Understanding the Generalization Benefit of Normalization Layers: Sharpness Reduction

Abstract

Normalization layers (e.g., Batch Normalization, Layer Normalization) were introduced to help with optimization difficulties in very deep nets, but they clearly also help generalization, even in not-so-deep nets. Motivated by the long-held belief that flatter minima lead to better generalization, this paper gives mathematical analysis and supporting experiments suggesting that normalization (together with accompanying weight-decay) encourages GD to reduce the sharpness of loss surface. Here "sharpness" needs careful definition when loss is scale-invariant, a known consequence of normalization. Our mathematical analysis proceeds via analyzing the trajectory of GD and applies to fairly general settings in deep learning.

1 Introduction

Training modern deep neural nets crucially rely on normalization layers to make the training process less sensitive to hyperparameters and initialization. Popular normalization layers include Batch Normalization (BN) [25], Layer Normalization [4], etc. Normalization layers amount to a reparametrization of the neural net so that the loss becomes invariant to scale of most parameters (and with a minor change, to *all* parameters): $\mathcal{L}(c\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all scalings $c > 0$ [25, 2, 37]. The current paper assumes scale-invariance, as well as *weight decay* (WD):

$$\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1} \leftarrow (1 - \hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda})\boldsymbol{w}_t - \hat{\eta}\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_t). \tag{1}$$

Use of WD may appear nonsensical at first sight because traditionally it is used to penalize large parameter norm, which of course is inconsequential for scale-invariant loss — one can scale down the parameter norm arbitrarily without changing the loss value. However, the scale of the parameter *does* matter for gradient and Hessian, and thus weight decay can affect the training dynamics. In particular, simple calculus shows $\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2}\nabla\mathcal{L}(\frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2})$ and $\nabla^2\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \frac{1}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2}\nabla^2\mathcal{L}(\frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2})$. Thus WD is in effect trying to increase the norm of gradient and Hessian in training. This makes the training dynamics very different from unnormalized nets, and requires revisiting classical convergence analyses, as was done in various papers [2, 37, 40]. Such a change in dynamics also yields a very different solution at the end — in particular a solution that generalizes better [71].

The goal of the current paper is to improve mathematical understanding of how normalization together with accompanying WD can improve generalization. While this may arise from many places, we focus on sharpness-like measures formalized in terms of spectral norm of the Hessian. We exhibit settings where normalization provably induces an implicit bias to persistently reduce sharpness in training, which we call the *sharpness-reduction bias*. See Figures 1 and 2 for experiments on matrix completion (with BN) and CIFAR-10.

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Figure 1: Experiment on overparameterized matrix completion with Batch Normalization. Given 800 (32%) entries Ω of a rank-2 matrix $\boldsymbol{M} \in \mathbb{R}^{50 \times 50}$, use GD+WD to optimize $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{V}) := \frac{1}{|\Omega|} \sum_{(i,j) \in \Omega} (\text{BN}([\boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{V}^\top]_{i,j}) - M_{i,j})^2$, where $\boldsymbol{U}, \boldsymbol{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{50 \times 50}$ (thus no explicit constraint on rank). Spherical sharpness starts to decrease significantly around step 2000 (**b**), which encourages low-rank (**d**) and causes the test loss (MSE of all entries) to decrease from 1.12 to 0.013 (**a**). See Appendix P.1 for details.

Figure 2: Training a smooth and scale-invariant VGG-11 on CIFAR-10 for a longer time with (full-batch) GD+WD leads to lower sharpness and higher test accuracy. BN is added after every linear layer to ensure scale-invariance. 100% training accuracy is achieved after ~ 680 steps (dashed line), but as the training continues for $47k$ steps, the spherical sharpness keeps decreasing (**b**) and the test accuracy increases from 69.1% to 72.0% (**a**). Then the training exhibits destabilization but the test accuracy is further boosted to 84.3%. See Appendix P.2 for details.

It is long believed that flatter minima generalize better [22] and is made precise by Neyshabur et al. [52] via PAC-Bayes theory [51]. It is usually noted that the notion of sharpness/flatness needs to be carefully defined in consideration of various kind of symmetries in neural networks, The most straightforward attempt to define sharpness is to measure it as the maximum eigenvalue of Hessian, namely $\lambda_1(\nabla^2 \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_t))$. But for normalized nets, this sharpness measure is vulnerable to weight rescaling, because one can scale the weight norm to make a minimizer arbitrarily flat [13]. Also, this sharpness measure may not be decreasing with the number of training steps; see Figure 2c. In fact, an empirical study by Cohen et al. [9] measured the sharpness by $\lambda_1(\nabla^2 \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_t))$ for various neural nets (including normalized nets) and argued that GD has an overwhelming tendency to persistently increase this sharpness measure until it reaches the *Edge of Stability (EoS) regime*, in which $\lambda_1(\nabla^2 \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}_t))$ stabilizes around $2/\hat{\eta}$ ($\hat{\eta}$ is the learning rate).

The sharpness measure we use in this paper takes the scale-invariance property into account, and techniques from previous works [52, 15] can be easily adopted here to establish a PAC-Bayes bound on the test error, where our sharpness measure appears as an additive term (see Appendix C).

