Sub-optimality of the Naive Mean Field approximation for proportional high-dimensional Linear Regression

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Abstract

The Naïve Mean Field (NMF) approximation is widely employed in modern Machine Learning due to the huge computational gains it bestows on the statistician. Despite its popularity in practice, theoretical guarantees for high-dimensional problems are only available under strong structural assumptions (e.g. sparsity). Moreover, existing theory often does not explain empirical observations noted in the existing literature.

In this paper, we take a step towards addressing these problems by deriving sharp asymptotic characterizations for the NMF approximation in high-dimensional linear regression. Our results apply to a wide class of natural priors, and allow for model mismatch (i.e. the underlying statistical model can be different from the fitted model). We work under an *iid* Gaussian design and the proportional asymptotic regime, where the number of features and number of observations grow at a proportional rate. As a consequence of our asymptotic characterization, we establish two concrete corollaries: (a) we establish the inaccuracy of the NMF approximation for the log-normalizing constant in this regime, and (b) provide theoretical results backing the empirical observation that the NMF approximation can be overconfident in terms of uncertainty quantification.

Our results utilize recent advances in the theory of Gaussian comparison inequalities. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first application of these ideas to the analysis of Bayesian variational inference problems. Our theoretical results are corroborated by numerical experiments. Lastly, we believe our results can be generalized to non-Gaussian designs and provide empirical evidence to support it.

1 Introduction

The Naive Mean Field (NMF) approximation is widely employed in modern Machine Learning as an approximation to the actual intractable posterior distribution. The NMF approximation is attractive as (a) it bestows huge computational gains, and (b) is naturally interpretable and can provide access to easily interpretable summaries of the posterior distribution e.g., credible intervals. However, these two advantages may be overshadowed by the following limitations: (a) it is *a priori* unclear whether this strategy of using product distribution as a proxy for the true posterior will result in a "good" approximation, and (b) it has been empirically observed that NMF often tends to be significantly over-confident, especially when feature dimension p is not negligible compared to the sample size n. In the traditional asymptotic regime (p fixed and $n \to \infty$), significant progresses were made in understanding these two problems for different statistical models, see for instance [6] and references therein. On the other hand, in the complementary high-dimensional regime where both n and p are growing, [5] recently established an instability result for topic model under the proportional asymptotics, i.e. $n = \Theta(p)$. In fact, in this regime, based on non-rigorous physics arguments it is
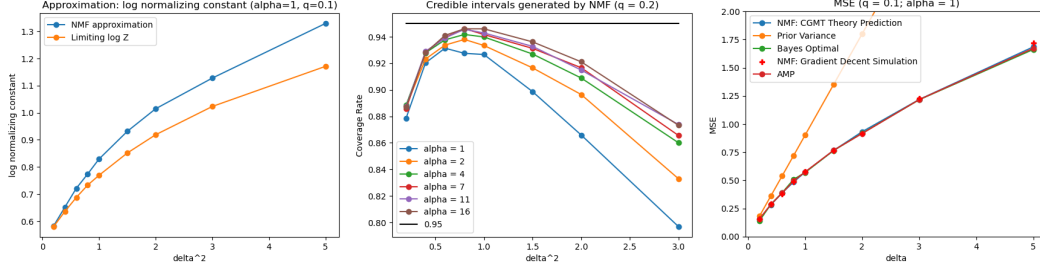
Figure 1: These three figures serve as an visual summary of our main results when the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior is adopted, i.e., NMF does not provide up to leading order correct approximation to the log-normalizing constant (left), and the estimated credible regions suggested by the NMF distribution do not achieve the nominal coverage (middle), even when NMF could achieve close to optimal MSE. Please see Lemma 5 for definitions of the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior and the hyper-parameters q and Δ^2.

conjectured and partially established that instead of NMF free energy one should optimize the TAP free energy. In the context of linear regression, see [11, 17]. On the other hand, positive results of NMF for high-dimensional linear regression were recently established in [14] when $p = o(n)$.

In this paper, we investigate the performance of NMF approximation for linear regression under the proportional asymptotics regime. As a consequence of our asymptotic characterization, we establish two concrete corollaries: (a) we establish the inaccuracy of the NMF approximation for the log-normalizing constant in this regime, and (b) provide theoretical results backing the empirical observation that NMF can be overconfident in constructing Bayesian credible regions.

Before proceeding further, we formalize the setup under investigation. Given data $\{(y_i, x_i) : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$, the scientist fits a linear model

$$Y = X\beta^\star + \epsilon, \tag{1}$$

where $\epsilon_i \overset{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ and $\beta^\star \in S^p$ is a p-dimensional latent signal. We consider either $S = \mathbb{R}$ or $S = [-1, 1]$. In fact, $S = \mathbb{R}$ unless explicitly specified otherwise; most of our results generalize to bounded support naturally. To recover the latent signal, the scientist adapts a Bayesian approach. She puts an *iid* prior on β_i's, namely, $\mathrm{d}\pi_0(\beta) = \prod_{i=1}^p \mathrm{d}\pi(\beta_i)$ and then constructs the posterior distribution of β,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mu}{\mathrm{d}\pi_0}(\beta) = \frac{\mathrm{d}\mu_{X,y}}{\mathrm{d}\pi_0}(\beta) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y - X\beta\|^2},$$

with normalization constant

$$Z_p = Z_p(X, Y) = \int_{S^p} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y - X\beta\|^2} \pi_0(\mathrm{d}\beta). \tag{2}$$

Our results are established assuming that the design matrix X is randomly sampled from an *iid* Gaussian ensemble, i.e. $X_{ij} \overset{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1/n)$, while we provide empirical evidence for more general classes of X that has *iid* entries with mean 0 and variance $1/n$. Moreover, we assume $n/p \to \alpha \in (0, \infty)$ as $n, p \to \infty$.

Definition 1 (Exponential tilting)**.** *For any $\gamma := (\gamma_1, \gamma_2) \in \bar{\mathbb{R}} \times \mathbb{R}^+$ and probability distribution π on S, we define π^γ as*

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\pi^\gamma}{\mathrm{d}\pi}(x) := \exp\left(\gamma_1 x - \frac{\gamma_2}{2}x^2 - c(\gamma)\right), \ c(\gamma) = c_\pi(\gamma) := \log \int_S \exp\left(\gamma_1 x - \frac{\gamma_2}{2}x^2\right)\pi(\mathrm{d}x).$$

Note that $c(\cdot)$ depends on the distribution π and is usually referred to as the cumulent generating function in statistics literature.

Using this definition of exponential tilts, the $(X^T X)_{ii}\beta_i^2$ terms in (2) can be absorbed into the base measure

$$\mu(\mathrm{d}\beta) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|y - X\beta\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p \frac{d_i}{2}\beta_i^2} \prod_{i=1}^p \pi_i(\mathrm{d}\beta_i),$$

2

63 where $\pi_i := \pi^{(0,d_i)}$ and $d_i := \frac{(X^T X)_{ii}}{\sigma^2}$. By the classical Gibbs variational principle (see for instance
64 [25]), the log-normalizing constant can be written as a variational form,

$$
-\log Z_p = \inf_Q \left(\mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|y - X\beta\|^2 \right] + D_{KL}\left(Q\|\pi_0\right) \right)
$$

$$
= \inf_Q \left(\mathbb{E}_Q \left[\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|y - X\beta\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{d_i}{2} \beta_i^2 \right] + D_{KL}\left(Q\bigg\|\prod_{i=1}^{p} \pi_i\right) \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{p} c(0, d_i),
$$

65 where the inf is taken over all probability distribution on S^p. While the infimum is always attained if
66 and only if $Q = \mu$, the Naive Mean Field (NMF) approximation restricts the variational domain to
67 product distributions only and renders a natural upper bound,

$$
\inf_{Q=\prod_{i=1}^{p} Q_i} \left[\mathbb{E}_Q \left(\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|y - X\beta\|^2 - \sum_{i=1^p} \frac{d_i}{2} \beta_i^2 \right) + D_{KL}\left(Q\bigg\|\prod_{i=1}^{p} \pi_i\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{p} c(0, d_i) \right]. \quad (3)
$$

68 It can be shown that the product distribution $\hat{Q}$ that achieves this infimum is exactly the one closest to
69 μ, in terms of KL-divergence. Before moving forward, we need some additional definitions and basic
70 properties of exponential tilts. The first lemma establishes that instead of using (γ_1, γ_2) we can also
71 use $(u, \gamma_2) = (\mathbb{E}_{U \sim \pi^\gamma} U, \gamma_2)$ to parameterize the tilted distribution.

