

# The double descent phenomenon

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## Generalization of overparametrized models

Geelon So, [agso@eng.ucsd.edu](mailto:agso@eng.ucsd.edu)

DSC291 Machine Learning — November 8, 2022

## Review: classical statistical learning framework

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The model's ability to **generalize** is how well it accounts for out-of-sample data.

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3. Construct a **risk estimation** procedure that finds an estimate  $\hat{R}(h)$  of  $R(h)$ .
  4. **Minimize** the risk estimator:

$$\hat{h} := \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \hat{R}(h).$$

# Generalization theory through empirical risk minimization

We can decompose the risk  $R(h)$  as:

$$R(h) = \underbrace{\hat{R}(h) - \hat{R}(h^*)}_{\text{estimated gap}} + \underbrace{(R(h) - \hat{R}(h))}_{\text{estimation error for } h} + \underbrace{(\hat{R}(h^*) - R(h^*))}_{\text{estimation error for } h^*} + \underbrace{R(h^*)}_{\text{model bias}}$$

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- For the empirical risk minimizer  $\hat{h}$ , the *estimated gap* term is non-positive, so:

$$R(\hat{h}) \leq \text{estimation error terms} + \text{model bias term.}$$



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Generalization theory tends to give us bounds on the estimation error term so that:

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- ▶ Generally, the bias of a model increases as its capacity shrinks.
  - ▶ This leads to the **bias-variance tradeoff**.

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- ▶ **Small capacity:** if  $\mathcal{H}$  cannot explain many worlds, it may poorly explain the one in which the learner lives. This leads to a large bias term.
- ▶ **Large capacity:** if many (very different) explanations account for what the learner sees, how to pick among these explanations? This leads to a large variance term.

## Classical bias-variance tradeoff

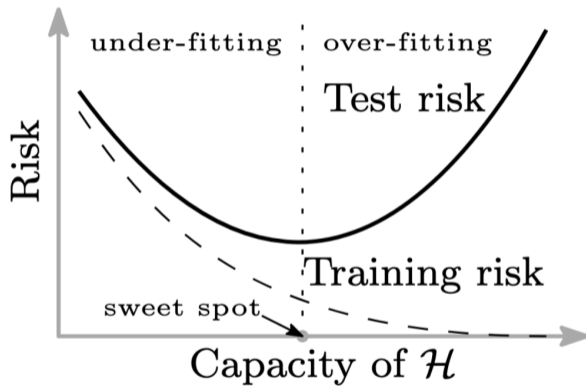


Figure 1: Belkin et al. (2018)



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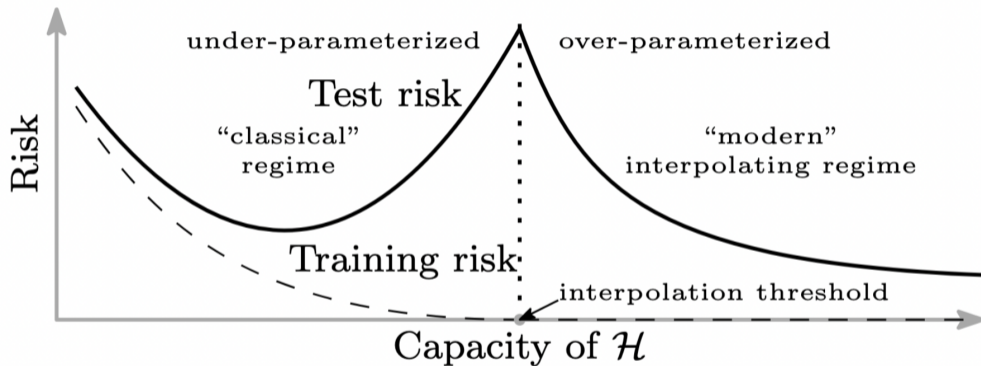
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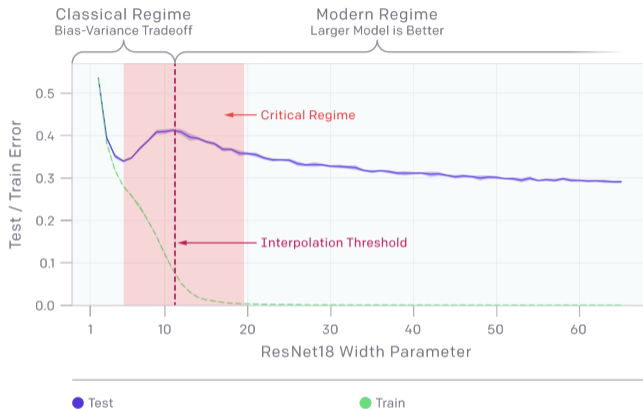
- ▶ Classical statistics says not too large: try to find the ‘sweet spot’.
- ▶ However, in modern machine learning, we often fit very over-parameterized models and achieve good generalization.
  - ▶ The capacity of neural nets often allow for training loss to be driven down to zero (that is, the model *interpolates* the training data).

