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ABSTRACT

While looped transformers (termed as *Looped-Attn*) often outperform standard transformers (termed as *Single-Attn*) on complex reasoning tasks, the theoretical basis for this advantage remains underexplored. In this paper, we explain this phenomenon through the lens of loss landscape geometry, inspired by empirical observations of their distinct dynamics at both sample and Hessian levels. To formalize this, we extend the River-Valley landscape model by distinguishing between U-shaped valleys (flat) and V-shaped valleys (steep). Based on empirical observations, we conjecture that the recursive architecture of *Looped-Attn* induces a **landscape-level inductive bias** towards River-V-Valley. Theoretical derivations based on this conjectured inductive bias suggest a better loss convergence along the river due to valley hopping, and further encourage learning about complex patterns compared to the River-U-Valley induced by *Single-Attn*. Building on this insight, we propose **SHIFT** (**S**taged **H**ierarchical **F**ramework for **P**rogressive **T**raining), a staged training framework that accelerates the training process of *Looped-Attn* while achieving comparable performances.

1 INTRODUCTION

Transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) have emerged as a cornerstone across various fields (Devlin et al., 2019; Radford et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021; He et al., 2022), particularly in Large Language Models (LLMs) (Brown et al., 2020; Achiam et al., 2023). Despite their success, transformers often exhibit challenges in complex reasoning tasks involving arithmetic, commonsense, and symbolic reasoning (Rae et al., 2021; Anil et al., 2022; Wei et al., 2022; Lightman et al., 2023; Ahn et al., 2024). While prompting strategies such as Chain-of-Thought (CoT) have greatly enhanced the reasoning capabilities (Wei et al., 2022; Fu et al., 2022; Chowdhery et al., 2023), the corresponding performances on tasks requiring long reasoning chains are inherently constrained by the fixed-depth transformers (Chen et al., 2025). This limitation motivates the exploration of alternative architectures designed for advanced multi-step reasoning.

It is well-established that standard, non-recursive transformers (Vaswani et al., 2017) (termed as *Single-Attn*) often exhibit a performance plateau on complex problems. This is particularly evident in length generalization issues, where performances of *Single-Attn* drop on sequences longer than those seen during training (Anil et al., 2022; Xiao & Liu, 2023; Jin et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). As an alternative, looped transformers with recursive structure (Dehghani et al., 2018; Lan et al., 2019) (termed as *Looped-Attn*) have demonstrated success on such complex reasoning tasks (Giannou et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2024; Saunshi et al., 2025; Bae et al., 2025). Specifically, *Looped-Attn* deploys recursive self-attention blocks to iteratively refine its internal representations, which helps transformers overcome the performance bottlenecks observed in *Single-Attn*. Although empirical evidence indicates the superiority of *Looped-Attn* over *Single-Attn*, the theoretical understanding of this advantage remains underexplored. This performance gap evidently stems from the recursive mechanism in *Looped-Attn*, but precisely how this structural modification translates into superior reasoning capabilities is still an open question. This motivates the following question:

What makes looped transformers perform better than non-recursive ones? Specifically, how does the inductive bias from recursion enhance reasoning capabilities?

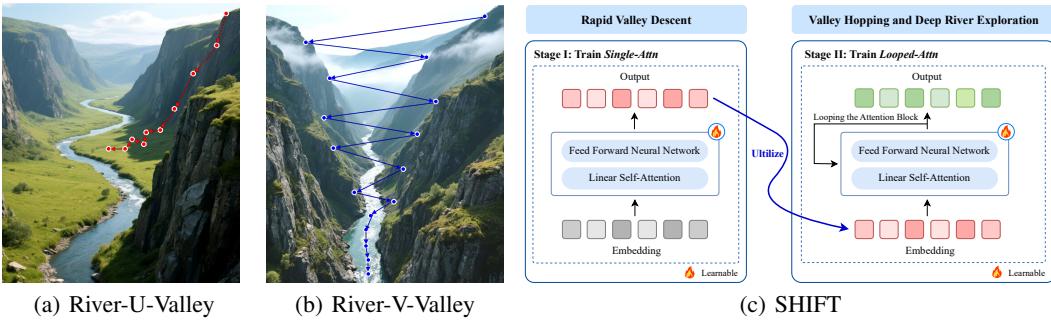


Figure 1: Loss Landscapes, Optimization Trajectories and SHIFT Strategy.

To theoretically answer this question, we start by empirically investigating the learning processes of *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn*. Our investigation examines their behaviors at two levels: a macro-level evaluation of model performance across samples of varying difficulties, and a micro-level examination of the loss landscape’s local curvature via Hessian dynamics. These observations reveal two key differences in how *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* learn, which serve as the foundations for our subsequent theoretical analysis. We outline these observations below and provide a detailed discussion in Section 4.1.

Observation 1: Sample-Level Performance

- (a) *Single-Attn*. The learning process stops progressing after mastering simple patterns.
- (b) *Looped-Attn*. The learning process follows a two-phase curriculum, from simple patterns to complex ones.

Observation 2: Hessian-Level Dynamics

- (a) *Single-Attn*. The eigenspectrum remains relatively static.
- (b) *Looped-Attn*. The eigenspectrum undergoes a three-phase evolution: Collapse, Diversification, and Stabilization.

In this paper, we argue that the above two observations potentially originate from the distinct *loss landscapes* induced by different attention architectures. To formalize this, we extend the River-Valley landscape model (Wen et al., 2024) by distinguishing between U-shaped valleys (flat) and V-shaped valleys (steep). Based on this framework, we hypothesize that the *Single-Attn* landscape is dominated by U-shaped valleys, whereas the recursive structure of *Looped-Attn* creates a landscape dominated by V-shaped valleys. This geometric difference accounts for the behaviors observed:

- V-shaped valleys induce a hopping path across valleys, which drives diversification before stabilization of the Hessian eigenspectrum (Observation 2);
- V-shaped valleys might convert hopping to significant progress along the river, which encourages to learn on the complex patterns (Observation 1).

This mechanism comes from the *landscape-level inductive bias* of *Looped-Attn*. Figure 1 provides an intuitive illustration, and Sections 4.2~4.3 detail the formal propositions and theorems.

Furthermore, based on the above understandings, we propose **SHIFT** (Staged Hierarchical Framework for Progressive Training) that combines *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* to improve the computational efficiency of *Looped-Attn*. Above analysis reveals that both models share the initial phase of mastering simple patterns, and we further demonstrate that their optimization landscapes have a shared river upstream region containing solutions to these patterns. Therefore, SHIFT initially deploys the computationally efficient *Single-Attn* to learn simple patterns, and then switches it to *Looped-Attn*, which enables to explore the river downstream and learn complex patterns. A crucial question remains on when to switch from *Single-Attn* to *Looped-Attn*. We present a SHIFT Criterion with Patience (**SCP**), established on the performance and optimization stability of *Single-Attn*. Empirical results show that SHIFT achieves reasoning performance comparable to a pure *Looped-Attn* with greater computational efficiency.

Our main contributions are summarized in Appendix A.

108 **2 RELATED WORK**

110 **Looped Transformers.** The principle of recursion in Transformers via cross-layer parameter sharing
 111 has been explored in foundational works like Universal Transformers (Dehghani et al., 2018) and
 112 ALBERT (Lan et al., 2019). Building on this, looped transformers have demonstrated significant
 113 empirical success in complex reasoning (Gao et al., 2024; Bae et al., 2025), such as length general-
 114 ization capabilities (Giannou et al., 2023; Fan et al., 2024; Saunshi et al., 2025). Theoretical research
 115 aiming to understand the advantages of looped transformers can be roughly split into two lines. The
 116 first line focuses on expressiveness (Giannou et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Xu & Sato, 2024), show-
 117 ing that looped transformers are Turing complete with universal computational capabilities. The
 118 second line analyzes the optimization properties (Gatmiry et al., 2024), proving convergence for lin-
 119 ear regression tasks. However, a provable connection between the recursive architecture of looped
 120 transformers and the superior reasoning capabilities remains underexplored. Our work addresses
 121 this gap by analyzing how the recursive structure shapes the optimization landscape.

122 **Optimization Landscape and Generalization.** The geometry of the optimization/loss landscape
 123 is fundamental to understanding the training dynamics and generalization capabilities of deep neural
 124 networks (Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1994; 1997; Li et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2022; Liu et al.,
 125 2023). More recent work has characterized the more complex geometry of the loss landscape, going
 126 beyond flat minima. Xing et al. (2018) find that SGD moves in *valley-like* regions of the loss surface
 127 to quickly travel far away from the initialization point. Davis et al. (2024) propose that low-loss solu-
 128 tions are not isolated points but lie within connected manifolds, which are defined as *ravines*. Song
 129 et al. (2024) characterize the training loss as having an *ill-conditioned-valley-like* structure with a
 130 dominant subspace (high curvature) and a bulk subspace (low curvature). This progression culmi-
 131 nates in the general *river-valley* theoretical model formulated by Wen et al. (2024), where the river
 132 structure is a specific instance of the ravine (Davis et al., 2024) and rooted in the bulk subspace (Song
 133 et al., 2024). Building upon this general model, Liu et al. (2025) offer a novel perspective, applying
 134 neural thermodynamic laws to understand the river-valley loss landscape. Our work extends the
 135 geometry of valleys by *U-shaped* and *V-shaped*, and analyzes these distinct landscapes and training
 136 dynamics induced by different architectures.

137 Additional related work is discussed in Appendix C.

138 **3 PRELIMINARIES**

140 This section formalizes the next-token prediction task and specific model architectures.

142 **Next-token Prediction Task.** Let the vocabulary $\mathcal{V} = \{1, \dots, V\}$ be a finite index set of V
 143 tokens (e.g. words, characters). We consider a training set $\mathcal{T}_N = \{(X^i, y^i)\}_{i=1}^N$ of input sequences
 144 $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \in \mathcal{V}^n$ and target tokens $y \in \mathcal{V}$. Model parameters θ are trained by minimizing
 145 the empirical cross-entropy loss: $\hat{L}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log(\mathbb{S}_{y^i}(\hat{y}^i))$, where $\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})$ is the softmax
 146 probability of the ground-truth token y given the model’s logit output \hat{y} . The input sequence X
 147 is first mapped to an embedding matrix $E \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$. For theoretical convenience, we consider a
 148 simplified setting where the core component for both *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* is a single-layer
 149 linear self-attention function f_θ :

$$f_\theta(E, z) = W_V E E^\top W_K^\top W_Q z,$$

150 where $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a query vector (typically the embedding of the last token) and $W_V, W_K, W_Q \in$
 151 $\mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are the value, key, query matrices, respectively.

153 **Single-Attn and Looped-Attn models.** The two models are distinguished by how they apply this
 154 attention layer. The *Single-Attn* model applies the attention operation once to produce its final state:
 155 $z_1 = z_0 + f_\theta(E_0, z_0)$, where z_0 is the initial query vector from the input embedding E_0 . In contrast,
 156 the *Looped-Attn* model refines the representation iteratively over T loops. At each step $t \in [T]$, both
 157 the query state z and the embedding matrix E for all tokens are updated. We define E_{t-1} as the
 158 embedding matrix resulting from the $(t-1)$ -th loop. Starting with the initial query state z_0 and the
 159 input embedding matrix E_0 , the state update is as follows:

$$z_t = z_{t-1} + f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}).$$

160 For both models, a final linear head W_h maps the final state (z_1 or z_T) to the output logits: $\hat{y} = W_h z_1$
 161 for *Single-Attn* and $\hat{y} = W_h z_T$ for *Looped-Attn*. More details are presented to Appendix D.

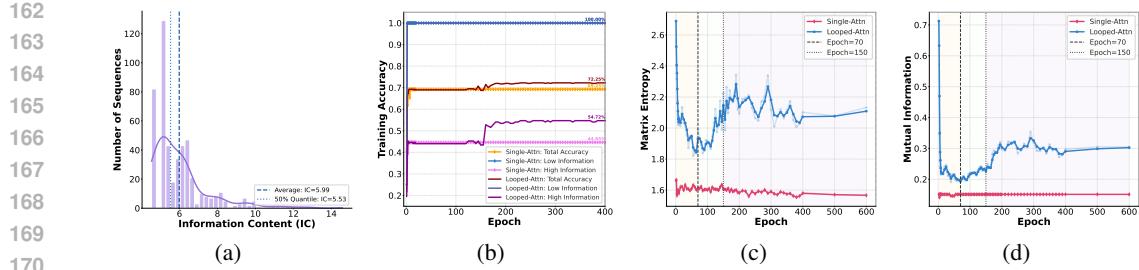


Figure 3: Data Distribution, Task-Level Performance and Hessian-Level Dynamic. **(a)** Long-tail distribution of the dataset shown by Information Content (IC). **(b)** Training accuracy on low information, high information and total sequences. **(c)** Matrix entropy metric. **(d)** Mutual information metric.

4 WHAT MAKES LOOPED TRANSFORMERS PERFORM BETTER

This section addresses the fundamental question posed in Section 1. Specifically, we begin by empirical observations of sample-level performances and Hessian-level dynamics (Section 4.1). Motivated by these findings, we introduce two theoretical landscape models, River-U-Valley and River-V-Valley, to characterize landscape-level inductive biases of *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* (Section 4.2). We then present formal theorems and corollaries showing that the River-V-Valley landscape of *Looped-Attn* leads to superior optimization performance (Section 4.3). Finally, we discuss the implications of our theoretical framework for length generalization (Section 4.4).

4.1 KEY OBSERVATIONS ON TASK-LEVEL AND HESSIAN-LEVEL

Experimental Setup. We analyze the learning dynamics of two toy models aligned with our theoretical formulation (Section 3): a non-recursive transformer with a single attention layer (*Single-Attn*), a looped transformer consisting of iterating a single attention layer for three loops (*Looped-Attn*). The learning task for both models is to predict the final token x_3 , given the first three (x_0, x_1, x_2) as input. Detailed experiments are provided in the Appendix E.1. More experimental results on practical models and reasoning tasks are provided in Appendix E.2.

To establish a controllable task difficulty, we design a synthetic Markov language dataset, where each sequence X is generated following a Markov process (Figure 2). The difficulty of predicting a given sequence is quantified by its information content (IC), where $IC(X) = -\log P(X)$.

Sample-Level Performances. To evaluate sample-level performances, sequences are categorized by difficulty using the IC metric into ‘low information’ (simple; lowest 40%) and ‘high information’ (complex; highest 40%). The training performances of both *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* are presented in Figure 3(b), with a summary in Observation 1.

(a) Single-Attn. The learning process stops progressing after mastering simple patterns. *Single-Attn* exhibits a performance bottleneck. The model rapidly achieves perfect accuracy on low-information sequences. However, its performance on high-information sequences stagnates early in training, showing no subsequent improvement.

(b) Loop-Attn. The learning process follows a two-phase curriculum, from simple patterns to complex ones. *Looped-Attn* demonstrates a distinct two-phase learning process. In the first 150 epochs, the model masters low-information sequences similar to *Single-Attn*. After epoch 150, it makes significant progress on the high-information sequences, with accuracy rising from 44.65% to 54.72%. This dynamic suggests that the recursive architecture exhibits a two-phase learning process, enabling the model to learn more complex patterns.

Hessian-Level Dynamics. To characterize the optimization process, we examine the loss landscape’s local curvature through the eigenspectrum $\{\lambda\}$ of Hessian matrix H . The evolution of this spectrum is quantified using two information-theoretic metrics: Hessian Matrix Entropy $E(H)$,

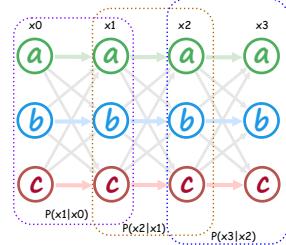


Figure 2: Generation of Markov Language Sequences.

which measures landscape diversity or complexity, and Mutual Information $I(H_s; H_{s+1})$, which measures landscape stability between consecutive epoch s and $s+1$.

$$E(H) = - \sum_i p(|\lambda_i|) \log p(|\lambda_i|), \quad I(H_s; H_{s+1}) = \sum_{i,j} p(|\lambda_i|_s, |\lambda_j|_{s+1}) \log \frac{p(|\lambda_i|_s, |\lambda_j|_{s+1})}{p(|\lambda_i|_s)p(|\lambda_j|_{s+1})}.$$

A combined analysis of these two metrics and eigenspectra reveals fundamentally different Hessian-level dynamics for *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn*. These findings are presented in Figures 3(c)~3(d) and Figures 7~8, with a summary in Observation 2.

(a) Single-Attn. The eigenspectrum remains relatively static. The Hessian eigenspectrum of *Single-Attn* stabilizes almost immediately after training begins. The model rapidly converges to a region where the eigenspectrum is dominated by a spike of near-zero eigenvalues, indicating a relatively flat local geometry (Figures 7(f)~7(j)). Meanwhile, both Matrix Entropy and Mutual Information metrics keep static (Figures 3(c)~3(d)). This rapid convergence to a simple geometry suggests that the model fails to explore more regions of the loss landscape after mastering simple patterns, explaining its performance bottleneck.

(b) Loop-Attn. Three-phase in eigenspectrum: Collapse, Diversification, and Stabilization.

Phase I. The initial phase involves a collapse of the eigenspectrum, as many eigenvalues shrink toward zero to form a dominant spike (Figures 8(a)~8(e)). It is also reflected by a significant drop in Matrix Entropy (Figure 3(c)). In this phase, the model moves into a flat region of the landscape, which is a low-dimensional subspace associated with simple patterns. A concurrent decrease in Mutual Information indicates the landscape's variation during this phase (Figure 3(d)).

Phase II. Subsequently, the eigenspectrum diversifies as new, larger eigenvalues emerge (Figures 8(f)~8(j)). It also corresponds to an increase and fluctuation in Matrix Entropy (Figure 3(c)). This activity suggests an exploration of more complex regions along the river. Despite no immediate accuracy gains, the rise in Mutual Information suggests this exploration is a stable search rather than a random process (Figure 3(d)), which makes *Looped-Attn* fundamentally different from *Single-Attn*.

Phase III. In the final phase, the eigenspectrum stabilizes (Figures 8(k)~8(o)). Matrix Entropy converges, indicating that the landscape's geometry has settled (Figure 3(c)). Concurrently, Mutual Information increases to a high plateau, confirming that the landscape's evolution has become stable (Figure 3(d)). This geometric stabilization signifies the arrival at a flatter region, which enables the model to learn complex patterns and ultimately improve its accuracy.

4.2 LANDSCAPE-LEVEL INDUCTIVE BIAS

This section extends the River-Valley landscape model by Wen et al. (2024), which formally characterizes the loss landscapes and optimization dynamics suggested by our empirical observations. For a loss function $\hat{L}(\theta)$ over model parameters θ , the local geometry of loss landscape is captured by its Hessian matrix $H(\theta) = \nabla^2 \hat{L}(\theta)$. Our analysis focuses on the Hessian eigenspectrum, where λ_i denotes its i -th largest eigenvalue and r_i or v_i denotes the corresponding eigenvector.

Definition 1 (River-Valley Loss Landscape). *We define a River-Valley Landscape by specifying two subspaces constructed from the Hessian eigenspectrum with a small threshold $\epsilon > 0$:*

- **River:** The river subspace S_{River} is spanned by eigenvectors with eigenvalues below the small threshold: $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{r_i \mid \lambda_i \leq \epsilon\}$.
- **Valley:** The valley subspace S_{Valley} is spanned by eigenvectors with eigenvalues above the small threshold: $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_i \mid \lambda_i > \epsilon\}$.

The geometry of valley is further classified by the spectral properties of Hessian restricted to this subspace, denoted H_{Valley} , with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{d_V}\}$. Define condition number as $\kappa(H_{\text{Valley}}) = \lambda_1 / \lambda_{d_V}$ and Inverse Hessian Average Energy as $\mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}}) \triangleq 1/d_V \|H_{\text{Valley}}^{-1}\|_F^2 = 1/d_V \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} 1/\lambda_i^2$.

- **U-shaped Valley (Flat Valley¹):** A valley is U-shaped if it is well-conditioned and has small average energy. With constants $\delta, \zeta \geq 0$: $\kappa(H_{\text{Valley}}) \leq 1 + \delta$ and $0 < \mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}}) \leq \zeta$.

¹Here we use ‘flat’ to represent valleys with uniformly relatively small eigenvalues (U-shaped), and ‘steep’ to represent valleys with both relatively large and small eigenvalues (V-shaped).

270 • **V-shaped Valley (Steep Valley¹):** *A valley is V-shaped if it is ill-conditioned and has large*
 271 *average energy. With a constant $\zeta \geq 0$: $\kappa(H_{\text{Valley}}) \gg 1$ and $\mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}}) \gg \zeta$.*

273 Definition 1 provides a formal characterization of the landscape’s features. The river corresponds to
 274 directions with near-zero eigenvalues, forming a flat manifold where the loss value changes slowly,
 275 while the valley corresponds to directions with large eigenvalues. The geometry within the valley
 276 is determined by the condition number of the valley Hessian and inverse Hessian average energy.
 277 Specifically, a U-shaped valley is characterized by a broad and flat floor through which the river
 278 flows. This valley is surrounded by uniformly steep cliffs, ensuring that movement in any direction
 279 within this subspace leads to a comparable loss. In contrast, a V-shaped valley is characterized by a
 280 narrow river channel, with cliffs of highly varied steepness. An intuitive illustration is presented in
 281 Figure 1. We discuss the hyperparameters and representative loss examples in Appendix E.2.2.

282 The spectral experiments presented in Figure 27 (with $\epsilon = 0.02$) reveal that *Looped-Attn* exhibits
 283 a larger $\mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}})$ than *Single-Attn*. Building on Definition 1, we then formalize the distinct optimiza-
 284 tion landscapes and specific dynamics in *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.

285 **Conjecture 1 (Single-Attn: Flat Valley Trapping).** *The Single-Attn model creates a River-U-
 286 Valley landscape. After a rapid descent, the optimizer becomes trapped in the valley’s broad and flat
 287 floor, stopping further exploration within this low-gradient region.*

288 **Empirical Justifications for Conjecture 1.** The River-U-Valley model is empirically supported
 289 by the Hessian-level dynamics in *Single-Attn* (Observation 2). The river component is evidenced
 290 by a dominant spike of near-zero eigenvalues from the early epochs, which confirms the existence
 291 of a flat subspace. Surrounding this river, large eigenvalues of similar magnitudes form uniformly
 292 steep cliffs that enclose a broad and flat floor, characterizing the valley as U-shaped. This land-
 293 scape geometry is captured by Matrix Entropy and Mutual Information metrics, which indicate a
 294 simple and static landscape structure. Such a geometry determines a specific optimization dynamic:
 295 the optimizer initially descends rapidly along the steep cliffs. However, the broad and flat valley
 296 floor constitutes an optimization trap where weak gradient signals provide insufficient guidance for
 297 exploration along the river, resulting in flat valley trapping.

298 **Conjecture 2 (Looped-Attn: From Steep Valley Hopping to River Convergence).** *The Loop-
 299 ed-Attn model creates a River-V-Valley landscape. The optimizer exhibits significant hopping between
 300 the valley’s varied and steep cliffs, guiding its trajectory along the river toward convergence.*

301 **Empirical Justifications for Conjecture 2.** The River-V-Valley model is empirically justified by
 302 the three-phase evolution of Hessian-level dynamics in *Looped-Attn* (Observation 2). The model
 303 initially enters the river subspace from a complex valley, evidenced by the gradually dominant spike
 304 of near-zero eigenvalues. A diversifying set of large eigenvalues forms the V-shaped valley’s varied
 305 and steep cliffs, where a narrow river channel exists at the valley floor. The complex and evolving
 306 geometry is also captured by Matrix Entropy and Mutual Information. Such a geometry leads to
 307 a specific optimization dynamic: the optimizer initially descends by hopping between the valleys.
 308 After reaching the valley floor, the narrow river channel enables sustained exploration, avoiding
 309 getting trapped in the broad U-shaped valley of *Single-Attn*.

310 4.3 RIVER-V-VALLEY BRINGS SUPERIOR OPTIMIZATION PERFORMANCE

312 In this section, we prove that the River-V-Valley landscape in *Looped-Attn* provides a superior per-
 313 formance than *Single-Attn*. Before the formal theoretical analysis, we provide an intuition for the
 314 connection between loss landscapes and sample-level performances (Observation 1).

315 **Intuition for Superior Performance.** The River-U-Valley landscape of *Single-Attn* induces Flat
 316 Valley Trapping, which might account for its performance bottleneck. The initial rapid descent along
 317 the cliffs converts into progress along the river, corresponding to mastering simple patterns. How-
 318 ever, the optimizer subsequently becomes trapped in the flat valley floor, preventing it from discov-
 319 ering the path to more complex patterns. In contrast, the River-V-Valley landscape of *Looped-Attn*
 320 facilitates Steep Valley Hopping dynamics, which might drive its two-phase learning curriculum.
 321 After an initial descent for learning simple patterns, its enhanced performance might stem from two
 322 key factors: (a) The hopping dynamic converts descent into more forward progress along the river;
 323 (b) The narrow river channel prevents the optimizer from becoming trapped. These together ensure
 deep exploration in the river downstream, enabling the model to learn complex patterns.

We now proceed with a formal analysis to mathematically demonstrate **how these hopping dynamics lead to more effective optimization**. Our analysis begins by modeling the loss landscape using a structured quadratic form that captures its essential geometry (The general loss is later in Setting 2). The parameter space is decomposed into two orthogonal subspaces: the valley subspace $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{d_V}\}$ and the river subspace $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{r_1, \dots, r_{d_R}\}$, with dimensions d_V, d_R , and parameters θ_V, θ_R respectively.

