Intrinsic Dimension, Persistent Homology and Generalization in Neural Networks

Abstract

Disobeying the classical wisdom of statistical learning theory, modern deep neural networks generalize well even though they typically contain millions of parameters. Recently, it has been shown that the trajectories of iterative optimization algorithms can possess *fractal structures*, and their generalization error can be formally linked to the complexity of such fractals. This complexity is measured by the fractal's *intrinsic dimension*, a quantity usually much smaller than the number of parameters in the network. Even though this perspective provides an explanation for why overparametrized networks would not overfit, computing the intrinsic dimension (*e.g.*, for monitoring generalization during training) is a notoriously difficult task, where existing methods typically fail even in moderate ambient dimensions. In this study, we consider this problem from the lens of topological data analysis (TDA) and develop a generic computational tool that is built on rigorous mathematical foundations. By making a novel connection between learning theory and TDA, we first illustrate that the generalization error can be equivalently bounded in terms of a notion called the 'persistent homology dimension' (PHD), where, compared with prior work, our approach does not require any additional geometrical or statistical assumptions on the training dynamics. Then, by utilizing recently established theoretical results and TDA tools, we develop an efficient algorithm to estimate PHD in the scale of modern deep neural networks and further provide visualization tools to help understand generalization in deep learning. Our experiments show that the proposed approach can efficiently compute a network's intrinsic dimension in a variety of settings, which is predictive of the generalization error.

1 Introduction

In recent years, deep neural networks (DNNs) have become the de facto machine learning tool and have revolutionized a variety of fields from natural language processing [DCLT18] to computer vision [KSH12]. Despite their widespread use, little is known about their theoretical properties. Hence, even now the top-performing DNNs are designed by trial-and-error, a pesky, burdensome process for the average practitioner [EMH+19]. Furthermore, even if a top-performing architecture is found, it is difficult to provide performance guarantees on a large class of real-world datasets.

This lack of theoretical understanding has motivated a plethora of work focusing on explaining what, how, and why a neural network learns. To answer many of these questions, one naturally examines the generalization error, a measure quantifying the differing performance on train and test data, as this gives significant insights into whether the network is learning or simply memorizing.

However, generalization in neural networks is particularly confusing as it refutes the classical proposals of statistical learning theory such as uniform bounds based on the Rademacher complexity [BM02] and the Vapnik–Chervonenkis (VC) dimension [Vap68]. Instead, recent analyses have started focus-

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ing on the dynamics of deep neural networks [NBMS17, BO18, GJ16], but these only consider the final trained network for analysis. A recent study [SSDE20] made a connection between the heavy tailed behavior of *network trajectories* (*i.e.*, the collection of all the the iterates through training) and generalization–a phenomenon which had already been observed in practice [SSG19, MM19]–and showed that the generalization error can be linked to the *fractal dimension* of a parametric hypothesis class (which can then be taken as the optimization trajectories), and hence, the fractal dimension acts as a 'capacity metric'.

While this brought a new perspective, several shortcomings prevent these insights from being applied to every day training. In particular this approach requires several conditions that might limit the scope of the analysis. In particular, it requires (i) topological regularity conditions on the hypothesis class for efficient fractal dimension computation, (ii) a Feller process assumption on the trajectories of the training algorithm, and (iii) an assumption that the Feller process exhibits a specific diffusive behavior near a minimum. Furthermore, it would be desirable to incorporate the capacity metrics identified in [SSDE20] into the training procedure as a "regularizer". Unfortunately this cannot be done directly as the structure of these metrics are not optimization friendly.

In this work, we consider the fractal geometric learning framework of [SSDE20] and address the short-comings mentioned above. By exploiting the recently developed connections with fractal dimensions and topological data analysis (TDA), we develop a general tool for *computing* and *visualizing* generalization properties in deep learning. We start by introducing an intrinsic dimension (ID) estimator that mitigates the aforementioned assumptions. To this end, we make a connection between the *box dimension* [Sch09] and the recently proposed *persistent homology (PH) dimension* [Sch20]. We show explicitly that the box dimension of a bounded set is computable through the PH dimension under mild assumptions. Based upon the recently developed differentiable TDA tools [CHU17, CHN19], we then propose a practical, differentiable algorithm on the set of iterates generated by a training process. Thanks to its differentiability, we employ our ID estimator to regularize training towards solutions that generalize better, even without having access to a test dataset.