## Double descent phenomenon



**Figure 2:** In the ‘modern’ interpolating regime, increasing model capacity often empirically leads to better generalization, Belkin et al. (2018).

# Double descent a robust phenomenon



**Figure 3:** Double descent is observed across many models, tasks, optimizers, training time, and noise levels. Pictured is the train/test error for family of ResNet18 on CIFAR-10 (Nakkiran et al., 2021).

# Generalization theory: what's missing?

- ▶ In an over-parameterized model where many explanations equally account for the training data, how does the learner select one?
  - ▶ Generalization also depends on how we regularize and optimize.

## Algorithms without double descent?

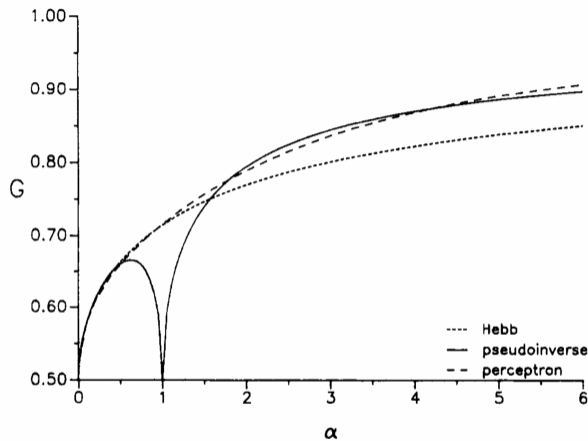


Figure 4: Generalization curves for different methods of learning a classifier on Boolean data  $\{-1, +1\}^N$  using a dataset of size  $\alpha N$  (Opper et al., 1990).



Double descent in ordinary least squares: warm-up

## One explanation of double descent

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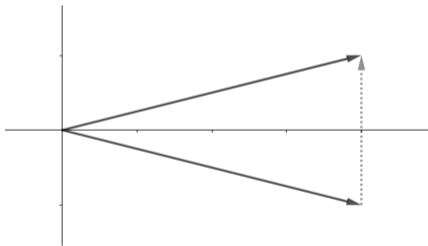
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**Figure 5:** The instances  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  (black) provides good signal along the horizontal direction, but poor signal along the vertical direction.

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**Goal.** The goal of the learner is to use data to give an estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  of  $\beta$  minimizing:

$$\|\hat{\beta} - \beta\|^2.$$

## Linear regression in the interpolating regime

When the number of parameters  $d$  is at least the number of data points  $n$ , we can always perfectly fit a linear regressor:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\hat{\beta},$$

where  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\hat{\beta} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

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- ▶ In fact, if  $d > n$ , then there are infinitely many interpolating  $\hat{\beta}$ 's.
- ▶ If we fit  $\hat{\beta}$  using OLS, we obtain a specific choice:

$$\hat{\beta} = \mathbf{X}^+\mathbf{Y},$$

where  $\mathbf{X}^+$  is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse of  $\mathbf{X}$ . In this setting,  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^+ = \mathbf{I}_n$ .

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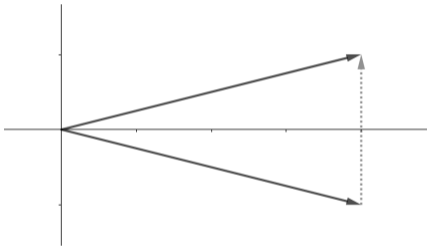
**Question.** How poorly can  $\hat{\beta}$  estimate  $\beta$  in the interpolating regime?

## A 2D example

**Setting.** Consider data in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  generated by:

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where  $e_1$  is the first basis direction and  $\varepsilon$  is Gaussian.



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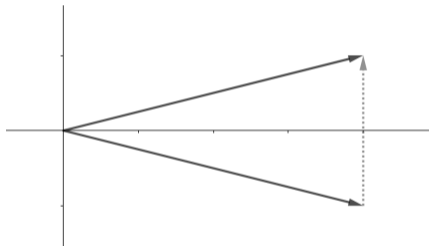
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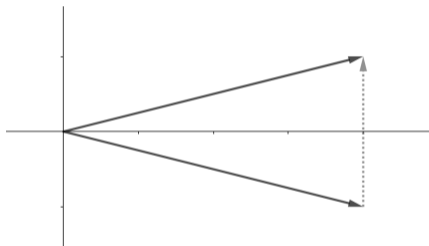
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**Data.** Suppose we are given two data points:

$$\begin{aligned} x_A &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -\delta \end{bmatrix} & x_B &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ +\delta \end{bmatrix} \\ y_A &= 1 + \varepsilon_A & y_B &= 1 + \varepsilon_B \end{aligned}$$



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**Solution.** OLS estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  is:

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = 1 + \frac{\varepsilon_A + \varepsilon_B}{2} \quad \hat{\beta}_2 = \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{\varepsilon_B - \varepsilon_A}{2}.$$



