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies \nu = 0$  is a local minimum because the fourth derivative is positive and all previous ones are zero. It is also the only stationary point, implying that in this case  $\nu = 0$  is optimal globally.
- $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) > \sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies$ 
  - $\nu_1 = 0$  is a local minimum because the second derivative is positive.
  - $\nu_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I)}} - 1$  is not well defined (and is not a stationary point).

We collect that  $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) \geq \sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies \nu = 0$  is optimal and no other value is.

- $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) < \sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies$ 
  - $\nu_1 = 0$  is actually a local maximum this time.
  - $\nu_2 = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I)}} - 1$  is stationary, and:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2\lambda} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathbf{R}}_d^{\text{test}}}{\partial \nu^2}(\nu_2) &= 3 \times 2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) \left( \frac{\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I)} - 1 \right) - \sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \\ &= 2\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) - 3 \times 2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) \end{aligned}$$

Once again, three cases arise.

- \*  $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) < \frac{2}{3}\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies \nu_2$  is a local minimum as the second derivative is positive - the only one actually, thus  $\nu_2$  is globally optimal.
- \*  $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) = \frac{2}{3}\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies \nu_2$  is a saddle point, and since 0 is a local maximum,  $\nu_2 \rightarrow \infty$  is optimal.
- \*  $2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) > \frac{2}{3}\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2) \implies \nu_2$  is a local maximum as the second derivative is negative.

Summing up our findings in this section:

The test error can be approximated when  $d$  grows large almost surely as:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}}_d^{\text{test}} \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{=} \sigma^2 + [\sigma^2 + 2r^2\lambda^2\nu^2 + dr^2\lambda^2\nu^4] \text{Tr}_d(K_I) + [r^2\lambda^2 - \sigma^2\lambda(1 + \nu^2)] \text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)$$

Also, when  $0 \leq 2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I) < \frac{2}{3}\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)$ , picking  $\nu^2 = \frac{\sigma^2\text{Tr}_d(K_I^2)}{2dr^2\lambda\text{Tr}_d(K_I)} - 1$  minimizes the test error.

### Further step?

Maybe we should generalize to the following, for  $1 \leq k \leq d$ :

$$\tilde{K} = I_d + \sum_{i=1}^k u_i u_i^T$$

# Conclusion and outlook

This was a lovely project. I wanted to see how research was done, and I was very much served. The subject itself was wide enough to venture into many related subjects, going from stochastic gradient descent into linear regression somehow. I cannot thank Antoine enough for his guidance and motivation throughout the semester, and Professor Macris' for his trust and detailed explanations during the subject selection phase.

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