Our experiments demonstrate that this new measure of intrinsic dimension correlates highly with generalization error, regardless the choice of optimizer. Furthermore, as a proof of concept, we illustrate that our topological regularizer is able to improve the test accuracy and lower the test gap. In particular, this improvement is most pronounced when the learning rate/batch size normally results in a poorer test accuracy.

Overall, our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We make a novel connection between statistical learning theory and TDA in order to develop a generic computational framework for the generalization error. We remove the topological regularity condition and the decomposable Feller assumption on training trajectories, which were required in [SSDE20], leading to a more generic capacity metric.

- Using insights from our above methodology, we leverage the differentiable properties of persistent homology to regularize neural network training. Our findings also provide the first steps towards theoretically justifying recent topological regularization methods [BGND+19, CNBW19].

- We provide extensive experiments to illustrate the theory, strength and flexibility of our framework.

We believe that the novel connections and the developed framework will open up new theoretical and computational directions in terms of theory of deep learning. We plan to make our implementation available to foster further developments at the intersection of persistent homology and statistical learning theory.

2 Related Work

Intrinsic dimension in deep networks   Even though a large number of parameters are required to train deep networks [FC18], modern interpretations of deep networks avoid correlating model over-fitting or generalization to parameter counting . Instead, contemporary studies measure model complexity through the degrees of freedom of the parameter space [JFH15, GJ16], compressibility (pruning) [BO18] or intrinsic dimension [ALMZ19, LFLY18]. Tightly related to the intrinsic dimension, Janson *et al.* investigated the *degrees of freedom* in deep networks and expected difference between test error and training error. Finally, LDMNet [ZQH+18] explicitly penalizes the intrinsic dimension regularizing the network training.

Generalization bounds   Several studies have provided theoretical justification to the observations that trained neural networks live in a lower-dimensional space, and this is related to the generalization performance. In particular, compression-based generalization bounds [AGNZ18, SAM$^+$20, SAN20, HJTW21] have shown that the generalization error of a neural network can be much lower if it can be accurately represented in lower dimensional space. Approaching the problem from a geometric viewpoint, [SSDE20] showed that the generalization error can be formally linked to the fractal dimension of a parametric hypothesis class, where this dimension indeed the plays role of the intrinsic dimension, which can be much smaller than the ambient dimension. When the hypothesis class is chosen as the trajectories of the training algorithm, [SSDE20] further showed that the error can be linked to the heavy-tail behavior of the trajectories.

Deep networks & topology   Previous works have linked neural network training and topological invariants, although all analyze the final trained network [FGFAEV21]. For example, in [RTB$^+$19], the authors construct Neural Persistence, a measure on neural network layer weights. They furthermore show that Neural Persistence reflects many of the properties of convergence and can classify weights based on whether they overfit, underfit, or exactly fit the data. In a parallel line of work, [DZF19] analyze neural network training by calculating topological properties of the underlying graph structure. This is expanded upon in [CMEM19], where the authors compute correlations between neural network weights and show that the homology is linked with the generalization error.

However, these previous constructions have been done mostly in an adhoc manner. As a result, many of the results are mostly empirical and work must still be done to show that these methods hold theoretically. Our proposed method, by contrast, is theoretically well-motivated and uses tools from statistical persistent homology theory to formally links the generalization error with the network training trajectory topology.

3   Preliminaries Technical Background

We imagine a point cloud $W = \{w_i \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ as a geometric realization of a d-dimensional topological space $W \subset \mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. $B_\delta(x) \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ denotes the closed ball centered around $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with radius δ.