Setting 1 (Quadratic Loss). *One simple example of a River-Valley landscape (Definition 1) is the quadratic loss:*

$$\widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} H_{\text{Valley}} & H_{\text{VR}} \\ H_{\text{RV}} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix} - h_R^\top \theta_R,$$

where $[H_{\text{Valley}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial v_j}$, $[H_{\text{VR}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial r_j}$, $[H_{\text{RV}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial v_j}$ (Definition 2 in Appendix G.1).

We assume the coupling strength along the valley eigenvectors v_i satisfies $\underline{h} \leq \|H_{\text{RV}} v_i\| \leq \bar{h}$ for constants $\underline{h}, \bar{h} > 0$, and the valley parameters are initialized as $\theta_{V,0} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \bar{\alpha}^2 I/d_V)$ with $\|\theta_{V,0}\| \leq \bar{\alpha}$ for a constant $\bar{\alpha} > 0$.

Setting 1 formalizes a structured quadratic loss, which is characterized by three key components. Specifically, this includes (a) The valley Hessian H_{Valley} : This matrix captures the valley's curvature. Its condition number quantitatively distinguishes between the well-conditioned U-shaped valley of *Single-Attn* and the ill-conditioned V-shaped valley of *Looped-Attn*; (b) The Coupling Matrix H_{RV} : This matrix quantifies the critical interaction that allows movement in the valley to induce a gradient in the river; (c) The river gradient $-h_R^\top$: This term represents the intrinsic optimization drive along the river. More details are deferred to Remark 5 in Appendix G.1.

Theorem 1 (Cumulative Force under Quadratic Loss). *Under Setting 1, we define \mathcal{C} as the upper bound of cumulative force $\|C_K\|$ generated by the valley dynamics on the river subspace after K optimization steps, then it holds that*

$$\|C_K\| \approx \left\| \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{\text{RV}} \Phi^k \theta_{V,0} \right\| \leq \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} \triangleq \mathcal{C},$$

where $\Phi = I - \eta H_{\text{Valley}}$ with a learning rate η , and $\{\lambda_i\}$ is the spectrum of valley Hessian H_{Valley} .

Theorem 1 establishes the relationship between the potential/maximal cumulative force on the river parameters and the valley's geometry, as encoded in the valley eigenvalues λ_i . The theorem indicates that this force is determined by the nuclear norm of inverse Hessian, alongside a scaling factor of valley dimension.

Corollary 1 (Greater Maximal Cumulative Force of Loop-Attn). *Under Theorem 1 and Definition 1, the maximal cumulative force generated by Loop-Attn ($\mathcal{C}^{(2)}$) is significantly greater than that of Single-Attn ($\mathcal{C}^{(1)}$): $\mathcal{C}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{C}^{(1)}$.*

Theorem 2 (Expected Squared Cumulative Force under Quadratic Loss). *Under Setting 1, after a sufficient large K optimization steps, the expected squared cumulative force $\mathbb{E}[\|C_K\|^2]$ holds that*

$$\frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \bar{h}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^2} \leq \mathbb{E}[\|C_K\|^2] \leq \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \bar{h}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^2},$$

where $\{\lambda_i\}$ is the spectrum of valley Hessian H_{Valley} .

Corollary 2 (Superior Asymptotic Optimization Performance of Loop-Attn). *Under Theorem 2, Definition 1 and Assumption 1, for the same initialization, after a sufficiently large K optimization steps, the expected squared loss values for Loop-Attn ($\widehat{L}_K^{(2)}$) is smaller than for Single-Attn ($\widehat{L}_K^{(1)}$): $\mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(2)})^2] < \mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(1)})^2]$.*

Based on Definition 1, the V-shaped valley of *Looped-Attn* possesses a larger average energy, which creates a larger potential force \mathcal{C} than that of *Single-Attn* (Corollary 1). Furthermore, when taking expectation over initialization, the cumulative force is ultimately reflected in the asymptotic training loss (Corollary 2). The larger force in *Looped-Attn* facilitates sustained river progress via valley hopping, enabling the model to learn both simple and complex patterns. The detailed proof is deferred to Appendix G.2 and Appendix G.3.

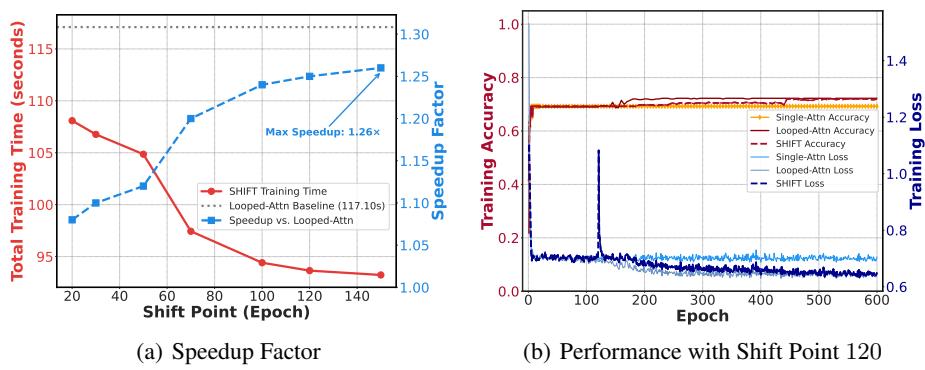


Figure 4: SHIFT Efficiency and Performance on Markov Dataset.

Setting 2 (General Loss). A general Loss of River-Valley landscape (Definition 1) is defined as:

$$\widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \widehat{L}_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_V) + \widehat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_R) + \widehat{L}_{\text{Coupling}}(\theta_V, \theta_R).$$

We assume the valley parameters are initialized as $\theta_{V,0} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \bar{\alpha}^2 I/d_V)$ with $\|\theta_{V,0}\| \leq \bar{\alpha}$ for a constant $\bar{\alpha} > 0$. Further technical assumptions are detailed in Appendix G.1 (Assumptions 2~4).

Setting 2 considers a general loss, which is an extension to Setting 1.

Theorem 3 (Superior Optimization Performance of Looped-Attn under General Loss). Under Setting 2 and Definition 1, the following results hold:

- (a) **Cumulative Force.** The maximal cumulative force \mathcal{C}_{gen} generated by the valley dynamics on the river subspace is given by: $\mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}} = \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} 1/|\lambda_i^B|$, where $\{\lambda_i^B\}$ is the spectrum of the lower-bound valley Hessian H^B (Assumption 2).
- (b) **Greater Maximal Cumulative Force.** The maximal cumulative force generated by Looped-Attn ($\mathcal{C}^{(2)}$) is significantly greater than that of Single-Attn ($\mathcal{C}^{(1)}$): $\mathcal{C}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{C}^{(1)}$.
- (c) **Lower Asymptotic Training Loss.** For the same initialization and a sufficiently large K , after K optimization steps, the expected squared training loss for Looped-Attn ($\widehat{L}_K^{(2)}$) is lower than for Single-Attn ($\widehat{L}_K^{(1)}$): $\mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(2)})^2] < \mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(1)})^2]$.

Theorem 3 extends the provably superior optimization performance of Looped-Attn to a general loss function. The detailed proof of Theorem 3 is deferred to Appendix G.4.

4.4 DISCUSSION IN LENGTH GENERALIZATION

This section introduces how our theoretical framework relates to Looped-Attn’s success in length generalization. Figure 5 illustrates the Information Content (IC) distributions for the test datasets with different sequence lengths. As length increases, the total space of possible sequences expands, which causes two primary effects on the IC distribution: its mean value shifts to the right (indicating a higher average complexity), and its variance increases (the distribution becomes broader). A direct consequence is that the low-IC sequences during training may become rare or non-existent in longer test sequences, which frames the core challenge of length generalization: a model must find a generalizable solution capable of mastering sufficiently complex patterns.

Empirical performances are provided in Figure 18 and Table 1, and theoretical results provide an explanation for how Looped-Attn achieves this. As established in Corollaries 1~2 and Theorem 3, the River-V-Valley landscape of Looped-Attn enables exploration deeper into the downstream river (a manifold of flat minima). Thus it guides Looped-Attn towards solutions that inherently generalize better. We connect this to the finding that the superior optimization dynamic brings better performance on length generalization tasks for the Looped-Attn model. Detailed experiments are provided in the Appendix E.1.3 and E.2.

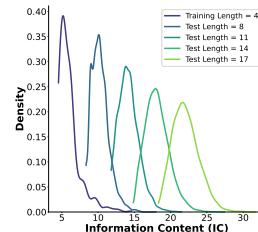


Figure 5: Length Generalization.

432

5 STAGED HIERARCHICAL FRAMEWORK FOR PROGRESSIVE TRAINING

433
434 This section proposes SHIFT (Staged Hierarchical Framework for Progressive Training), a computa-
435 tionally efficient two-stage training strategy motivated by our theoretical analysis of River-U-Valley
436 and River-V-Valley landscapes. The strategy utilizes distinct model architectures at different learn-
437 ing stages, as illustrated in Figure 1(c).438 **Stage I: Rapid Valley Descent with *Single-Attn*.** Training begins with the *Single-Attn* architecture.
439 The objective is to move efficiently from a random initialization (the clifftop) to a low-loss region
440 (the valley floor). We thus adopt *Single-Attn* which facilitates initial convergence on simple tasks
441 with computational efficiency.442 **Stage II: Valley Hopping and Deep River Exploration with *Looped-Attn*.** Training is transitioned
443 to *Looped-Attn* when *Single-Attn* reaches loss plateaus. This transition reshapes the optimization
444 within a V-shaped valley. As established in Corollaries 1~2 and Theorem 3, the V-shaped valley
445 induces a hopping descent mechanism, enabling further exploration in the river direction. This
446 allows the model to find solutions to complex tasks that are less accessible to *Single-Attn*.
447448 A key component of SHIFT is determining the moment to transition between architectures. To this
449 end, we introduce the SHIFT Criterion with Patience (SCP), which consists of two steps.450 **(a) Plateau Detection.** First, SCP detects a performance plateau. The validation loss for *Single-Attn*
451 reaches plateaus after initial epochs (Figure 19(a)). The plateau point E_{plateau} is identified when the
452 validation loss fails to decrease by a threshold δ_1 over P consecutive epochs.453 **(b) Gradient Stabilization Wait.** Second, SCP incorporates a patience period W for gradient
454 stabilization. The gradient norm initially exhibits high variance, which would make an unstable
455 transition (Figure 19(b)). This period ensures the optimizer norm has settled by a threshold δ_2 .
456 Consequently, the shift point is calculated as $E_{\text{shift}} = E_{\text{plateau}} + W$.457 Figure 4(a) reveals that an immediate transition is suboptimal on Markov dataset. A delayed transi-
458 tion yields greater speedup, but an excessive delay prevents *Looped-Attn* from converging in Stage
459 II. To address this trade-off, SCP selects a shift point between 100 and 150 epochs. This achieves
460 a training speedup of approximately 1.26 \times without compromising final performance (Figure 4(b)).
461 The hyperparameter sensitivity analysis of δ_1 , P , δ_2 and W are provided in Appendix E.1.4.462 We next provide the theoretical foundation for this architectural transition in Theorem 4, by estab-
463 lishing a connection between their landscapes.464 **Theorem 4 (Shared River Upstream).** Let $\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta)$ and $\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta)$ be the gradients of the *Single-Attn*
465 and *Looped-Attn* models with a weight matrix $W \in \{W_K, W_Q\}$. Under Assumption 5~6
466 (Appendix H.1.1), the gradients of the two models are positively aligned:

467
$$\langle \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta), \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \rangle \geq 0, \quad \langle \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta), \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \rangle \geq 0.$$

468 **Justification for SHIFT.** Theorem 4 ensures the feasibility of this architectural transition. It es-
469 tablishes that the gradients of both architectures are positively aligned, implying that optimization
470 within their respective valleys corresponds to progress along a shared upstream river in the loss
471 landscape. This shared foundation guarantees that the parameters learned by *Single-Attn* in Stage I
472 provide an effective initialization for the deeper exploration by *Looped-Attn* in Stage II. A detailed
473 proof is available in Appendix H. Furthermore, Theorem 1~3 and Corollary 1~2 guarantee the
474 superiority of this two-stage strategy. These results prove that the V-shaped valley of *Looped-Attn*
475 generates a greater cumulative optimization force along the river. Therefore, SHIFT combines the
476 training speed of *Single-Attn* with the superior optimization performance of *Looped-Attn*. In prac-
477 tice, SHIFT is implemented that progressively increases computational depth (i.e., loop iterations
478 from $T = 1$ to $T > 1$). This approach can be viewed as a form of curriculum learning (Bengio
479 et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2021), where an efficient model (*Single-Attn*) first learns simple patterns
480 before a more powerful model (*Looped-Attn*) is deployed for further refinement.481

6 CONCLUSION

482 This paper theoretically answers what makes looped transformers perform better than non-recursive
483 ones. We investigate their distinct dynamics and formalize these by extending the River-Valley

486 model to distinguish between U-shaped valleys and V-shaped valleys. We provably demonstrate
 487 that the landscape-level inductive bias of River-V-Valley facilitates superior convergence on
 488 complex patterns. Building on this, we propose SHIFT, a framework that achieves comparable reasoning
 489 performance compared to *Looped-Attn* but with greater computational efficiency. Overall, our work
 490 provides a new perspective and a theoretical framework for understanding the advantages of looped
 491 transformers, potentially inspiring more effective and principled training paradigms. More discus-
 492 sions and future work are provided in Appendix B.

493

494 ETHICS STATEMENT

495

496 This paper presents a fundamental research focusing on the theoretical and empirical analysis of
 497 neural network architectures. Our work is methodological, investigating the mathematical proper-
 498 ties of loss landscapes for different types of transformer models. The experiments are conducted
 499 on two categories of datasets: (a) a synthetic Markov language dataset, created specifically for con-
 500 trolled analysis of learning dynamics, and (b) publicly available algorithmic reasoning datasets. Our
 501 research does not involve the use of human subjects, personally identifiable information, or any
 502 form of sensitive data. Therefore, this work does not raise ethical concerns related to data privacy,
 503 algorithmic bias in social contexts, or potential societal harm.

504

505 REPRODUCIBILITY STATEMENT

506

507 We are committed to ensuring the full reproducibility of our research. To this end, we have provided
 508 detailed descriptions of our theoretical frameworks and experimental procedures.

509

Theoretical Results. The theoretical formalization of the River-Valley landscape (Section 4.2) is
 510 motivated by empirical observations (Section 4.1). The superiority of *Looped-Attn* (Section 4.3)
 511 is supported by mathematical proofs. Detailed derivations for Theorem 1, Corollaries 1~2 and
 512 Theorem 3 are available in Appendix G. The foundation for the SHIFT framework is established in
 513 Theorem 4 with proof in Appendix H.

514

Experimental Setup. We provide a comprehensive description of our experimental design. The
 515 experimental setup in the synthetic dataset with toy models, including the data generation process,
 516 model details, and hyperparameters, is described in Section 4.1 and further detailed in Appendix
 517 E.1. The experimental setup for the practical models and the standard algorithmic reasoning tasks is
 518 detailed in Appendix E.2.

519

Source Code. To facilitate the verification of our findings and support further research in this area,
 520 the source code used for all experiments will be made publicly available upon publication.

521

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810 A CONTRIBUTIONS
811812 Our main contributions are summarized as follows.
813814 **(a) A Refined Geometric View of Loss Landscape.** Inspired by distinct empirical observations
815 in sample-level performance and Hessian-level dynamics (Section 4.1), we enrich the River-Valley
816 landscape model by introducing a geometric characterization of U-shaped and V-shaped Valleys
817 (formal definition in Section 4.2). This characterization is essential for attributing these observations
818 to the landscape-level inductive biases of *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.819 **(b) Distinct Landscape-Level Inductive Biases.** To our knowledge, we are the first to formally
820 **hypothesize** inductive bias of *Looped-Attn* from the perspective of loss landscape. Specifically, in
821 Section 4.2, we reveal that the River-U-Valley landscape of *Single-Attn* leads to flat valley trapping.
822 In contrast, the River-V-Valley landscape of *Looped-Attn* creates an effective path characterized by
823 steep valley hopping and river convergence.824 **(c) Theoretical Illustration of Superior Performance in *Looped-Attn*.** Building upon our findings
825 on inductive bias, we theoretically **illustrate** the superior performance **that would arise from the**
826 **conjectured** River-V-Valley landscape in *Looped-Attn* under the landscape framework (Section 4.3
827 and Appendix G). Furthermore, we leverage this optimization analysis to explain its strong length
828 generalization ability, empirically demonstrating that the effective optimization path leads to gener-
829 alizable solutions (Section 4.4).830 **(d) An Effective Progressive Training Framework.** Based on the aforementioned landscape-
831 level inductive biases, we design SHIFT, an intuitive framework that combines *Single-Attn* and
832 *Looped-Attn* (Section 5). The framework’s feasibility is grounded in a provable shared river up-
833 stream between the two landscapes (detailed proof in Appendix H). We present a shifting criterion
834 with patience (SCP) and demonstrate that SHIFT achieves a balance between computational effi-
835 ciency and final performance.836
837 B DISCUSSIONS AND FUTURE WORK
838839 We present more necessary discussions on our work, which might be helpful for understanding our
840 contributions and existing limitations, and highlight valuable directions for future research.
841842 **Model Simplification.** Our analysis employs a simplified model with a single linear attention layer
843 for two key purposes: (a) It provides a controlled setting for our experiments to investigate the Hes-
844 sian dynamics. (b) It ensures the gradient calculations for Theorem 4 (Section 5) are mathematically
845 tractable, which is the theoretical foundation of our SHIFT framework.846 It is curial to note that our core theoretical framework is general and does not rely on this specific
847 model architecture. This landscape framework characterizes loss landscapes using River-U-Valley
848 and River-V-Valley to show the optimization advantage of *Looped-Attn* (Sections 4.2 and 4.3). These
849 insights are corroborated by our experiments on GPT-2 based models in Appendix E.2. Although
850 it is hard to directly analyze the Hessian in these practical settings, the superior performance of
851 *Looped-Attn* aligns with the optimization advantage predicted by our River-V-Valley conjecture. We
852 can also explain the training dynamics within our landscape framework, reinforcing its applicability
853 to more complex, non-linear models.854 Nevertheless, extending the formal proof of gradient alignment from the simplified model to deep,
855 nonlinear transformers remains a promising direction for future work.856 **Landscape Conjectures.** Conjectures 1~2 formalize the loss landscapes for *Single-Attn* and
857 *Looped-Attn* by proposing the River-U-Valley and River-V-Valley models. These conjectures are
858 empirically motivated. We justify these with the analysis of Hessian dynamics (Section 4.1), which
859 reveals different evolutionary eigenspectrum of the two architectures. Given the complexity of optimi-
860 zation process, grounding theoretical analysis in empirically-inspired landscape model is a crucial
861 step toward formal understanding (Wen et al., 2024). A key direction for future work is to move be-
862 yond empirical motivation and establish a formal proof for these landscape conjectures. This would
863 involve theoretically deriving the geometric properties of the Hessian from the recursive architec-
ture, potentially by extending emerging mathematical tools such as Dong et al. (2025). Proving this

864 formally is highly challenging beyond our current scope, which remains a promising direction for
 865 future study.

866 **Landscape Transition Dynamics of SHIFT.** Our landscape model provides a geometric perspective
 867 on why the SHIFT framework achieves performance comparable to *Looped-Attn*. Stage I begins
 868 with *Single-Attn* in a River-U-Valley landscape, where the optimizer rapidly descends from a high-
 869 loss clifftop to a low-loss valley floor near the river. The architectural switch to *Looped-Attn* then
 870 induces a geometric transformation: the flat valley floor suddenly becomes the steep slopes of a
 871 V-shaped valley. This landscape change forces the optimizer to perform valley hopping which is
 872 unique for *Looped-Attn*. This temporary hopping enables it to escape the flat valley floor and reach
 873 the narrow river channel. Once in the river, it can proceed with deep downstream exploration. While
 874 both models share an upstream river (Theorem 4), their distinct architectures determine the final
 875 performance. *Single-Attn* traps in the flat valley floor, whereas SHIFT (*Looped-Attn* in Stage II)
 876 successfully navigates downstream, leading to different solutions.

877 **Practical Implications of SHIFT.** The principles behind SHIFT suggest a promising paradigm for
 878 enhancing pre-trained foundation models. We begin with a well-trained standard, non-recursive
 879 model (equivalent to Stage I). To improve its performance on tasks requiring complex, multi-step
 880 reasoning, we could introduce recursion into some of its blocks and continue to train (equivalent
 881 to Stage II). This approach leverages the base model’s existing knowledge while reshaping the
 882 optimization landscape to unlock more powerful reasoning abilities, guided by the principles of the
 883 River-V-Valley. It represents a computationally efficient alternative to training a large recursive
 884 model from scratch and offers a valuable direction for future empirical investigation.

885 C ADDITIONAL RELATED WORK

886 This section provides a more detailed discussion of the related work for Section 2 in the main text.

887 **Looped Transformers.** The principle of recurrence in Transformers, achieved via cross-layer
 888 parameter sharing, has been explored in foundational works like Universal Transformers (Dehghani
 889 et al., 2018) and ALBERT (Lan et al., 2019). Building on this, looped transformers have demon-
 890 strated significant empirical success in diverse applications, from in-context learning (ICL) (Yang
 891 et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2024; Gatmiry et al., 2024) to length generalization that enables them to
 892 process sequences much longer than those seen during training (Giannou et al., 2023; Fan et al.,
 893 2024; Gao et al., 2024; Saunshi et al., 2025; Bae et al., 2025).

894 Theoretical research aiming to understand these empirical advantages can be roughly split into two
 895 lines. The first line focuses on expressiveness (Giannou et al., 2023; Gao et al., 2024; Xu & Sato,
 896 2024), showing that looped transformers are Turing complete with universal computational capa-
 897 bilities. The second line analyzes the optimization properties (Gatmiry et al., 2024), proving opti-
 898 mization convergence for linear regression tasks within the ICL framework. However, a provable
 899 connection between the recursive architectural prior of looped transformers, optimization landscape,
 900 and superior reasoning capabilities remains missing, particularly under the general next-token pre-
 901 diction paradigm. Our work addresses this gap by analyzing how the recursive structure shapes the
 902 optimization landscape, ultimately seeking to combine the length generalization benefits of looped
 903 transformers with the efficiency of standard, non-recursive models.

904 **Optimization Landscape and Generalization.** The geometry of the optimization/loss landscape
 905 is fundamental to understanding the training dynamics and generalization capabilities of deep neural
 906 networks. Empirically, Hochreiter & Schmidhuber (1994; 1997) first demonstrate that SGD can typ-
 907 ically find flat minima among various solutions. Theoretically, much research has provided strong
 908 evidence supporting this idea, reporting that models converging to flat minima exhibit better gener-
 909 alization performance across various tasks and architectures (Keskar et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2017;
 910 Neyshabur et al., 2017; Kleinberg et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2022;
 911 Andriushchenko et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023).

912 More recent work has characterized the more complex geometry of the loss landscape, going be-
 913 yond flat minima. Xing et al. (2018) find that SGD moves in *valley-like* regions of the loss surface
 914 to quickly travel far away from the initialization point. Davis et al. (2024) propose that low-loss solu-
 915 tions are not isolated points but lie within connected manifolds, which are defined as *ravines*. Song
 916 et al. (2024) characterize the training loss as having an *ill-conditioned-valley-like* structure with a

918 dominant subspace (high curvature) and a bulk subspace (low curvature). This progression cul-
 919 nates in the general ***river-valley*** theoretical model formulated by [Wen et al. \(2024\)](#), where the river
 920 structure is a specific instance of the ravine ([Davis et al., 2024](#)) and rooted in the bulk subspace ([Song](#)
 921 [et al., 2024](#)). Building upon this general model, [Liu et al. \(2025\)](#) offer a novel perspective, applying
 922 neural thermodynamic laws to understand the river-valley loss landscape. Our work extends the
 923 geometry of valleys by ***U-shaped*** and ***V-shaped***, and analyzes these distinct landscapes and training
 924 dynamics induced by different architectures.

925 These two perspectives, flat minima and river-valley landscapes, are highly compatible. We argue
 926 that the river downstream locates flatter minima, which is potentially corresponding to better gener-
 927 alization ([Hochreiter & Schmidhuber, 1994; 1997](#)).

928 **Inductive Bias.** Implicit bias and inductive bias are fundamental concepts in deep learning the-
 929 ory. Implicit bias is an emergent property of the optimization algorithm (*e.g.*, gradient descent)
 930 that guides the model toward a particular minimum that does generalize well ([Soudry et al., 2018](#);
 931 [Gunasekar et al., 2018a](#); [Ji & Telgarsky, 2019](#); [Woodworth et al., 2020](#); [HaoChen et al., 2021](#);
 932 [Ataei Tarzanagh et al., 2023](#); [Tarzanagh et al., 2023](#); [Thrampoulidis, 2024](#)). In contrast, induc-
 933 tive bias is induced by the model architecture. For example, weight sharing and locality inherently
 934 bias convolutional neural networks (CNNs) over fully-connected networks (FCN) by breaking the
 935 learning algorithm’s symmetry ([Gunasekar et al., 2018b](#); [Li et al., 2020](#); [Jagadeesan et al., 2022](#);
 936 [Wang & Wu, 2023](#)). [Jelassi et al. \(2024\)](#) reveal an inductive bias in transformers that makes it eas-
 937 ier for them to copy from the context. [Saunshi et al. \(2024\)](#) uncover an inductive bias of stacking
 938 for improving downstream reasoning tasks, but without a theoretical basis. [Gatmiry et al. \(2024\)](#)
 939 also study looped transformers, showing their inductive biases in optimization convergence for lin-
 940 ear regression tasks. Distinct from above, we introduce ***landscape-level inductive bias***, where the
 941 model architecture fundamentally reshapes the optimization landscape (River-U-Valley and River-
 942 V-Valley). These different landscapes induce unique training dynamics. From this perspective, we
 943 reveal the advantages of *Looped-Attn* over *Single-Attn* supported by both empirical observations and
 944 theoretical analysis (Section 4).