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- ▶ But, the small vector  $\delta e_2$  also has to explain a (relatively large) part of the noise:

$$\frac{y_B - y_A}{2} = \frac{\varepsilon_B - \varepsilon_A}{2}.$$

## Double descent from 2D example

Suppose instead that  $x_A$  and  $x_B$  were actually  $(d + 1)$ -dimensional vectors:

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which has norm  $\delta$ , as before. But, the same noise is spread out across  $d$  directions:

$$\hat{\beta}_j = \frac{1}{\delta d} \frac{\varepsilon_B - \varepsilon_A}{2} \quad j > 1.$$

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We can now compute the generalization error:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \left\| \hat{\beta} - \beta \right\|^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{\varepsilon_A + \varepsilon_B}{2} \right)^2 \right] + \sum_{j>1} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{\delta d} \frac{\varepsilon_B - \varepsilon_A}{2} \right)^2 \right] = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{d} \frac{1}{2\delta^2}.$$



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- ▶ The  $\frac{1}{2}$  term comes from the noise explained by the first term.
- ▶ The  $\frac{1}{d} \frac{1}{2\delta^2}$  goes to zero as  $d$  goes to infinity.

Double descent in ordinary least squares: Gaussian model

# Linear regression problem

**Problem.** Suppose nature generates data as follows:

$$y = x^\top \beta + \varepsilon,$$

- ▶ the covariates  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are  $d$  dimensional standard Gaussians,  $x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{1}{d}\mathbf{I}_d)$
- ▶ the noise  $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  is drawn from  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
- ▶ there is a true regressor  $\beta$ , but it is unknown to the learner

**Goal.** The goal of the learner is to use data to give an estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  of  $\beta$  minimizing:

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**Data.** Let  $y = x^\top \beta + \varepsilon$  where:

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where  $\Pi_x$  is the projection operator onto  $\text{span}(x)$ .

- Note that  $\hat{\beta}$  satisfies:  $x^\top \hat{\beta} = \frac{x^\top xy}{\|x\|^2} = y$

## Generalization error

Denote  $\beta_x = \Pi_x \beta$  and  $\beta_x^\perp = \beta - \beta_x$  its orthogonal complement.

## Generalization error

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Notice that the last term is related to the signal-to-noise ratio.

## Generalization error

Because  $x$  is isotropic Gaussian, the error from unseen directions is:

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- ▶ If  $d = 1$  or  $d = 2$ , then the expected generalization error is infinite.

# $\chi^2$ -distribution

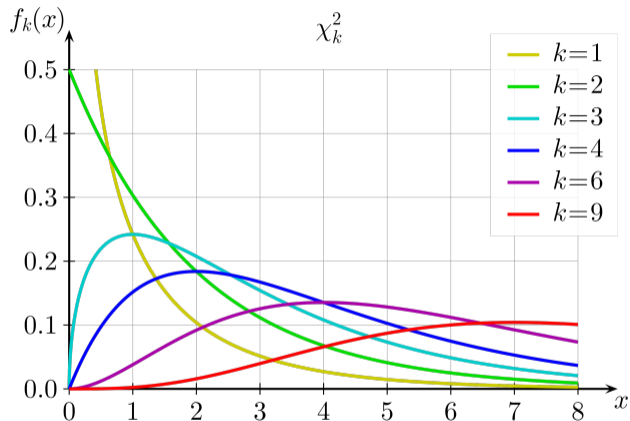


Figure 6:  $\chi^2$ -distributions where  $k$  is the degree of freedom, from Wikipedia.

## Main result from Belkin et al. (2020)

**Setting.** Their setting extends this setting of linear regression on single point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

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### Theorem (Belkin et al. (2020))

Let  $\hat{\beta}$  be the OLS regressor in this setting. Then its expected risk is:

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \left( y - x^\top \hat{\beta} \right)^2 \right] = \begin{cases} \left( \left( 1 - \frac{p}{d} \right) \cdot \|\beta\|^2 + \sigma^2 \right) \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{p}{n-p-1} \right) & p \leq n-2 \\ \infty & p = n, n+1 \\ \|\beta\|^2 \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{n}{d} \cdot \left( 2 - \frac{d-n-1}{p-n-1} \right) \right) + \sigma^2 \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{n}{p-n-1} \right) & p \geq n+2 \end{cases}$$



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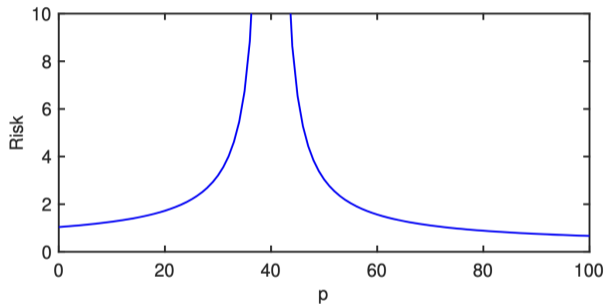


Figure 7: Visualization of the double descent curve from previous theorem(Belkin et al., 2020).

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