Persistent Homology   From a topological perspective, $\mathcal{W}$ can be viewed a *cell complex* composed of the disjoint union of k-dimensional balls or *cells* $\sigma \in \mathcal{W}$ *glued* together. For $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, we form a *chain complex* $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{W}) = \ldots C_{k+1}(\mathcal{W}) \xrightarrow{\partial_{k+1}} C_k(\mathcal{W}) \xrightarrow{\partial_k} \ldots$ by sequencing *chain groups* $C_k(\mathcal{W})$, whose elements are equivalence classes of cycles, via boundary maps $\partial_k : C_k(\mathcal{W}) \mapsto C_{k-1}(\mathcal{W})$ with $\partial_{k-1} \circ \partial_k \equiv 0$. In this paper, we work with finite *simplicial complexes* restricting the cells to be simplices.

Figure 1: A visualization of a Vietoris-Rips complex computed using persistent homology (PH).

The kth homology group or k-*dimensional homology* is then defined as the equivalence classes of k-dimensional cycles who differ only by a boundary, or in other words, the quotient group $H_k(\mathcal{W}) = Z_k(\mathcal{W})/Y_k(\mathcal{W})$ where $Z_k(\mathcal{W}) = \ker \partial_k$ and $Y_k(\mathcal{W}) = \operatorname{im} \partial_{k+1}$. The generators or *basis* of $H_0(\mathcal{W}), H_1(\mathcal{W})$ and $H_2(\mathcal{W})$ describe the shape of the topological space $\mathcal{W}$ by its connected components, holes and cavities, respectively. Their ranks are related to the *Betti numbers i.e.* $\beta_k = \operatorname{rank}(H_k)$.

Definition 1 (Čech and Vietoris-Rips Complexes). *For W a set of fine points in a metric space, the Čech cell complex $\check{C}ech_r(W)$ is constructed using the intersection of r-balls around W, $B_r(W)$: $\check{C}ech_r(W) = \{Q \subset W : \cap_{x \in Q} B_r(x) \neq 0\}$. The construction of such complex is intricate. Instead, the Vietoris-Rips complex $VR_r(W)$ closely approximates $\check{C}ech_r(W)$ using only the* pairwise distances *or the intersection of two r-balls [RB21]:* $\mathcal{W}_r = VR_r(W) = \{Q \subset W : \forall x, x' \in Q, B_r(x) \cap B_r(x') \neq 0\}$.

Definition 2 (Persistent Homology). *PH indicates a multi-scale version of homology applied over a filtration $\{\mathcal{W}_t\}_t := VR(W) : \forall (s \leq t) \mathcal{W}_s \subset \mathcal{W}_t \subset \mathcal{W}$, keeping track of holes created (born) or filled (died) as t increases. Each* persistence module $\text{PH}_k(VR(W)) = \{\gamma_i\}_i$ *keeps track of a single k-persistence cycle γ_i from* birth *to* death. *We denote the entire lifetime of cycle γ as $I(\gamma)$ and*

its length as $|I(\gamma)| = \text{death}(\gamma) - \text{birth}(\gamma)$. We will also use persistence diagrams, *2D plots of all persistence lifetimes (death vs. birth). Note that for* PH_0, *the Čech and VR complexes are equivalent.*

Lifetime intervals are instrumental in TDA as they allow for extraction of topological features or summaries. Note that, each birth-death pair can be mapped to the cells that respectively created and destroyed the homology class, defining a unique map for a persistence diagram, which lends itself to *differentibility* [BGND+19]. We conclude this brief section by referring the interested reader to the well established literature of persistent homology [Car14, EH10] for a thorough understanding.

Intrinsic Dimension The intrinsic dimension of a space can be measured by using various notions. In this study, we will consider two notions of dimension, namely the upper-box dimension (also called the Minkowski dimension) and the persistent homology dimension. The box dimension is based on covering numbers and can be linked to generalization via [SSDE20], whereas the PH dimension is based on the notions defined earlier in this section.

We start by the box dimension.

Definition 3 (Upper-Box Dimension). *For a **bounded metric space** $\mathcal{W}$, let $N_\delta(\mathcal{W})$ denote the maximal number of disjoint closed δ-balls with centers in $\mathcal{W}$. The* upper box dimension *is defined as:*

$$\dim_{\text{Box}}\mathcal{W} = \limsup_{\delta \to 0} \Big(\log(N_\delta(\mathcal{W}))/\log(1/\delta) \Big). \tag{1}$$

We proceed with the PH dimension. First let us define an intermediate construct, which will play a key role in our computational tools.