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972 **D DETAILED PRELIMINARIES**
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974 This section provides more details for Section 3 in the main text.
975

976 We formalize the next-token prediction task, specify the objective function, and present the mathematical characterizations of *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.
977

978 Let the vocabulary $\mathcal{V} = \{1, \dots, V\}$ be a finite index set of V tokens (*e.g.* words, characters). An
979 input sequence is denoted by $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \in \mathcal{V}^n$, where each token $x_s \in \mathcal{V}$. The task is
980 to predict the next token, $y \in \mathcal{V}$, given the context X . We consider a training set of N sequences
981 $\mathcal{T}_N := \{(X^i, y^i)\}_{i=1}^N$, where $X^i \in \mathcal{V}^n$ and $y^i \in \mathcal{V}$ for all $i \in [N]$. A model with parameter θ is
982 trained by minimizing the empirical cross-entropy loss. Let $\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R}^V$ be the logit vector output by
983 the model, then the loss function is defined as:
984

985
$$\hat{L}(\theta) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log (\mathbf{S}_{y^i}(\hat{y}^i)) = \widehat{\mathbb{E}} [-\log (\mathbf{S}_y(\hat{y}))],$$

986

987 where $\mathbf{S}_y(\hat{y}) = \exp(\hat{y}_y) / \sum_{j=1}^V \exp(\hat{y}_j)$ denotes the softmax probability for the ground-truth token
988 y , with \hat{y}_y being the y -th component of the logit vector \hat{y} .
989

990 **Input Embeddings and Self-Attention Module.** The input sequence X is mapped to d -
991 dimensional embedding matrix E via an embedding map $g : \mathcal{V}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ parameterized by θ_{emb} ,
992 so that $E = g(X; \theta_{\text{emb}})$. We assume that g is fixed (*i.e.*, not trainable) and focus our analysis on the
993 self-attention module.
994

995 Both *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* utilize a fundamental self-attention function f_θ , implemented as
996 a single-layer linear attention block (without residual connections), defined as:
997

998
$$f_\theta(E, z) = W_V E E^\top W_K^\top W_Q z, \quad f_\theta(E) = W_V E E^\top W_K^\top W_Q E,$$

999

1000 where $E \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ is the embedding matrix, $z \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the query vector, *i.e.*, the n -th column of E ,
1001 and $W_V, W_K, W_Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are the value, key, query matrices, respectively.
1002

1003 **Single-Attn Model and Loop-Attn Model.** The *Single-Attn* model applies the self-attention
1004 operation once, then
1005

1006
$$z_1 = z_0 + f_\theta(E_0, z_0),$$

1007

1008 where z_0 is the n -th column of the input embedding matrix E_0 and z_1 is the final state.
1009

1010 The *Looped-Attn* model iteratively refines representations over T steps. For each loop $t \in [T]$, the
1011 representations are updated via residual connections and gating mechanisms:
1012

1013
$$z_t = z_{t-1} + f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}), \quad E_t = E_{t-1} + f_\theta(E_{t-1}).$$

1014

1015 We have the recursive definition for the final state z_T after T loop iterations, *i.e.*,
1016

1017
$$z_T = z_0 + \sum_{t=1}^T f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}).$$

1018

1019 **Prediction Head.** The final logit output $\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R}^V$ is generated by a linear projection head $h : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow$
1020 \mathbb{R}^V , parameterized by $W_h \in \mathbb{R}^{V \times d}$. Finally, the output logits are $\hat{y} = W_h z_1$ for *Single-Attn* and
1021 $\hat{y} = W_h z_T$ for *Looped-Attn*.
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E DETAILED EXPERIMENTS

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E.1 EXPERIMENTS ON TOY MODELS AND SYNTHETIC MARKOV LANGUAGE DATASET

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E.1.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

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Toy Models and Hyperparameter Details. To conduct the motivating experiments and investigate the learning dynamics of different architectures, we employ simplified toy models. Specifically, we adopt a non-recursive transformer with a single attention layer (*Single-Attn*), and a looped transformer consisting of iterating a single attention layer for three loops (*Looped-Attn*). These toy models are aligned with our theoretical formulation in Section 3. We train both models for 600 epochs, using Adam optimizer with the learning rate 0.001. Each experiment is conducted on a single 24GB NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3090.

1032

Markov Language Dataset. We utilize a synthetic Markov language dataset, specifically designed to provide a controllable spectrum of task difficulty. As illustrated in Figure 2, each sample is a sequence of four tokens, $X = (x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3)$ (e.g., ‘aaaa’, ‘aaab’, ‘abbc’), drawn from a vocabulary of three discrete symbols $\{a, b, c\}$. The sequences are generated according to a homogeneous Markov process, where the probability of a full sequence is given by

1033

$$P(X) = P(x_0)P(x_1|x_0)P(x_2|x_1)P(x_3|x_2).$$

1034

The initial state probabilities $P(x_0)$ are uniform, while the transition probabilities at each step are governed by three distinct, randomly generated transition matrices.

1035

The learning task for both *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* is to predict the final token x_3 , given the first three (x_0, x_1, x_2) as input. We quantify the difficulty of each prediction by the information content (IC) of its corresponding ground-truth sequence:

1036

$$IC(X) = -\log P(X).$$

1037

To create a dataset with a mixture of simple and complex tasks, we begin by generating all 3^4 possible sequences. The initial set is then expanded to a larger dataset size of $N = 500$ through a weighted oversampling process. This sampling probability for each sequence is proportional to its ground-truth probability raised to the power of 2. This ensures that high-probability (low-information, or simple) sequences are sampled more frequently, resulting in a long-tail training distribution, as shown in Figure 6. Consequently, simple patterns are abundant while complex patterns are rare, posing a generalization challenge.

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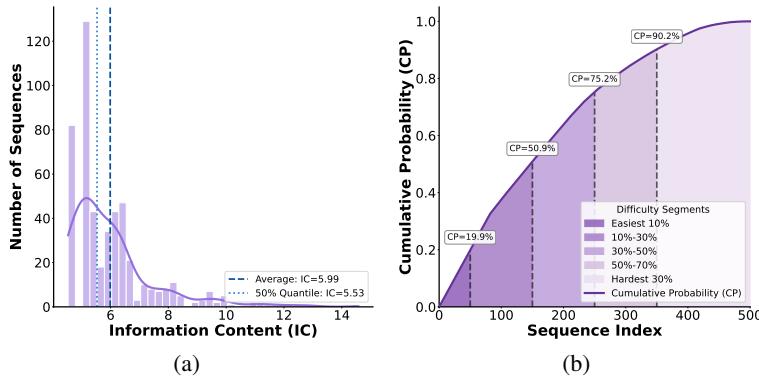


Figure 6: Data Distribution. (a,b) Long-tail distribution of the dataset shown by IC and CP.

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E.1.2 EMPIRICAL OBSERVATIONS

By combining two information-theoretic metrics (Hessian Matrix Entropy and Mutual Information) with a direct analysis of the eigenspectrum, we investigate different Hessian-level dynamics for *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn*.

1080
 1081 **More Discussion on Hessian-Level Dynamics.** The metrics of matrix entropy and mutual infor-
 1082 mation based on Hessian *w.r.t.* the value matrix W_V , are presented in Figures 3(c)~3(d). Regarding
 1083 Figure 3(d), it is important to understand that we cannot directly compare the absolute values of
 1084 Mutual Information (MI) for *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn*. This is because they have a different
 1085 baseline level of Matrix Entropy. In information theory, the mutual information between two ran-
 1086 dom variables is fundamentally bounded by the entropy of each variable. Specifically, we have
 1087 $I(H_s; H_{s+1}) \leq \min(E(H_s), E(H_{s+1}))$. This means that the absolute values of MI is limited by
 1088 the complexity of landscape itself, as measured by Matrix Entropy.

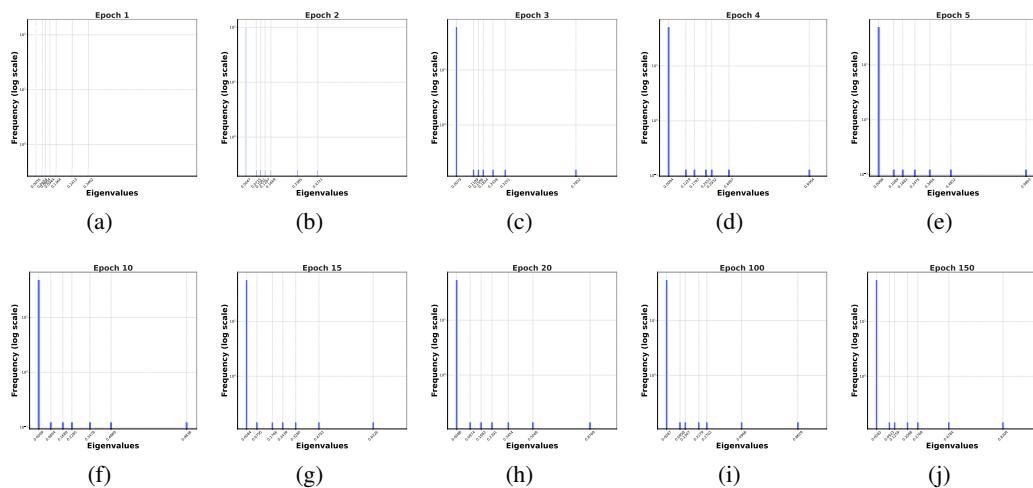
1088 This helps explain the low final MI value for *Single-Attn*. Even though the state at epoch $s + 1$ is
 1089 similar to the state at epoch s , the overall landscape is simple (low entropy) thus the absolute MI
 1090 value remains small. However, notice that both models ultimately reach a stable state of high MI
 1091 within the limits set by its own entropy. It represents a stagnation, not exploration.

1092 **Eigenspectra of Hessian *w.r.t.* the Value Matrix W_V .** We present the eigenspectra of Hessian
 1093 with respect to (*w.r.t.*) the value matrix W_V in Figure 7~11 for three models: *Single-Attn*, *Looped-
 1094 Attn* and *Deep-Attn* (a non-recursive transformer with three attention layers).

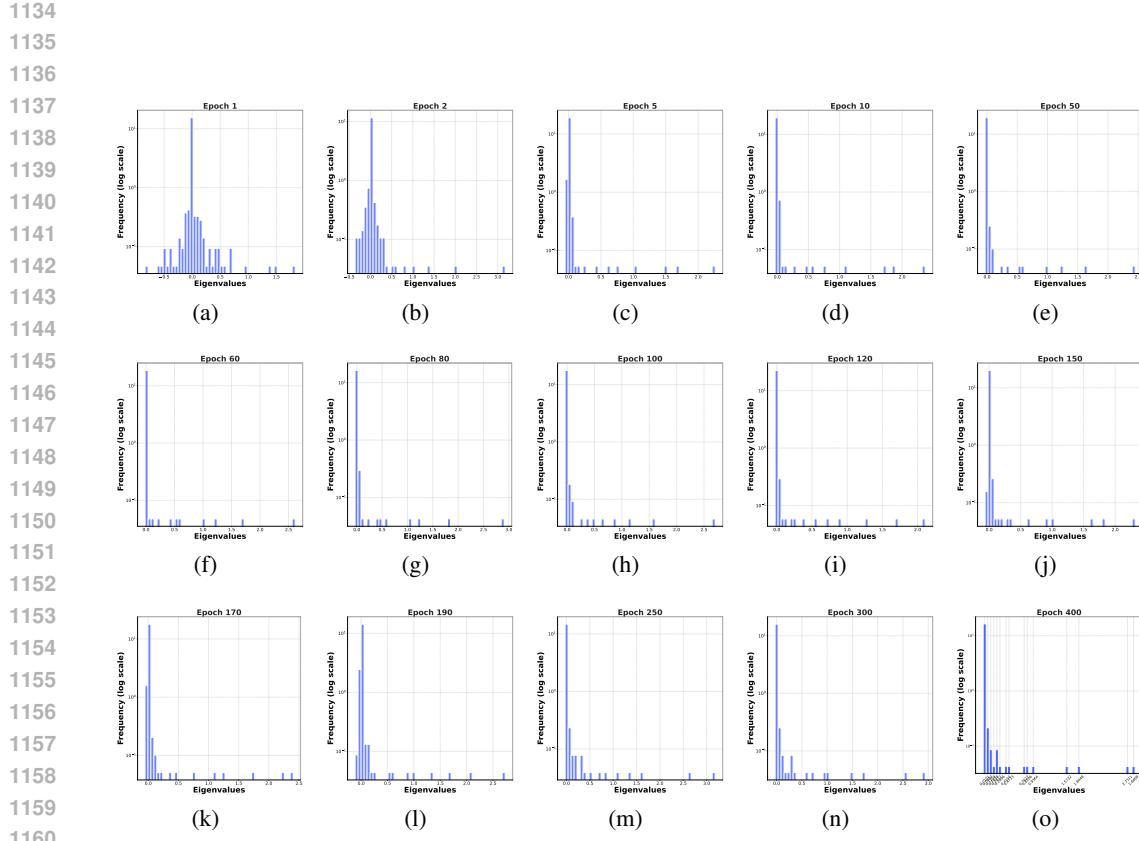
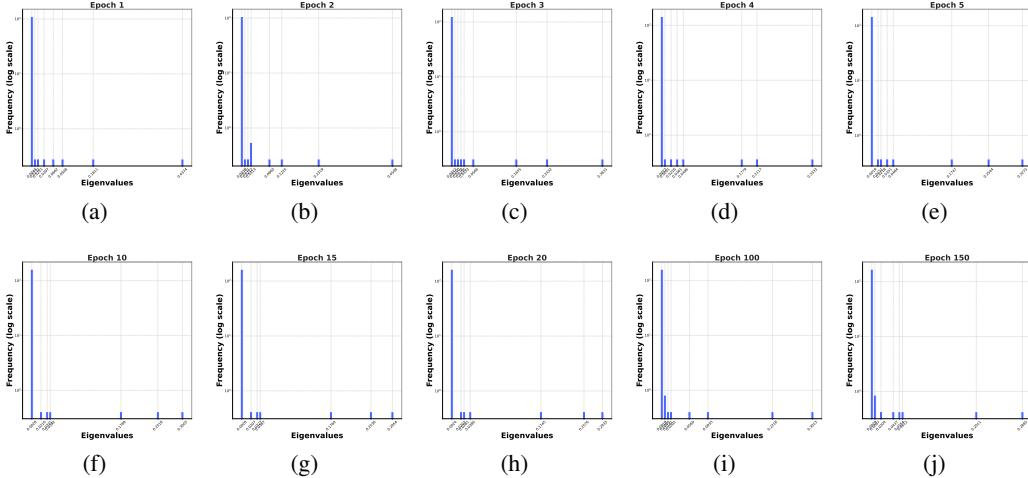
1095 We find that the spectral shape and evolution of *Single-Attn* (Figure 7) and *Deep-Attn* (Figure 9~11)
 1096 are nearly identical. Both converge to a simple and static landscape, and their valley eigenspec-
 1097 tra contain uniformly relatively small eigenvalues, with maximum eigenvalues of a similar small
 1098 magnitude (*e.g.*, $\lambda_{\max} \approx 0.83$ for *Single-Attn* and $\lambda_{\max} \approx 0.28$ for *Deep-Attn* Layer 1). Based on
 1099 Definition 2, both *Single-Attn* and *Deep-Attn* create River-U-Valley landscapes. In contrast, *Looped-
 1100 Attn* (Figure 8) exhibits the distinct three-phase evolution. Its valley eigenspectra contain both rel-
 1101 atively large and small eigenvalues, with a significantly larger $\lambda_{\max} \approx 2.84$. Based on Definition 2,
 1102 *Looped-Attn* creates a River-V-Valley landscape.

1103 This comparison demonstrates that the River-V-Valley landscape is a unique inductive bias of the
 1104 recursive architecture, not simply a product of computational depth.

1105 **Eigenspectra of Hessian *w.r.t.* the Key Matrix W_K .** The metrics of matrix entropy and mutual
 1106 information based on Hessian *w.r.t.* the key matrix W_K , are presented in Figure 12. We present
 1107 the eigenspectra of Hessian with respect to (*w.r.t.*) the key matrix W_K in Figure 13~17 for three
 1108 models: *Single-Attn*, *Looped-Attn* and *Deep-Attn*.



1109
 1110 **Figure 7: Single-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian *w.r.t.* the Value Matrix W_V).**

Figure 8: Looped-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Value Matrix W_V).Figure 9: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Value Matrix W_V in Layer 1).

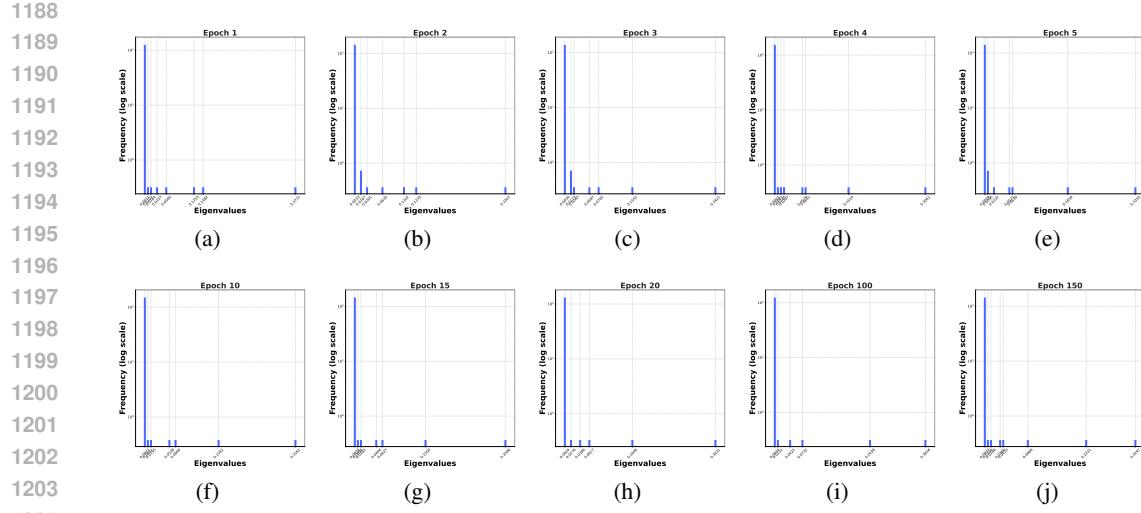
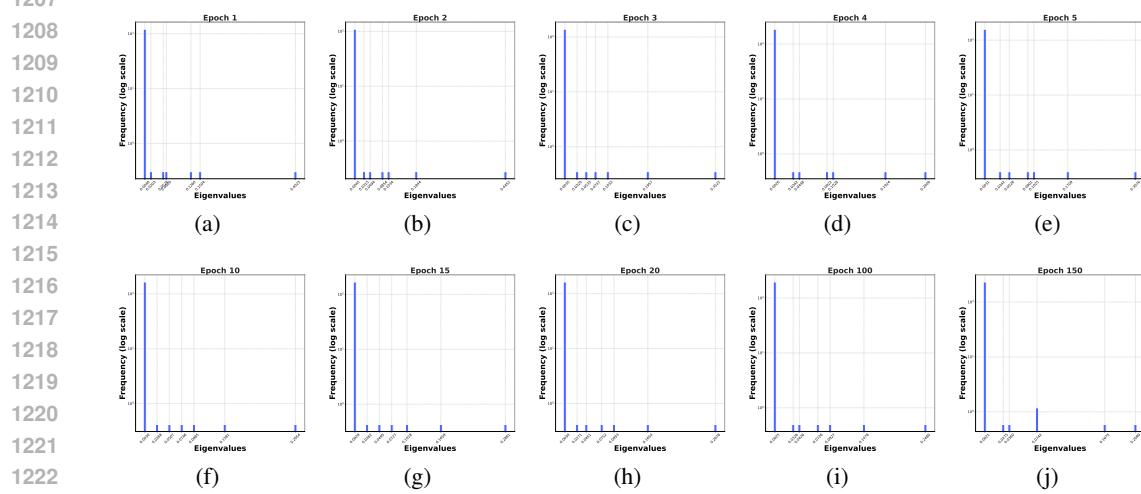
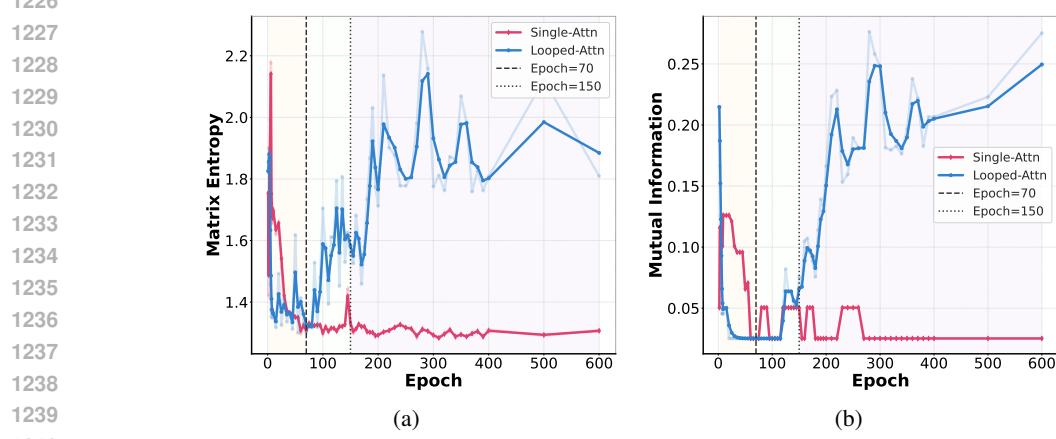
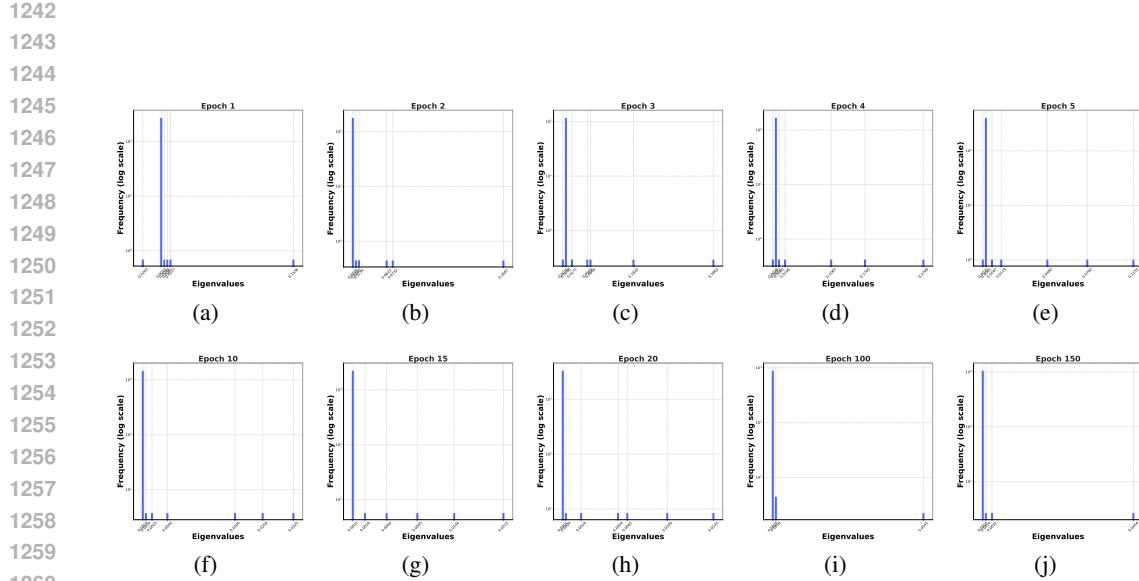
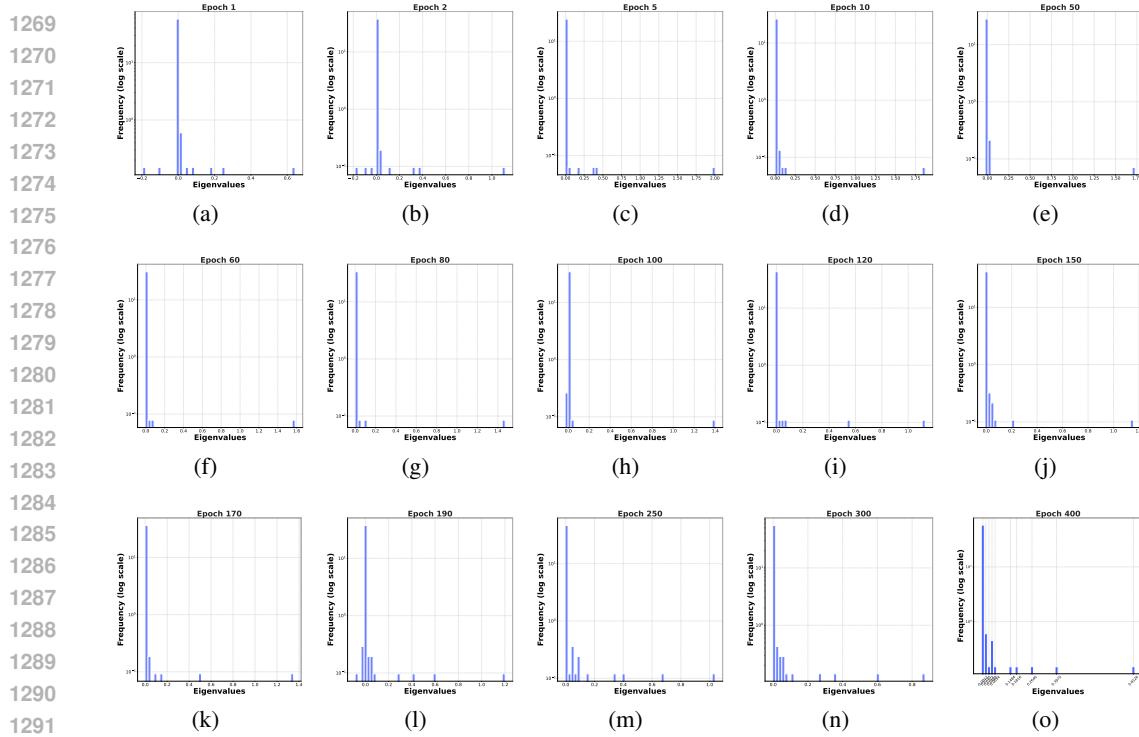
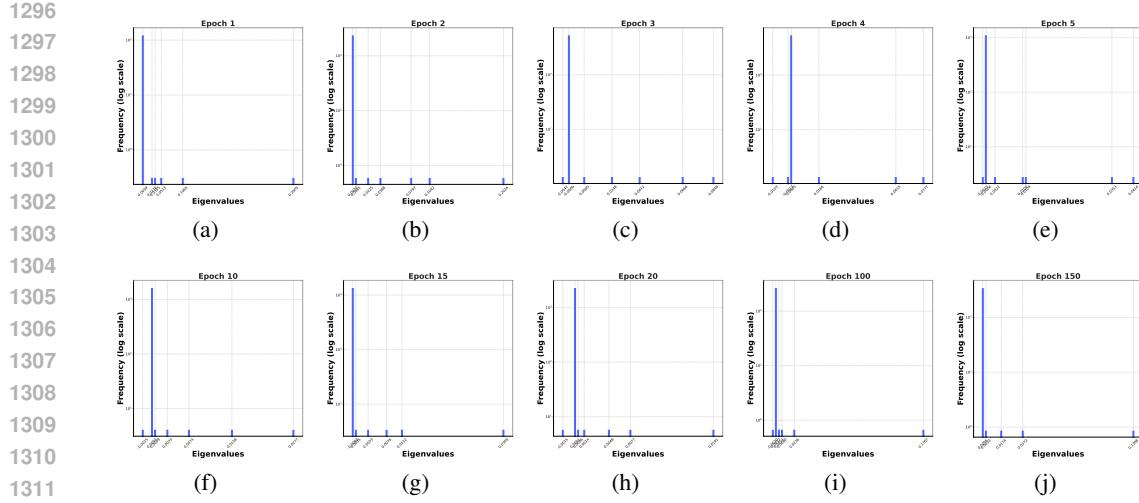
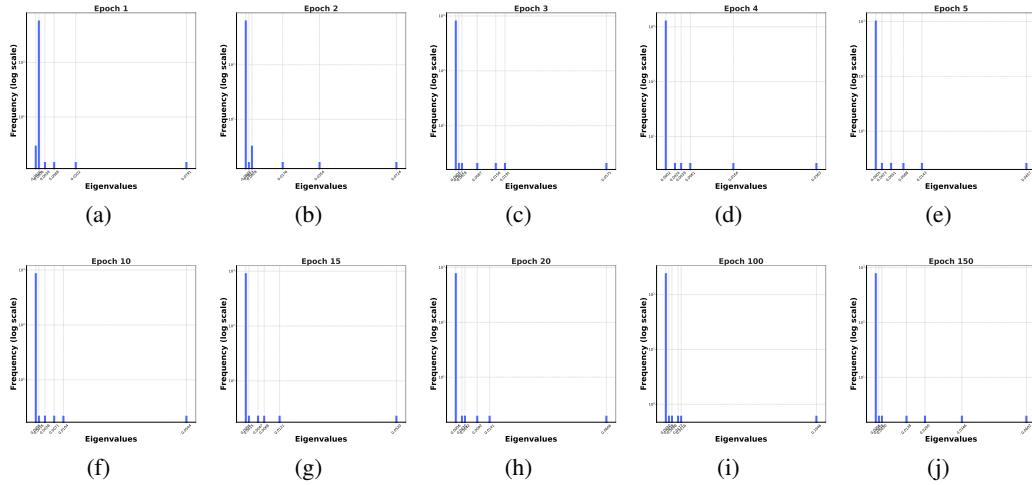
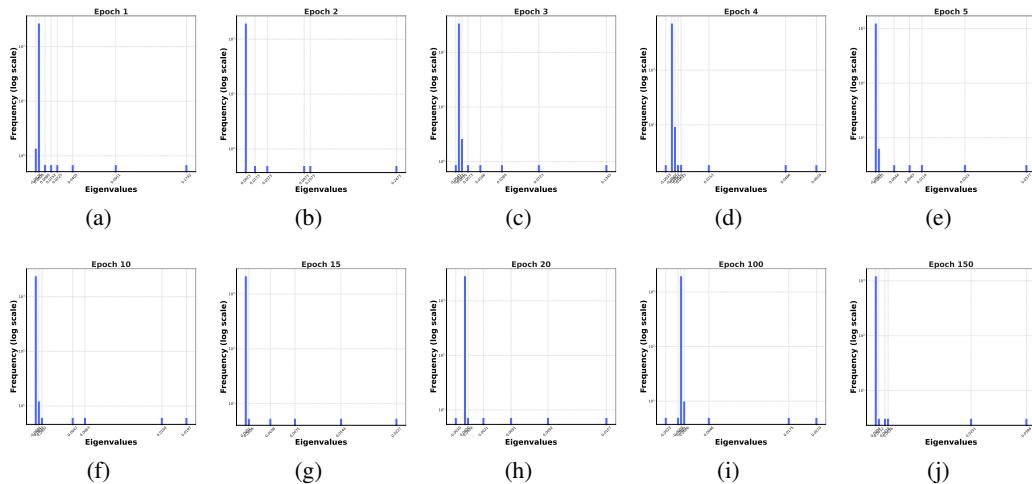
Figure 10: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Value Matrix W_V in Layer 2).Figure 11: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Value Matrix W_V in Layer 3).