Definition 1.1 (Spherical Sharpness). For a scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ (i.e., $\mathcal{L}(c\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all $c > 0$), the spherical sharpness at $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is defined by $\lambda_1(\nabla \mathcal{L}^2(\frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2}))$, the maximum eigenvalue of the Hessian matrix after projecting $\boldsymbol{w}$ onto the unit sphere.

1.1 Our Contributions

In this work, we study the aforementioned sharpness-reduction bias of gradient descent, assuming the loss is scale-invariant due to the presence of normalization. We rewrite GD+WD (1) with constant learning rate $\hat{\eta}$ on scale-invariant loss exactly as a specific kind of Projected Gradient Descent (PGD) on the unit sphere, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} \leftarrow \Pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \tilde{\eta}_t \nabla \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t))$, where $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t := \frac{\boldsymbol{w}_t}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2}$ is the direction of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$, and $\tilde{\eta}_t$ is

the "effective" learning rate at step t (defined in Section 3). In this view, $\tilde{\eta}_t$ changes in a similar way as adaptive gradient methods — $\tilde{\eta}_t$ increases when gradient is small, and decreases when gradient is large. Our main contributions are as follows:

1. We theoretically show that once gradient descent reaches the manifold of minimizers of $\mathcal{L}(\cdot)$, the effective learning rate will increase until $2/\tilde{\eta}_t$ roughly equals to the spherical sharpness, which indicates that gradient descent enters the EoS regime (Section 4.1).

2. In the EoS regime, we show that with small learning rate, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ oscillates around the manifold while moving forward and approximately tracking a sharpness-reduction flow, which is a gradient flow for minimizing sharpness on the manifold (with gradient-dependent learning rate) (Section 4.2).

3. As an application of our theory, we show that for linear regression with BN, GD+WD finds the minimizer that corresponds to the linear model with minimum weight norm, which looks surprising the same as the conventional effect of WD but is achieved through the completely different sharpness-reduction mechanism (Section 5).

4. We experimentally verified the sharpness-reduction bias phenomena predicted by our theorem and its benefit to generalization on CIFAR-10 with scale-invariant VGG-11 and ResNet-20, as well as matrix completion with BN (Appendix Q).

5. We generalize our theoretical result of sharpness-reduction bias to a broader class of adaptive gradient methods, most notably a variant of RMSprop with scalar learning rate (Appendix B). Our proof technique is novel and may have independent interest to the ML community.

Technical Contribution. The main challenge to establish our theorem is that we need to analyze the implicit bias of GD in the EoS regime. In particular, we crucially rely on step size being finite — this is in sharp contrast to many previous works on implicit bias of GD [61, 60, 47, 27, 18, 17, 36, 56, 1, 8, 38, 46, 48, 57, 62, 16] where the same bias exists at infinitesimal LR. Our analysis is inspired by a previous line of works [7, 10, 41] showing that label noise can drive SGD to move on the minimizer manifold along the direction of minimizing the trace of Hessian, but the key difference here is that we do not have any stochastic gradient noise. Instead, we study the EoS regime and exhibit that GD oscillates around the minimizer manifold by connecting it to power method. We show that this oscillation is a driving power that pushes the parameter to move on the manifold, and analyze the speed of this movement by modeling two key parameters of the dynamics as a 1-dimensional Hamiltonian system. To the best of our knowledge, our work is the first one that theoretically proves a sharpness measure to decrease in standard training processes with gradient descent, without any additional regularization such as label noise [7, 10, 41], or using non-standard variants of gradient descent update rule, e.g., using normalized GD or non-smooth wrappings on the loss function [3].

2 Related Works

Flatness and Generalization. It has been long believed that minima locate in a flat valley generalize better [22]. Li et al. [35] first visualized the loss landscape of neural networks and found "sharp" minima generalizes worse. Keskar et al. [29], Wu et al. [65], Jastrzębski et al. [26] empirically verified the positive correlation between flatness and generalizaiton. Neyshabur et al. [52] gave an theoretic explanation for generalization benefit of low sharpness using PAC-Bayes theory McAllester [51]. In light of this, Foret et al. [15] proposed SAM algorithm to improve the generalization of SGD by minimizing the sharpness of the loss. However, the definition of sharpness remains ambiguous in face of the positive homogeneity and invariance in ReLU networks [13], as networks with different with different parameters and sharpness be the same in function space. Towards this challenge, multiple definitions of scale-invariant sharpness has been proposed [67, 68, 63, 55]. Yi et al. [69], Kwon et al. [31] derived new algorithms with better generalization by defining new sharpness notions aware of positive homogeneity and invariance. He et al. [19] argues that the local minima of modern deep networks are more than being flat or sharp and could be asymmetric valleys.