Definition 4 (α-Weighted Lifetime Sum). *For a **finite set** $W \subset \mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, the weighted i^{th} homology lifetime sum is defined as follows:*

$$E_\alpha^i(W) = \sum_{\gamma \in \text{PH}_i(\text{VR}(W))} |I(\gamma)|^\alpha, \tag{2}$$

where $\text{PH}_i(\text{VR}(W))$ is the i-dimensional persistent homology of the Čech complex on a finite point set W contained in $\mathcal{W}$ and $|I(\gamma)|$ is the persistence lifetime as explained above.

Now, we are ready to define the PH dimension, which is the key notion in this paper.

Definition 5 (Persistent Homology Dimension). *The PH_i-dimension of a **bounded metric space** $\mathcal{W}$ is defined as follows:*

$$\dim_{\text{PH}}^i \mathcal{W} := \inf \big\{ \alpha \ : \ E_\alpha^i(W) < C; \quad \exists C > 0, \forall \text{ finite } W \subset \mathcal{W} \big\}. \tag{3}$$

In words, $\dim_{\text{PH}}^i \mathcal{W}$ is the smallest exponent α for which E_α^i is uniformly bounded for all finite subsets of $\mathcal{W}$.

4 Generalization Error via Persistent Homology Dimension

In this section, we will illustrate that the generalization error can be linked to the PH_0 dimension. Our approach is based on the following fundamental result.

Theorem 1 ([KLS06, Sch19]). *Let $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded set. Then, it holds that:*

$$\dim_{\text{PH}}\mathcal{W} := \dim_{\text{PH}}^0 \mathcal{W} = \dim_{\text{Box}}\mathcal{W}.$$

In the light of this theorem, we combine the recent result showing that the generalization error can be linked to the box dimension [SSDE20], and Theorem 1, which shows that, for bounded subsets of $\mathbb{R}^d$, the box dimension and the PH dimension of order 0 agree.

By following the notation of [SSDE20], we consider a standard supervised learning setting, where the data space is denoted by $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, and $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$ respectively denote the features and the labels. We assume that the data is generated via an unknown data distribution $\mathcal{D}$ and we have access to a training set of n points, i.e., $S = \{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$, with the samples $\{z_i\}_{i=1}^n$ are independent and identically (i.i.d.) drawn from $\mathcal{D}$.

We further consider a parametric hypothesis class $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, that potentially depends on S. We choose $\mathcal{W}$ to be *optimization trajectories* given by a training algorithm $\mathcal{A}$, which returns the entire (random) trajectory of the network weights in the time frame $[0, T]$, such that $[\mathcal{A}(S)]_t = w_t$ being the network weights returned by $\mathcal{A}$ at 'time' t, and t is a continuous iteration index. Then, in the set $\mathcal{W}$, we collect all the network weights that appear in the optimization trajectory:

$$\mathcal{W} := \{w \in \mathbb{R}^d : \exists t \in [0, T], w = [\mathcal{A}(S)]_t\}$$

where we will set $T = 1$, without loss of generality.

To measure the quality of a parameter vector $w \in \mathcal{W}$, we use a loss function $\ell : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{Z} \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$, such that $\ell(w, z)$ denotes the loss corresponding to a single data point z. We then denote the population and empirical risks respectively by $\mathcal{R}(w) := \mathbb{E}_z[\ell(w, z)]$ and $\hat{\mathcal{R}}(w, S) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(w, z_i)$. The generalization error is hence defined as $|\hat{\mathcal{R}}(w, S) - \mathcal{R}(w)|$.

We now recall [SSDE20, Asssumption H4], which is a form of algorithmic stability [BE02]. Let us first introduce the required notation. For any $\delta > 0$, consider the fixed grid on $\mathbb{R}^d$,

$$G = \left\{ \left(\frac{(2j_1 + 1)\delta}{2\sqrt{d}}, \ldots, \frac{(2j_d + 1)\delta}{2\sqrt{d}} \right) : j_i \in \mathbb{Z}, i = 1, \ldots, d \right\},$$

and define the set $N_\delta := \{x \in G : B_\delta(x) \cap \mathcal{W} \neq \emptyset\}$, that is the collection of the centers of each ball that intersect $\mathcal{W}$.