72 **Lemma 1** (Basic properties of the cumulant generating function $c(\cdot)$)**.** *Let $c(\cdot)$ be as in Definition 1.*
73 *Let* $\mathrm{supp}(\pi)$ *denote the support of π. If $m(\pi) := \inf \mathrm{supp}(\pi) < 0$ and $M(\pi) := \sup \mathrm{supp}(\pi) > 0$,*
74 *then the following conclusions hold. (a) $\dot{c}(\gamma_1, \gamma_2) := \frac{\partial c(\gamma_1, \gamma_2)}{\partial \gamma_1} = \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \pi^\gamma}(X)$ is strictly increasing*
75 *in γ_1, for every $\gamma_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, and (b) For any $u \in (m(\pi), M(\pi))$, there exists a unique $h(u, \gamma_2) \in \mathbb{R}$*
76 *such that $\dot{c}(h(u, \gamma_2), \gamma_2) = u$.*

77 **Definition 2** (Naive mean field variational objective)**.** *With $d_i := (X^T X)_{ii}/\sigma^2$, we define $M_p(u):$*
78 $[-1, 1]^p \to \mathbb{R}$ *as*

$$
M_p(u) := \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|y - Xu\|^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \left[G(u_i, d_i) - \frac{d_i u_i^2}{2} \right],
$$

79 *where G is defined as a possibly extended real valued function on $[m(\pi), M(\pi)] \times \mathbb{R}$,*

$$
G(u, d) := D_{\mathrm{KL}}(\pi^{(u,d)}\|\pi^{(0,d)}) = uh(u, d) - c(h(u, d), d) + c(0, d) \quad \text{if } u \in (m(\pi), M(\pi)), d \in \mathbb{R},
$$
$$
:= D_{\mathrm{KL}}\left(\pi_\infty\|\pi^{(0,d)}\right) \quad \text{if } u = M(\pi) < \infty, d \in \mathbb{R},
$$
$$
:= D_{\mathrm{KL}}\left(\pi_{-\infty}\|\pi^{(0,d)}\right) \quad \text{if } u = m(\pi) > -\infty, d \in \mathbb{R},
$$

80 *in which $h(\cdot, \cdot)$ was defined in Lemma 1 and π_∞ and $\pi_{-\infty}$ are degenerate distributions which assigns*
81 *all measure to $M(\pi)$ and $m(\pi)$ respectively.*

82 Note that under product distributions, the $\mathbb{E}_Q(\cdot)$ term in (3) is parameterized by the mean vector
83 $u := \mathbb{E}_Q \beta$ and exponential tilts of π_i's minimize the KL-divergence term. Therefore, the scaled
84 log-normalizing function, which is also refereed to as the average free energy in statistical physics
85 parlance and (log) evidence in Bayesian statistics, is bounded by the following variational form,

$$
-\frac{1}{p} \log Z_p \leq \frac{1}{p} \inf_{u \in [m(\pi), M(\pi)]^p} M_p(u) - \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} c(0, d_i) = -\frac{1}{p} \log \mathcal{Z}_p^{\mathrm{NMF}}. \quad (4)
$$

86 The right hand side is equal to (3) and is also refereed to as the evidence lower bound (ELBO) or NMF
87 free energy, which can be used as a model selection criterion, see for instance [12]. Asymptotically,
88 the second term is nothing but a constant since it concentrates around $c(0, 1/\sigma^2)$ as $n, p \to \infty$.

89 The main theoretical question of interest here is whether this bound in (4) is asymptotically tight
90 or not, which serves as the fundamental first step towards answering the question of whether NMF
91 distribution is a good approximation of the target posterior. Please see for instance [2, 25] for
92 comprehensive surveys on variational inference, including but not limited to NMF approximation.

93 To derive sharp asymptotics for the NMF approximation, our key observation is to note that under
94 certain priors, the optimization problem is actually convex, and then employ the Convex Gaussian Min-
95 max Theorem (CGMT). CGMT is a generalization of the classical Gordon's Gaussian comparison

3

inequality [7], which allows one to reduce a minimax problem parameterized by a Gaussian process to another (tractable) minimax Gaussian optimization problem. This idea was pioneered by [20] and then applied to many different statistical problems, including regularized regression, M-estimation and so on, see for instance [13, 22]. Unfortunately, concentration results derived from CGMT require both Gaussianity and convexity. This is exactly why we need the Gaussian design assumption in our analysis. In the meantime, though we do not pursue this front theoretically, we provide empirical evidence for more general design matrices in the Supplementary Material. It is worth noting that there is a parallel line of research that aims at developing universality results for these comparison techniques. We refer the interested reader to [9] and references within.

Let us emphasise that our main conceptual concern is not investigating whether (4) as a convex optimization procedure gives a good point estimator, but rather evaluating whether NMF as a strategy or product distributions as a family of distributions can provide "close to correct" approximation for the true posterior. Nevertheless, as a by product of our main theorem, asymptotic mean square error of this optimizer can also be characterized.

Regarding accuracy of variational approximations in general, certain contraction rate and asymptotic normality results were established in the traditional fixed p large n regime, see for instance [26, 16, 8]. However, note that under the high-dimensional setting and scaling we consider in the current paper, without extra structural assumptions (e.g. sparsity), both the true posterior and its variational approximation are not expected to contract towards the true signal, which also explains why one is instead interested in whether the log-normalizing constant can be well approximated, as a weaker standard of "correctness". Authors of [18] studied a pre-specified class of mean field approximation in sparse high-dimensional logistic regression. Recently, the first known results on mean and covariance approximation error of Gaussian Variational Inference (GVI) in terms of dimension and sample size were obtained in [10].

Throughout, we work under a partially well-specified situation, i.e., model (1) is assumed to be correct but $\beta_i^\star$'s may not have been *a priori* sampled *iid* from π. Instead, we assume the empirical distribution of $\beta_i^\star$'s converges in L_2 to a probability distribution $\pi^\star$ supported on S. In addition, the noise level σ^2 is fixed and known to the statistician. Last but not least, $\pi^\star$ is assumed to have finite second moment and let $s_2 := \mathbb{E}_{S\sim\pi^\star}[S^2] < \infty$.

2   Main results

In this section, we start with some necessary notations and definitions. Then we identify a wide class of priors that would ensure convexity of the NMF objective. Finally, we present our main theorem and one natural corollary.

Definition 3. *Define $F : (m(\pi), M(\pi)) \to \mathbb{R}$ as*

$$F(u) = F_{\pi,\sigma^2}(u) := G(u, \mathbb{E}d_1) - \frac{u^2 \mathbb{E}d_1}{2} = G\left(u, \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right) - \frac{u^2}{2\sigma}.$$

In addition, let $\hat{u} = \hat{\beta}_{NMF} := \arg\min_{u\in[-1,1]^p} M_p(u)$ be the NMF point estimator, which is also the mean vector of the product distribution $(\hat{Q})$ that best approximates the posterior in terms of KL-divergence. We refer to this optimal product distribution as the NMF distribution.

As alluded, our analysis relies on convexity of the "penalty" term $F(\cdot)$. Therefore we first introduce a few sufficient conditions on the prior π that ensure (strong) convexity of $F(\cdot)$. Please note all these conditions only depend on the prior that the statistician chose to use, rather than the "true prior" $\pi^\star$.

Lemma 2 (Condition to ensure convexity of $F(\cdot)$: nice prior)**.** *Suppose π is absolutely continuous with respect to Lebesgue measure and*

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\pi}{\mathrm{d}x}(x) \propto e^{-V(x)}, \forall x \in \mathrm{support}(\pi),$$

for some $V : \mathrm{support}(\pi) \to \mathbb{R}$. In addition, suppose either of the following two conditions is true,

> *1. $\mathrm{support}(\pi) = \mathbb{R}$; $V(x)$ is continuously differentiable almost everywhere; $V(x)$ is unbounded above at infinity.*

4

2. support$(\pi) = [-a, a]$, *for some $0 < a < \infty$; $V(x)$ is continuously differentiable almost everywhere.*

Then if $V(x)$ is even, non-decreasing in $|x|$ and $V'(x)$ is convex, $F(\cdot)$ is always strongly convex, regardless of the value of σ^2.

Lemma 3 (Condition to ensure convexity of $F(\cdot)$: discrete prior)**.** *Suppose π is a symmetric discrete distribution supported on $\{-1, 0, 1\}$,*

$$\pi(\mathrm{d}x) = q\delta(x) + \frac{1-q}{2}\delta(x-1) + \frac{1-q}{2}\delta(x+1),$$

for $q \in (2/3, 1)$. Then $F(\cdot)$ is always strongly convex, regardless of the value of σ^2.