Figure 12: (a) Matrix Entropy metric. (b) Mutual Information Metric.

Figure 13: Single-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Key Matrix W_K).Figure 14: Looped-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Key Matrix W_K).

Figure 15: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Key Matrix W_K in Layer 1).Figure 16: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Key Matrix W_K in Layer 2).Figure 17: Deep-Attn Eigenspectra (Hessian w.r.t. the Key Matrix W_K in Layer 3).

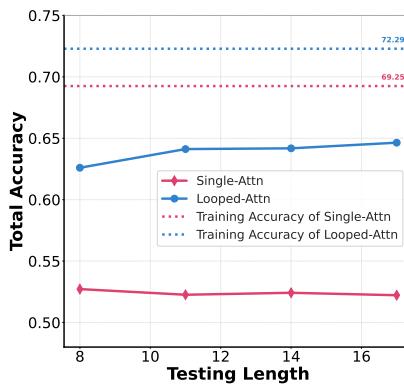


Figure 18: Length Generalization Performances.

Table 1: Accuracy on Relatively Simple Sequences.

Datasets	Sequence Length	# Simple Sequences	Single-Attn	Looped-Attn
Training	$L = 4$	100%	69.25%	72.29%
	$L = 8$	99.5%	52.83%	62.78%
Testing	$L = 11$	64.5%	55.57%	70.28%
	$L = 14$	0	N/A	N/A
	$L = 18$	0	N/A	N/A

E.1.3 LENGTH GENERALIZATION

To bridge optimization with generalization, we design a controlled experiment on the synthetic Markov language dataset to evaluate the length generalization capabilities of the *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.

Testing Datasets. We generate a series of test datasets with sequence lengths $L \in \{8, 11, 14, 17\}$. To specifically isolate the challenge of generalizing a learned rule to longer sequences, rather than adapting to entirely new dynamics (where our designed simplified Single-Attn and Looped-Attn might be completely failed), we generate all test datasets using the same transition dynamics $\{T_1, T_2, T_3\}$ employed for the training data. For sequence lengths $L > 4$, the transition matrices are applied cyclically. Furthermore, to ensure consistent evaluation across lengths, each dataset is generated by sampling a fixed number of $N_{\text{test}} = 5000$ sequences, following the same long-tail sampling rules ($\alpha = 2$) as the training dataset. With these rules, we present the Information Content (IC) distributions for the test datasets with different sequence lengths in Figure 5.

Evaluation Metrics. We analyze model performance based on the IC of each sequence. This allows us to distinguish between simple (low-IC) and complex (high-IC) tasks. Based on the IC distribution of the training data ($L = 4$), we establish a fixed complexity threshold $IC = 14.57$, which represents the maximum IC in the training sequences. We then evaluate both models on the following metrics:

- **Total Accuracy:** The accuracy on the total test datasets.
- **Accuracy on Relatively Simple Sequences:** The accuracy on the subset of test sequences with an IC below the fixed threshold ($IC \leq 14.57$).

Figure 18 and Table 1 present the length generalization performance of the *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models. We find that:

(a) Total Accuracy. As shown in Figure 18, *Looped-Attn* significantly outperforms *Single-Attn* on out-of-distribution testing datasets with sequence lengths greater than the training length. This performance gap confirms that the inductive bias of *Looped-Attn* leads to a more generalizable so-

1404 lution, aligning with our theoretical findings that its optimization landscape guides toward a more
 1405 flatter minimum.

1406 An interesting observation from Figure 18 is that the accuracy of both models does not strictly
 1407 decrease as testing length increases (and even increases slightly). This phenomenon originates from
 1408 our specific design which employs cyclic transitions. In this setup, a longer sequence provides
 1409 the model with more in-context examples of the underlying repeating rule. This may temporarily
 1410 counteract the performance drops from increasing complexity. However, we point out on more
 1411 general datasets, a clearer trend of performance dropping with increasing sequence length would
 1412 be observed (Fan et al., 2024). Here, we focus more on the consistently superior performance of
 1413 *Looped-Attn* over *Single-Attn*.

1414 **(b) Accuracy on Relatively Simple Sequences.** The ‘# Simple Sequences’ column reveals a critical
 1415 length generalization challenge: the low-IC sequences during training become rare or non-existent
 1416 in longer test sequences. This confirms that longer sequences are inherently more complex.

1417 We consider the accuracy on these relatively simple sequences. Specifically, at $L = 11$ where a
 1418 significant portion of simple sequences still exists, *Looped-Attn* maintains a higher accuracy com-
 1419 pared to *Single-Attn*. This indicates that *Single-Attn* struggles to apply its knowledge even to tasks of
 1420 comparable complexity when the sequence is longer. In contrast, *Looped-Attn* generalizes better to
 1421 longer sequences. This aligns with our theory that *Looped-Attn* finds a more generalizable solution
 1422 by exploring further into the river downstream with flat minima.

1424 E.1.4 SHIFT CRITERION WITH PATIENCE

1425 **Motivation for SCP Design.** As discussed in Section 5, Figure 4 empirically validates the mo-
 1426 tivation behind SCP by illustrating the trade-off between computational efficiency and reasoning
 1427 accuracy. Specifically, Figure 4(a) reveals that while a delayed transition increases the speedup
 1428 factor, an excessive delay prevents *Looped-Attn* from converging in Stage II. In Figure 4(b), we vi-
 1429 sualize the training dynamics at a specific shift point (Epoch 120) to compare SHIFT, *Single-Attn*,
 1430 and *Looped-Attn*. These experiments indicate that relying solely on the loss plateau is insufficient
 1431 for determining the optimal transition timing. Since *Single-Attn* exhibits a long loss plateau, it is dif-
 1432 ficult to identify a precise moment that balances accuracy and efficiency based on loss alone. This
 1433 observation motivates the design of the second stage of SCP.

1434 **Hyperparameter Sensitivity of δ_1 , P , δ_2 and W .** We conduct a detailed sensitivity analy-
 1435 sis of the SCP criterion’s hyperparameters. Specifically, the baseline configuration is estab-
 1436 lished at $\delta_1 = 0.001$, $P = 10$, $\delta_2 = 0.03$ and $W = 5$, with experimental ranges in
 1437 $\delta_1 \in \{0.0001, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005, 0.01, 0.05, 0.1, 0.5\}$, $P \in \{5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 15, 20\}$, $\delta_2 \in$
 1438 $\{0.025, 0.03, 0.035, 0.04, 0.045, 0.05\}$ and $W \in \{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$.

1439 As shown in Figure 20, for the Plateau Detection phase, the model exhibits robustness with the shift
 1440 point consistently stabilizing around epoch 119 regardless of variations in the loss threshold δ_1 and
 1441 patience P . For the Gradient Stabilization Wait phase, a larger gradient norm threshold δ_2 relaxes
 1442 the stability constraint, resulting in earlier transitions. To maximize total training efficiency, we
 1443 recommend selecting δ_2 slightly above the intrinsic gradient norm rather than using arbitrarily loose
 1444 thresholds. The window W serves primarily to filter out single-step stochastic outliers. We advise
 1445 against setting W too large unless the gradient curve is exceptionally smooth.

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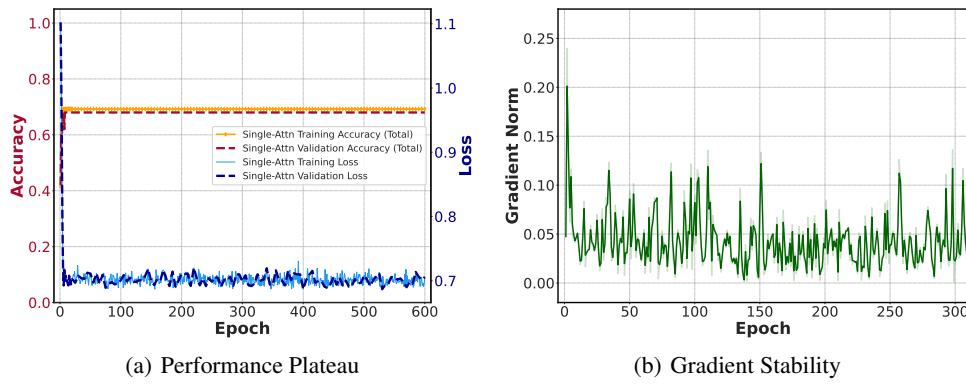


Figure 19: SHIFT Criterion with Patience (SCP).

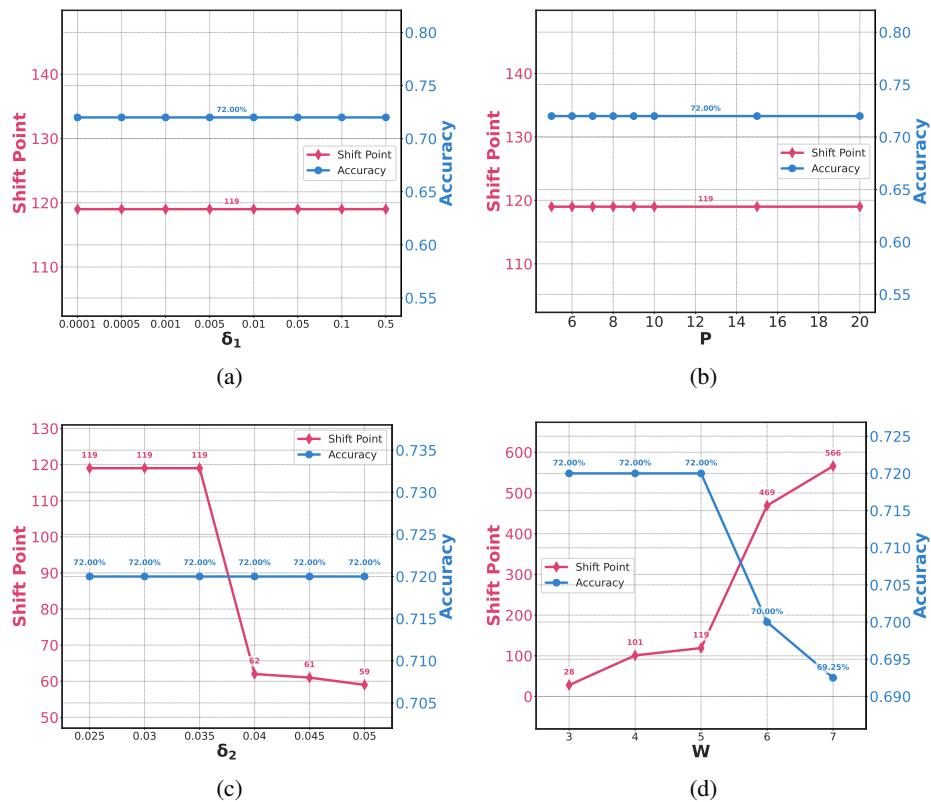


Figure 20: Hyperparameter Sensitivity in SCP.

1512 E.2 EXPERIMENTS ON PRACTICAL MODELS AND DATASETS
15131514 E.2.1 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP
1515

1516 This section details the experimental setup for evaluating three training paradigms on practical
1517 models and datasets: *Single-Attn*, *Looped-Attn*, and our proposed *SHIFT* framework. Our experimental
1518 design follows the methodology for length generalization in looped transformers established by [Fan
et al. \(2024\)](#).

1520 **Architectures and Training Paradigms.** To ensure a fair comparison, all experiments are con-
1521 ducted under the equal parameter count principle. We employ a decoder-only GPT-2 architecture as
1522 the foundational building block for all models.

- 1523 • *Single-Attn*: This model is a standard, non-recursive Transformer trained via Full-Output Pre-
1524 diction to generate the entire output sequence in a single forward pass.
- 1525 • *Looped-Attn*: This model uses the same Transformer block as *Single-Attn* but applies it iter-
1526 atively. We adopt a recursive variant “FOP-Loop-Adaptive” from [Fan et al. \(2024\)](#). Unlike our
1527 toy model with a fixed number of loops (Section E.1), this more advanced setup allows the
1528 model to adapt its computational depth. During training, the model is trained to produce the
1529 output after exactly T loops for a training sequence of length T , with the loss computed only
1530 at the T -th loop. During inference, it uses an adaptive stopping criterion to select the number
1531 of loops for test sequences of different lengths.
- 1532 • *SHIFT*: This is our proposed two-stage training strategy that transitions from *Single-Attn* to
1533 *Looped-Attn* at a shift point guided by SCP (Section 5).

1534 **Datasets and Tasks.** The datasets and tasks are adapted from [Fan et al. \(2024\)](#). We mainly eval-
1535 uate models on five algorithmic reasoning tasks: Parity, Addition, Copy, Binary Sum, and Unique
1536 Set. These tasks require multi-step reasoning, sequential computation and serve as benchmarks for
1537 assessing a model’s ability to learn underlying patterns and generalize to sequence lengths not seen
1538 during training (length generalization).

1539 **Hyperparameters and Implementation Details.** Across all experiments, the model block is con-
1540 figured with an embedding dimension of 256. The number of attention heads and block depth are
1541 task-specific, following the settings in [Fan et al. \(2024\)](#). We use the AdamW optimizer with a learn-
1542 ing rate of 1e-4. All models are trained for a total of 50,001 steps. Each experiment is conducted on
1543 a single 24GB NVIDIA GeForce RTX 3090.

1544 E.2.2 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS
1545

1546 In the following, we present the experimental results on the above five datasets in Figure 22~26.
1547 For each dataset, we compare the training, validation, and length generalization performances of
1548 the three models. Figure 21 summarizes the computational efficiency of the SHIFT framework
1549 compared to the *Looped-Attn* baseline.

1550 **Performances of *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn*.** We observe two interesting different behaviors
1551 on training accuracy curves compared to the experiments on our synthetic Markov language datasets
1552 (Figures 22~26). However, our central findings remain consistent: *Looped-Attn* creates a River-
1553 V-Valley landscape and thus demonstrates superior performance compared to the River-U-Valley
1554 landscape in *Single-Attn*.

1555 **(a)** On practical models and tasks, the training accuracy for all models achieves near 100% early,
1556 which contrasts with the distinct two-phase accuracy curve observed on the toy dataset (Figure 3(b)).
1557 This difference stems from the intrinsic structures of the tasks. Specifically,

- 1558 • An algorithmic task like Parity is governed by a single, recursive underlying rule (e.g., a sequential
1559 XOR operation) for all training samples, regardless of length. The initial descent in the valley
1560 corresponds to the model learning this core operation, which is sufficient to solve nearly all in-
1561 distribution short sequences and causes the training accuracy to quickly plateau. However, this
1562 plateau masks a critical divergence in the optimization dynamics. Even after the accuracy metric
1563 no longer improves, *Looped-Attn* continues its optimization by exploring river downstream, which
1564 is essential for refining the learned core operation into a truly generalizable algorithm. In contrast,
1565 *Single-Attn* gets trapped in the flat valley floor which explains its failure in length generalization.

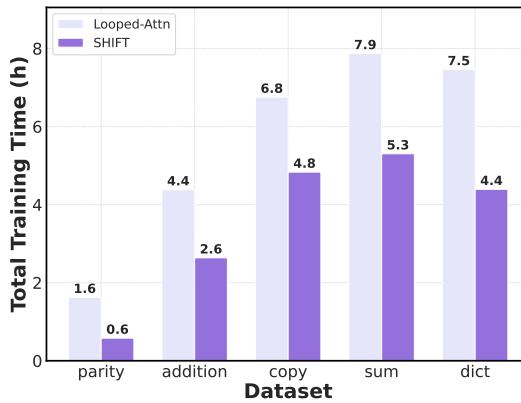


Figure 21: SHIFT Computational Efficiency on Algorithmic Datasets.

- Our synthetic Markov dataset is designed to contain a diverse set of distinct generative rules with varying complexities. This naturally separates the training process: during the valley descent, the model masters the simple rules, while the subsequent downstream exploration is required to learn the more complex rules, resulting in a clear two-phase accuracy progression (if the model learns the complex ones).

- (b) On practical models and tasks, the accuracy drop upon shifting is significant, but minimal in our toy model experiments (Figure 4(b)). This phenomenon does not contradict the validity of the Stage I initialization in SHIFT, as the accuracy recovers rapidly. It reveals a crucial interaction between the complexity of base architecture and the change of loss landscape.

In both experimental setups, the SHIFT transition reshapes the landscape from a U-shaped valley to a V-shaped valley. However, the magnitude of this geometric shift appears to depend on the complexity of the base architecture.

- On practical tasks, *Looped-Attn* and *Single-Attn* are built upon GPT-2. Applying the recursive principle to this complex base architecture creates a V-shaped valley that is greatly different from the U-shaped valley of its non-recursive ones. This causes the optimizer to significantly push the parameters far from the stable region, leading to the observed temporary collapse in accuracy.
- On our synthetic dataset, *Looped-Attn* and *Single-Attn* are built from a single attention layer. For these simplified models, the geometric distinction between the U-shaped valley and V-shaped valley leads to a *relatively* smooth architectural transition and a stable accuracy trajectory.

This initial instability is the short-term cost of transitioning to a more powerful optimization path.

Effectiveness of SHIFT. Figures 22~26 consistently validate the performance effectiveness of our proposed SHIFT framework across all evaluated tasks. As shown in the (c) subfigures, *Single-Attn* fails to generalize to longer sequences, while capable of achieving high accuracy on in-distribution training data. In contrast, *Looped-Attn* demonstrates great length generalization capabilities by maintaining high accuracy on longer test sequences. Our SHIFT framework successfully combines the rapid initial convergence of *Single-Attn* with a final performance comparable to the *Looped-Attn* baseline. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 21, SHIFT achieves this strong performance with significantly greater computational efficiency, reducing training time across evaluated algorithmic tasks.

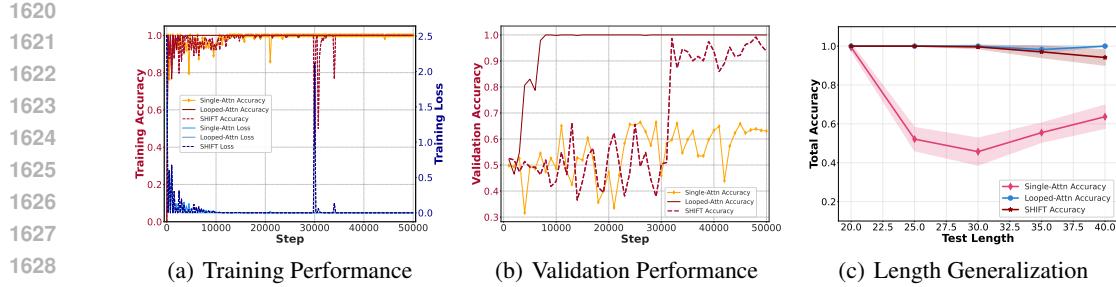


Figure 22: Parity Dataset (Shift Step 30k).