Understanding Normalization Layers. BN is proposed in [25] with the original motivation being to reduce Internal Covariate Shift (ICS). Santurkar et al. [58] challenged this view by arguing that the

effectiveness of BN comes from a smoothing effect on the training objective. Several existing works have reported that optimization with normalization can be far away from classical optimization theory. Li and Arora [37] showed that one can train normalized networks (which is scale-invariant) even with exponential increasing LR. Li et al. [39] showed that GD+WD on scale-invariant loss can leave the stable regime. Lobacheva et al. [43] empirically showed that GD+WD on scale-invariant loss leads to a periodic behavior that sometimes improves the test accuracy. However, despite a lot of effort has been devoted to understanding the optimization and generalization benefits of normalization in various specific settings, *e.g.*, [64, 6, 71, 45, 12, 42, 11, 44, 32, 50], we still lack a complete and rigorous analysis for the role of normalization in general, especially in terms of generalization.

3 Preliminaries

Let $\mathbb{S}^{D-1} := \{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^D : \|\boldsymbol{\theta}\|_2 = 1\}$ be the unit sphere equipped with subspace topology. We say a loss function $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ defined on $\mathbb{R}^D \setminus \{\boldsymbol{0}\}$ is *scale-invariant* if $\mathcal{L}(c\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all $c > 0$. In other words, the loss value does not change with the parameter norm. For a differentiable scale-invariant function $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$, the gradient is (-1)-homogeneous and it is always perpendicular to $\boldsymbol{w}$, i.e., $\nabla\mathcal{L}(c\boldsymbol{w}) = c^{-1}\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all $c > 0$ and $\langle\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}), \boldsymbol{w}\rangle = 0$. The focus of this paper is the dynamics of GD+WD on scale-invariant loss. (1) gives the update rule for learning rate (LR) $\hat{\eta}$ and weight decay (WD) $\hat{\lambda}$. We use $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t := \frac{\boldsymbol{w}_t}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2}$ to denote the projection of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ onto the unit sphere at step t. A number of works [64, 23, 2] propose to use the "effective learning rate" $\frac{\hat{\eta}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2^2}$ to measure the update efficiency of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ on $\mathbb{S}^{D-1}$. Inspired by this notion, we write GD+WD on scale-invariant loss as a specific kind of Projected Gradient Descent (PGD), and define $\tilde{\eta}_t := \frac{\hat{\eta}}{(1-\hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda})\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2^2}$ to be the effective learning rate with slight abuse of terminology.

Lemma 3.1. *When the parameters $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ are updated as* (1), *$\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ satisfies the following equation:*

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \Pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \tilde{\eta}_t\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t, \boldsymbol{z}_t)), \tag{2}$$

*where $\tilde{\eta}_t := \frac{\hat{\eta}}{(1-\hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda})\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2^2}$ is called the **effective learning rate** at step t, and $\Pi : \boldsymbol{w} \mapsto \frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2}$ is the projection operator that projects any vector onto the unit sphere.*

The convergence rate of GD+WD has been analyzed by Li et al. [40]. Here we present a variant of their theorem that bounds both the gradient and effective LR.

Theorem 3.2 (Variant of Theorem 4.1 in [40]). *Let $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ be a scale-invariant loss function and $\rho_2 := \sup\{\|\nabla^2\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})\|_2 : \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{S}^{D-1}\}$ be the smoothness constant of $\mathcal{L}$ restricted on the unit sphere. For GD+WD* (1) *with $\hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda} \le 1/2$ and $\tilde{\eta}_0 \le \frac{1}{\pi^2\rho_2}$, after at most $T_0 := \left\lceil \frac{1}{2\hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda}}\left(\ln\frac{\|\boldsymbol{w}_0\|_2^2}{\rho_2\pi^2\hat{\eta}} + 3\right)\right\rceil$ steps, there must exist $0 \le t \le T_0$ such that $\|\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)\|_2^2 \le 8\pi^4\rho_2^2\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta}$ and $\tilde{\eta}_t \le \frac{1}{\pi^2\rho_2}$.*

4 GD+WD on Scale-Invariant Loss Functions

In this section, we analyze GD+WD (1) on a scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$. We use $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ to denote the trainable parameter at step t and $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t := \frac{\boldsymbol{w}_t}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2}$ to denote its projection onto $\mathbb{S}^{D-1}$. In Section 4.1, we analyze the dynamics in the stable regime, which is a regime that the loss is guaranteed to decrease. Theorem 3.2 suggests that $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ can get close to a local minimizer at some time t_0, but we show that the effective LR is increasing after t_0 until GD+WD eventually leaves this stable regime and enters a new regime which we call the Edge of Stability (EoS). In Section 4.2, we establish our main theorem, which connects the dynamics of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ in the EoS regime to a sharpness-reduction flow.

4.1 GD+WD Eventually Leaves the Stable Regime

A standard step for analyzing optimization methods is to do Taylor expansion locally for the loss function, and show that how the optimization method decreases the loss using a *descent lemma*. In our case of scale-invariant loss functions, we use $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{w}) := \nabla^2\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$ to denote the Hessian matrix of $\mathcal{L}$ at $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, and $\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{w}) := \lambda_1(\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{w}))$ to denote the top eigenvalue of $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{w})$.