Proofs of Lemma 2 and 3 crucially utilize the Griffiths-Hurst-Sherman (GHS) inequality [3, 4], which arose from the study of correlation structure in spin systems. The next two lemmas give examples of some other families of priors for which convexity of $F(\cdot)$ depends on the noise level σ^2, while those in Lemma 2 and 3 do not.

Lemma 4 (Condition to ensure convexity of $F(\cdot)$: low signal-to-noise ratio)**.** *Suppose support$(\pi) \subset [-a, a]$ for some $a > 0$. Then as long as $\sigma^2 > a^2$, $F(u) = F_\pi(u, \sigma^2)$, as a function of u, is always strongly convex on S, regardless of the exact choice of π and value of σ^2.*

Lemma 5 (Condition to ensure convexity of $F(\cdot)$: Spike and Slab prior)**.** *Consider a spike and slab prior of the following form,*

$$\pi(\mathrm{d}x) = q\delta(x) + \frac{1-q}{\sqrt{2\pi\Delta^2}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\Delta^2}}\,\mathrm{d}x$$

which is just a mixture of a point mass at 0 and a Normal distribution of mean 0 and variance Δ^2. Suppose

$$\min_{h\in\mathbb{R}} \mathrm{Var}_{X\sim\pi_{\tilde{q},\tilde{\Delta}^2}}(X) < \sigma^2 \tag{5}$$

where $\pi_{\tilde{q},\tilde{\Delta}^2}$ is again a Gaussian spike and slab mixture,

$$\pi(\mathrm{d}x) = \tilde{q}\delta(x) + \frac{1-\tilde{q}}{\sqrt{2\pi\tilde{\Delta}^2}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\tilde{\Delta}^2}}\,\mathrm{d}x$$

$$\text{with}\quad \tilde{q} = \frac{q}{q + (1-q)(1+\Delta^2/\sigma^2)^{-1/2}} \quad\text{and}\quad \tilde{\Delta}^2 = \frac{\sigma^2\Delta^2}{\sigma^2 + \Delta^2}.$$

Then $F(u)$ is strongly convex. In addition, one easier to check sufficient condition for (5) is

$$\left(1 + \frac{2q}{1-q}\sqrt{1 + \frac{\Delta^2}{\sigma^2}}\right)\frac{\Delta^2}{\sigma^2 + \Delta^2} < 1. \tag{6}$$

Remark 1. *It is easy to see that for large enough σ (q and Δ fixed), or small enough q (Δ and σ fixed), or small enough Δ (q and σ fixed), (6) is always satisfied. In other words, $F(\cdot)$ is strongly convex for low signal-to-noise ratio, or high temperature in physics parlance.*

From now on, we always assume $F(\cdot)$ is strongly convex on $S^{\mathrm{o}} := S \setminus \partial S$. Next we introduce a scalar denoising function, which is just the proximal operator of $F(\cdot)$.

Definition 4 (Scalar denoising function)**.** *For $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $t > 0$,*

$$\eta(x, t) := \arg\min_{w\in S}\left\{\frac{1}{2t}(w-x)^2 + F(w)\right\} \in S^{\mathrm{o}}$$

Since $F(\cdot)$ is strongly convex, this one-dimensional optimization has a unique minimizer. Note that when $S = [-1, 1]$, since $\lim_{w\to\pm 1}\frac{\mathrm{d}F}{\mathrm{d}w}(w) = \lim_{w\to\pm 1} h(w, 1/\sigma^2) \mp \frac{1}{\sigma^2} = \pm\infty$, the minimum is never achieved on the boundary of S. Similarly, when $S = \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{w\to\pm\infty}\frac{\mathrm{d}F}{\mathrm{d}w}(w) = \pm\infty$. Therefore, the minimum is always achieved at a stationary point. Lastly, $\eta(0, t) = 0$ if π is symmetric. In fact, throughout this paper, we only consider symmetric priors.

Before stating our main result and its implications, we first introduce a two-dimensional optimization problem, which will play a central role in our later discussion,

$$\max_{b \geq 0} \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \phi(b, \tau) \tag{7}$$

$$\phi(b, \tau) := \frac{b}{2}(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau} + \tau) - \frac{1}{2}b^2 + \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}\min_{w \in S}\left\{\frac{b}{2\tau}w^2 - bZw + \sigma^2 F(w + B) - \sigma^2 F(B)\right\} \tag{8}$$

$$F(u) = F_\pi(u, \sigma^2) = G(u, 1/\sigma^2) - \frac{u^2}{2\sigma^2}, \tag{9}$$

where the $\mathbb{E}$ is taken over $(B, Z) \sim \pi^\star \otimes \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. In the next lemma we gather some additional characterizations of this min-max problem.

Lemma 6. *The max-min in* (7) *is achieved at some* $(b^\star, \tau^\star) \in (0, \infty) \times (\sigma, \infty)$. *In fact,* $b^\star$ *is unique. In addition,* $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$ *is also a solution to the following fixed point equation,*

$$\tau^2 = \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\eta\left(\tau Z + B, \frac{\tau\sigma^2}{b}\right) - B\right)^2\right]$$

$$b = \tau - \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}\left[Z \cdot \eta\left(\tau Z + B, \frac{\tau\sigma^2}{b}\right)\right] = \tau\left(1 - \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}\left[\eta'\left(\tau Z + B, \frac{\tau\sigma^2}{b}\right)\right]\right), \tag{10}$$

where $\eta'(x, t) := \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x}(x, t)$.

Definition 5. *We use* $\nu^\star = \nu^\star_{\pi, \pi^\star}$ *to denote the distribution of* $\left(\eta\left(\tau^\star Z + B, \frac{\tau^\star \sigma^2}{b^\star}\right), B\right)$, *in which* $(B, Z) \sim \pi^\star \otimes \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$. *We denote by* $\hat{\nu}$ *the empirical distribution of* $\{(\hat{u}_i, \beta^\star_i)\}^p_{i=1}$.

Now we are ready to state our main result, which provides sharp asymptotic characterization of $\hat{\nu}$.

Theorem 1. *Suppose the max-min problem in* (7) *has a unique optimizer* $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$, *or the fixed point equation in* (10) *has a unique solution* $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$. *Then for all* $\varepsilon > 0$, *as* $n, p \to \infty$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(W_2\left(\nu^\star, \hat{\nu}\right)^2 \geq \varepsilon\right) \to 0,$$

where $W_2(\cdot, \cdot)$ *stands for order* 2 *Wasserstein distance.*

Remark 2. *This result indicates the NMF estimator* $\hat{u}$ *should be asymptotically roughly iid among different coordinates, which is different from the NMF distributions being product distributions.*

Corollary 1. *Suppose the hidden true signal* $\beta^\star$ *was a priori sampled iid from a probability distribution* $\pi^\star$ *with finite second moment. Note that* $\pi^\star$ *can be different from the prior* π *that the Bayesian statistician chose to use. In addition, suppose the max-min problem in* (7) *has a unique optimizer* $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$, *or the fixed point equation in* (10) *has a unique solution* $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$, *then for all* $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(W_2\left(\nu^\star_{\pi, \pi^\star}, \hat{\nu}\right)^2 \geq \varepsilon\right) \to 0, \quad as \ n, p \to \infty,$$

in which $\nu^\star$ *was defined in Definition* 5.

We provide a proof sketch in Section 6 and all the detailed proofs are deferred to the Supplementary Material.

3 Log normalizing constant: sub-optimality of NMF

As alluded, as implications of Theorem 1, we develop asymptotics of both $\log \mathcal{Z}^{\mathrm{NMF}}_p$ and mean square error (MSE) of the NMF point estimator $\hat{u}$ in terms of $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$.