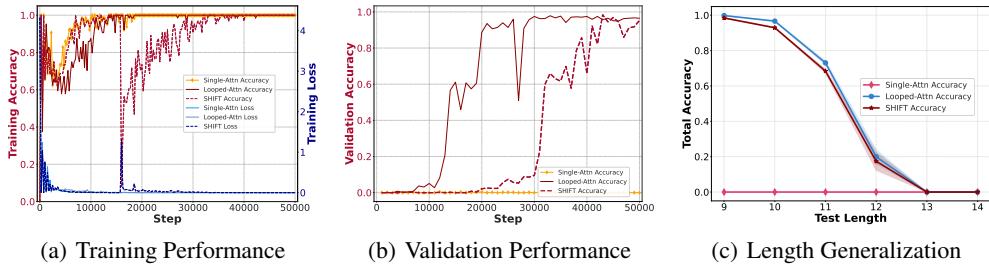


Figure 23: Addition Dataset (Shift Step 16k).

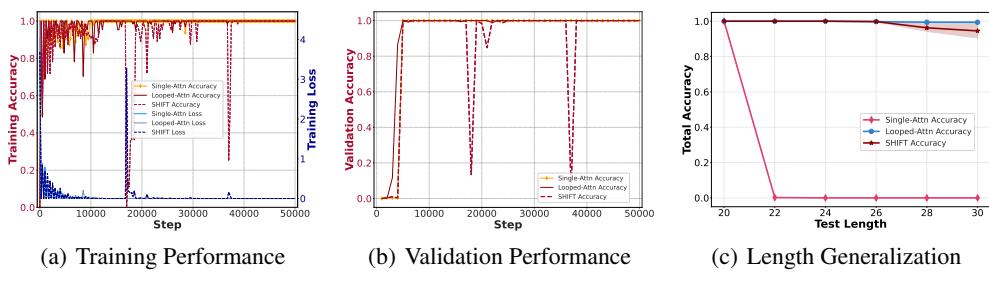


Figure 24: Copy Dataset (Shift Step 17k).

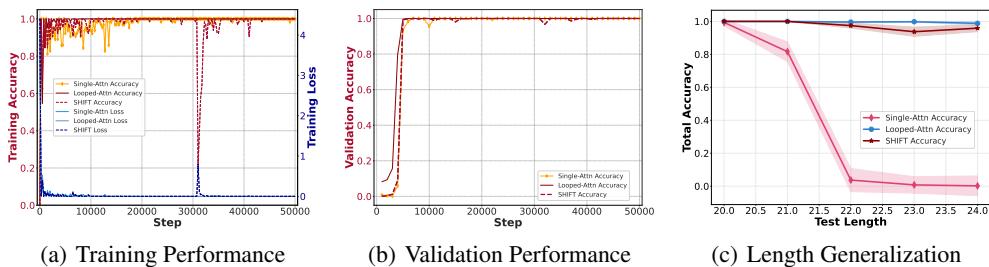


Figure 25: Binary Sum Dataset (Shift Step 31k).

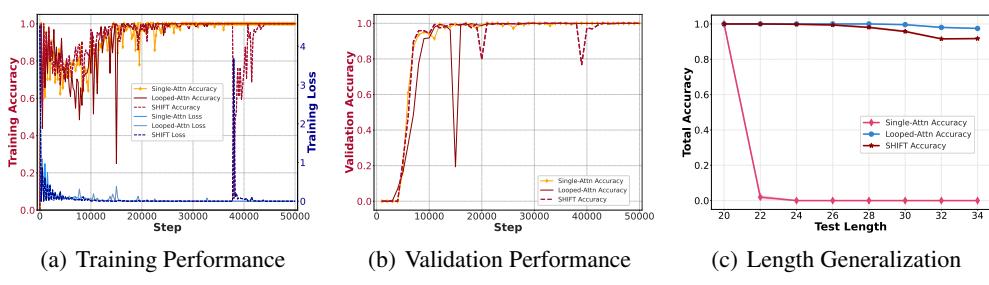


Figure 26: Unique Set Dataset (Shift Step 38k).

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1677 **F ADDITIONAL DISCUSSIONS ON DEFINITION 1**

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Hyperparameters. The constants ϵ , δ , and ζ in Definition 1 serve as descriptive symbols to characterize the intrinsic landscape geometry. Specifically, ϵ partitions the parameter space into the river (the optimum exists in the river downstream) and valley (it generates driving force on river). Its selection needs to respect the intrinsic spectral gap of the model. A reasonable ϵ is essential for our theoretical results: setting ϵ too large would misclassify small eigenvalues as river components. This artificially excludes the primary contributors to the valley’s energy \mathcal{E} , thereby hiding the driving force inherent in the V-shaped valley on river. Conversely, setting ϵ too close to zero risks including numerical noise into the valley analysis. Furthermore, δ and ζ quantify geometric distinctions: δ distinguishes between the well-conditioned and ill-conditioned geometries, and ζ serves as a baseline for energy magnitude.

Representative Examples. We assume a small threshold ϵ (e.g., $\epsilon = 0.02$) separates the River and Valley subspaces. Let $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3\}$ denote the eigenvalues and $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$ denote the corresponding eigenvectors. We analyze four representative functions to illustrate the standard River-U-Valley, River-V-Valley, and other special landscapes beyond the scope of Definition 1.

Case A: River-U-Valley (κ and \mathcal{E} are small).

$$f_A = 0.001x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2.$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 0.002 \leq \epsilon, \lambda_2, \lambda_3 = 2 > \epsilon$. With Definition 1, the subspaces are $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{v_1\}$ and $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_2, v_3\}$. For the valley subspace, the condition number of valley Hessian is $\kappa = 1$ (well-condition), and the inverse Hessian average energy is $\mathcal{E} = 0.25$ (small energy). This geometry corresponds to a U-shaped Valley: an isotropic bowl with uniformly steep cliffs. In total, the landscape of f_A is River-U-Valley.

Case B: River-V-Valley (κ and \mathcal{E} are large).

$$f_B = 0.001x_1^2 + 0.02x_2^2 + 2x_3^2.$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 0.002 \leq \epsilon, \lambda_2 = 0.04 > \epsilon, \lambda_3 = 4 > \epsilon$. With Definition 1, the subspaces are $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{v_1\}$ and $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_2, v_3\}$. For the valley subspace, the condition number of valley Hessian is $\kappa = 100$ (ill-condition), the inverse Hessian average energy is $\mathcal{E} = 312.625$ (large energy). This geometry corresponds to a V-shaped Valley, characterized by varied and steep cliffs. In total, the landscape of f_B is River-V-Valley.

Case C: Anisotropic Valley with Low Energy (Large κ , Small \mathcal{E}).

$$f_C = 0.001x_1^2 + x_2^2 + 100x_3^2.$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 0.002 \leq \epsilon, \lambda_2 = 2 > \epsilon, \lambda_3 = 200 > \epsilon$. With Definition 1, the subspaces are $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{v_1\}$ and $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_2, v_3\}$. For the valley subspace, the condition number

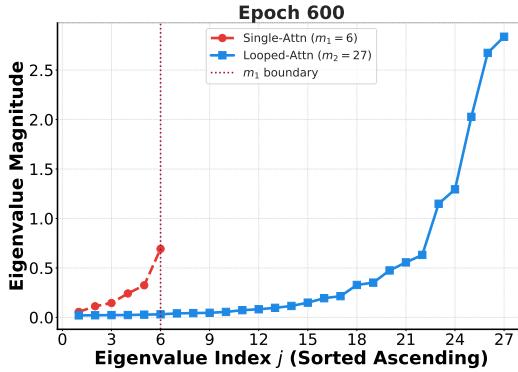


Figure 27: Eigenvalues of Valley Hessian ($\epsilon = 0.02$).

of valley Hessian is $\kappa = 100$ (ill-condition), the inverse Hessian average energy is $\mathcal{E} \approx 0$ (small energy). Consequently, this geometry fits neither the U-shaped nor the V-shaped definition. For the optimization dynamic, the large condition number induces hopping within the valley. However, unlike the V-shaped valley, this hopping does not convert into effective river exploration because the valley lacks a sufficiently small eigenvalue to drive the update. This case represents a suboptimal anisotropic optimization landscape where the model endures instability without facilitating river exploration. In total, this case is beyond the scope of this paper (Definition 1). In other words, *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* does not possess such landscapes.

Case D: Isotropic Valley with High Energy (Small κ , Large \mathcal{E}).

$$f_D = 0.001x_1^2 + 0.02x_2^2 + 0.02x_3^2.$$

The eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 = 0.002 \leq \epsilon, \lambda_2, \lambda_3 = 0.04 > \epsilon$. With Definition 1, the subspaces are $S_{\text{River}} = \text{span}\{v_1\}$ and $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_2, v_3\}$. For the valley subspace, the condition number of valley Hessian is $\kappa = 1$ (well-condition), the inverse Hessian average energy is $\mathcal{E} = 625$ (large energy). Consequently, this geometry fits neither the U-shaped nor the V-shaped definition. For the optimization dynamic, although the high energy implies a large potential driving force, the small condition number induces a rapid smooth descent to the valley floor ($\theta_V \rightarrow 0$). Unlike the V-shaped valley where oscillation keeps the valley parameters active, the rapid decay of θ_V causes the coupling force on the river ($H_{RV}\theta_V$) to vanish quickly. Therefore, despite the high energy, the model quickly becomes trapped at the valley floor, failing to explore river downstream. In total, this case is beyond the scope of this paper (Definition 1). In other words, *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* does not possess such landscapes.

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1782 **G RIVER-V-VALLEY BRINGS SUPERIOR OPTIMIZATION PERFORMANCE**
17831784 **G.1 DEFINITIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS**
17851786 **Definition 2 (Block-Structured Hessian).** *Let the Hessian matrix H be represented in the or-
1787 thonormal basis of the Valley $\{v_i\}$ and River $\{r_j\}$ subspaces. Its block components are defined by
1788 the second directional derivatives of the loss \widehat{L} as follows:*

1789
$$1790 [H_{\text{Valley}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial v_j}, \quad [H_{VR}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial r_j}, \quad [H_{RV}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial v_j}, \quad [H_{\text{River}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial r_j}.$$

1791

1792 *Proof.* This block structure is formally derived through a change of basis, transforming the standard
1793 Hessian into the coordinate system defined by the River-Valley subspaces.
17941795 **From standard basis to the River-Valley subspaces.** Let H_{old} be the Hessian of the loss function
1796 $\widehat{L}(\theta)$ with respect to the standard basis of \mathbb{R}^d , where

1797
$$1798 [H_{\text{old}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}.$$

1799

1800 We introduce a new orthonormal basis aligned with the geometry of the landscape, formed by the
1801 basis vectors of the valley subspace, $S_{\text{Valley}} = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_{d_V}\}$, and the river subspace, $S_{\text{River}} =$
1802 $\text{span}\{r_1, \dots, r_{d_R}\}$.
18031804 The change of basis from the River-Valley coordinates to the standard coordinates is given by the
1805 orthonormal matrix U :

1806
$$U = (V, R) = (v_1, \dots, v_{d_V}, r_1, \dots, r_{d_R}) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times (d_V + d_R)},$$

1807 where $V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_V}$ and $R \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d_R}$ are matrices whose columns are the basis vectors of the
1808 respective subspaces.
18091810 **The Hessian in the new basis.** The representation of the Hessian H in this new basis is

1811
$$H = U^\top H_{\text{old}} U.$$

1812 Substituting the block form of U yields the block structure of H :

1813
$$1814 H = \begin{pmatrix} V^\top \\ R^\top \end{pmatrix} H_{\text{old}} \begin{pmatrix} V & R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} V^\top H_{\text{old}} V & V^\top H_{\text{old}} R \\ R^\top H_{\text{old}} V & R^\top H_{\text{old}} R \end{pmatrix}.$$

1815

1816 From this, we can identify each block:
1817

- $H_{\text{Valley}} = V^\top H_{\text{old}} V$: The projection of the Hessian onto the Valley subspace.
- $H_{VR} = V^\top H_{\text{old}} R$: The coupling term from the River to the Valley subspace.
- $H_{RV} = R^\top H_{\text{old}} V$: The coupling term from the Valley to the River subspace.
- $H_{\text{River}} = R^\top H_{\text{old}} R$: The projection of the Hessian onto the River subspace.

1824 Thus, we have
1825

$$1826 [H_{\text{Valley}}]_{ij} = v_i^\top H_{\text{old}} v_j = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial v_j},$$

$$1827 [H_{VR}]_{ij} = v_i^\top H_{\text{old}} r_j = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial r_j},$$

$$1828 [H_{RV}]_{ij} = r_i^\top H_{\text{old}} v_j = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial v_j},$$

$$1829 [H_{\text{River}}]_{ij} = r_i^\top H_{\text{old}} r_j = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial r_j}.$$

1830 \square

1836
1837 **Setting 1 (Quadratic Loss).** One simple example of a River-Valley landscape (Definition 1) is the
1838 quadratic loss:

$$1839 \quad \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} H_{\text{Valley}} & H_{VR} \\ H_{RV} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix} - h_R^\top \theta_R,$$

1841 where $[H_{\text{Valley}}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial v_j}$, $[H_{VR}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial v_i \partial r_j}$, $[H_{RV}]_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{L}}{\partial r_i \partial v_j}$ (Definition 2 in Appendix G.1).
1842 We assume the coupling strength along the valley eigenvectors v_i satisfies $\underline{h} \leq \|H_{RV}v_i\| \leq \bar{h}$
1843 for constants $\underline{h}, \bar{h} > 0$, and the valley parameters are initialized as $\theta_{V,0} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \bar{\alpha}^2 I/d_V)$ with
1844 $\|\theta_{V,0}\| \leq \bar{\alpha}$ for a constant $\bar{\alpha} > 0$.

1846 **Remark 5.** The structure of this loss model is a principled abstraction of our theoretical model
1847 and empirical observations. Each component of the function corresponds to a specific geometric
1848 hypothesis.

1849 **The valley component** $\widehat{L}_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_V)$. The valley is a subspace with high curvature. Any movement
1850 away from the valley floor should result in a significant increase in the loss value. We adopt a
1851 simplest quadratic function to capture this behavior and landscape:

$$1852 \quad \widehat{L}_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_V) = \frac{1}{2} \theta_V^\top H_{\text{Valley}} \theta_V.$$

1853 The matrix H_{Valley} is the valley Hessian. Its spectral properties (condition number) directly model
1854 the shape of the valley: U-shape and V-shape defined in Definition 1.

1855 **The river component** $\widehat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_R)$. The river corresponds to the subspace with near-zero eigenvalues,
1856 forming a flat manifold. While the true landscape may possess non-zero curvature in these directions,
1857 empirical observations in Figures 7~8 reveal a massive spectral gap between valley and river
1858 directions (i.e., $\lambda_{\text{Valley}} \gg \lambda_{\text{River}}$). This suggests that along the full optimization trajectory (including
1859 regions outside the idealized flat manifold), the quadratic confinement provided by the curvature in
1860 the river direction is negligible compared to the driving force of the gradient. Consequently, optimi-
1861 zation dynamics within the river are dominated by the first-order gradient term. We thus adopt
1862 the approximation $H_{\text{River}} \approx \mathbf{0}$ and model the river using a linear term:

$$1863 \quad \widehat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_R) = -h_R^\top \theta_R.$$

1864 Here, the vector h_R represents the intrinsic gradient flow along the River. The negative sign indicates
1865 that moving in the direction of h_R decreases the loss. It effectively captures the slow dynamics along
1866 the river relative to the fast dynamics in the valley.

1867 **The coupling component** $\widehat{L}_{\text{Coupling}}(\theta_V, \theta_R)$. The optimization in valley and river subspaces are not
1868 perfectly independent. To model their interaction, we adopt H_{RV} to construct a simple quadratic
1869 form:

$$1870 \quad \widehat{L}_{\text{Coupling}}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \theta_R^\top H_{RV} \theta_V = \theta_V^\top H_{VR} \theta_R,$$

1871 since Hessian is symmetric, i.e., $H_{RV} = H_{VR}^\top$. The matrix H_{RV} is the Coupling Matrix that
1872 quantifies the strength of the interaction between the subspaces. Specifically, H_{RV} describes how a
1873 movement in the valley induces a gradient in the river.

1874 **Assembling the final model.** By combining these three principled components, we arrive at our
1875 final quadratic loss function:

$$1876 \quad \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2} \theta_V^\top H_{\text{Valley}} \theta_V - h_R^\top \theta_R + \theta_R^\top H_{RV} \theta_V.$$

1877 This can be expressed compactly in the block-matrix form:

$$1878 \quad \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} H_{\text{Valley}} & H_{VR} \\ H_{RV} & \mathbf{0} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V \\ \theta_R \end{pmatrix} - h_R^\top \theta_R.$$

1881 In addition, for the initialization $\theta_{V,0}$, we derive that

$$1882 \quad \mathbb{E} \left[\|\theta_{V,0}\|^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \theta_{V,i}^2 \right] = d_V \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} = \bar{\alpha}^2.$$

1890 According to the Law of Large Numbers, as d_V is large, the norm of $\theta_{V,0}$ is concentrated around
 1891 its expected value $\bar{\alpha}$. This initialization guarantees that $\theta_{V,0}$ possesses non-zero projections onto the
 1892 eigenvectors associated with small valley eigenvalues. These components are essential for activating
 1893 the significant cumulative driving force of *Looped-Attn*.
 1894
 1895

1896 **Assumption 1 (Dominant Effect in Average Energy).** Let $\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$ and $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}$ denote the Inverse
 1897 Hessian Average Energy (Definition 1) for Single-Attn and Looped-Attn, respectively. With $\underline{h} \leq$
 1898 $\|H_{RV}v_i\| \leq \bar{h}$ (Setting 1), assume that $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}/\mathcal{E}^{(1)} \gg \bar{h}^2/\underline{h}^2$.
 1899

1900 **Remark 6.** Assumption 1 ensures that the landscape advantage of *Looped-Attn* compared to *Single-Attn*,
 1901 characterized by the significant magnitude of inverse eigenvalues ($\mathcal{E}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{E}^{(1)}$), dominates
 1902 the scaling effects in the coupling strength. Specifically, the ratio $\bar{h}^2/\underline{h}^2$ is of a constant order, since
 1903 \bar{h} and \underline{h} correspond to the projection strengths of H_{RV} onto different valley eigenvectors, which
 1904 typically share the same magnitude. In contrast, the energy ratio $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}/\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$ exceeds this constant
 1905 order due to the significant structural differences between *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.
 1906
 1907

1908 **Assumption 2 (Bounded Time-Varying Valley Hessian).** Let $\{H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k)\}_{k \geq 0}$ be the sequence
 1909 of Valley Hessians during the optimization trajectory. There exist constant, positive semi-definite
 1910 matrices H^B and H^T sharing a common stable basis with $\{H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k)\}_{k \geq 0}$, such that for all steps
 1911 k : $H^B \preceq H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) \preceq H^T$, where \preceq denotes the Loewner order.
 1912
 1913

1914 **Remark 7.** Assumption 2 posits a structurally stable valley subspace where the eigenvectors of
 1915 $H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k)$ do not rotate significantly, while the eigenvalues vary during the optimization phase.
 1916 We use matrices H^B and H^T to bound this evolving eigenspectrum. Specifically, with $H^B \preceq$
 1917 $H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) \preceq H^T$, we have that the sorted eigenvalues satisfy $\lambda_i(H^B) \leq \lambda_i(H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k)) \leq$
 1918 $\lambda_i(H^T)$, $\forall i = 1, \dots, d$. Intuitively, the lower bound $\lambda_i(H^B)$ guarantees that the valley directions
 1919 do not become infinitely flat, ensuring the landscape possesses sufficient curvature to drive
 1920 optimization. The upper bound $\lambda_i(H^T)$ ensures that the steepest directions do not become infinitely
 1921 steep, *i.e.*, the Hessian satisfies Lipschitz smoothness.
 1922
 1923

1924 **Assumption 3 (Bounded Time-Varying Coupling Hessian).** Let $H_{RV}(\theta_k)$ be the time-varying
 1925 coupling matrix at step k . There exist constant matrices \underline{H} and \bar{H} , such that $\underline{H}^\top \underline{H} \preceq H_{RV}^\top H_{RV} \preceq$
 1926 $\bar{H}^\top \bar{H}$. The coupling strength along the stable valley eigenvectors (Assumption 2) satisfy $\underline{h}_{\text{gen}} \leq$
 1927 $\|\underline{H}v_i^T\|$, $\|\bar{H}v_i^B\| \leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}$ for constants $\underline{h}_{\text{gen}}, \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} > 0$.
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 1929

1930 **Remark 8.** With Assumption 2, the eigenvectors $\{v_i^T\}$ or $\{v_i^B\}$ are stable, where $\{v_i^T\}$ denote the
 1931 eigenvalues of Hessian upper bound H^T , and $\{v_i^B\}$ denote the eigenvalues of Hessian lower bound
 1932 H^B . Assumption 3 bounds the coupling energy $H_{RV}^\top H_{RV}$ and coupling strength along these stable
 1933 eigenvectors. Specifically, it guarantees that the interaction between the valley and river subspaces
 1934 is well-behaved. The upper bounds ensure Lipschitz smoothness and the lower bounds ensure that
 1935 the gradient conversion from valley to river does not vanish.
 1936
 1937

1938 **Assumption 4 (Dominant Effect in Average Energy).** Let $\mathcal{E}^{(1)}$ and $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}$ denote the Inverse Hes-
 1939 sian Average Energy (Definition 1) for Single-Attn and Looped-Attn, respectively. With $\|\underline{H}v_i^T\| \geq$
 1940 $\underline{h}_{\text{gen}}$, $\|\bar{H}v_i^B\| \leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}$ (Assumption 3), assume that $\mathcal{E}^{(2)}/\mathcal{E}^{(1)} \gg \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2/\underline{h}_{\text{gen}}^2$.
 1941

1942 **Remark 9.** Assumption 4 ensures that the landscape advantage of *Looped-Attn* compared to *Single-Attn*,
 1943 characterized by the significant magnitude of inverse eigenvalues ($\mathcal{E}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{E}^{(1)}$), dominates the
 1944 scaling effects in the coupling strength.
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G.2 PROOF FOR THEOREM 1 AND COROLLARY 1

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We aim to prove that over K iterations (the stage where the valley’s dynamics largely drive progress in the river, i.e., before reaching the river), the total progress made in the river subspace is significantly greater for *Looped-Attn* than for *Single-Attn*. In our theoretical model, superior convergence performance is defined as the ability to explore further along the river, thus reaching a better optimization performance.

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With the quadratic loss model from Setting 1, $\widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2}\theta_V^\top H_{\text{valley}}\theta_V - h_R^\top \theta_R + \theta_R^\top H_{RV}\theta_V$, we derive the gradients:

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$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R)}{\partial \theta_V} &= H_{\text{valley}}\theta_{V,k} + H_{VR}\theta_{R,k}, \\ \frac{\partial \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R)}{\partial \theta_R} &= H_{RV}\theta_{V,k} - h_R.\end{aligned}$$

1959

Therefore the GD update rules for the two subspaces are:

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$$\theta_{V,k+1} = \theta_{V,k} - \eta(H_{\text{valley}}\theta_{V,k} + H_{VR}\theta_{R,k}) = (I - \eta H_{\text{valley}})\theta_{V,k} - \eta H_{VR}\theta_{R,k}, \quad (1)$$

$$\theta_{R,k+1} = \theta_{R,k} - \eta(H_{RV}\theta_{V,k} - h_R). \quad (2)$$

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Derivation of the cumulative change in the river subspace. Our goal is to quantify the total progress made within the river subspace during K iterations. From Equation 2, the total change in θ_R after K steps is:

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$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\theta_{R,K} &\triangleq \theta_{R,K} - \theta_{R,0} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (\theta_{R,k+1} - \theta_{R,k}) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (\eta h_R - \eta H_{RV}\theta_{V,k}) \\ &= K\eta h_R - \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}\theta_{V,k}.\end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

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The first term represents progress driven by the river’s intrinsic constant gradient. The second term represents the influence from the valley. We define C_K to be the cumulative effect induced by the valley dynamics on the river, i.e., movement in the valley $\theta_{V,k}$ induces a gradient in the river:

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$$C_K \triangleq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}\theta_{V,k}.$$

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Spectral analysis of the dominant dynamics. The cumulative effect C_K depends on the trajectory of $\theta_{V,k}$. The recurrence for $\theta_{V,k}$ in Equation 1 can be solved as

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$$\theta_{V,k} = \Phi^k \theta_{V,0} - \eta \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \Phi^{k-1-j} H_{VR}\theta_{R,j}, \quad (4)$$

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where $\Phi \triangleq I - \eta H_{\text{valley}}$. The trajectory of θ_V is composed of two parts: **(a)** the unforced update, $\Phi^k \theta_{V,0}$, represents the intrinsic decay of the valley component; and **(b)** the summation term represents the cumulative influence on the valley from the river. During the early and intermediate stages of optimization (bouncing between the valleys), the magnitude of θ_V grows rapidly and remains significantly larger than that of θ_R . Consequently, the term $-\eta H_{RV}\theta_V$ generates a significant driving force on the river, while the term $-\eta H_{VR}\theta_R$ acts only as a minor perturbation on the valley. Thus, the dynamics of the valley dominate and drive the exploration of the river, while the dynamics of the river can be regarded as a secondary perturbation to the valley. We mainly consider the dominant part (a) in the following.