H1. *Let $\mathcal{Z}^\infty := (\mathcal{Z} \times \mathcal{Z} \times \cdots)$ denote the countable product endowed with the product topology and let $\mathfrak{B}$ be the Borel σ-algebra generated by $\mathcal{Z}^\infty$. Let $\mathfrak{F}, \mathfrak{G}$ be the sub-σ-algebras of $\mathfrak{B}$ generated by the collections of random variables given by $\{\hat{\mathcal{R}}(w, S) : w \in \mathbb{R}^d, n \geq 1\}$ and $\{\mathbb{1}\{w \in N_\delta\} : \delta \in \mathbb{Q}_{>0}, w \in G, n \geq 1\}$ respectively. There exists a constant $M \geq 1$ such that for any $A \in \mathfrak{F}$, $B \in \mathfrak{G}$ we have $\mathbb{P}[A \cap B] \leq M\mathbb{P}[A]\mathbb{P}[B]$.*

The next result forms our main observation, which will lead to our methodological developments.

Proposition 1. *Let $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a (random) compact set. Assume that **H**1 holds, ℓ is bounded by B and L-Lipschitz continuous in w. Then, for n sufficiently large, we have*

$$\sup_{w \in \mathcal{W}} |\hat{\mathcal{R}}(w, S) - \mathcal{R}(w)| \leq 2B \sqrt{\frac{[\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W} + 1]\log^2(nL^2)}{n} + \frac{\log(7M/\gamma)}{n}}, \tag{4}$$

with probability at least $1 - \gamma$ over $S \sim \mathcal{D}^{\otimes n}$.

Proof. By [SSDE20, Theorem 2], (4) holds with $\dim_{\mathrm{Box}}\mathcal{W}$ in place of $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W}$. Since $\mathcal{W}$ is bounded, we have $\dim_{\mathrm{Box}}\mathcal{W} = \dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W}$ by Theorem 1. The result follows. $\qquad\square$

This result shows that the generalization error of the trajectories of a training algorithm is deeply linked to its topological properties as measured by the PH dimension. Thanks to novel connection, we have now access to the rich TDA toolbox, to be used for different purposes.

4.1 Analyzing Deep Network Dynamics via Persistent Homology

By exploiting TDA tools, our goal in this section is to develop a algorithm to compute $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W}$ for two main purposes. The first goal is to predict the generalization performance by using $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$. By this approach, we can use $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ for hyperparameter tuning without having access to test data. The second goal is to incorporate $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ as a regularizer to the optimization problem in order to improve generalization. Note that similar topological regularization strategies have already been proposed [BGND+19, CNBW19] without a formal link to generalization. In this sense, our observations form the first step towards theoretically linking generalization and TDA.

In [SSDE20], to develop a computational approach, the authors first linked the intrinsic dimension to certain statistical properties of the underlying training algorithm, which can be then estimated. To do so, they required an additional topological regularity condition, which necessitates the existence of an 'Ahlfors regular' measure defined on $\mathcal{W}$, *i.e.*, a finite Borel measure μ such that there exists

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Algorithm 1: Computation of $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$.

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1 input : The set of iterates $W = \{w_i\}_{i=1}^K$, smallest sample size $n_{\min}$, and a skip step Δ, α
2 output : $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}} W$
3 $n \leftarrow n_{\min}, \quad E \leftarrow []$
4 while $n \leq K$ **do**
5 $\quad W_n \leftarrow \mathrm{sample}(W, n)$ // `random sampling`
6 $\quad \mathcal{W}_n \leftarrow \mathrm{VR}(W_n)$ // `Vietoris-Rips filtration`
7 $\quad E[i] \leftarrow E_\alpha(\mathcal{W}_n) \triangleq \sum_{\gamma \in \mathrm{PH}_0(\mathcal{W}_n)} |I(\gamma)|^\alpha$ // `compute lifetime sums from PH`
8 $\quad n \leftarrow n + \Delta$
9 $m, b \leftarrow \mathrm{fitline}\left(\log(n_{\min} : \Delta : K), \log(E)\right)$ // `power law on` $E_1^i(W)$
10 $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}} W \leftarrow \frac{\alpha}{1-m}$