Corollary 2 (MSE). *When conditions of Corollary 1 hold, as* $n, p \to \infty$,

$$\frac{1}{p}\|\hat{u} - \beta^\star\|^2 \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}_{(B, Z) \sim \pi^\star \otimes \mathcal{N}(0, 1)}\left[\left(\eta\left(\tau^\star Z + B, \frac{\tau^\star \sigma^2}{b^\star}\right) - B\right)^2\right] = \alpha(\tau^{\star 2} - \sigma^2).$$
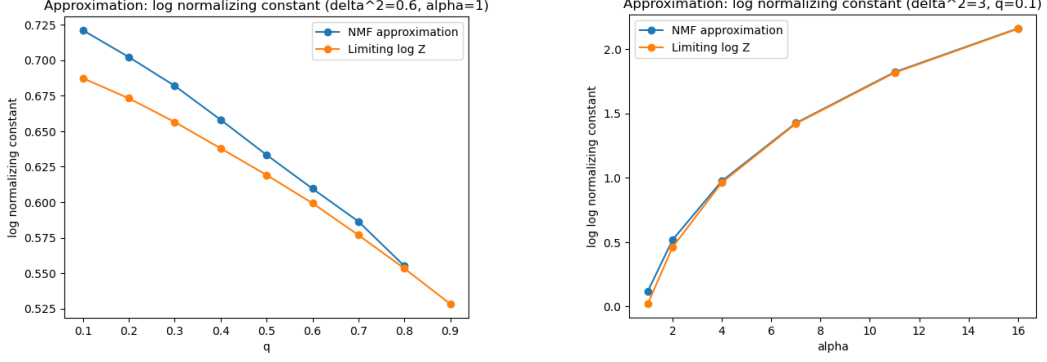
Figure 2: These two figures demonstrate the existence of a gap between $\lim_{p \to \infty}(\mathcal{Z}_p)/p$ and $\lim_{p \to \infty}(\log \mathcal{Z}_p^{\text{NMF}})/p$ when $\pi = \pi^\star$ is a Gaussian Spike and Slab distribution. The left panel features the observation that the gap gets smaller as q (prior sparsity) increases, while the right panel shows as $\alpha := n/p$ gets large, the gap seems to converge to 0, which is consistent with the results established in [14] when $p = o(n)$.

Corollary 3 (Log normalizing constant). *When conditions of Corollary 1 hold, as $n, p \to \infty$,*

$$-\frac{1}{p} \log \mathcal{Z}_p^{NMF} = \frac{1}{p} \left[M_p(\hat{u}) - \sum_{i=1}^{p} c(0, d_i) \right] \xrightarrow{P} \frac{\alpha b^{\star 2}}{2\sigma^2} + \mathbb{E}F(\eta(B + \tau^\star Z, \tau^\star/b^\star)) - c(0, 1/\sigma^2).$$

Though all our main theorems and corollaries apply to the case when $\pi^\star \neq \pi$, from now on, we consider the case of the "nicest" setting, i.e, when assumptions of Corollary 1 are satisfied and in addition $\pi = \pi^\star$. By doing so, the message we would like to convey is: even if there was no model mismatch at all, NMF is still not gonna be "correct".

Concentration and limiting values of both the optimal Bayesian mean square error (i.e. $\mathbb{E}\|\beta - \mathbb{E}[\beta^\star|X, y]\|^2/p$) and the actual log-normalizing constant were conjectured and rigorously established under additional regularity conditions, which provides us the "correct answers" to compare with. Please see [1, 19]. We also provide statements of these results in the Supplementary Material for completeness.

Please see Figure 2 for numerical evaluations of Corollary 3 which suggest for Gaussian Spike and Slab prior the bound in (4) is not tight. Since in general both $F(\cdot)$ and $\eta(\cdot, \cdot)$ lack analytical forms, it is hard to provide universal guarantee on whether (7) has a unique optimizer or the fixed point equation (10) has a unique solution. In fact, our numerical experiments suggest it is possible for (10) to have multiple fixed points. Therefore, how to exactly realize and evaluate the asymptotic predictions in these two corollaries (so as Corollary 4 in the next section) is in general challenging and can only be done in a case by case basis and usually involves numerically solving (10). In light of this observation, we use the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior as defined in Lemma 5 for presentation purpose. Since it is both non-trivial and of practical interests, though we do emphasise the same framework and workflow also apply to other priors as well. With out loss of generality, we also take $\sigma^2 = 1$. This choice renders Figure 2, as well as Figure 3 in the next section. Details of how to generate these plots are deferred to the Supplementary Material.

4 Uncertainty quantification: average coverage rate

To study uncertainty quantification properties of NMF approximation, we consider the average coverage rate of symmetric Bayesian credible regions (of level $1 - \zeta$) suggested by the NMF distributions, i.e, $R_{p,\zeta} := \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} \mathbb{1}_{\{\beta_i^\star \in [\hat{q}_{i,\zeta/2}, \hat{q}_{i,1-\zeta/2}]\}}$, where $\hat{q}_{i,t}$ is the t-th quantile of $\pi^{(h(\hat{u}_i, d_i), d_i)}$. In order to study asymptotic behavior of $R_{p,\zeta}$, we define an $(m(\pi), M(\pi)) \times S \to \{0, 1\}$ indicator function

$$\psi_\zeta(u_0, \beta_0) = \mathbb{1}_{\left\{\beta_0 \in \left[q_{\pi^{(h(u_0, 1/\sigma^2), 1/\sigma^2)}, \zeta/2}, q_{\pi^{(h(u_0, 1/\sigma^2), 1/\sigma^2)}, 1-\zeta/2}\right]\right\}}.$$
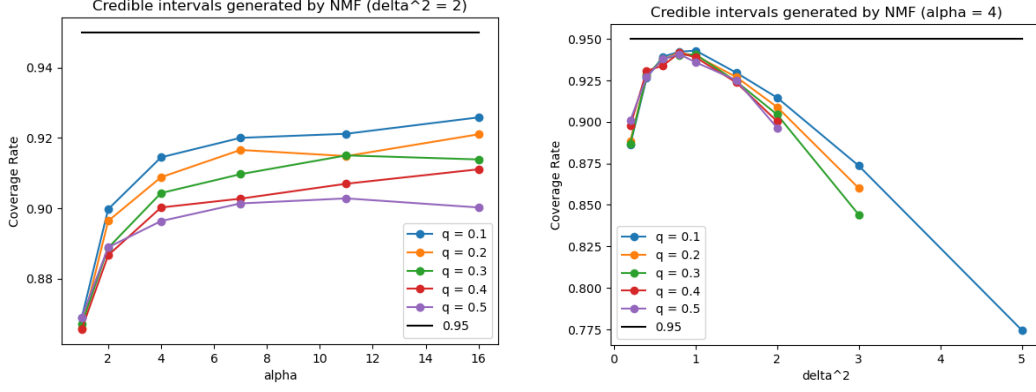
7

Figure 3: These two figures show that estimated credible regions given by NMF do not achieve the nominal coverage, in this case 95%, when $\pi = \pi^\star$ is a Gaussian Spike and Slab distribution. Recall that $\alpha = n/p$ and please see Lemma 5 for exact definitions of the hyper-parameters q and Δ^2.

The following corollary of Theorem 1 establishes the asymptotic convergence of $R_{p,\zeta}$. Numerically evaluating it for the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior renders Figure 3, which shows NMF credible regions can not achieve the nominal coverage, in this case 95%, and also provide an exhibition of how large the gaps are for different hyper-parameters.

Corollary 4. *Suppose conditions of Corollary 1 hold. In addition, assume* $\mathrm{support}(\pi) = S$, *equivalently, the quantile function of π is continuous. Then as $n, p \to \infty$,*

$$R_{p,\zeta} \xrightarrow{P} \mathbb{E}_{(B,Z)\sim\pi^\star\otimes\mathcal{N}(0,1)}\left[\psi_\zeta\left(\eta\left(\tau^\star Z + B, \frac{\tau^\star\sigma^2}{b^\star}\right), B\right)\right].$$

On the other hand, based on the asymptotic joint distribution of $\hat{u}$ and $\beta^\star$ as stated in Corollary 1, we can in fact identify a strategy of constructing asymptotically exact Bayesian credible regions based on $\hat{u}$. Let $q_t(x)$ be the t-th quantile of conditional distribution of B given $\eta(\tau^\star Z + B, \tau^\star\sigma^2/b^\star) = x$. This way, the following Corollary ensures $[q_{\zeta/2}(\hat{u}_i), q_{1-\zeta/2}(\hat{u}_i)]$ is asymptotically of at least $1 - \zeta$ coverage.