Lemma 4.1 (Descent Lemma). *For scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$, at step t of GD+WD we have*

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t) - \tilde{\eta}_t(1 - \tilde{\eta}_t\lambda_{\max}^{(t)}/2)\|\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)\|_2^2.$$

where $\lambda_{\max}^{(t)} := \sup_{\alpha \in [0,\tilde{\eta}_t]}\left\{\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \alpha\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t))\right\}$ is an upper bound of spherical sharpness locally.

This descent lemma shows that the training loss $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)$ is decreasing as long as the effective LR $\tilde{\eta}_t$ is smaller than $2/\lambda_{\max}^{(t)}$, We call the regime of $\tilde{\eta}_t < 2/\lambda_{\max}^{(t)}$ as the *stable regime* of GD+WD. If $\tilde{\eta}_t \approx 2/\lambda_{\max}^{(t)}$ with a small error, then we call it as the *Edge of Stability (EoS) regime*.

Fix an initial point $\boldsymbol{w}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^D \setminus \{\boldsymbol{0}\}$. Now we aim to characterize the dynamics of GD+WD when LR $\hat{\eta}$ and WD $\hat{\lambda}$ are small enough. Theorem 3.2 shows that for some $t_0 \leq T_0$, $\|\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0})\|_2^2 \leq O(\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta})$ and $\tilde{\eta}_{t_0} \leq \frac{1}{\pi^2\rho_2} < \frac{2}{\rho_2}$, which means $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0}$ is an approximate first-order stationary point of $\mathcal{L}$ on the unit sphere. This does not guarantee that $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0}$ is close to any global minimizer, but in practice the training loss rarely gets stuck at a non-optimal value when the model is overparameterized [33, 53, 34, 70]. We are thus motivated to study the case where $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0}$ not only has small gradient $\|\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0})\|_2^2 \leq O(\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta})$ but also is close to a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* \in \mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ of $\mathcal{L}$ in the sense that $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*\|_2 \leq O((\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta})^{1/2})$ (note that the latter implies the former assuming smoothness).

As the gradient is small near the local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$, starting from step t_0, the norm of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ decreases due to the effect of WD. See Figure 3a. Since the effective LR is inversely proportional to $\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2^2$, this leads to the effective LR to increase. Then Theorem 4.3 will show that the GD+WD dynamic eventually leaves the stable regime at some time $t_1 > t_0$, and enters the EoS regime where $\tilde{\eta}_t \approx 2/\lambda_{\max}^{(t)}$.

(a)   (b)

To establish Theorem 4.3, we need to assume that $\mathcal{L}$ satisfies Polyak-Łojasiewicz (PL) condition locally, which is a standard regularity condition in the optimization literature to ease theoretical analysis around a minimizer. Intuitively, PL condition guarantees that the gradient grows faster than a quadratic function as we move a parameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ away from $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$. Note that PL condition is strictly weaker than convexity as the function can still be non-convex under PL condition (see, e.g., [28]).

Definition 4.2 (Polyak-Łojasiewicz Condition). For a scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ and $\mu > 0$, we say that $\mathcal{L}$ satisfies μ-Polyak-Łojasiewicz condition (or μ-PL) locally around a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ on $\mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ if for some neighborhood $U \subseteq \mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ of $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$, $\forall\boldsymbol{\theta} \in U : \frac{1}{2}\|\nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})\|_2^2 \geq \mu \cdot (\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) - \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*))$.

Theorem 4.3. *Let $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ be a scale-invariant loss that satisfies μ-PL around a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ on the unit sphere (Definition 4.2). For GD+WD on $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ with learning rate $\hat{\eta}$ and weight decay $\hat{\lambda}$, if at some step t_0, $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_0} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*\|_2 \leq O((\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta})^{1/2})$ and $\tilde{\eta}_{t_0} < \frac{2}{\rho_2}$, where $\boldsymbol{\theta}^* \in \mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ is a local minimizer, $\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta}$ is small, and $\rho_2 := \sup\{\|\nabla^2\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})\|_2 : \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{S}^{D-1}\}$, then there exists a time $t_1 > t_0$ such that $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_1} - \boldsymbol{\theta}^*\|_2 = O((\hat{\lambda}\hat{\eta})^{1/2})$ and $\tilde{\eta}_{t_1} = \frac{2}{\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^*)} + O((\hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda})^{1/2})$.*

(c)

Figure 3: **(a), (b)**: The norm of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ decreases when gradient is small and increases when gradient is large. **(c)**: Dynamics of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ on a 3D scale-invariant function, where darker color means lower loss (see Appendix F). All points in the black line are minimizers. $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ eventually moves close to the flattest one (red star).

4.2 Dynamics at the Edge of Stability

From the analysis in the previous subsection, we know that $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ can get close to a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta}^*$ and enter the EoS regime at some step t_1. But what happens after t_1?

Figure 3c gives a warm-up example on a 3D scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L} : \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$, where the black line is a manifold Γ consisting of all the minimizers of the loss. In training with GD+WD, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ first goes close to a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$, then Theorem 4.3 suggests that the effective LR steadily increases due to WD until the EoS regime is reached. Now something interesting happens — $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ moves a bit away from $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$ and starts to oscillate around the manifold Γ. This oscillation is not completely perpendicular to Γ but forms a small angle that pushes $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ to move downward persistently until $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ goes near the minimizer $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_*$.