1998 Let $H_{\text{Valley}} = Q\Lambda Q^\top$ be the spectral decomposition, where $Q = [v_1, \dots, v_{d_V}]$ is the orthonormal
 1999 matrix of eigenvectors and $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{d_V})$ is the diagonal matrix of corresponding eigen-
 2000 values. The dominant dynamics of θ_V are governed by the unforced update $\Phi^k \theta_{V,0}$, which can be
 2001 expressed in the eigen-space as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Phi^k \theta_{V,0} &= (I - \eta Q\Lambda Q^\top)^k \theta_{V,0} \\ &= (QIQ^\top - \eta Q\Lambda Q^\top)^k \theta_{V,0} \\ &= Q(I - \eta\Lambda)^k Q^\top \theta_{V,0} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (1 - \eta\lambda_i)^k v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

2010 **Dominant cumulative effect for Single-Attn and Looped-Attn.** We denote the dominant part of
 2011 the cumulative effect, arising from the unforced update, as \widehat{C}_K :

$$\widehat{C}_K \triangleq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV} \Phi^k \theta_{V,0}. \quad (6)$$

2015 Let $\rho_i \triangleq 1 - \eta\lambda_i$ be the decay rate of the i -th component. Substituting Equation 5 into Equation 6
 2016 yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{C}_K &= \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV} \Phi^k \theta_{V,0} = \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \rho_i^k v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i \right) \\ &= \eta \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i \left(\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \rho_i^k \right) \\ &= \eta \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i \left(\frac{1 - \rho_i^K}{1 - \rho_i} \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{v_i^\top \theta_{V,0}}{\lambda_i} H_{RV} v_i (1 - \rho_i^K). \end{aligned}$$

2029 As $K \rightarrow \infty$, \widehat{C}_K is asymptotic to C_∞ :

$$\begin{aligned} C_\infty &= \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \widehat{C}_K = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i (1 - \rho_i^K) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i. \end{aligned}$$

2037 With $\|H_{RV}\| \leq \bar{h}$ and $\|\theta_{V,0}\| \leq \bar{\alpha}$ in Setting 1, we consider the norm of asymptotic value C_∞ :

$$\begin{aligned} \|C_\infty\| &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i \right\| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} |v_i^\top \theta_{V,0}| \cdot \|H_{RV} v_i\| \\ &\leq \|H_{RV}\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} |v_i^\top \theta_{V,0}| \\ &\leq \sqrt{d_V} \|H_{RV}\| \|\theta_{V,0}\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} \\ &\leq \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|} \triangleq \mathcal{C} \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

2052 It means that after K iterations, the driving force from valley is limited to \mathcal{C} . In other words, \mathcal{C}
 2053 quantifies the total potential driving force the valley can generate, which is primarily related to the
 2054 inverse of the eigenvalues of the valley subspace.

2055 With the expression of cumulative force, $\mathcal{C} = \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i|}$, we then compare two models.

2056 The spectral experiments presented in Figure 27 (with $\epsilon = 0.02$) reveal that *Looped-Attn* exhibits a
 2057 larger $\mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}})$ than *Single-Attn*. Thus with Definition 1, we summarize the characteristics of two
 2058 models in Conjecture 1~2.

2059 For *Single-Attn* with River-U-Valley, we have $\frac{1}{d_V^{(1)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(1)})^2} \leq \zeta$. With inequality $\|x\|_1 \leq$
 2060 $\sqrt{d} \|x\|_2$ for vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the maximal cumulative force satisfies

$$2061 \mathcal{C}^{(1)} = \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^{(1)}|} \leq \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(1)})^2}} \leq \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} (d_V^{(1)})^{3/2} \sqrt{\zeta}.$$

2062 For *Looped-Attn* with River-V-Valley, we have $\frac{1}{d_V^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(2)})^2} \gg \zeta$. With inequality $\|x\|_1 \geq$
 2063 $\|x\|_2$ for vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the maximal cumulative force satisfies

$$2064 \mathcal{C}^{(2)} = \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^{(2)}|} \geq \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(2)}} \sqrt{d_V^{(2)}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(2)})^2}} \gg \bar{h} \bar{\alpha} d_V^{(2)} \sqrt{\zeta}.$$

2065 The valley dimensions of two model are typically of the same order, thus we conclude that

$$2066 \mathcal{C}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{C}^{(1)}.$$

2067 This proves that the ill-conditioned nature of the V-shaped valley provides a larger potential for
 2068 driving exploration in the river subspace. This continued and powerful exploration allows *Looped-Attn*
 2069 to navigate further down the river, overcoming performance plateaus and achieving a superior
 2070 optimization performance compared to the rapidly trapped *Single-Attn* model.

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2106 G.3 PROOF FOR COROLLARY 2
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2108 The quadratic loss in Setting 1 is:

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$$\hat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \frac{1}{2} \theta_V^\top H_{\text{Valley}} \theta_V - h_R^\top \theta_R + \theta_R^\top H_{RV} \theta_V.$$

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2112 From Theorem 1, as $K \rightarrow \infty$, the cumulative force converges to:

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$$C_\infty = \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} H_{RV} v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i = \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{c_i}{\lambda_i} u_i,$$

2115

2116 where $c_i \triangleq v_i^\top \theta_{V,0}$ and $u_i \triangleq H_{RV} v_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_R}$.2117 With $\theta_{V,0} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \bar{\alpha}^2 I/d_V)$ in Setting 1, we have

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$$\mathbb{E}[c_i c_j] = \mathbb{E}[v_i^\top \theta_{V,0} \theta_{V,0}^\top v_j] = v_i^\top \mathbb{E}[\theta_{V,0} \theta_{V,0}^\top] v_j.$$

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2121 If $i = j$, $\mathbb{E}[c_i^2] = \bar{\alpha}^2/d_V$. If $i \neq j$, $\mathbb{E}[c_i^2] = 0$. Then the expected norm is

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2123
$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty\|^2] &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{c_i}{\lambda_i} u_i, \sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{c_j}{\lambda_j} u_j \right\rangle \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{\mathbb{E}[c_i c_j]}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle u_i, u_j \rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{\mathbb{E}[c_i^2]}{\lambda_i^2} \|u_i\|^2 = \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{\|u_i\|^2}{\lambda_i^2}. \end{aligned}$$

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2133 With $h \leq \|H_{RV} v_i\| \leq \bar{h}$ in Setting 1, we have

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$$\frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} h^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^2} \leq \mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty\|^2] \leq \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \bar{h}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^2}.$$

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2138 Thus,

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$$\mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty^{(2)}\|^2] \geq \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V^{(2)}} h^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(2)})^2}, \quad \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V^{(1)}} \bar{h}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{(1)})^2} \geq \mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty^{(1)}\|^2].$$

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With Definition 1 and Assumption 1, it leads to

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$$\mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty^{(2)}\|^2] \gg \mathbb{E} [\|C_\infty^{(1)}\|^2].$$

2146 i.e., as $K \rightarrow \infty$, $\mathbb{E} [\|C_K^{(2)}\|^2] \gg \mathbb{E} [\|C_K^{(1)}\|^2]$.2147 Let K be a number of iterations large enough such that the valley parameters for both models have converged to the bottom of their respective valleys.2148 The well-conditioned U-shaped valley of *Single-Attn* leads to converge rapidly in the valley subspace
2149 (within K_1 steps). The ill-conditioned V-shaped valley of *Looped-Attn* leads to slower convergence
2150 in the valley (within K_2 steps, where $K_2 > K_1$). We consider $K = K_2$.2151 At iteration K , for both models, the valley parameters are effectively zero:

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2153
$$\theta_{V,K}^{(1)} \approx \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_{V,K}^{(2)} \approx \mathbf{0}.$$

2154 Given $\theta_{V,K} \approx \mathbf{0}$, the valley and coupling terms become negligible for both models:

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$$\hat{L}_{\text{Valley},K} = \frac{1}{2} \theta_{V,K}^\top H_{\text{Valley}} \theta_{V,K} \approx 0.$$

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$$\hat{L}_{\text{Coupling},K} = \theta_{R,K}^\top H_{RV} \theta_{V,K} \approx 0.$$

Therefore, the total loss for each model at step K is dominated by its river component:

$$\hat{L}_K^{(1)} \approx \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)} = -h_R^\top \theta_{R,K}^{(1)}.$$

$$\hat{L}_K^{(2)} \approx \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)} = -h_R^\top \theta_{R,K}^{(2)}.$$

From Equation 3,

$$\Delta \theta_{R,K} = K\eta h_R - \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV} \theta_{V,k} = K\eta h_R - C_K,$$

where C_K represents the cumulative effect from the valley dynamics over K iterations.

Loss Comparison. We analyze the change in the river loss, $\Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K} = \hat{L}_{\text{River},K} - \hat{L}_{\text{River},0}$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E} \left[\left| \Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)} \right|^2 - \left| \Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)} \right|^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left| -h_R^\top (\theta_{R,K}^{(1)} - \theta_{R,0}^{(1)}) \right|^2 - \left| -h_R^\top (\theta_{R,K}^{(2)} - \theta_{R,0}^{(2)}) \right|^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \left[K^2 \eta^2 \|h_R\|^4 + \|h_R\|^2 \|C_K^{(1)}\|^2 - K^2 \eta^2 \|h_R\|^4 - \|h_R\|^2 \|C_K^{(2)}\|^2 \right] \\ &= \|h_R\|^2 \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_K^{(1)}\|^2 - \|C_K^{(2)}\|^2 \right]. \end{aligned}$$

As $K \rightarrow \infty$, we have $\mathbb{E} \left[\|C_K^{(2)}\|^2 \right] \gg \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_K^{(1)}\|^2 \right]$, then

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left| \Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)} \right|^2 - \left| \Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)} \right|^2 \right] = \|h_R\|^2 \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_K^{(2)}\|^2 - \|C_K^{(1)}\|^2 \right] \ll 0,$$

which yields $\mathbb{E}[\|\Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)}\|^2] \ll \mathbb{E}[\|\Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)}\|^2]$ and demonstrates that *Looped-Attn* achieves a significantly greater loss reduction. Starting from the same initialization, a greater loss reduction implies a lower final loss value:

$$\mathbb{E}[(\hat{L}_K^{(2)})^2] \ll \mathbb{E}[(\hat{L}_K^{(1)})^2].$$

During the phase $K = K_2$, *Looped-Attn* has exhibited significant advantages over *Single-Attn*. Furthermore, for subsequent steps $K > K_2$, *Looped-Attn* continues to explore the river downstream while *Single-Attn* remains trapped in the flat valley.

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2214 G.4 PROOF FOR THEOREM 3
22152216 We extend the analysis in Theorem 1 and Corollary 1~2 to the more general loss model introduced
2217 in Setting 2:

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$$\widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \widehat{L}_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_V) + \widehat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_R) + \widehat{L}_{\text{Coupling}}(\theta_V, \theta_R).$$

2219

2220 **Time-Varying Hessian and Dynamics Analysis.** To analyze the optimization dynamics for the
2221 general loss, we approximate the landscape locally around each iterate $\theta_k = (\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k})$ using a
2222 second-order Taylor expansion. This approximation is justified since each step of GD $\eta \partial \widehat{L}(\theta_k)$ is
2223 typically small, the subsequent parameter θ_{k+1} remains within this neighborhood.2224 The Taylor expansion of $\widehat{L}(\theta)$ around θ_k is given by:
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2226
$$\widehat{L}(\theta) \approx \widehat{L}(\theta_k) + \partial_\theta \widehat{L}(\theta_k)^\top (\theta - \theta_k) + \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_k)^\top H(\theta_k) (\theta - \theta_k), \quad (8)$$

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2228 where $\partial_\theta \widehat{L}(\theta_k)$ and $H(\theta_k)$ are the gradient and Hessian evaluated at θ_k . And we have:
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2230
$$\theta - \theta_k = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_V - \theta_{V,k} \\ \theta_R - \theta_{R,k} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \partial_\theta \widehat{L}(\theta_k) = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{\theta_V} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) \\ \partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) \end{pmatrix}, \quad H(\theta_k) = \begin{pmatrix} H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) & H_{VR}(\theta_k) \\ H_{RV}(\theta_k) & H_{\text{River}}(\theta_k) \end{pmatrix}.$$

2231

2232 Substituting these into Equation 8 yields the local quadratic approximation:
2233

2234
$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) \approx & \widehat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) + \left(\partial_{\theta_V} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) \right)^\top (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k}) + \left(\partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) \right)^\top (\theta_R - \theta_{R,k}) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k})^\top H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k}) \\ & + \frac{1}{2} (\theta_R - \theta_{R,k})^\top H_{\text{River}}(\theta_k) (\theta_R - \theta_{R,k}) \\ & + (\theta_R - \theta_{R,k})^\top H_{RV}(\theta_k) (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k}). \end{aligned}$$

2235

2236 From this approximation, we have
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2238
$$\begin{aligned} \partial_{\theta_V} \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) & \approx \partial_{\theta_V} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) + H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k}) + H_{VR}(\theta_k) (\theta_R - \theta_{R,k}), \\ \partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) & \approx \partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_k) + H_{RV}(\theta_k) (\theta_V - \theta_{V,k}), \end{aligned}$$

2239

2240 where we assume $H_{\text{River}}(\theta_k) \approx \mathbf{0}$ since river is an extremely flat region.
22412242 We find that the river update at the point near θ_k , is approximately linearly dependent θ_V and the
2243 linear coefficient is $H_{RV}(\theta_k)$. Thus we assume that the river gradient at θ_k is also following:
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2245
$$\partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) \approx H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} - h_{R,k}, \quad (9)$$

2246

2247 where $h_{R,k}$ is the inherent driving force of the river itself, independent of the valley position. This
2248 term is similar to the residual term in linear model. Similarly, we assume that the valley gradient at
2249 θ_k is following:
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2251
$$\partial_{\theta_V} \widehat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) \approx H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} + H_{VR}(\theta_k) \theta_{R,k}. \quad (10)$$

2252

2253 We here assume the valley and river gradient as a linear function of θ_V or θ_R . Equation 9 cor-
2254 responds to a first-order Taylor expansion of the gradient function expanded at the river manifold
2255 $\tilde{\theta} = (\mathbf{0}, \theta_{R,k})$, i.e.,
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2257
$$\partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) = \partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(0, \theta_{R,k}) + H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} + \mathbf{R}_1(\theta_{V,k}),$$

2258

2259 where $\partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(0, \theta_{R,k}) \triangleq -h_{R,k}$ is the intrinsic driver force along the river, and $\mathbf{R}_1(\theta_{V,k}) =$
2260 $\frac{1}{2} [\partial_{\theta_V} H_{RV}] \theta_{V,k}^\top \theta_{V,k}$ is the Taylor remainder. The approximation in Equation 9 corresponds to re-
2261 taining the first two terms and neglecting the remainder. Assuming the Hessian H_{RV} is ρ_1 -Lipschitz
2262 continuous w.r.t. θ_V , the remainder satisfies
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$$\|\mathbf{R}_1(\theta_{V,k})\| \leq \frac{\rho_1}{2} \|\theta_{V,k}\|^2.$$

2265

We find that the linear term is of order $\mathcal{O}(\|\theta_{V,k}\|)$, while the remainder is of order $\mathcal{O}(\|\theta_{V,k}\|^2)$. Therefore, as the valley parameters $\|\theta_{V,k}\|$ decay during optimization, the error term vanishes at a significantly faster rate than the linear term, ensuring the validity of Equation 9.

Equation 10 corresponds to a first-order Taylor expansion of the gradient function expanded at $\tilde{\theta} = (0, 0)$, i.e.,

$$\partial_{\theta_V} \hat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) = \partial_{\theta_V} \hat{L}(0, 0) + H_{\text{valley}}(\theta_k)(\theta_{V,k} - 0) + H_{VR}(\theta_k)(\theta_{R,k} - 0) + \mathbf{R}_2(\theta_k),$$

where $\mathbf{R}_2(\theta_{R,k}) = \frac{1}{2}[\partial_{\theta} H_{RV}]\theta_{R,k}^T \theta_{R,k}$ is the Taylor remainder. Assuming the Hessian H_{RV} is ρ_2 -Lipschitz continuous w.r.t. θ , the remainder satisfies

$$\|\mathbf{R}_2(\theta_{V,k})\| \leq \frac{\rho_2}{2} \|\theta_k\|^2.$$

We find that the linear term is of order $\mathcal{O}(\|\theta_k\|)$, while the remainder is of order $\mathcal{O}(\|\theta_k\|^2)$. Therefore, as the parameters $\|\theta_k\|$ decay to minimum during optimization, the error term vanishes at a significantly faster rate than the linear term, ensuring the validity of Equation 10.

Therefore the GD update rules for the two subspaces under general loss are:

$$\theta_{V,k+1} = \theta_{V,k} - \eta \partial_{\theta_V} \hat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) \approx (I - \eta H_{\text{valley}}(\theta_k)) \theta_{V,k} - \eta H_{VR}(\theta_k) \theta_{R,k}, \quad (11)$$

$$\theta_{R,k+1} = \theta_{R,k} - \eta \partial_{\theta_R} \hat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) \approx \theta_{R,k} - \eta (H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} - h_{R,k}). \quad (12)$$

Comparing Equation 11~12 with Equation 1~2, we find that the optimization dynamics under general loss can be viewed as evolving on a sequence of local quadratic landscapes, each defined by a time-varying Hessian $H(\theta_k)$.

Derivation of the cumulative change in the river subspace. Following the same procedure as in the quadratic case, we analyze the cumulative change in the river subspace over K iterations:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta \theta_{R,K} &= \theta_{R,K} - \theta_{R,0} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (\theta_{R,k+1} - \theta_{R,k}) \\ &\approx \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (-\eta H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} + \eta h_{R,k}) \\ &\approx \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} h_{R,k} - \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

We define $C_{K,\text{gen}}$ to be the cumulative effect induced by the valley dynamics:

$$C_{K,\text{gen}} \triangleq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}.$$

The cumulative effect $C_{K,\text{gen}}$ depends on the trajectory of $\theta_{V,k}$. The recurrence for $\theta_{V,k}$ in Equation 11 can be solved as

$$\theta_{V,k} \approx \left(\prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \Phi_j \right) \theta_{V,0} - \eta \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \left(\prod_{i=j+1}^{k-1} \Phi_i \right) b_j,$$

where $\Phi_k = I - \eta H_{\text{valley}}(\theta_k)$ and $b_k = H_{VR}(\theta_k) \theta_{R,k}$. Similarly to Appendix G.2, we assume that the unforced update (the first term) is dominant, then

$$\theta_{V,k} \approx \left(\prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \Phi_j \right) \theta_{V,0}.$$

To analyze this, we introduce an effective Hessian H^B with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i^B\}$ and eigenvectors $\{v_i^B\}$, which satisfies $H^B \preceq H_{\text{valley}}(\theta_j)$ for all j (Assumption 2). Let $\Phi^B = I - \eta H^B$. This implies that $\|\Phi_j v\| \leq \|\Phi^B v\|$ for any vector v . Thus,

$$\|\theta_{V,k}\| \approx \left\| \left(\prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \Phi_j \right) \theta_{V,0} \right\| \leq \left\| (\Phi^B)^k \theta_{V,0} \right\|.$$

Let $H^B = Q^B \Lambda^B (Q^B)^\top$ be the spectral decomposition of this bounding Hessian, where $Q^B = [v_1^B, \dots, v_{d_V}^B]$ is the orthonormal matrix of eigenvectors and $\Lambda^B = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^B, \dots, \lambda_{d_V}^B)$ is the diagonal matrix of corresponding eigenvalues. Let $\rho_i^B \triangleq 1 - \eta \lambda_i^B$ be the decay rate of the i -th component,

$$\|\theta_{V,k}\| \leq \|(\Phi^B)^k \theta_{V,0}\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (1 - \eta \lambda_i^B)^k (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^B \right\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (\rho_i^B)^k (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^B \right\|.$$

Thus, under Assumption 3 and $\|\theta_{V,0}\| \leq \bar{\alpha}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \|C_{K,\text{gen}}\| &\approx \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \|H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}\| \leq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} H_{RV}(\theta_k) (\rho_i^B)^k (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^B \right\| \\ &\leq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \|H_{RV}(\theta_k) v_i^B\| \|(\rho_i^B)^k (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}\| \\ &\leq \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \|(\rho_i^B)^k (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}\| \\ &\leq \eta \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} |\rho_i^B|^k |(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}| \right) \\ &= \eta \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} |(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}| \left(\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} |\rho_i^B|^k \right) \\ &= \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} |(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}| \left(\frac{|1 - (\rho_i^B)^K|}{|\lambda_i^B|} \right) \\ &\leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{|(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}|}{|\lambda_i^B|} \\ &\leq \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^B|} \triangleq \mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}}. \end{aligned}$$

It means that after K iterations, the driving force from valley is limited to \mathcal{C}_{gen} , determined by two factors: (a) \bar{h}_{gen} , the supremum of the coupling strength which represents the most efficient effect of valley on the river; (b) $\{\lambda_i^B\}$, the eigenspectrum of valley subspace.

With the expression of cumulative force $\mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}} = \sqrt{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^B|}$, we compare two models.

The spectral experiments presented in Figure 27 (with $\epsilon = 0.02$) reveal that *Looped-Attn* exhibits a larger $\mathcal{E}(H_{\text{Valley}})$ than *Single-Attn*. Thus with Definition 1, we summarize the characteristics of two models in Conjecture 1~2.

For *Single-Attn* with River-U-Valley, we have $\frac{1}{d_V^{(1)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{B(1)})^2} \leq \zeta$. With inequality $\|x\|_1 \leq \sqrt{d} \|x\|_2$ for vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the maximal cumulative force satisfies

$$\mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}}^{(1)} = \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^{B(1)}|} \leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sqrt{d_V^{(1)}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(1)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{B(1)})^2}} \leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} (d_V^{(1)})^{3/2} \sqrt{\zeta}.$$

For *Looped-Attn* with River-V-Valley, we have $\frac{1}{d_V^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{B(2)})^2} \gg \zeta$. With inequality $\|x\|_1 \geq \|x\|_2$ for vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the maximal cumulative force satisfies

$$\mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}}^{(2)} = \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(2)}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{|\lambda_i^{B(2)}|} \geq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} \sqrt{d_V^{(2)}} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{B(2)})^2}} \gg \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \bar{\alpha} d_V^{(2)} \sqrt{\zeta}.$$

2376 The valley dimensions of two model are typically of the same order, thus we conclude that
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 2378

$$\mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}}^{(2)} \gg \mathcal{C}_{\text{gen}}^{(1)}.$$

2379 In summary, under general loss, we prove that the V-shaped valley in *Looped-Attn* provides a larger
 2380 potential for driving exploration in the river subspace.

2381 **In the following, similar to Corollary 2, we can also connect with loss values.**
 2382

2383 With the general loss form in Setting 2,

$$\widehat{L}(\theta_V, \theta_R) = \widehat{L}_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_V) + \widehat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_R) + \widehat{L}_{\text{Coupling}}(\theta_V, \theta_R).$$

2386 Recall that, as $K \rightarrow \infty$ $\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\| \leq \bar{h}_{\text{gen}} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{|(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}|}{|\lambda_i^B|}$, let $c_i^B = (v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}$. With $\theta_{V,0} \sim$
 2387 $\mathcal{N}(0, \bar{\alpha}^2 I/d_V)$ in Setting 2, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[c_i^B c_j^B] = \mathbb{E}[(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0} \theta_{V,0}^\top v_j^B] = (v_i^B)^\top \mathbb{E}[\theta_{V,0} \theta_{V,0}^\top] v_j^B.$$

2390 If $i = j$, $\mathbb{E}[(c_i^B)^2] = \bar{\alpha}^2/d_V$. If $i \neq j$, $\mathbb{E}[(c_i^B)^2] = 0$. Then taking expectation over initialization,
 2391 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\|^2] &\leq \mathbb{E}\left[\bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{|(v_i^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}|}{|\lambda_i^B|}, \sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{|(v_j^B)^\top \theta_{V,0}|}{|\lambda_j^B|} \right\rangle\right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\left[\bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{|c_i^B|}{|\lambda_i^B|}, \sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{|c_j^B|}{|\lambda_j^B|} \right\rangle\right] \\ &= \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{\mathbb{E}[c_i^B c_j^B]}{\lambda_i^B \lambda_j^B} \\ &= \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{\mathbb{E}[(c_i^B)^2]}{(\lambda_i^B)^2} \\ &= \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^B)^2}. \end{aligned}$$

2408 We introduce Hessian H^T with eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i^T\}$ and eigenvectors $\{v_i^T\}$, which satisfies
 2409 $H_{\text{Valley}}(\theta_j) \preceq H^T$ for all j (Assumption 2).

$$\|\theta_{V,k}\| \geq \|(\Phi^T)^k \theta_{V,0}\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (1 - \eta \lambda_i^T)^k (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^T \right\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (\rho_i^T)^k (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^T \right\|.$$

2413 With Assumption 3, we can derive the lower bound of $\mathbb{E}[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\|^2]$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\|^2] &= \mathbb{E}\left[\left\| \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} \right\|^2\right] \\ &= \eta^2 \mathbb{E}\left[\left\langle \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}, \sum_{t=0}^{K-1} H_{RV}(\theta_t) \theta_{V,t} \right\rangle\right] \\ &= \eta^2 \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \sum_{t=0}^{K-1} \theta_{V,k}^\top H_{RV}^\top(\theta_k) H_{RV}(\theta_t) \theta_{V,t}\right] \\ &\geq \eta^2 \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \theta_{V,k}^\top (\underline{H})^\top \underline{H} \theta_{V,k}\right] \\ &\geq \eta^2 \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} (\rho_i^T)^k (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^T \right)^\top (\underline{H})^\top \underline{H} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_V} (\rho_j^T)^k (v_j^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_j^T \right)\right], \end{aligned}$$

2430 where the last inequality holds due to the stable valley eigenvectors in Assumption 2. As $K \rightarrow \infty$,
 2431 we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 2433 \mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\|^2] &\geq \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^T} (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^T \right)^\top (\underline{H})^\top \underline{H} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_j^T} (v_j^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_j^T \right) \right] \\
 2434 &= \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^T} \underline{H} (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_i^T \right)^\top \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{\lambda_j^T} \underline{H} (v_j^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} v_j^T \right) \right] \\
 2435 &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{c_i}{\lambda_i^T} u_i \right)^\top \left(\sum_{j=1}^{d_V} \frac{c_j}{\lambda_j^T} u_j \right),
 \end{aligned}$$

2443 where $c_i = (v_i^T)^\top \theta_{V,0} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $u_i = \underline{H} v_i^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d_R}$. Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned}
 2445 \mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}\|^2] &= \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{\mathbb{E}[c_i^2]}{(\lambda_i^T)^2} \|u_i\|^2 = \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{\|u_i\|^2}{(\lambda_i^T)^2} \\
 2446 &\geq \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} h_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^T)^2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

2451 Thus,

$$\mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2] \geq \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V^{(2)}} h_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V^{(2)}} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{T(2)})^2}, \quad \frac{\bar{\alpha}^2}{d_V} \bar{h}_{\text{gen}}^2 \sum_{i=1}^{d_V} \frac{1}{(\lambda_i^{B(1)})^2} \geq \mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2].$$

2456 With Definition 1 and Assumption 4, it leads to

$$\mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2] \gg \mathbb{E} [\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2].$$

2460 Let K be a number of iterations large enough such that the valley parameters for both models have
 2461 converged to the bottom of their respective valleys.