Corollary 5. *Suppose conditions of Corollary 4 hold, then for any $\varepsilon > 0$,*

$$\lim_{p\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\sum_{i=1}^p \mathbb{1}_{\{\beta_i^\star\in[q_{\zeta/2}(\hat{u}_i),q_{1-\zeta/2}(\hat{u}_i)]\}} < 1 - \zeta - \varepsilon\right) = 0.$$

5 Extensions and Limitations

We want to be clear about the fact that technically we did not "prove" the sub-optimality of NMF. Instead, we rigorously derived asymptotic characterizations of NMF approximation through solution of an fixed point equation. But this fixed point equation can only be solved numerically on a case-by-case basis and it is not guaranteed to have a unique solution. All our plots are based on iteratively solving the fixed point equation. As a matter of fact, for instance, when q is close to 1 for the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior we considered, the fixed point equation is clearly not converging to the right fixed point, as shown in the Supplementary Material. It could also just do not converge for very small α. Nevertheless, all the plots we are showing in the main text are backed by a numerical simulation of using simple gradient decent to optimize the NMF objective for $n = 8000$. All in all, it is probably more accurate to say we provided a tool for establishing sub-optimality of NMF for a general class of priors rather than proving it for good.

Another obvious limitation is we can only handle priors that guarantee convexity of the the KL-divergence term in terms of the mean parameter. Though it is indeed a broad class of distributions covering some of most commonly used symmetric priors (e.g. Gaussian, Laplace, and so on), little is known about asymptotic behaviour of NMF when the convexity assumption is violated.

We note that, in theory, in order to carry out the analysis using CGMT, the additive noise ϵ as defined in (1) does not have to be Gaussian. Instead, as long as it has log-concave density, the same proof

256 idea applies, though we intentionally chose to stick with Gaussian noise as it renders much cleaner
257 results and more comprehensive presentation. In addition, we expect some kind of stronger uniform
258 convergence (e.g. uniform in σ^2) can also be established, which can be crucial for applications like
259 hyper-parameters selection. Please see [13] for an example where results of this flavor were obtained.

6 Proof strategy

261 We give a proof outline of Theorem 1 in this section. More details can be found in the Supplementary
262 Material. Replacing all d_i's in M_p with $\mathbb{E}d_i = 1/\sigma^2$, we define N_p as

$$N_p(u) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y - Xu\|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p \left[G(u_i, 1/\sigma^2) - \frac{u_i^2}{2\sigma^2} \right] = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y - Xu\|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p F(u_i).$$

263 **Lemma 7.** *Let $\hat{u}_N := \arg\min_u[N_p(u)]$. Then for some $C_s \in \mathbb{R}^+$, as $n, p \to \infty$,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\max(\|\hat{u}\|^2, \|\hat{u}_N\|^2) > (1 + C_s)s_2 \right) \longrightarrow 0.$$

264 **Lemma 8.** *For any $\varepsilon > 0$, as $n, p \to \infty$, with C_s as defined in Lemma 7,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{p} \sup_{\|u\|^2/p \le (1+C_s)s_2} \left| \sum_{i=1}^p \left[G(u_i, 1/\sigma^2) - \frac{u_i^2}{2\sigma^2} \right] - \left[G(u_i, d_i) - \frac{d_i u_i^2}{2} \right] \right| > \varepsilon \right) \longrightarrow 0. \quad (11)$$

265 According to Lemma 8 and 7, $N_p(\cdot)$ and $M_p(\cdot)$ are with high probability uniformly close. Thus
266 from now on, we focus on using Gaussian comparison to analyse $\hat{u}_N$ and $N_p(\hat{u}_N)$ in place of $\hat{u}$ and
267 $M_p(\hat{u})$. Since $F(\cdot)$ is strongly convex, $\hat{w} := \hat{u}_N - \beta^\star$ is the unique minimizer of

$$L(w) := \frac{1}{2n}\|Xw - \epsilon\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^p \left(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star) \right).$$

268 By introducing a dual vector s, we get

$$\min_w L(w) = \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{n}s^T(Xw - \epsilon) - \frac{1}{2n}\|s\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^p \left(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star) \right).$$

269 By CGMT (see for instance [21, Theorem 3.3.1] or [13, Theorem 5.1]), it suffices now to study

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}\|s\|g^T w + \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}\|w\|h^T u - \frac{1}{n}s^T \epsilon - \frac{1}{2n}\|s\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^p \left(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star) \right)$$

270 where $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_p)$ and $h \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_n)$ and they are independent. Note that the $\min$ and $\max$
271 can be flipped due to convex-concavity. By optimizing with respect to $s/\|s\|$ and introducing
272 $\sqrt{\frac{\|w\|^2}{n} + \sigma^2} = \min_{\tau \ge \sigma} \left\{ \frac{\frac{\|w\|^2}{n} + \sigma^2}{2\tau} + \frac{\tau}{2} \right\}$, it can be further reduced to

$$\max_{b \ge 0} \min_{\tau \ge \sigma} \frac{b}{2}(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau} + \tau) - \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{1}{\alpha} \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^p \left[\frac{1}{p}\left\{ \frac{b}{2\tau}w_i^2 - bg_i w_i + \sigma^2 F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - \sigma^2 F(\beta_i^\star) \right\} \right].$$

273 Under minor regularity conditions, as $n, p \to \infty$, it converges to

$$\max_{b \ge 0} \min_{\tau \ge \sigma} \frac{b}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau} + \tau \right) - \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}_{B,Z} \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}} \left\{ \frac{b}{2\tau}w^2 - bZw + \sigma^2 F(w + B) - \sigma^2 F(B) \right\}$$

274 with $(B, Z) \sim \pi^\star \otimes \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, which is how we got $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ as in (7). Further more, by differentiating
275 $\phi(b, \tau)$ with respect to τ and b, we arrive at the fixed point equation in Lemma 6. Last but not least,
276 note that $\arg\min_w \left\{ w^2 - bZw + \sigma^2 F(w + B) \right\} = \eta(\tau Z + B, \tau\sigma^2/b) - B$, which explains why
277 the joint empirical distribution of $(\hat{w}_i, \beta_i^\star)$'s converges to the law of $\left(\eta(\tau^\star Z + B, \tau^\star\sigma^2/b^\star) - B, B \right)$.
278 Finally, we note that similar proof arguments were made in [13, 21].

9

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A Technical lemmas and basic facts

346 **Lemma 9.** *Let $\dot{c}(h,d) := \frac{\partial c}{\partial h}(h,d)$ and $\ddot{c}(h,d) := \frac{\partial^2 c}{\partial h^2}(h,d)$. We have, for $u \in (m(\pi), M(\pi))$ and*
347 $d \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial u}(u,d) = h(u,d), \frac{\partial G}{\partial d} = \frac{1}{2}\int_S z^2 \, \mathrm{d}\pi^{(h(u,d),d)}(z) - \frac{1}{2}\int_S z^2 \, \mathrm{d}\pi^{(0,d)}(z).$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial^2 u}(u,d) = \frac{1}{\ddot{c}(h(u,d),d)} = \frac{1}{\mathrm{Var}_{X\sim\pi^{(h(u,d)d)}}(X)} > 0.$$

348 **Lemma 10** (von Neumann's minimax theorem, [15]). *Let $S_w \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $S_s \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ be compact*
349 *convex sets. If $f : S_w \times S_s \to \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function that is convex concave, i.e. $f(\cdot, s) : S_w \to \mathbb{R}$*
350 *is convex for fixed s, and $f(w, \cdot) : S_s \to \mathbb{R}$ is concave for fixed w. Then we have that*

$$\min_{w\in S_w}\max_{s\in S_s} f(w,s) = \max_{s\in S_s}\min_{w\in S_w} f(w,s).$$

351 **Theorem 2** (CGMT, [23, 21, 13]). *Let $S_w \subset \mathbb{R}^p$ and $S_s \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ be two compact sets and let*
352 $Q : S_w \times S_s \to \mathbb{R}$ *be a continuous function. Let $G = (G_{ij})_{1\leq i\leq n, 1\leq j\leq p} \overset{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0,1)$, $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_p)$,*
353 $h \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_n)$ *be independent standard Gaussian vectors. Denote*

$$\Phi(G) = \min_{w\in S_w}\max_{s\in S_s} s^T G w + Q(w,s),$$

$$\Psi(g,h) = \min_{w\in S_w}\max_{s\in S_s} \|s\|g^T w + \|w\|h^T s + Q(w,s).$$

354 *Then we have*

355   *1. For all $t \in \mathbb{R}$,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\Phi(G) \leq t\right) \leq 2\mathbb{P}(\Psi(g,h) \leq t).$$

356   *2. If both S_w and S_s are convex and if $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ is convex concave, then for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\Phi(G) \geq t\right) \leq 2\mathbb{P}(\Psi(g,h) \geq t).$$

357 The most important message of this theorem is essentially whenever $\Psi(g,h)$ concentrates around
358 certain value t, $\Phi(G)$ will also concentrate around t, assuming $Q(\cdot, \cdot)$ is convex concave.