For a general scale-invariant loss $\mathcal{L} : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$, which minimizer does $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ move towards? Assuming the existence of a local minimizer manifold and some regularity conditions, we can prove that $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ always oscillates around the manifold and moves towards a direction that reduces spherical sharpness. Now we introduce our assumptions.

4.2.1 Assumptions

We assume that there is a manifold Γ consisting of local minimizers. Later in our theorem, we will analyze the dynamics when $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_1}$ is close to the manifold.

Assumption 4.4. The loss function $\mathcal{L} : \mathbb{R}^D \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} \to \mathbb{R}$ is $\mathcal{C}^4$-smooth and scale-invariant. Γ is a $\mathcal{C}^2$-smooth, $(D_\Gamma - 1)$-dimensional submanifold of $\mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ for some $0 \le D_\Gamma < D$, where every $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$ is a local minimizer of $\mathcal{L}$ on $\mathbb{S}^{D-1}$ and $\mathrm{rank}(\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta})) = D - D_\Gamma$.

Scale-invariance has become a standard assumption in studying neural nets with normalization layers [37, 39, 43]. For VGG and ResNet, the scale-invariance can be ensured with minor changes to the architectures (see Appendix P.2). The training loss of a neural net may not be smooth if the activation is ReLU, but lately it has become clear that differentiable activations such as Swish [54] can perform equally well. We use Swish in our VGG-11 experiments (Figure 2), but we note that ResNet with ReLU activation also exhibits the sharpness-reduction bias empirically (see Appendix Q).

For any local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$, the eigenvalues $\lambda_k^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ must be non-negative. And $\lambda_k^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = 0$ for all $D - D_\Gamma < k \le D$, since Γ is of dimension $D_\Gamma - 1$. The condition $\mathrm{rank}(\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta})) = D - D_\Gamma$ ensures that the Hessian is maximally non-degenerate on Γ, which also appears as a key assumption in previous works [41, 3, 14]. This condition simplifies the calculus on Γ in our analysis as it ensures that the null space of the matrix $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ equals to the tangent space of Γ at $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$. It is also closely related to PL condition (Definition 4.2) as Assumption 4.4 implies that $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ satisfies μ-PL (for some $\mu > 0$) locally around every $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$ on the unit sphere (Arora et al. [3], Lemma B.3).

To ease our analysis, we also need the following regularity condition to ensure that the largest eigenvalue is unique. In our experiments, sharpness reduction happens even when the multiplicity of the top eigenvalue is more than 1, but we leave the analysis of that case to future work.

Assumption 4.5. For all $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$, $\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) > \lambda_2^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$. That is, the top eigenvalue of $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is unique.

4.2.2 Main Theorem

First, we define $\eta_{\mathrm{in}} := \hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda}$ as the intrinsic learning rate (name from Li et al. 39) for convenience. As suggested in Theorems 3.2 and 4.3, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ can get close to a local minimizer and be in the EoS regime at some step t_1: if $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$ is the local minimizer, then $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t_1} - \boldsymbol{\zeta}_0\|_2 = O(\eta_{\mathrm{in}}^{1/2})$ and $\tilde{\eta}_{t_1} = \frac{2}{\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0)} + O(\eta_{\mathrm{in}}^{1/2})$, In our main theorem, we start our analysis from step t_1 while setting $t_1 = 0$ WLOG (otherwise we can shift the step numbers). It connects GD+WD in the EoS regime to a gradient flow on the manifold Γ minimizing the spherical sharpness (with gradient-dependent learning rate), where one step of GD+WD tracks a time interval of η_{in} in the gradient flow.

$$\boldsymbol{\zeta}(0) = \boldsymbol{\zeta}_0 \in \Gamma, \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\tau}\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau) = -\frac{2\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))}{4 + \|\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))\|_2^2}, \tag{3}$$

Here we use the notation $\nabla_\Gamma R(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ for any $R : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ to denote the projection of $\nabla R(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ onto the tangent space $\mathsf{T}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\Gamma)$ at $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Gamma$. $\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau)$ reduces sharpness as it moves in direction of the negative gradient of $\log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))$ on Γ. A simple chain rule shows how fast the spherical sharpness decreases:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau)) = -\frac{2\|\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))\|_2^2}{4 + \|\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))\|_2^2} \approx \begin{cases} -\frac{1}{2}\|\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}(\tau))\|_2^2 & \text{for small gradient;} \\ -2 & \text{for large gradient.} \end{cases}$$

Note that it is not enough to just assume that $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0$ is close to $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$. If $\boldsymbol{\theta}_0 = \boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$ holds exactly, then the subsequent dynamic of $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ is described by $\boldsymbol{w}_t = (1 - \hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda})^t \boldsymbol{w}_0$ with direction unchanged. There are also some other bad initial directions of $\boldsymbol{w}_0$ that may not lead to the sharpness-reduction bias. This motivates us to do a smoothed analysis for the initial direction: the initial direction is $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ with tiny random perturbation, where the perturbation scale is allowed to vary from $\exp(-\eta_{\text{in}}^{-o(1)})$ to $\eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)}$, and we show that a good initial direction is met with high probability as $\eta_{\text{in}} \to 0$.[1] Alternately, one can regard it as a modeling of the tiny random noise in GD+WD due to the precision errors in floating-point operations. See Figure 4b; the training loss can never be exactly zero in practice.