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212    $s, r_0 > 0$ where $0 < ar^s \leq \mu(B_r(x)) \leq br^s < \infty$, holds for all $x \in \mathcal{W}, 0 < r \leq r_0$. This
213   assumption was used to link the box dimension to another notion called Hausdorff dimension, which
214   can be then linked to statistical properties of the training trajectories under further assumptions (see
215   Section 1). An interesting asset of our approach is that, we do not require this condition and thanks to
216   the following result, we are able to develop an algorithm to directly estimate $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W}$, while staying
217   agnostic to the finer topological properties of $\mathcal{W}$.

218   **Proposition 2.** *Let $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be a bounded set with $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}\mathcal{W} =: d^\star$. Then, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and*
219    $\alpha \in (0, d^\star + \varepsilon)$, *there exists a constant $D_{\alpha,\varepsilon}$, such that the following inequality holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$*
220   *and all collections $W_n = \{w_1, \ldots, w_n\}$ with $w_i \in \mathcal{W}$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$:*

$$E_\alpha^0(W_n) \leq D_{\alpha,\varepsilon} n^{\frac{d^\star + \varepsilon - \alpha}{d^\star + \varepsilon}}. \tag{5}$$

221   *Proof.* Since $\mathcal{W}$ is bounded, we have $\dim_{\mathrm{Box}}\mathcal{W} = d^\star$ by Theorem 1. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Then, by
222   Definition 3, there exists $\delta_0 = \delta_0(\varepsilon) > 0$ and a finite constant $C_\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $\delta \leq \delta_0$ the
223   following inequality holds:

$$N_\delta(\mathcal{W}) \leq C_\varepsilon \delta^{-(d^\star + \varepsilon)}. \tag{6}$$

224   Then, the result directly follows from [Sch20, Proposition 21]. $\qquad\square$

225   This result suggests a simple strategy to estimate an upper bound of the intrinsic dimension from
226   persistent homology. In particular, we note that rewriting (5) for logarithmic values give us that
227    $\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{d^\star + \epsilon}\right) \log n + \log D_{\alpha,\epsilon} \geq \log E_\alpha^0$. If $\log E_\alpha^0$ and $\log n$ are sampled from the data and give
228   an empirical slope m, then we see that $d^* + \epsilon \leq \frac{m}{1-\alpha}$. In many cases, we see that $d^* \approx \frac{\alpha}{1-m}$ (as
229   further explained in Sec. 5.2), so we take $\frac{\alpha}{1-m}$ as our PH dimension estimation. We provide the full
230   algorithm for computing this from our sampled data in Alg. 1. Note that our algorithm is similar to
231   that proposed in [AAF$^+$20], although our method works for sets rather than probability measures. In
232   our implementation we compute the homology by the celebrated Ripser package [Bau21].

233   **4.2   Regularizing Deep Networks via Persistent Homology**

234   Motivated by our results in proposition 2, we theorize that controlling $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}} \mathcal{W}$ would help in
235   reducing the generalization error. Towards this end, we develop a regularizer for our training
236   procedure which seeks to minimize $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}} \mathcal{W}$ during train time. If we let $\mathcal{L}$ be our vanilla loss
237   function, then we will instead optimize over our topological loss function $\mathcal{L}_\lambda := \mathcal{L} + \lambda \dim_{\mathrm{PH}} \mathcal{W}$,
238   where $\lambda \geq 0$ controls the scale of the regularization and $\mathcal{W}$ now denotes a sliding window of iterates
239   (*e.g.*, the latest 50 iterates during training). This way, we aim to regularize the loss by considering the
240   dimension of the ongoing training trajectory.