B Proofs

360 Proof of Lemma 1 and 9 can be found in for instance [14].

B.1 Convexity of $F(\cdot)$

362 *Proof of Lemma 2.* We only prove part (1) here, as proof of part (2) is almost exactly the same. For
363 any $h, d \in \mathbb{R}^+$, by GHS inequality [4, Equation 1.4],

$$\frac{\partial\left[\mathrm{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h,d)}}(B)\right]}{\partial h} = \mathbb{E}[B^3] - 3\mathbb{E}B\mathbb{E}[B^2] + 2\left(\mathbb{E}B\right)^3 \overset{\mathrm{GHS}}{\leq} 0,$$

364 Together with the assumption that V is even, we have for any $h \in \mathbb{R}$ and $d \geq 0$,

$$\mathrm{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h,d)}}(B) \leq \mathrm{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(0,d)}}(B).$$

Consider now a family of parametric distributions $\{\mathcal{P}_\theta : \theta \geq 0\}$ as a generalization of $\pi^{(0,d)}$, with

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathcal{P}_\theta}{\mathrm{d}x}(x) \propto \exp(-\theta V(x))\exp\left(-dx^2/2\right).$$

Note that $\mathcal{P}_{\theta=1} = \pi^{(0,d)}$. Since $V(\cdot)$ is even and increasing,

$$\text{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(0,d)}}(B) = \text{Var}_{S\sim\mathcal{P}_{\theta=1}}(S) \leq \text{Var}_{S\sim\mathcal{P}_{\theta=0}}(S)$$
$$= \frac{\int_{\mathbb{R}} z^2 e^{-dz^2/2}\mathrm{d}z}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-dz^2/2}\mathrm{d}z}$$
$$= \frac{1}{d}\frac{\int_{\mathbb{R}} z^2 e^{-z^2/2}\mathrm{d}z}{\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-z^2/2}\mathrm{d}z}$$
$$\leq \frac{1}{d}\text{Var}_{S\sim\mathcal{N}(0,1)}(S) = \frac{1}{d},$$

which ensures $\text{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h(u,1/\sigma^2),1/\sigma^2)}}(B) \leq \sigma^2$ and therefore $\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 F}{\mathrm{d}u^2}(u) \geq 0$ by (12). Note that as long as π is a valid probability distribution, $F(\cdot)$ is not only convex, but always strongly convex, as $\text{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h(u,1/\sigma^2),1/\sigma^2)}}(B) = \sigma^2$ if and only if $V(\cdot)$ is a constant function and the support of π is the whole real line. $\qquad\square$

The same proof idea also applies to Lemma 3 and therefore we omit its proof to avoid redundancy.

Proof of Lemma 4. The conclusion follows by noting

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 F}{\mathrm{d}u^2}(u) = \frac{1}{\text{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h(u,1/\sigma^2),1/\sigma^2)}}(B)} - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} > 0, \tag{12}$$

as $\pi^{(h,d)}$ is a distribution on $[-a, a]$ and thus its variance is at most a^2, which is assumed to be smaller than σ^2. $\qquad\square$

For Lemma 5, since $\text{Var}_{B\sim\pi^{(h,d)}}(B)$ can be analytically computed for the Gaussian Spike and Slab prior, its proof is nothing but elementary calculation and then checking for (12).

B.2 Replacing d_i with $\mathbb{E}d_i$

Proof of Lemma 7. We focus on only $\|\hat{u}\|$ since almost exactly the same argument also applies to $\hat{u}_N$. We first collect a few high probability claims, proofs of which are just direct applications of basic standard random matrix results (see for instance [24]).

1. There exist positive constants C_1 and C_2 (only depend on α), such that for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $S_1 := \{|\lambda_{\max}(X^T X) - C_1| < \varepsilon\}$ and $S_2 := \{|\lambda_{\min}(X^T X) - C_2| < \varepsilon\}$ are both of high probability.

2. Recall the additive noise $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I_n)$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, $S_3 := \{|\|\epsilon\|^2/n - \sigma^2| < \varepsilon\}$ is of high probability.

3. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, $S_4 = \{|\epsilon^T X\beta^\star/p| < \varepsilon\}$ is of high probability.

Let $S_0 = S_1 \cap S_2 \cap S_3 \cap S_4$, which is again an event of approaching 1 probability. Note that since the empirical distribution of $\beta_i^\star$'s converge in L_2 to $\pi^\star$, one has $\|\beta^\star\|^2 < 1.01ps_2$ for large enough p. When S_0 happens, if $\|u\|^2/p > (1 + C_s)s_2$ (with $C_s > 0$ to be chosen later, but large enough such that $\|Xu\| > \|Y\|$),

$$N_p(u) \geq \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y - Xu\|^2 \geq \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(\|Xu\| - \|Y\|)^2 \geq \frac{p}{2\sigma^2}\left[\sqrt{(C_2-\varepsilon)(1+C_s)s_2} - \|X\beta^\star + \epsilon\|/p\right]^2$$
$$\geq \frac{p}{2\sigma^2}\left[\sqrt{(C_2-\varepsilon)(1+C_s)s_2} - \sqrt{2(C_1+\varepsilon)\cdot 2s_2 + 2\alpha(\sigma^2+\epsilon)}\right]^2.$$

On the other hand,

$$N_p\left(\vec{0}\right) = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\|Y\|^2 \leq \frac{p}{2\sigma^2}\left[(C_1\varepsilon)\cdot 2ps_2 + \alpha(\sigma^2 - \varepsilon) + 2\varepsilon\right].$$

Upon C_s being large enough, we have $N_p(u) > N_p\left(\vec{0}\right)$ for any u such that $\|u\|^2/p > (1 + C_s)s_2$. Therefore, $\|\hat{u}_N\|^2/p < (1 + C_2)s_2$ on S_0. $\qquad\square$

393 *Proof of Lemma 8.* If $S = [-1, 1]$, by Lemma 9, $\left| \frac{\partial G(u,d)}{\partial d}(u,d) \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ for any u, d, thus

$$\text{LHS of (11)} \leq \sup_u \left[\sum_{i=1}^p |G(u_i, d_i) - G(u_i, 1/\sigma^2)| + \sum_{i=1}^p \left| \frac{u_i^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{d_i u_i^2}{2} \right| \right]$$

$$\leq \sup_u \left[\sum_{i=1}^p \left| \frac{\partial G(u,d)}{\partial d}(u_i, 1/\sigma^2)(d_i - 1/\sigma^2) \right| \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p |d_i - 1/\sigma^2|$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^p \left| d_i - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right|.$$

394 Since X_{ji}'s are *iid* with variance $1/n$, we know $\mathbb{E}d_i = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j=1}^n X_{ji}^2 \right] = \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$, $d_i \overset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$, and all
395 d_i's are *iid*, which guarantee RHS of the previous display goes to 0 in probability as $n, p \to \infty$. On
396 the other hand, if $S = \mathbb{R}$, note that for any $\delta \in (0, 1/(2\sigma^2))$, $\mathbb{P}(\max_{1 \leq i \leq p} |d_i - 1/\sigma^2| > \delta) \to 0$
397 as $n, p \to \infty$. In addition, when $\max_{1 \leq i \leq p} |d_i - 1/\sigma^2| \leq \delta$ is true, which is of approaching 1
398 probability,

$$\frac{1}{p} \cdot \text{LHS of (11)} \leq \sup_{u: \|u\|/p < (1+C_s)s_2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^p |G(u_i, d_i) - G(u_i, 1/\sigma^2)| + \sum_{i=1}^p \left| \frac{u_i^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{d_i u_i^2}{2} \right| \right]$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{p} \cdot \sup_{u: \|u\|/p < (1+C_s)s_2} \left[\sum_{i=1}^p \left| \frac{\partial G(u,d)}{\partial d}(u_i, 1/\sigma^2 + \delta_i)(d_i - 1/\sigma^2) \right| \right] + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p |d_i - 1/\sigma^2| u_i^2,$$

399 where $\delta_i \in \left(\min(0, d_i - 1/\sigma^2), \max(0, d_i - 1/\sigma^2) \right)$. By Lemma 9, it is further smaller than

$$\frac{1}{p} \cdot \sup_{u: \|u\|/p < (1+C_s)s_2} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p \left| d_i - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right| \cdot \left[\text{Var}_{X \sim \pi^{(h(u_i, 1/\sigma^2 + \delta_i), 1/\sigma^2)}}(X) + u_i^2 + \text{Var}_{X \sim \pi^{(0, 1/\sigma^2 + \delta_i)}}(X) + u_i^2 \right] \right\}.$$