2463 The well-conditioned U-shaped valley of *Single-Attn* leads to converge rapidly in the valley subspace
 2464 (within K_1 steps). The ill-conditioned V-shaped valley of *Looped-Attn* leads to slower convergence
 2465 in the valley (within K_2 steps, where $K_2 > K_1$). We consider $K = K_2$.

2466 At iteration K , for both models, the valley parameters are $\theta_{V,K}^{(1)} \approx \mathbf{0}$ and $\theta_{V,K}^{(2)} \approx \mathbf{0}$. Thus, $\hat{L}_K^{(1)} \approx$
 2467 $\hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)}$ and $\hat{L}_K^{(2)} \approx \hat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)}$.

2469 We then analyze the change in the river loss, $\Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K} = \hat{L}_{\text{River},K} - \hat{L}_{\text{River},0}$. With the Taylor
 2470 expansion of $\hat{L}(\theta)$ around θ_k ,

$$\hat{L}(\theta) \approx \hat{L}(\theta_k) + \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k)^\top (\theta - \theta_k) + \frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta_k)^\top H(\theta_k) (\theta - \theta_k). \quad (14)$$

2475 Substitute $\theta = \theta_{k+1}$ and $\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k - \eta \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k)$, we have

$$\hat{L}(\theta_{k+1}) \approx \hat{L}(\theta_k) - \eta \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k)^\top \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k) + \frac{\eta^2}{2} \hat{L}(\theta_k)^\top H(\theta_k) \hat{L}(\theta_k). \quad (15)$$

2479 With a small learning rate, we approximate the above as $\hat{L}(\theta_{k+1}) \approx \hat{L}(\theta_k) - \eta \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k)^\top \partial_\theta \hat{L}(\theta_k)$.
 2480 Thus

$$\Delta \hat{L}_{\text{River},K} = \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left(\hat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_{R,k+1}) - \hat{L}_{\text{River}}(\theta_{R,k}) \right) \approx -\eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left\| \partial_{\theta_R} \hat{L}(\theta_k) \right\|^2.$$

2484 From Equation 12, $\partial_{\theta_R} \widehat{L}(\theta_{V,k}, \theta_{R,k}) \approx H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} - h_{R,k}$, we have
 2485

$$\begin{aligned} 2486 \Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K} &\approx -\eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \|H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k} - h_{R,k}\|^2 \\ 2487 \\ 2488 &= -\eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \|H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}\|^2 - \eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \|h_{R,k}\|^2 + 2\eta \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} (h_{R,k})^\top (H_{RV}(\theta_k) \theta_{V,k}). \\ 2491 \end{aligned}$$

2492 Assume that the river inherent gradient h_R is the same during training for both models,
 2493

$$\begin{aligned} 2494 \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)} \right)^2 - \left(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)} \right)^2 \right] \\ 2495 \\ 2496 = \mathbb{E} \left[\eta^2 \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left(\left\| H_{RV}^{(1)}(\theta_k^{(1)}) \theta_{V,k}^{(1)} \right\|^4 - \left\| H_{RV}^{(2)}(\theta_k^{(2)}) \theta_{V,k}^{(2)} \right\|^4 \right) \right] \\ 2497 \\ 2498 + 4\eta^2 \sum_{k=0}^{K-1} \left([(h_{R,k}^{(1)})^\top (H_{RV}^{(1)}(\theta_k^{(1)}) \theta_{V,k}^{(1)})]^2 - [(h_{R,k}^{(2)})^\top (H_{RV}^{(2)}(\theta_k^{(2)}) \theta_{V,k}^{(2)})]^2 \right) \\ 2499 \\ 2500 = \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2 - \|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2 \right] \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2 + \|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2 \right] + 4\|h_R\|^2 \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2 - \|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2 \right]. \\ 2501 \\ 2502 \end{aligned}$$

2503 As $K \rightarrow \infty$, we have $\mathbb{E} \left[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(1)}\|^2 \right] \ll \mathbb{E} \left[\|C_{K,\text{gen}}^{(2)}\|^2 \right]$, then
 2504

$$\mathbb{E} \left[\left(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)} \right)^2 - \left(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)} \right)^2 \right] \ll 0,$$

2505 which yields $\mathbb{E}[(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)})^2] \ll \mathbb{E}[(\Delta \widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)})^2]$ and demonstrates that *Looped-Attn* achieves a
 2506 significantly greater loss reduction. Starting from the same initialization, a greater loss reduction
 2507 implies a lower final loss value $\mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(2)})^2] \ll \mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_{\text{River},K}^{(1)})^2]$, then
 2508

$$\mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(2)})^2] \ll \mathbb{E}[(\widehat{L}_K^{(1)})^2].$$

2509 During the phase $K = K_2$, *Looped-Attn* has exhibited significant advantages over *Single-Attn*.
 2510 Furthermore, for subsequent steps $K > K_2$, *Looped-Attn* continues to explore the river downstream
 2511 while *Single-Attn* remains trapped in the flat valley.
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2538 **H SHARED RIVER UPSTREAM**2539 **H.1 ASSUMPTIONS AND USEFUL LEMMAS**2540 **H.1.1 ASSUMPTIONS**

2541 **Assumption 5 (Diagonally Dominant and PSD Weight Matrices).** Assume that the key, query, and
 2542 value weight matrices (W_K, W_Q, W_V) are diagonally dominant with Positive Semidefinite (PSD)
 2543 diagonal matrices D_K, D_Q, D_V , we have

$$2544 \quad W_K = D_K + \epsilon_K, \\ 2545 \quad W_Q = D_Q + \epsilon_Q, \\ 2546 \quad W_V = D_V + \epsilon_V,$$

2547 where $\epsilon_K, \epsilon_Q, \epsilon_V$ are dense matrices with significantly smaller spectral norm.

2548 **Remark 10 (Justification of Assumption 5).** This assumption provides mathematical tractability
 2549 for the formal analysis of composite matrix transformations, which is necessary for proving the positive
 2550 alignment of gradients. Intuitively, it may approximate the behavior of the attention mechanism
 2551 during the early stages of training, where the model first learns simple local dependencies before
 2552 capturing more complex global interactions.

2553 This assumption represents a relative idealization. In practice, the weight matrices of a well-trained,
 2554 deep Transformer are typically dense and are not guaranteed to be PSD. In a practical setting, we
 2555 posit that the gradients are more likely to be broadly aligned or at least non-negatively correlated,
 2556 particularly during the initial phase of training. This weaker form of alignment is sufficient to
 2557 support the theoretical basis for our SHIFT framework, ensuring that the parameters learned by
 2558 *Single-Attn* provide a beneficial starting point for *Looped-Attn*.

2559 **Assumption 6 (Approximate PSD Property of Composite Transformations).** Let D_A and D_B be
 2560 Positive Semidefinite (PSD) diagonal matrices, and let P be a general PSD matrix. We assume that
 2561 their product, $M = D_A P D_B$, is approximately PSD. This means the matrix M can be decomposed
 2562 as:

$$2563 \quad M = M_{PSD} + \epsilon,$$

2564 where M_{PSD} is a PSD matrix that captures the dominant, direction-preserving behavior of the trans-
 2565 formation, and ϵ is a perturbation matrix with a small norm relative to M_{PSD} .

2566 **Remark 11 (Justification for Assumption 6).** A matrix is strictly PSD only if it is symmetric and
 2567 its quadratic form is non-negative for all vectors. The composite transformation $M = D_A P D_B$
 2568 generally fails the first symmetric condition, and in rare extreme cases, may fail the second. The
 2569 perturbation term ϵ accounts for these two sources of deviation from strict PSD properties.

2570 **(a) Minor Fluctuation from Non-Symmetry.** The primary deviation arises from the non-
 2571 commutativity of matrix multiplication, which breaks symmetry. The transpose of M is $M^\top =$
 2572 $D_B P D_A$, which is generally not equal to M . Therefore, M is not symmetric. In a well-behaved
 2573 system, we assume that this non-symmetry only introduce minor fluctuations rather than fundamen-
 2574 tally altering the transformation's property.

2575 **(b) Non-PSD Behavior from Extreme Anisotropic Scaling.** Another possible deviation can occur
 2576 even in the symmetric part of M , i.e., $M_{sym} = \frac{1}{2}(D_A P D_B + D_B P D_A)$. While the composition of
 2577 direction-preserving operators (D_A, P, D_B) is intuitively expected to remain direction-preserving, it
 2578 is possible to construct extreme counterexamples. Such cases arises when the diagonal matrices D_A
 2579 and D_B induce extreme anisotropic scaling (i.e., some diagonal entries are very large while others
 2580 are near-zero). This can significantly alter the direction of an arbitrary vector before and after the
 2581 application of P , leading to a negative quadratic form. Our assumption posits that during the initial
 2582 stage of training attention models, such extreme conditions are not common. We model these rare
 2583 non-PSD behaviors as part of the small perturbation ϵ , allowing our analysis to focus on the system's
 2584 dominant, approximately PSD behavior captured by M_{PSD} .

2585 **H.1.2 GRADIENT CALCULATIONS**

2586 In this section, we present two key lemmas regarding the gradients of the cross-entropy loss function
 2587 with respect to the key (W_K) and query (W_Q) matrices for the *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models.

2592
2593 **Lemma 1.** For the Single-Attn model, the gradients of the empirical loss $\hat{L}(\theta)$ with respect to the
2594 key matrix W_K and query matrix W_Q are given by:
2595

$$\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(A^\top \otimes b) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right],$$

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(\tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right],$$

2598 where $A = W_V E_0 E_0^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $b = W_Q z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and $\tilde{A} = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $\tilde{b} = z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
2599

2600 **Remark 12.** Recall that, $E_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ is the input embedding matrix, $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the query vector,
2601 which is the last column of embedding E_0 . $W_K, W_Q, W_V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are the key, query, and value
2602 weight matrices, respectively. W_h is the prediction head parameters. Furthermore, $\mathbb{S}(\hat{y})$ represents
2603 the softmax probability vector of the logits, and $\mathbf{e}_y = [0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0]^\top$, i.e., the value of the y -th
2604 component is 1, and 0 otherwise. The operator \otimes denotes the Kronecker product.
2605

2606 *Proof.* Our objective is to compute the gradients $\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}(\theta)$ and $\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}(\theta)$ for the Single-Attn
2607 model. We begin by recalling the definition of the empirical loss and the architecture of the Single-
2608 Attn model. The loss for one sequence is given by $\hat{l} = -\log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))$, where logits $\hat{y} = W_h f_\theta(E_0, z_0)$
2609 and the linear attention function is $f_\theta(E_0, z_0) = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_0$. The overall empirical loss
2610 $\hat{L}(\theta)$ is averaging over the training set.
2611

2612 The gradient calculations require the chain rule, which is summarized as follows:
2613

1. The loss \hat{l} is a function of the logit vector \hat{y} .
2. The logit vector \hat{y} is a function of the final state z_1 .
3. The final state z_1 is function of the attention output $f_\theta(E_0, z_0)$.
4. The attention output $f_\theta(E_0, z_0)$ is a function of the model parameters W_K and W_Q .

2620 We will compute the gradient for each component of the chain rule individually.
2621

2622 **Step 1: Gradient with respect to the logit vector \hat{y} .** We first compute the derivative of \hat{l} with
2623 respect to an individual logit component \hat{y}_k . The softmax probability for the ground-truth token y is
2624 defined as:
2625

$$\log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) = \log \left(\frac{e^{\hat{y}_y}}{\sum_{j=1}^V e^{\hat{y}_j}} \right) = \hat{y}_y - \log \sum_{j=1}^V e^{\hat{y}_j}.$$

2628 When $k = y$,

$$\frac{\partial \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))}{\partial \hat{y}_y} = 1 - \frac{e^{\hat{y}_y}}{\sum_{j=1}^V e^{\hat{y}_j}} = 1 - \mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}).$$

2632 When $k \neq y$,

$$\frac{\partial \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))}{\partial \hat{y}_k} = 0 - \frac{e^{\hat{y}_k}}{\sum_{j=1}^V e^{\hat{y}_j}} = -\mathbb{S}_k(\hat{y}).$$

2635 Combining these results,

$$\nabla_{\hat{y}} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) = \mathbf{e}_y - \mathbb{S}(\hat{y}),$$

2637 where \mathbf{e}_y is a one-hot vector with a 1 at the position corresponding to the ground-truth token y , $\mathbb{S}(\hat{y})$
2638 represents the softmax probability vector of the logits. Therefore, the gradient of the loss \hat{l} with
2639 respect to \hat{y} is:
2640

$$\nabla_{\hat{y}} \hat{l} = -(\mathbf{e}_y - \mathbb{S}(\hat{y})) = \mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y.$$

2642 **Step 2: Gradient with respect to the final state z_1 .** We then compute the derivative of the logit
2643 vector \hat{y} with respect to the state z_1 . With $\hat{y} = W_h z_1$, we have
2644

$$\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_1} = \frac{\partial W_h z_1}{\partial z_1} = W_h^\top.$$

2646 **Step 3: Gradient with respect to the key matrix W_K .** We now compute the derivative of the final
 2647 state z_1 with respect to the key matrix W_K .
 2648

2649 With $z_1 = z_0 + f_\theta(E_0, z_0)$, we have

$$2650 \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial W_K} = \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_0, z_0)}{\partial W_K} \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial f_\theta(E_0, z_0)} = \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_0, z_0)}{\partial W_K} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

2653 Define $A = W_V E_0 E_0^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and $b = W_Q z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The attention function $f_\theta(E_0, z_0) =$
 2654 $W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_0$ simplifies to $f_\theta(E_0, z_0) = A W_K^\top b$. We get
 2655

$$2656 \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_0, z_0)}{\partial W_K} = \frac{\partial(A W_K^\top b)}{\partial W_K} = A^\top \otimes b \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d},$$

2658 where \otimes denotes the Kronecker product. Thus,

$$2659 \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial W_K} = A^\top \otimes b \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

2662 Combining the above steps using the chain rule, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2663 \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} [-\nabla_{W_K} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))] \\ 2664 &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[-\frac{\partial z_1}{\partial W_K} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_1} \nabla_{\hat{y}} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) \right] \\ 2665 &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} [(A^\top \otimes b) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y)], \end{aligned}$$

2669 where $A = W_V E_0 E_0^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $b = W_Q z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

2670 **Step 4: Gradient with respect to the query matrix W_Q .** The process for computing the gradient
 2671 with respect to W_Q is similar.
 2672

2673 Define $\tilde{A} = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and $\tilde{b} = z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The attention function $f_\theta(E_0, z_0) =$
 2674 $W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_0$ can be written as $f_\theta(E_0, z_0) = \tilde{A} W_Q \tilde{b}$. We have
 2675

$$2676 \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_0, z_0)}{\partial W_Q} = \frac{\partial(\tilde{A} W_Q \tilde{b})}{\partial W_Q} = \tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

2678 Thus,

$$2679 \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial W_Q} = \tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

2681 Again, applying the chain rule by combining this result with Step 1 and Step 2, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 2682 \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} [-\nabla_{W_Q} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))] \\ 2683 &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[-\frac{\partial z_1}{\partial W_Q} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_1} \nabla_{\hat{y}} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) \right] \\ 2684 &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} [(\tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y)], \end{aligned}$$

2688 where $\tilde{A} = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $\tilde{b} = z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$. □

2690 **Lemma 2.** For the Looped-Attn model, the gradients of the empirical loss $\hat{L}(\theta)$ with respect to the
 2691 key matrix W_K and the query matrix W_Q are given by:
 2692

$$\begin{aligned} 2693 \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right], \\ 2694 \\ 2695 \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right], \end{aligned}$$

2698 where $A_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and $\tilde{A}_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top \in$
 2699 $\mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $\tilde{b}_{t-1} = z_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for each loop iteration t .

2700 **Remark 13.** Recall that, E_{t-1} and z_{t-1} are the intermediate representations during looping. The
 2701 representations are updated by $z_t = z_{t-1} + f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})$ and $E_t = E_{t-1} + f_\theta(E_{t-1})$. Furthermore,
 2702 $W_K, W_Q, W_V \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ are the key, query, and value weight matrices, respectively. W_h is
 2703 the prediction head parameters. $\mathbb{S}(\hat{y})$ represents the softmax probability vector of the logits, and
 2704 $\mathbf{e}_y = [0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0]^\top$, i.e., the value of the y -th component is 1, and 0 otherwise. The operator
 2705 \otimes denotes the Kronecker product.

2706
 2707 *Proof.* We aim to compute the gradients $\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}(\theta)$ and $\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}(\theta)$ for the *Looped-Attn* model. The
 2708 final logit vector \hat{y} is produced by applying the prediction head W_h to the final state z_T , which is
 2709 obtained by T loops of the attention function.

2710 The gradient calculations require the chain rule, which is summarized as follows:

2711
 2712 1. The loss \hat{l} is a function of the logit vector \hat{y} .
 2713
 2714 2. The logit vector \hat{y} is a function of the final state z_T .
 2715
 2716 3. The final state z_T is a function of the attention outputs $f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})$ from all preceding steps
 2717 $t = 1, \dots, T$.
 2718
 2719 4. Each attention output $f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})$ is a function of the model parameters W_K and W_Q .

2720 We proceed by computing the gradient for each component in this chain.

2721 **Step 1: Gradient with respect to the logit vector \hat{y} .** This step is identical to the derivation for the
 2722 *Single-Attn* model. The gradient of the loss \hat{l} with respect to the logit vector \hat{y} is:

$$\nabla_{\hat{y}} \hat{l} = \mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y,$$

2724 where $\mathbb{S}(\hat{y})$ is the softmax probability vector and \mathbf{e}_y is the one-hot vector for the ground-truth token.

2725 **Step 2: Gradient with respect to the final state z_T .** With $\hat{y} = W_h z_T$, we have

$$\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_T} = \frac{\partial W_h z_T}{\partial z_T} = W_h^\top.$$

2731 **Step 3: Gradient with respect to the key matrix W_K .** With the iteration $z_t = z_{t-1} +$
 2732 $f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})$, we can derive a recursive definition

$$z_T = z_0 + \sum_{t=1}^T f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}).$$

2736 Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial z_T}{\partial W_K} &= \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})}{\partial W_K} \frac{\partial z_T}{\partial f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})} \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{\partial f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})}{\partial W_K} \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}. \end{aligned}$$

2744 The derivative of the attention function $f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}) = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_{t-1}$ with respect
 2745 to W_K is structurally identical to the *Single-Attn* case, but with time-dependent inputs.

2746 Define $A_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top$ and $b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1}$ for each loop $t \in [T]$, then

$$\frac{\partial f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})}{\partial W_K} = A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}.$$

2750 Thus

$$\frac{\partial z_T}{\partial W_K} = \sum_{t=1}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

Combining the above results using the chain rule, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}(\theta) &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} [-\nabla_{W_K} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))] \\ &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[-\frac{\partial z_T}{\partial W_K} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_T} \nabla_{\hat{y}} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) \right] \\ &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right],\end{aligned}$$

where $A_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

Step 4: Gradient with respect to the query matrix W_Q . The derivation for W_Q is similar to that for W_K .

Define $\tilde{A}_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top$ and $\tilde{b}_{t-1} = z_{t-1}$ for each loop $t \in [T]$, then

$$\frac{\partial f_\theta(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1})}{\partial W_Q} = \tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top.$$

Thus

$$\frac{\partial z_T}{\partial W_Q} = \sum_{t=1}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) \in \mathbb{R}^{d^2 \times d}.$$

Finally, applying the chain rule gives the gradient for W_Q :

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{W_Q} \widehat{L}(\theta) &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} [-\nabla_{W_Q} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y}))] \\ &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[-\frac{\partial z_T}{\partial W_Q} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_T} \nabla_{\hat{y}} \log(\mathbb{S}_y(\hat{y})) \right] \\ &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbb{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right],\end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{A}_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $\tilde{b} = z_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. \square

H.1.3 THE PRECONDITIONING EFFECT FOR Looped-Attn

In Lemma 1 and 2, we have derived the gradients for both *Single-Attn* and *Looped-Attn* models, we now directly compare them. This analysis reveals a crucial insight into the optimization dynamics of *Looped-Attn*.

Lemma 3. Denote the empirical loss \widehat{L}_1 for *Single-Attn* and \widehat{L}_2 for *Looped-Attn*, then the gradient of the *Looped-Attn* model can be expressed as the preconditioned gradient of the *Single-Attn* model:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) &= P_{W_K} \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta), \\ \nabla_{W_Q} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) &= P_{W_Q} \nabla_{W_Q} \widehat{L}_1(\theta),\end{aligned}$$

where the preconditioners P_{W_K} and P_{W_Q} are defined as:

$$P_{W_K} = I + \widehat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+],$$

with $P_1 = A^\top \otimes b$, $P_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1})$, $P_1^+ P_1 = I$, and P_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse.

$$P_{W_Q} = I + \widehat{\mathbb{E}} [\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+],$$

with $\tilde{P}_1 = \tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top$, $\tilde{P}_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top)$, $\tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 = I$, and \tilde{P}_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse.

Remark 14. Recall that in Lemma 1 and 2, we define: $A_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top$, $b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1}$, $A = W_V E_0 E_0^\top$, and $b = W_Q z_0$; $\tilde{A}_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top$, $\tilde{b}_{t-1} = z_{t-1}$, $\tilde{A} = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top$,

2808 and $\tilde{b} = z_0$. This Lemma shows that the gradient of the *Looped-Attn* model can be expressed as
 2809 the gradient of the *Single-Attn* model multiplied by a specific linear operator. The operator acts
 2810 as a preconditioner, effectively using information from the iterative refinement steps to adjust the
 2811 magnitude and direction of the base gradient calculated from a single attention pass.

2812 In Lemma 3, the full-rank assumption for $E_0 E_0^\top$ holds during the early stages of training. At
 2813 initialization, the input embeddings $E_0 = W_{\text{emb}} X$ utilize the full representation space and have not
 2814 collapsed into a low-dimensional intrinsic subspace. The rank deficiency typically arises in the late
 2815 training stage due to feature collapse where the dimension d exceeds the intrinsic dimension.

2816 Lemma 4 discusses the rank-deficiency case in the late training stage, where the residual terms
 2817 emerge due to feature collapse. Specifically, the terms $I - \Pi$ or $I - \tilde{\Pi}$ represent the null-space of
 2818 *Single-Attn* where the model fails to acquire gradient information. The lemma reveals that *Looped-Attn*
 2819 retains access to these directions via the residual terms \mathcal{R}_{W_K} and \mathcal{R}_{W_Q} . Consequently, the
 2820 recursive operations P_2 and \tilde{P}_2 process these null-space signals, effectively recovering information
 2821 lost by the non-recursive model.

2822 While Lemma 4 addresses the rank-deficiency case in the late training stage, we utilize Lemma 3
 2823 for the derivation of Theorem 4. This is because Theorem 4 investigates gradient alignment in the
 2824 initial descent phase within the valley subspace.

2825 *Proof.* We prove this lemma by direct algebraic computation, starting with the gradient with respect
 2826 to the key matrix W_K .