241   In Alg. 1, we let w_i be the stored weights from previous iterations for $i \in \{1, \ldots, K-1\}$ and let
242   w_K be the current weight iteration. Since the persistence diagram computation and linear regression
243   are differentiable, this means that our estimate for $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ is also differentiable, and, if w_k is sampled
244   as in Alg. 1, is connected in the computation graph with w_K. To incorporate our regularizer into the
245   network training using PyTorch [PGM$^+$19] and the associated *torchph* package [CHU17, CHN19].
246

Figure 2: PH-dimension vs test accuracy for different models and datasets. Networks with different learning rates are indicated using different colors mapped to the colorbar. We use a batch size of 50. Note that the PH dimension is inversely correlated with test accuracy and is thus positively correlated with generalization error.

Figure 3: Persistent homology dimension vs Generalzation error (training accuracy - test accuracy) for different datasets and optimizers with Alexnet. Note that the PH dimension is *directly* correlated with the generalization error and is consistent across datasets and optimizers.

5 Experimental Evaluations

This section presents our experimental results in two parts: (i) analyzing and quantifying generalization in practical deep networks on real data, (ii) ablation studies on a random diffusion process. Further details are reported in the supplementary document.

5.1 Analyzing and Visualizing Deep Networks

Measuring generalization. We begin by verifying the main claim of our work that our persistent homology dimension derived from topological analysis of the training trajectories is a valid measure of generalization. To demonstrate, we apply our analysis to a wide variety of networks, training procedures, and hyperparameters. In particular, we train AlexNet [KSH12] and our 9-layer convolutional netowork (cnn-9) 5-layer (fcn-5) as well as 7-layer (fcn-7) fully connected networks on MNIST, CIFAR10 and CIFAR100 datasets for multiple batch sizes and learning rates until convergence. For AlexNet, we consider 1000 iterates prior to convergence and for the others 200. Then we estimate $\dim_{PH}$ on these last iterates by using Alg. 1: for varying n, we randomly pick n iterates from the last iterates and compute E_α^0, then we use the relation given in (5).

We obtain the ground truth (GT) generalization error as the gap between training and test accuracies. Fig. 2 plots the PH-dimension with respect to test accuracy and signals a strong correlation of our PH-dimension and actual performance gap. The lower the PH-dimension, the higher the test

Figure 4: Visualization for FCN7 network on CIFAR10 dataset sorted by PH dimension. Top: the distance matrices computed between the network weights corresponding to the last 200 iterates. Middle: the behavior of $\log E_\alpha^0$ with respect to n. Bottom: the persistence diagrams. The distance matrix and persistent homology of the network are indicative of the underlying generalization error.

accuracy. Note that this results aligns well with [SSDE20]. The figure also shows that the intrinsic dimensions across different datasets can be similar, even if the parameters of the models can vary greatly. This supports the recent hypothesis that what matters for the generalization is the effective capacity and not the parameter count. The findings in Fig. 2 are further augmented with results in Fig. 3, where a similar pattern is observed.

Can $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ capture intrinsic properties of trajectories? After revealing that our ID estimation is a gauge for generalization, we set out to investigate whether it really hinges on the intrinsic properties of the data. We train several instances of 7-fcn for different learning rates and batch sizes. We compute the PH-dimension of each network using training trajectories. We visualize the following in the rows of Fig. 4 sorted by $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$: (i) 200×200 distance matrix of the sequence of iterates $w_1, \ldots, w_K$ (which is the basis for PH computations), (ii) corresponding $\log E_{\alpha=1}^0$ estimates as we sweep over n in an increasing fashion, (iii) persistence diagrams per each distance matrix. It is clear that there is a strong correlation between $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ and the structure of the distance matrix. As dimension increases, matrix of distances become non-uniformly *pixelated*. The slope estimated from the total edge lengths the second row is a quantity proportional to our dimension. Note that the slope decreases as our estimte increases (hence generalization tends to decrease). We further observe clusters emerging in the persistence diagram. The latter has also been reported for better generalizing networks, though using a different notion of a topological space [BGND+19].

Effect of different algorithms. We also verify that our method is algorithm-agnostic and does not require assumptions on the training algorithm. In particular, we show that our above analyses extend to both the RMSProp [TH12] and Adam [KB15] optimizer. Our results are visualized in Fig. 3. We plot the dimension with respect to the generalization error for varying optimizers and batch sizes; our results verify that the generalization error (which is inversely related to the test accuracy) is positively correlated with the PH dimension. This corroborates our previous results in Fig. 2 and in particular shows that our dimension estimator of test gap is indeed algorithm-agnostic.