400 Lastly, note that when conditions of one of Lemma 2, 3, 4 and 5 are true, for $\tilde{d}$ close enough to $1/\sigma^2$,
401 we have $\text{Var}_{X \sim \pi^{(\tilde{h}, \tilde{d})}}(X) < 2\sigma^2$ for any $\tilde{h} \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore upon choosing small enough δ such that
402 all d_i's are close enough to $1/\sigma^2$, the display above is controlled by

$$\frac{1}{p} \cdot \sup_{u: \|u\|/p < 2s_2} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p \left[\left| d_i - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right| \cdot (4\sigma^2 + 2u_i^2) \right] \right\}$$

$$\leq \max_{1 \leq i \leq p} |d_i - 1/\sigma^2| \cdot \sup_{u: \|u\|/p < 2s_2} \left[4\sigma^2 + \frac{\|u\|^2}{p} \right]$$

$$\leq \delta \cdot (4\sigma^2 + (1 + C_s)s_2),$$

403 Lastly, further requiring $\delta < \frac{\varepsilon}{4\sigma^2 + (1+C_s)s_2}$ renders Lemma 8. $\square$

B.3 Regarding the fixed point equation

405 *Proof of Lemma 6.* First of all, recall the definition of $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ in (8),

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial b}(b, \tau) = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma^2/\tau + \tau) - b - \frac{\tau}{2\alpha} + \frac{1}{2\tau\alpha}\mathbb{E}\left[(\tau Z + B - \eta(\tau Z + B, \tau\sigma^2/b))^2 \right].$$

406 Note that for any fixed x, $|x - \eta(x, t)|$ is always strictly increasing with respect to t, we have

$$\frac{\partial \left\{ \mathbb{E}\left[(\tau Z + B - \eta(\tau Z + B, \tau\sigma^2/b))^2 \right] \right\}}{\partial b} < 0,$$

407 which further leads to

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial b^2}(b, \tau) < -1, \quad \forall b, \tau.$$

408 Therefore, for any fixed τ, $\phi(\cdot, \tau)$ is 1-strongly concave. Define $\psi(b) := \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \phi(b, \tau)$. Since $\psi(\cdot)$
409 is the minimum of a collection of 1-strongly concave functions, it is 1-strongly concave itself and

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must have a unique maximizer $b^\star$ over $[0, \infty)$. In addition, by definition of η, $\lim_{t \to \infty} \eta(x, t) = 0$, dominated convergence theorem gives

$$\lim_{b \to 0^+} \mathbb{E}\left[(\tau Z + B - \eta(\tau Z + B, \tau \sigma^2/b))^2\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[(\tau Z + B)^2\right] = \tau^2 + \mathbb{E}[B^2].$$

Therefore for any fixed τ,

$$\liminf_{b \to 0} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial b}(b, \tau) = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma^2/\tau + \tau) + \frac{\mathbb{E}[B^2]}{2\tau\alpha} > 0.$$

Together with Lemma 11 and continuity of $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$, it ensures $b^\star \neq 0$. On the other hand, for any $b > 0$,

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \tau}(b, \tau) = \frac{b}{2\tau^2}\left[\tau^2 - \left(\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{\alpha}\mathbb{E}\left[(\eta(\tau Z + B, \tau\sigma^2/b) - B)^2\right]\right)\right],$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \tau}(b, \tau = \sigma) < 0.$$

Together with Lemma 11, we have $\min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \phi(b^\star, \tau)$ has at least one minimizer $\tau^\star \in (\sigma, \infty)$. Finally, since $b^\star$ and $\tau^\star$ are not on the boundary, we have $\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial b}(b^\star, \tau^\star) = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial \tau}(b^\star, \tau^\star) = 0$, which gives rise to the fixed point equation as in (10). $\square$

Lemma 11. *Recall the definition of ϕ in (8). For any fixed $b \in (0, \infty)$,*

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} \phi(b, \tau) = \infty.$$

Therefore, $\min_\tau \phi(b, \tau)$ admits at least one minimizer.

Proof. Since $\mathbb{E}[B^2] = s_2 < \infty$, $\mathbb{E}\min_{w \in S}\left\{\frac{b}{2\tau}w^2 - bZw + \sigma^2 F(w + B) - \sigma^2 F(B)\right\}$ is decreasing in τ and always finite for any $(b, \tau) \in (0, \infty) \times [\sigma, \infty)$. Therefore $\lim_{\tau \to \infty}(b, \tau) = \infty$. $\square$

B.4 Proof of the main results

We devote this subsection to proving Theorem 1, while we note Corollary 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 are all direct consequences of it. We prove Theorem 1 first while introducing some necessary lemmas along the way. Then we prove these lemmas at the end of this subsection. Throughout this subsection, whenever the optimization domains for w and s are omitted, they are understood to be $\mathbb{R}^p$ and $\mathbb{R}^n$ respectively. We use $\hat{\nu}$ to denote empirical distribution in general.

Since $F(\cdot)$ is strongly convex, $\hat{w} := \hat{u}_N - \beta^\star$ is the unique minimizer of

$$L(w) := \frac{1}{2n}\|Xw - \epsilon\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{p}(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star))$$

By introducing a dual vector s, we get

$$\min_w L(w) = \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_{s \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{n}s^T(Xw - \epsilon) - \frac{1}{2n}\|s\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{p}(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star)) := \min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s)$$

Following the recipe in Theorem 2, we define

$$\Psi_{g,h}(w, s) := \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}\|s\|g^T w + \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}\|w\|h^T u - \frac{1}{n}s^T\epsilon - \frac{1}{2n}\|s\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{p}(F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - F(\beta_i^\star)),$$

where $g \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_p)$ and $h \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_n)$ and they are independent. Note that with a deliberate abuse of notations, we use Φ and Ψ to denote these two functions to indicate their resemblance to those in the statement of Theorem 2. By Theorem 2, it suffices now to study $\min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s)$ in place of $\min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s)$, which is made rigorous by the following lemma.

Lemma 12. *Let D be any close set.*

   1. We have for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D} \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) \leq t\right) \leq 2\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) \leq t\right).$$

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2. *If D is in addition convex, then we have for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D} \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) \geq t\right) \leq 2\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) \geq t\right).$$

Due to strong convexity, $\hat{w}_\Psi := \arg\min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s)$ always exists and is unique. Note that the min and max can be flipped due to convex-concavity (Lemma 10). By optimizing with respect to $s/\|s\|$ and introducing

$$\sqrt{\frac{\|w\|^2}{n} + \sigma^2} = \min_{\tau \geq \sigma}\left\{\frac{\frac{\|w\|^2}{n} + \sigma^2}{2\tau} + \frac{\tau}{2}\right\},$$

$\min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s)$ can be further reduced to

$$\max_{b \geq 0} \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \Gamma_{g,h}(b, \tau)$$

$$\Gamma_{g,h}(b, \tau) := \frac{b}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau} + \tau\right) - \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{1}{\alpha}\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \sum_{i=1}^{p}\left[\frac{1}{p}\left\{\frac{b}{2\tau}w_i^2 - bg_i w_i + \sigma^2 F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - \sigma^2 F(\beta_i^\star)\right\}\right],$$

in the sense that (1) the optimizers $\hat{w}_\Psi$ and $\hat{w}_\Gamma$ are close, i.e, for any $\kappa > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\|\hat{w}_\Psi - \hat{w}_\Gamma\|^2 > \kappa\right) \to 0, \tag{13}$$

and (2) the optimum values are preserved with arbitrarily small error with high probability. The next lemma ensures empirical distribution of $(\hat{w}_\Psi, \beta^\star)$ is close to the distribution of $\left(\eta\left(\tau^\star Z + B, \frac{\tau^\star \sigma^2}{b^\star}\right) - B, B\right)$, which we denote as $\nu^\star_{(w^\star, \pi^\star)}$, where $(B, Z) \sim \pi^\star \otimes \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Lemma 13. *Suppose all conditions of Theorem1 are satisfied. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $C(\varepsilon) \in (0, \varepsilon)$, such that as $p, n \to \infty$,*

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\exists \tilde{w} \in \mathbb{R}^p \text{ such that } W_2\left(\hat{\nu}_{(\tilde{w}, \beta^\star)}, \nu^\star_{(w^\star, \pi^\star)}\right)^2 \geq \varepsilon \text{ and } \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(\tilde{w}, s) < \min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) + C(\varepsilon)\right) \to 0.$$