Theorem 4.6. *Under Assumptions 4.4 and 4.5, let $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0 \in \Gamma$ be a point on the local minimizer manifold. Consider GD+WD with learning rate $\hat{\eta} > 0$ and weight decay $\hat{\lambda} > 0$. Let $\eta_{\text{in}} := \hat{\eta}\hat{\lambda}$ be the intrinsic learning rate. Suppose that the direction and norm of $\boldsymbol{w}_0$ are initialized separately as follows:*

1. *The initial direction $\frac{\boldsymbol{w}_0}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_0\|_2}$ is set to $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$ with a tiny random perturbation: $\frac{\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0 + \boldsymbol{\xi}}{\|\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0 + \boldsymbol{\xi}\|_2}$, where $\boldsymbol{\xi} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma_0^2 \boldsymbol{I}/D)$ is Gaussian noise with $\sigma_0 \in [\exp(-\eta_{\text{in}}^{-o(1)}), \eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)}]$;*

2. *The initial parameter norm $\|\boldsymbol{w}_0\|_2$ is chosen so that the initial effective learning rate $\tilde{\eta}_0 := \frac{\hat{\eta}}{(1-\eta_{\text{in}})\|\boldsymbol{w}_0\|_2^2}$ satisfies $\left|\tilde{\eta}_0 - \frac{2}{\lambda_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0)}\right| \leq \eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)}$.*

Then with probability $1 - O(\eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2})$, the trajectory of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t := \frac{\boldsymbol{w}_t}{\|\boldsymbol{w}_t\|_2}$ is close to a sharpness-reduction flow $\boldsymbol{\zeta} : [0, T] \to \Gamma$ that starts from $\boldsymbol{\zeta}_0$ and evolves as the ODE (3) (if solution exists), in the sense that $\|\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \boldsymbol{\zeta}(t\eta_{\text{in}})\|_2 = O(\eta_{\text{in}}^{1/4-o(1)})$ for all $0 \leq t \leq T/\eta_{\text{in}}$.

Remark 4.7 (Magnitude of Oscillation). As suggested by Figure 3c, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ actually oscillates around the manifold, but our bound shows the closeness of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ and $\boldsymbol{\zeta}(t\eta_{\text{in}})$ directly, because the magnitude of oscillation is as small as $O(\eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)})$, so it is absorbed into our error bound $O(\eta_{\text{in}}^{1/4-o(1)})$.

4.2.3 Proof Idea

Throughout our proof, we view GD+WD for $\boldsymbol{w}_t$ as a PGD for $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ with effective LR $\tilde{\eta}_t$ (Lemma 3.1). To track $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ with $\boldsymbol{\zeta}(t\eta_{\text{in}})$, for each step t, we construct a local minimizer $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t \in \Gamma$ that serves as the "projection" of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ onto the manifold Γ, in the sense that the displacement $\boldsymbol{x}_t := \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ is approximately perpendicular to the tangent space of Γ at $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$. Our entire proof works through induction. According to the initial conditions, the dynamic is initially in the EoS regime: $\|\boldsymbol{x}_t\|_2 \leq \eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)}$ and $|\tilde{\eta}_t - 2/\lambda_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)| \leq \eta_{\text{in}}^{1/2-o(1)}$ at $t = 0$. In our induction, we maintain the induction hypothesis that these two EoS conditions continue to hold for all $t \geq 0$.

Period-Two Oscillation. A key insight in our proof is that after a few initial steps, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_t$ is oscillating around $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ along the $\pm\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ directions, where $\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a unit top eigenvector of $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ and is chosen in a way that $\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ is continuous on Γ. More specifically, $\boldsymbol{x}_t = h_t \boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t) + O(\|\boldsymbol{x}_t\|_2^2)$ for $h_t := \langle \boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)\rangle$. The oscillation is of period 2: $h_t > 0$ when t is even and $h_t < 0$ when t is odd. See Figure 4d for an example.