Encouraging generalization via regularization $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$. We furthermore verify that our topological regularizer is able to help control the test gap in accordance with our theory. We train a Lenet-5 network [LBBH98] on Cifar10 [Kri09] and compare a clean trianing with a training with our topological regularizer with λ set to 1. We train for 200 epochs with a batch size of 128 and report the train and test accuracies in Fig. 5 over a variety of learning rates. We note that, our topological optimizer is able to produce the best improvements when our network is not able to converge well. These results show that our regularizer behaves as expected: the regularizer is able to recover poor training dynamics.

Figure 5: Effect of regularization on test accuracy for various learning rates for batch size 128. Note that our regularization is consistently able to produce higher accuracies, and this effect is more pronounced when the network has a lower test accuracy,

Figure 6: Results of different dimension estimators for synthetic diffusion data. Here our $\mathrm{PH_0}$ and $\mathrm{PH_0RANSAC}$ coincide as the linear regression step of our computation is well behaved. We note that our persistent homology dimension estimation is able to accurately recover the ground truth.

5.2 Ablation Studies

To assess the quality of our dimension estimator, we now perform ablation studies, on a synthetic data whose the ground truth ID is known. To this end, we use the synthetic experimental setting presented in [SSDE20] (see the supplementary document for details), and we simulate a $d = 128$ dimensional stable Levy process with varying number of points $100 \leq n \leq 1500$ and tail indices $1 \leq \beta \leq 2$. Note that the tail index equals the intrinsic dimension in this case, which is an order of magnitude lower for this experiment.

Can $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ match the ground truth ID? We first try to predict the GT intrinsic dimension running Alg. 1 on this data. We also estimate the TwoNN dimension [FdRL17] to quantify how the state of the art ID estimators correlate with GT in such heavy tailed regime. Our results are plotted in Fig. 6. Note that as n increases our estimator becomes smoother and well approximates the GT up to a slight over-estimation, a repeatedly observed phenomenon [CCCR15]. TwoNN does not guarantee recovering the box-dimension. While it is found to be useful in estimating the ID of data [ALMZ19], we find it to be less desirable in a heavy-tailed regime as reflected in the plots. Our supplementary material provides further results on other, non-dynamics like synthetic dataset such as points on a sphere where TwoNN can perform better.

Effect of α on dimension estimation. While our theory requires α to be smaller than the intrinsic dimension of the trajectories, in all of our experiments we fix $\alpha = 1.0$. It is of curiosity whether such choice hampers our estimates. To see the effect, we vary α in range $[0.5, 2.5]$ and plot our estimates in Fig. 7. It is observed that our dimension estimate is monotonically decreasing with increasing α. This is due to the decrease in E_α. We indicate the GT ID by a dashed red line and our estimate as a dashed green line. Ideally, these two horizontal lines should overlap. It is noticeable that, given the oracle for GT ID,it might be possible to *optimize for* an $\alpha^\star$. Yet, such information is not available for the deep

Figure 7: $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ estimate versus various α on the synthetic diffusion data.

networks. Nevertheless, $\alpha = 1$ seems to yield reasonable performance and we leave the estimation of a better α for future work. We provide additional results in our supplementary material.

6 Conclusion

We developed novel connections between $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ of the training trajectory and the generalization error. Using these insights, we proposed a method for estimating the $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ from data and, unlike previous work [SSDE20], our approach does not presuppose any conditions on the trajectory and offers a simple algorithm. Using the differentiability of PH computation, we showed that we can use $\dim_{\mathrm{PH}}$ as a regularizer during training, which improved the performance in different setups.

Societal Impact and Limitations. Due to the theoretical nature of our study we believe that it will not pose any negative societal or ethical consequences. The main limitation of our study is that it solely considers the terms E_α^0, whereas PH offers a much richer structure. Hence, as our next step, we will explore finer ways to incorporate PH in generalization performance.

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