In the meantime,

$$\min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) \xrightarrow{P} \frac{\alpha b^{\star 2}}{2\sigma^2} + \mathbb{E}F(\eta(B + \tau^\star Z, \tau^\star/b^\star)).$$

Build upon these lemmas, we now prove the empirical distribution of $(\hat{u}_N, \beta^\star) = (\beta^\star + \hat{w}, \beta^\star)$ is close to $\nu^\star$ as defined in Definition 5. For $\varepsilon > 0$, define $D_\varepsilon = \left\{w \in \mathbb{R}^p : W_2\left(\hat{\nu}_{(w, \beta^\star)}, \nu^\star_{(w^\star, \pi^\star)}\right)^2 \geq \varepsilon\right\}$.
In order to establish

$$\mathbb{P}\left(W_2(\hat{\nu}_{(\hat{w}, \beta^\star)}, \nu^\star_{(w^\star, \pi^\star)})\right) \to 0,$$

it suffices to show with high probability for some $\delta(\varepsilon) > 0$,

$$\min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) \geq \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) + \delta(\varepsilon). \tag{14}$$

On the one hand, by applying both (1) and (2) of Lemma 12 to $D = \mathbb{R}^p$, together with Lemma 13, we have

$$\lim_{n,p \to \infty} \min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) = \lim_{n,p \to \infty} \min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) = \frac{\alpha b^{\star 2}}{2\sigma^2} + \mathbb{E}F(\eta(B + \tau^\star Z, \tau^\star/b^\star)),$$

where the "lim" is understood to be convergence in probability. It further leads to

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) - \min_w \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s)\right| > \varepsilon\right) \to 0.$$

On the other hand, applying (1) of Lemma 12 to $D = D_\varepsilon$, together with Lemma 13, we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) > \min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s) + C(\varepsilon) + \varepsilon\right) \to 0,$$

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which establishes (14) with $\delta(\varepsilon) = C(\varepsilon) + \varepsilon$, where $C(\varepsilon) > 0$ is defined in Lemma 13. Therefore, we have the empirical distribution of $(\hat{u}_n, \beta^\star)$ is close to the target distribution $\nu^\star$, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(W_2(\hat{\nu}_{(\hat{u}_N,\beta^\star)}, \nu^\star)\right) \to 0. \tag{15}$$

Finally, according to Lemma 8 and 7, $N_p(\cdot)$ and $M_p(\cdot)$ are with high probability uniformly close. Together with strong convexity of $N_p(\cdot)$, we have for any $\kappa > 0$

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{p}\|\hat{u} - \hat{u}_N\|^2 < \kappa\right) \to 0. \tag{16}$$

Theorem 1 is therefore given by (15) and (16).

In order to prove Lemma 12 using Theorem 2, one only needs to establish that the optimizer of $\Phi_X(w, s)$ always has bounded norm with high probability. In fact, Lemma 7 ensures boundedness of $\hat{w} = \arg\min_w \max_s \Phi_X(w, s)$ while the boundedness of $\hat{s} := \arg\max_s \Phi_X(\hat{w}, s)$ can be established by a similar argument.

Now we turn to Lemma 13. Define

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b, \tau) := \frac{b}{2}(\frac{\sigma^2}{\tau} + \tau) - \frac{b^2}{2} + \frac{1}{\alpha} \min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \sum_{i=1}^p \left[\frac{1}{p}\left\{\frac{b}{2\tau}w_i^2 - bg_iw_i + \sigma^2 F(w_i + \beta_i^\star) - \sigma^2 F(\beta_i^\star)\right\}\right].$$

It is obvious that $\tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b, \tau) \geq \Gamma_{g,h}(b, \tau)$ for any fixed (b, τ) deterministically. By the max–min inequality,

$$\begin{aligned}
\min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) &\geq \max_s \min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) \\
&= \max_{b \geq 0} \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b, \tau) + o_n(1) \\
&\geq \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b^\star, \tau) + o_n(1) \\
&= \tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b^\star, \tilde{\tau}(b^\star)) + o_n(1) \\
&\overset{(i)}{\geq} \Gamma_{g,h}(b^\star, \tilde{\tau}(b^\star)) + o_n(1) \\
&\overset{(ii)}{\geq} \min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \Gamma_{g,h}(b^\star, \tau) + o_n(1) \\
&= \Gamma_{g,h}(b^\star, \tau^\star) + o_n(1) \\
&= \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) + o_n(1),
\end{aligned}$$

where $\tilde{\tau}(b^\star) := \arg\min_{\tau \geq \sigma} \tilde{\Gamma}_{g,h}(b^\star, \tau)$. Note that Lemma 13 is equivalent to

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\min_{w \in D_\varepsilon} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) - \min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^p} \max_s \Psi_{g,h}(w, s) > C(\varepsilon)\right) \to 1,$$

which can be established by noticing that the gaps resulting from (i) and (ii) can not be both negligible.

C   Numerical simulations

All source code can be found in a separate *zip* file submitted together with this PDF.

C.1   Universality: non-Gaussian design matrix

Instead of assuming $X_{ij} \overset{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1/n)$, we now present empirical evidence of universality, i.e., Theorem 1 holds for a broader class of design matrix that has iid entries with variance $1/n$. Since it is impossible to be exhaust all possible distributions, we will sticky with a representative example $X_{ij} \overset{iid}{\sim} \text{Laplace}(\sqrt{2}/2)$ and the Gaussian spike and slab prior. We use Gradient Decent to optimize $M_p(u)$ and then demonstrate empirical MSE of its optimizer coincides with the prediction of Corollary 2. Please see Figure 4 for a visual summary.

For more comprehensive and rigorous results on universality of Gaussian comparison inequalities, we refer interested readers to [9] and references within.
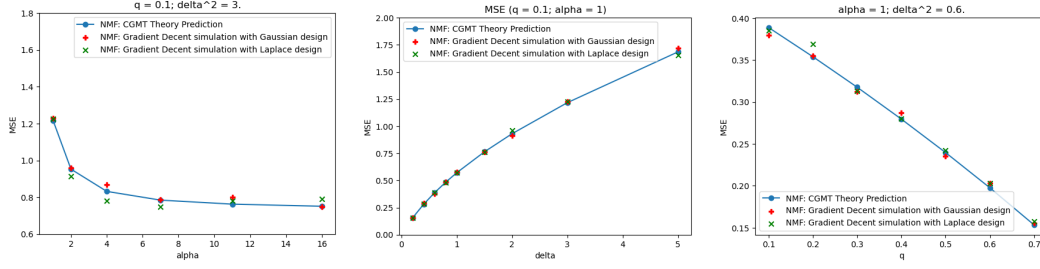
Figure 4: *iid* Gaussian design versus *iid* Laplace design (with Gaussian spike and slab prior): These three plots showcase the empirical observation that prediction of Corollary 2 seem to be valid for a design matrix with *iid* entries that have sub-exponential tails.
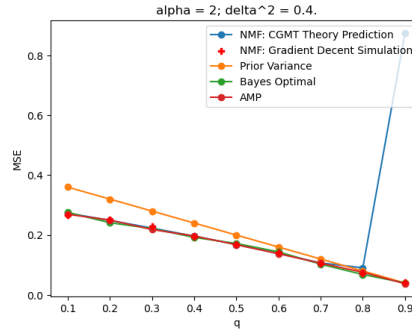
C.2 Fixed point equation

Figure 5: As we can see, when q is large ($q = 0.8$ or 0.9 in the figure above), our initialization did not lead to the right fixed point. On the other hand, the right panel showcases the fact that the iterative algorithm might not converge for small α.

As allude in the main text, all our plots are generated by iteratively solving the fixed point equation (10). However, this naive strategy might not give the right fixed point, i.e., the $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$ that minimizes $\phi(b, \tau)$, or it could just do not converge. Please see Figure 5 for an empirical example. In fact, since either $F(\cdot)$ or $\eta(\cdot, \cdot)$ lacks analytical forms for most natural priors, unlike other applications of CGMT (e.g. asymptotic analysis of lasso [13]), it is hard to determine whether (10) has an unique solution. Fortunately, there are two possible remedies. First, which is the option we took, one could solve $\min_u M_p(u)$ for some large n and check if the empirical MSE matches the prediction by the fixed point $(b^\star, \tau^\star)$. Alternatively, one could adapt a more brute-force way to find the actual optimizer of $\max_b \min_\tau \phi(b, \tau)$, e.g. grid search or iteratively solving (10) with multiple initializations. After all, it is only an two dimensional scalar optimization problem. We chose to follow the first way simply because we want to use empirical simulations to corroborate our theoretical predictions anyway.