This oscillation can be connected to a power method for the matrix $\boldsymbol{I} - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$. In the EoS regime, we can approximate $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1}$ (when $\boldsymbol{x}_t$ is small) as $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \Pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \tilde{\eta}_t \nabla\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)) \approx \Pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)\boldsymbol{x}_t) \approx \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)\boldsymbol{x}_t$ by Taylor expansions of $\nabla\mathcal{L}$ and $\Pi : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{S}^{D-1}$. We can further show that $\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t+1} \approx \boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ due to our choice of projections. Then the connection to power method is shown below:

$$\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1} \approx \boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} - \boldsymbol{\phi}_t \approx (\boldsymbol{I} - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t))\boldsymbol{x}_t,$$

By simple linear algebra, $\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$ is an eigenvector of $\boldsymbol{I} - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$, associated with eigenvalue $1 - \tilde{\eta}_t \lambda_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t) \approx -1$. The remaining eigenvalues are $\{1 - \tilde{\eta}_t \lambda_i^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)\}_{i=2}^D$, (where $\lambda_i^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$ is the i-th largest eigenvalue of $\boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)$), and they lie in the range $(-1, 1]$ since $\lambda_i^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t) \in [0, \lambda_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t))$. Using a similar analysis as power method, we show that $\boldsymbol{x}_t$ quickly align to the direction of $\pm\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$ after a few initial steps, as the corresponding eigenvalue has approximately the largest absolute value.[2]

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[1]Here $\eta_{\text{in}}^{-o(1)}$ can be constant, $O(\log(1/\eta_{\text{in}}))$, or $O(\text{polylog}(1/\eta_{\text{in}}))$, but not $\eta_{\text{in}}^{-\epsilon}$ if $\epsilon > 0$ is a constant.

[2]Our construction of $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ ensures that $\boldsymbol{x}_t$ always has a small overlap with the 1-eigenspace of $\boldsymbol{I} - \tilde{\eta}_t \boldsymbol{H}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$, so $\boldsymbol{x}_t$ can only align to $\pm\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\text{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$.

Figure 4: Illustration of the oscillation and periodic behaviors in the dynamics of GD+WD on linear regression with BN (see Sections 4.2.3 and 5). The training loss decreases to $\approx 10^{-14}$ in the first 1k steps and achieves test loss 0.26. Starting from step ~ 1k, the dynamic enters the EoS regime. **(a).** The test loss decreases to 0.16 as a distance measure to the flattest solution (M) decreases towards 0; **(b).** The training loss oscillates around $\sim 10^{-4}$ in the EoS regime; **(c).** $2/\tilde{\eta}_t$ and spherical sharpness decrease and exhibits a periodic behavior; **(d).** The parameter oscillates around the minimizer manifold along the top eigenvector direction.

To formally establish the above result, we need a tiny initial alignment between $\boldsymbol{x}_0$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_0)$, just as the initial condition in power method. This is where we need the initial random perturbation.

Oscillation Drives $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ to Move. This period-two oscillation is the driving power to push $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ to move on the manifold. The main idea here is to realize that the oscillation direction deviates slightly from the direction of $\pm\boldsymbol{v}_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$ if we use a higher-order approximation. We specifically use the Taylor approximation to show that this deviation leads $\boldsymbol{\phi}_t$ to move slightly on Γ: after each cycle of oscillation, $\boldsymbol{\phi}_{t+2} \approx \boldsymbol{\phi}_t - 4\eta_{\mathrm{in}}h_t^2\nabla_\Gamma \log \lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t) + O(\eta_{\mathrm{in}}^{1.5-o(1)})$, which resembels two steps of gradient descent on Γ to minimize the logarithm of spherical sharpness with learning rate $2\eta_{\mathrm{in}}h_t^2$,

Periodic Behavior of h_t and $\tilde{\eta}_t$. It remains to analyze the dynamics of h_t so that we can know how fast the sharpness reduction is. Our analysis is inspired by an empirical study from Lobacheva et al. [43], which exhibits a periodic behavior of gradients and effective learning rates. In our setting, we show that h_t and $\tilde{\eta}_t$ *does* evolve periodically. See Figures 4c and 4d for an example.

The key is that $\tilde{\eta}_t$ changes as an adaptive gradient method: $\tilde{\eta}_t$ increases when gradient is small and decreases when gradient is large (due to the effect of WD; see Figures 3a and 3b). According to our power method approximation, $h_{t+2} \approx (1-\tilde{\eta}_t\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t))^2 h_t$, so h_t decreases when $\tilde{\eta}_t < 2/\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$. But $\tilde{\eta}_t$ increases if h_t is small. When $\tilde{\eta}_t$ becomes larger than $2/\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$, h_t is switched from decreasing to increasing according to our approximation. But h_t cannot increase indefinitely because $\tilde{\eta}_t$ decreases when h_t is large enough. Finally, a period is finished when $\tilde{\eta}_t < 2/\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_t)$ again. In Appendix N, we connect this periodic behavior with a 1-dimensional Hamiltonian system, which enables us to prove that each period is actually so short that we can approximate $2\eta_{\mathrm{in}}h_t^2$ in each step with its average value in a period to obtain the final flow approximation (3).

Extensions. We note that this periodic behavior is not limited to GD+WD on scale-invariant loss, as the above intuitive argument holds as long as the effective LR changes adaptively with respect to gradient change. Based on this intuition, an important notion called *Quasi-RMSprop scheduler* is proposed. For a PGD method, a learning rate scheduler is a rule for changing the effective LRs in each step, and Quasi-RMSprop is a specific class of schedulers we defined, including the way that the effective LRs change in GD+WD on scale-invariant loss (if viewed as PGD). Our proof is done in a unified way that works as long as the effective LRs are changed according to a Quasi-RMSprop scheduler. As a by-product, a similar theorem can be proved for GD (without projection) on non-scale-invariant loss, if a Quasi-RMSprop scheduler sets the LR in each step. For example, we can extend our analysis to RMSprop with a scalar learning rate. See Appendix B.