2827 **Derivation for the key matrix W_K .** Recall the expressions for the *Single-Attn* gradient ($\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1$)
 2828 and the *Looped-Attn* gradient ($\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2$):

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} [(A^\top \otimes b) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y)], \\ \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) &= \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right]. \end{aligned}$$

2829 The core of the proof is to decompose the summation in the *Looped-Attn* gradient. We separate the
 2830 first term of the series (for $t = 1$) from the subsequent terms (for $t = 2$ to T):

$$\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(A_0^\top \otimes b_0) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) + \sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2831 By the definitions, we have $A_0 = A$, $b_0 = b$. With our assumption, $\delta_1 = \mathbf{1}_d$ and $\text{Diag}(\delta_1) = I$.
 2832 Thus, the first term is exactly the gradient of the *Single-Attn* model:

$$\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2833 Define $P_1 = A^\top \otimes b$, $P_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1})$, then we derive that

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\ &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 P_1^+ P_1 W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\ &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+] \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) \\ &= (I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+]) \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta). \end{aligned}$$

2834 where $P_1^+ P_1 = I$, P_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse with $b \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\text{rank}(A^\top) = d$.

2835 We can therefore identify the preconditioner for W_K as:

$$P_{W_K} = I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+].$$

2862 **Derivation for the query matrix W_Q .** The derivation for the query matrix W_Q follows an identical
 2863 procedure. We begin by stating the gradients:
 2864

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(\tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right],$$

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2870 Again, we split the summation and identify the first term as the *Single-Attn* gradient:
 2871

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(\tilde{b}_0 \otimes \tilde{A}_0^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) + \sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right]$$

$$= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2878 Define $\tilde{P}_1 = \tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top$, $\tilde{P}_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top)$, then we derive that
 2879

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right]$$

$$= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right]$$

$$= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \right] \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta)$$

$$= \left(I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \right] \right) \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta),$$

2889 where $\tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 = I$, \tilde{P}_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse with $\tilde{b} \neq \mathbf{0}$, $\text{rank}(\tilde{A}^\top) = d$.
 2890

2891 We can therefore identify the preconditioner for W_K as:
 2892

$$P_{W_Q} = I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \right].$$

2894 This completes the proof, demonstrating that the iterative updates in *Looped-Attn* introduce a pre-
 2895 conditioning term to the standard single-pass attention gradient. \square
 2896

2898 **Lemma 4.** Denote the empirical loss \hat{L}_1 for *Single-Attn* and \hat{L}_2 for *Looped-Attn*, then the gradient
 2899 of the *Looped-Attn* model can be expressed as the preconditioned gradient of the *Single-Attn* model
 2900 in addition with a residual term:
 2901

$$\nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = P_{W_K} \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \mathcal{R}_{W_K},$$

$$\nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) = P_{W_Q} \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \mathcal{R}_{W_Q},$$

2905 where the preconditioners P_{W_K} , P_{W_Q} and residual terms \mathcal{R}_{W_K} , \mathcal{R}_{W_Q} are defined as:
 2906

$$P_{W_K} = I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 P_1^+ \right], \mathcal{R}_{W_K} = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 (I - \Pi) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2909 with $P_1 = A^\top \otimes b$, $P_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1})$, $P_1^+ P_1 \triangleq \Pi$, and P_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose
 2910 pseudoinverse.

$$P_{W_Q} = I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \right], \mathcal{R}_{W_Q} = \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 (I - \tilde{\Pi}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right].$$

2914 with $\tilde{P}_1 = \tilde{b} \otimes \tilde{A}^\top$, $\tilde{P}_2 = \sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top)$, $\tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 \triangleq \tilde{\Pi}$, and \tilde{P}_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose
 2915 pseudoinverse.

2916 *Proof.* We proceed with the derivation for W_K without assuming P_1 is full rank. Recall the decomposition
 2917 of the summation:
 2918

$$\begin{aligned}
 2919 \quad & \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \\
 2920 \quad &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2921 \quad &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 (P_1^+ P_1 + I - P_1^+ P_1) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2922 \quad &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 P_1^+ P_1 W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 (I - P_1^+ P_1) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2923 \quad &= \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+] \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[P_2 (I - \Pi) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2924 \quad &= \left(I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [P_2 P_1^+] \right) \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \mathcal{R}_{W_K},
 \end{aligned}$$

2925 where P_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse and $P_1^+ P_1 \triangleq \Pi$.
 2926

2927 The derivation for the query matrix W_Q follows an identical procedure:
 2928

$$\begin{aligned}
 2929 \quad & \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \\
 2930 \quad &= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=2}^T (\tilde{b}_{t-1} \otimes \tilde{A}_{t-1}^\top) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2931 \quad &= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 (\tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 + I - \tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2932 \quad &= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 (I - \tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2933 \quad &= \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+] \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \hat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\tilde{P}_2 (I - \tilde{\Pi}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{Y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right] \\
 2934 \quad &= \left(I + \hat{\mathbb{E}} [\tilde{P}_2 \tilde{P}_1^+] \right) \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta) + \mathcal{R}_Q,
 \end{aligned}$$

2935 where \tilde{P}_1^+ is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse and $\tilde{P}_1^+ \tilde{P}_1 \triangleq \tilde{\Pi}$.
 2936

2937 Under the full-rank assumption ($\text{rank}(A) = d, b \neq 0$), $\Pi = I$, and the residual term \mathcal{R}_{W_K} vanishes,
 2938 recovering Lemma 3. \square
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2970 H.2 PROOF FOR THEOREM 4
2971

2972 This section provides a formal analysis to demonstrate that the gradients of the *Single-Attn* and
2973 *Looped-Attn* models are positively aligned, a key theoretical foundation for the two-phase training
2974 strategy (SHIFT) proposed in our work. We establish this by proving that the inner product of the
2975 two gradient vectors is positive. This positive alignment ensures they point in a similar direction of
2976 descent. As both models make progress in the river direction during the initial phase of learning,
2977 this implies they explore a shared river upstream.

2978 *Proof.* We begin by recalling the gradient expressions from Lemmas 1~2, and the preconditioner
2979 relationship from Lemma 3. We have
2980

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta) &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[(A^\top \otimes b) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right], \\ \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) &= \widehat{\mathbb{E}} \left[\sum_{t=1}^T (A_{t-1}^\top \otimes b_{t-1}) W_h^\top (\mathbf{S}(\hat{y}) - \mathbf{e}_y) \right], \\ \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) &= P_{W_K} \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta).\end{aligned}$$

2987 We then analysis the directions of two gradients,
2988

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta), \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) \rangle &= \text{Tr} \left(\left(\nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_2(\theta) \right)^\top \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta) \right) \\ &= \text{Tr} \left(\left(P_{W_K} \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta) \right)^\top \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta) \right) \\ &= \text{Tr} \left(\nabla_{W_K}^\top \widehat{L}_1(\theta) P_{W_K}^\top \nabla_{W_K} \widehat{L}_1(\theta) \right).\end{aligned}$$

2995 The inner product is guaranteed to be non-negative if the matrix $P_{W_K}^\top$ is Positive Semidefinite (PSD),
2996 *i.e.*, $P_{W_K}^\top \succeq 0$. Our goal is to derive a set of sufficient conditions under which this holds.
2997

2998 From Lemma 3, we have
2999

$$P_{W_K}^\top = I + \widehat{\mathbb{E}}[(P_1^+)^T P_2^+].$$

3000 To ensure $P_{W_K}^\top \succeq 0$, we need to find conditions of $\widehat{\mathbb{E}}[(P_1^+)^T P_2^+] \succeq 0$. We analyze the term
3001 $(P_1^+)^T P_2^+$ for a single data sample. Using the properties of Kronecker products and pseudo-
3002 inverses, we have:
3003

$$(P_1^+)^T P_2^+ = (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top}) \sum_{t=2}^T (A_{t-1} \otimes b_{t-1}^\top) = \sum_{t=2}^T (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top}) [(A_{t-1} \otimes b_{t-1}^\top)].$$

3007 To analyze this expression, we first establish recursive updates for A_{t-1} and b_{t-1} .
3008

3009 **Recursive Updates of A_{t-1} .** The matrix $A_{t-1} = W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top$ depends on the history of updates
3010 to the embedding matrix E . With $E_{t-1} = E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1})$, we can write:
3011

$$\begin{aligned}A_{t-1} &= W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top = W_V \left(E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) \right) \left(E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) \right)^\top \\ &= W_V \left[E_0 E_0^\top + E_0 \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} (f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) E_0^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \sum_{s'=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1})(f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right] \\ &= A + W_V \left[E_0 \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} (f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) E_0^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \sum_{s'=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1})(f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right].\end{aligned}$$

3021 We denote
3022

$$\Delta A_{t-1} = W_V \left[E_0 \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} (f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) E_0^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \sum_{s'=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1})(f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right].$$

3024 **Recursive Updates of b_{t-1} .** Similarly, the vector $b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1}$ depends on the history of
 3025 updates to the query vector z . With $z_{t-1} = z_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1})$, we can write:
 3026

$$3027 \quad b_{t-1} = W_Q z_{t-1} = W_Q \left(z_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) \right) = b + W_Q \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}).$$

3030 We denote $\Delta b_{t-1} = W_Q \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1})$.
 3031

3032 **Substitute A_{t-1} and b_{t-1} into $(P_1^+)^T P_2^+$.** Let $A^+ = (W_V E_0 E_0^T)^+$ and $b^{+\top} = (W_Q z_0)^{+\top}$. For
 3033 each term in the summation ($t = 2$ to T), substitute $A_{t-1} = A + \Delta A_{t-1}$ and $b_{t-1} = b + \Delta b_{t-1}$,
 3034 where ΔA_{t-1} and Δb_{t-1} denote the recursive updates:
 3035

$$\begin{aligned} 3036 \quad & (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(A_{t-1} \otimes b_{t-1}^T) \\ 3037 \quad & = (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})[(A + \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b + \Delta b_{t-1})^T] \\ 3038 \quad & = (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})[(A \otimes b^T) + (A \otimes \Delta b_{t-1}^T) + (\Delta A_{t-1} \otimes b^T) + (\Delta A_{t-1} \otimes \Delta b_{t-1}^T)]. \end{aligned}$$

3039 For the first term,
 3040

$$\begin{aligned} 3041 \quad & (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(A \otimes b^T) = (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top}) \sum_{k=1}^d e_k e_k^T (A \otimes b^T) \\ 3042 \quad & = \sum_{k=1}^d (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top}) e_k e_k^T (A \otimes b^T) \\ 3043 \quad & = \sum_{k=1}^d (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top}) ((e_k e_k^T A) \otimes b^T) \\ 3044 \quad & = \sum_{k=1}^d (A^+ e_k e_k^T A) \otimes (b^{+\top} b^T), \end{aligned}$$

3053 where $e_k = [0, \dots, 1, \dots, 0]^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the k -th element is 1, and others is 0. $e_k e_k^T (A \otimes b^T)$ means
 3054 that keeping the k -th row of matrix $A \otimes b^T$ and others is 0. Similarly, $e_k e_k^T A$ means that keeping
 3055 the k -th row of matrix A , thus $e_k e_k^T (A \otimes b^T) = (e_k e_k^T A) \otimes b^T$.
 3056

3057 b is a vector and $b \neq \mathbf{0}$, then $b^+ = b^T / b^T b$,

$$\begin{aligned} 3058 \quad & (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(A \otimes b^T) = \sum_{k=1}^d (A^+ e_k e_k^T A) \otimes (b^{+\top} b^T) \\ 3059 \quad & = (A^+ \sum_{k=1}^d e_k e_k^T A) \otimes (b^{+\top} b^T) \\ 3060 \quad & = (A^+ A) \otimes (b^{+\top} b^T) \\ 3061 \quad & = \frac{1}{b^T b} (A^+ A) \otimes (b b^T). \end{aligned}$$

3068 For the second term,
 3069

$$\begin{aligned} 3070 \quad & (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(A \otimes \Delta b_{t-1}^T) = (A^+ A) \otimes (b^{+\top} \Delta b_{t-1}^T) \\ 3071 \quad & = \frac{1}{b^T b} (A^+ A) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^T). \end{aligned}$$

3073 For the third term,
 3074

$$\begin{aligned} 3075 \quad & (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(\Delta A_{t-1} \otimes b^T) = (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b^{+\top} b^T) \\ 3076 \quad & = \frac{1}{b^T b} (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b b^T). \end{aligned}$$

3078 For the fourth term,

$$\begin{aligned}
 3080 \quad (A^+ \otimes b^{+\top})(\Delta A_{t-1} \otimes \Delta b_{t-1}^\top) &= (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b^{+\top} \Delta b_{t-1}^\top) \\
 3081 &= \frac{1}{b^\top b} (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top).
 \end{aligned}$$

3084 Summarizing the decomposition for $(P_1^+)^{\top} P_2^{\top}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 3086 \quad (P_1^+)^{\top} P_2^{\top} \\
 3087 &= \sum_{t=2}^T [\text{Term1} + \text{Term2} + \text{Term3} + \text{Term4}] \\
 3088 &= \frac{1}{b^\top b} \sum_{t=2}^T (A^+ A) \otimes (bb^\top) + (A^+ A) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top) + (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (bb^\top) + (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top).
 \end{aligned}$$

3093 We now derive sufficient conditions for each term satisfies PSD.

3094 **Term Analysis. For Term1,**

$$3096 \quad \text{Term1} = \frac{1}{b^\top b} (A^+ A) \otimes (bb^\top).$$

3099 bb^\top is a rank-1 PSD matrix. We also have $A^+ A = I \succeq 0$.

3100 **For Term2,**

$$3102 \quad \text{Term2} = \frac{1}{b^\top b} (A^+ A) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top).$$

3104 We have $A^+ A = I \succeq 0$. For $b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 3105 \quad \Delta b_{t-1} &= W_Q \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) \\
 3106 \quad f(E_{t-1}, z_{t-1}) &= W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_{t-1} \\
 3107 \quad f(E_{t-1}) &= W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_{t-1} \\
 3108 \quad E_{t-1} &= E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) \\
 3109 \quad z_{t-1} &= z_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f_\theta(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}).
 \end{aligned}$$

3117 We need to prove there exists $\alpha \geq 0$ such that $\Delta b_{t-1} = \alpha b$.

3118 **Base Case:** When $t = 2, s = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned}
 3120 \quad \Delta b_1 &= W_Q f(E_0, z_0) \\
 3121 &= W_Q (W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_0) \\
 3122 &= W_Q (W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top b) \\
 3123 &= (W_Q W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top) b \\
 3124 &\triangleq \Phi_1 b,
 \end{aligned}$$

3127 where $E_0 E_0^\top \succeq 0$. With Assumption 5, W_K, W_Q, W_V are approximately diagonal matrices,

$$\begin{aligned}
 3129 \quad W_K &= D_K + \epsilon_K, \\
 3130 \quad W_Q &= D_Q + \epsilon_Q, \\
 3131 \quad W_V &= D_V + \epsilon_V,
 \end{aligned}$$

3132 where D_K, D_Q, D_V are diagonal and $\epsilon_K, \epsilon_Q, \epsilon_V$ are dense matrices with extremely small elements.
 3133 Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} 3134 \quad \Phi_1 &= W_Q W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top \\ 3135 &= (D_Q + \epsilon_Q)(D_V + \epsilon_V) E_0 E_0^\top (D_K + \epsilon_K) \\ 3136 &= (D_Q D_V + D_Q \epsilon_V + \epsilon_Q D_V + \epsilon_Q \epsilon_V) E_0 E_0^\top (D_K + \epsilon_K) \\ 3137 &= D_Q D_V E_0 E_0^\top D_K + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_K, \epsilon_Q, \epsilon_V). \\ 3138 \end{aligned}$$

3140 With Assumption 6 ($D_A = D_Q D_V, D_B = D_k, P = E_0 E_0^\top$), we conclude that Φ_1 is approximately
 3141 PSD, and Δb_1 is co-directional with b .

3142 Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that for $s = 1$ to $s = k - 1$, $\Delta b_{k-1} = \Phi_{k-1} b$ where $\Phi_{k-1} \succeq 0$, i.e.,
 3143 Δb_{k-1} is co-directional with b .

$$\begin{aligned} 3144 \quad \Delta b_{k-1} &= W_Q \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) = \Phi_{k-1} b. \\ 3145 \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

3146 Inductive Step: When $s = k$,

$$\begin{aligned} 3147 \quad \Delta b_k &= W_Q \sum_{s=1}^k f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) \\ 3148 &= W_Q \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} f(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) + W_Q f(E_{k-1}, z_{k-1}) \\ 3149 &= \Phi_{k-1} b + W_Q (W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_{k-1}) \\ 3150 &= \Phi_{k-1} b + W_Q W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q z_{k-1}, \\ 3151 \end{aligned}$$

3152 where

$$\begin{aligned} 3153 \quad z_{k-1} &= z_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \delta_s \odot f_\theta(E_{s-1}, z_{s-1}) \\ 3154 &= W_Q^{-1} b + W_Q^{-1} \Phi_{k-1} b \\ 3155 &= W_Q^{-1} (I + \Phi_{k-1}) b, \\ 3156 \end{aligned}$$

3157 then z_{k-1} is co-directional with b . Denote $\Phi'_k \triangleq W_Q \text{Diag}(\delta_k) W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q W_Q^{-1} (I + \Phi_{k-1})$,
 3158 similarly with Assumption 5~6, we have Φ'_k is approximately PSD, and then

$$\Delta b_k = \Phi_{k-1} b + \Phi'_k b.$$

3159 Thus, Δb_k is co-directional with b .

3160 Summary of Sufficient Condition: W_K, W_Q, W_V are approximately diagonal matrices, D_K, D_Q, D_V are PSD. These are summarized in Assumption 5~6.

3161 **For Term3,**

$$3162 \quad \text{Term3} = \frac{1}{b^\top b} (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (bb^\top).$$

3163 bb^\top is a rank-1 PSD matrix. We need to derive that the condition of $A^+ \Delta A_{t-1} \succeq 0$. With the
 3164 definition of ΔA_{t-1} ,

$$\begin{aligned} 3165 \quad \Delta A_{t-1} &= W_V \left[E_0 \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} (f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) E_0^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} \sum_{s'=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}) (f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right] \\ 3166 \\ 3167 \quad f(E_{t-1}) &= W_V E_{t-1} E_{t-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_{t-1} \\ 3168 \\ 3169 \quad E_{t-1} &= E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{t-1} f(E_{s-1}). \\ 3170 \end{aligned}$$

3186 We need to prove there exists $\Psi \succeq 0$ such that $\Delta A_{t-1} = \Psi A$, then $A^+ \Delta A_{t-1} \succeq 0$ can be derived.

3187 **Base Case:** When $t = 2, s = 1$,

$$3189 \quad \Delta A_1 = W_V [E_0(f(E_0))^\top + f(E_0)E_0^\top + f(E_0)(f(E_0))^\top].$$

3191 (1) Substitute $A = W_V E_0 E_0^\top$ into $f(E_0) = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_0$. Let $\Xi_1 \triangleq W_K^\top W_Q E_0$.

$$3192 \quad f(E_0) = W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_0 = A W_K^\top W_Q E_0 = A \Xi_1.$$

3194 (2) Substitute

$$3196 \quad \Delta A_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3197 \quad &= W_V [E_0(A \Xi_1)^\top + (A \Xi_1)E_0^\top + (A \Xi_1)(A \Xi_1)^\top] \\ 3198 \quad &= W_V E_0 \Xi_1^\top A^\top + W_V A \Xi_1 E_0^\top + W_V A \Xi_1 \Xi_1^\top A^\top \\ 3199 \quad &= W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_Q^\top W_K E_0 E_0^\top W_V^\top + W_V W_V E_0 E_0^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_0 E_0^\top + W_V A W_K^\top W_Q E_0 E_0^\top W_Q^\top W_K A^\top \\ 3200 \quad &= \underbrace{A W_Q^\top W_K A^\top}_{:T_1} + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q W_V^{-1}}_{:T_2} A + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q E_0 E_0^\top W_Q^\top W_K A^\top}_{:T_3} \\ 3201 \quad &= \underbrace{A W_Q^\top W_K A^\top A^+}_{:T_1} + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q W_V^{-1}}_{:T_2} A + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q E_0 E_0^\top W_Q^\top W_K A^\top A^+}_{:T_3} \\ 3202 \quad &= \underbrace{A W_Q^\top W_K A^\top A^+}_{:T_1} + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q W_V^{-1}}_{:T_2} A + \underbrace{W_V A W_K^\top W_Q E_0 E_0^\top W_Q^\top W_K A^\top A^+}_{:T_3} \\ 3203 \quad &= \Xi_1 A, \end{aligned}$$

3204 where A^+ is the pseudoinverse matrix of A . Similarly with Assumption 5~6, when assuming that 3205 W_K, W_Q, W_V are approximately diagonal matrices. $D_K, D_Q, D_V \succeq 0$, we have $\Delta A_1 = \Psi_1 A$ 3206 where Ψ_1 is approximately PSD.

3207 **Inductive Hypothesis:** Assume that for $s = 1$ to $s = k-1$, $\Delta A_{s-1} = \Psi_{s-1} A$ where $\Psi_{s-1} \succeq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} 3208 \quad \Delta A_{k-1} &= W_V \left[E_0 \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} (\Delta_s \odot f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} (\Delta_s \odot f(E_{s-1})) E_0^\top \right. \\ 3209 \quad &\quad \left. + \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} \sum_{s'=1}^{k-1} (\Delta_s \odot f(E_{s-1})) (\Delta_{s'} \odot f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right] = \Psi_{k-1} A. \end{aligned}$$

3210 **Inductive Step:** When $s = k$,

$$3211 \quad \Delta A_k$$

$$\begin{aligned} 3212 \quad &= W_V \left[E_0 \sum_{s=1}^k (f(E_{s-1}))^\top + \sum_{s=1}^k f(E_{s-1}) E_0^\top + \sum_{s=1}^k \sum_{s'=1}^k f(E_{s-1})(f(E_{s'-1}))^\top \right] \\ 3213 \quad &= \Psi_{k-1} A + W_V [E_0(f(E_{k-1}))^\top + f(E_{k-1})E_0^\top + f(E_{k-1})(f(E_{k-1}))^\top] \\ 3214 \quad &= \Psi_{k-1} A + W_V E_0 f(E_{k-1})^\top + W_V f(E_{k-1}) E_0^\top + W_V f(E_{k-1}) f(E_{k-1})^\top \\ 3215 \quad &= \Psi_{k-1} A + W_V E_0 E_{k-1}^\top W_Q^\top W_K E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_V^\top + W_V W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_{k-1} E_0^\top \\ 3216 \quad &\quad + W_V W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_Q^\top W_K E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_V^\top \\ 3217 \quad &= \Psi_{k-1} A + \underbrace{(W_V E_0 E_0^\top + W_V E_0 \Delta E_{k-1}^\top)}_{:M_1} W_Q^\top W_K E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_V^\top A^+ A \\ 3218 \quad &\quad + \underbrace{W_V W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q (E_0 E_0^\top + \Delta E_{k-1} E_0^\top)}_{:M_2} A^+ A \\ 3219 \quad &\quad + \underbrace{W_V W_V E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_K^\top W_Q E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_Q^\top W_K E_{k-1} E_{k-1}^\top W_V^\top A^+ A}_{:M_3} \\ 3220 \quad &= \Psi_{k-1} A + M_1 A + M_2 A + M_3 A \\ 3221 \quad &= \Psi_k A, \end{aligned}$$

3240 where $E_{k-1} = E_0 + \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} f(E_{s-1})$, denote $\Delta E_{k-1} = \sum_{s=1}^{k-1} f(E_{s-1})$, similarly to $\Delta b = \Phi b$, we
 3241 have $\Delta E_{k-1} = \Omega_{k-1} E_0$ and $\Omega_{k-1} \succeq 0$,
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$$3243 \quad W_V E_0 E_{k-1}^\top = W_V E_0 E_0^\top + W_V E_0 \Delta E_{k-1}^\top, \\ 3244 \quad E_{k-1} E_0^\top = E_0 E_0^\top + \Delta E_{k-1} E_0^\top.$$

3245 Similarly to ΔA_1 , we have $\Psi_k = \Psi_{k-1} + M_1 + M_2 + M_3 \succeq 0$, thus we conclude that $\Delta A_k = \Psi_k A$.
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3247 Furthermore, using $\Delta A_k = \Psi_k A$ with $\Psi_k \succeq 0$, we then have $A^+ \Delta A \succeq 0$.
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3249 Summary of Sufficient Condition: W_K, W_Q, W_V are approximately diagonal matrices,
 3250 $D_K, D_Q, D_V \succeq 0$. These are summarized in Assumption 5~6.
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3252 **For Term4,**
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$$3254 \quad \text{Term4} = \frac{1}{b^\top b} (A^+ \Delta A_{t-1}) \otimes (b \Delta b_{t-1}^\top).$$

3255 Combining the analysis for Term2 and Term3, we need the conditions in Assumption 5~6.
 3256

3257 Similarly to W_K , the conditions for preconditioner $P_{W_Q} \succeq 0$ are also Assumption 5~6.
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3259 Therefore, when with Assumption 5~6, the gradient updates on key and query matrices are co-
 3260 directional between Single-Attn and Looped-Attn models:
 3261

$$3262 \quad \langle \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_1(\theta), \nabla_{W_K} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \rangle \geq 0, \quad \langle \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_1(\theta), \nabla_{W_Q} \hat{L}_2(\theta) \rangle \geq 0.$$

3263 \square

I USAGE OF LARGE LANGUAGE MODELS

3264 In this work, we utilize Large Language Models (LLMs) for language polishing and grammar cor-
 3265 rection under our supervision. These suggestions are carefully reviewed and selectively adopted,
 3266 ensuring consistency with our intended meaning and academic integrity. In addition, we use LLMs
 3267 to generate the background visualizations for Figures 1(a)~1(b). The optimization trajectories pre-
 3268 sented in these figures are manually plotted by us.
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