5 Case Study: Linear Regression with Batch Normalization

In this section, we analyze the GD+WD dynamics on linear regression with Batch Normalization (BN), as a simple application of our theory. Let $\{(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ be a dataset, where $\boldsymbol{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ are inputs and regression targets. We study the over-parameterized case where $d \gg n$, and we assume that the regression targets are generated by an unknown linear model.

A classic linear model is parameterized by $(\boldsymbol{w}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}$ and outputs $\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x} + b$ given input $\boldsymbol{x}$, but now we add a BN to the output. More specifically, we consider a batch-normalized linear model $\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}, \gamma, \beta) := \gamma \cdot \frac{\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x} - \mu_1}{\sigma_1} + \beta$, where μ_1, σ_1 are the mean and variance of $\{\boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ over the whole dataset[3], and the bias term b is cancelled out due to BN. Note that $\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}, \gamma, \beta)$ is still a linear function with respect to $\boldsymbol{x}$. Let $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathrm{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ be the mean and covariance of the input data $\{\boldsymbol{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$. Then $\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}, \gamma, \beta)$ can be rewritten as:

$$\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}, \gamma, \beta) = \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^\top \boldsymbol{x} + \tilde{b}, \qquad \text{where} \quad \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}} := {}^{\gamma \boldsymbol{w}}/{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\mathrm{x}}}}, \quad \tilde{b} := \beta - \tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}^\top \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\mathrm{x}}. \tag{4}$$

No matter how $\boldsymbol{w}$ is set, the output mean and variance of Φ are always β and γ^2. To simplify our analysis, we fix β, γ to be non-trainable constants so that the mean and variance of Φ's output match with those of $\{y_i\}_{i=1}^n$, that is, we set $\beta = \mu_{\mathrm{y}}$ and $\gamma = \sigma_{\mathrm{y}}$ to be the mean and standard deviation of y_i over the whole dataset. Then the training loss is $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i \in [n]} (\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}_i; \boldsymbol{w}, \gamma, \beta) - y_i)^2$.

Theorem 5.1. *In our setting of linear regression with BN, the sharpness-reduction flow $\boldsymbol{\zeta}$ defined in (3) converges to the solution $\boldsymbol{w}^* \in \mathbb{S}^{d-1}$ that minimizes sharpness $\lambda_1^{\mathrm{H}}(\boldsymbol{w}^*)$ on Γ, regardless of the initialization. Moreover, the coefficients $(\tilde{\boldsymbol{w}}, \tilde{b})$ associated with $\boldsymbol{w}^*$ (defined in (4)) are the optimal solution of the following constrained optimization problem (M):*

$$\min \quad \|\boldsymbol{w}\|_2^2 \quad s.t. \quad \boldsymbol{w}^\top \boldsymbol{x}_i + b = y_i, \quad \forall i \in [n]. \tag{M}$$

At first sight the result may appear trivial because the intent of WD is to regularize L^2 norm. But this is deceptive because in scale-invariant nets WD changes from an explicit regularizer as an implicit one. This also challenges conventional view of optimization. GD is usually viewed as a discretization of its continuous counterpart, gradient flow (GF), and theoretical insight for the discrete update including convergence rate and implicit bias is achieved by analyzing the continuous counterpart (See Appendix A for a list). However, GF does not have the same sharpness-reduction bias as GD. As discussed in [37], adding WD only performs a time-rescaling on the GF trajectory on scale-invariant loss, but does not change the point that GF converge to if we project the trajectory onto the unit sphere. One can easily show that GF may converge to any zero-loss solution, but no matter how small LR is, GD exhibits the sharpness-reduction bias towards the optimal solution of (M). To our best knowledge, this result is the first concrete example where even with arbitrarily small LR, GD can still generalize better than GF under natural settings.

6 Conclusions and Future Work

We exhibited settings where gradient descent has an implicit bias to reduce spherical sharpness in training neural nets with normalization layers and weight decay, and we verified experimentally this sharpness-reduction bias predicted by our theorem as well as its generalization benefit on CIFAR-10.

Our theoretical analysis holds for dynamics around a minimizer manifold and requires the learning rate to be small enough so that the parameter oscillates locally and approximately tracks a sharpness-reduction flow on the manifold. We note that in practice a decrease in spherical sharpness is observed even with moderate LR and also before getting close to a minimizer manifold. Explaining these phenomena is left for future work. Now we list some other future directions. First is to generalize our results to SGD, where the sharpness measure may not be the spherical sharpness and could depend on the structure of gradient noise. Second, to understand benefit of reducing spherical sharpness on specific tasks, e.g., why does reducing spherical sharpness encourage low-rank on matrix completion with BN (Figure 1)? Third, to study sharpness-reduction bias for neural net architectures that are not scale-invariant on all parameters (eg., with certain unnormalized layers).

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[3]Note that the batch size is n here as we are running full-batch GD

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