

# An Introduction to Natural Gradient with Applications in Optimization and Neural Networks

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# Outline of Part 1

- ▶ Motivations from Statistics and Machine Learning
- ▶ A Gentle Introduction to Riemannian Optimization
- ▶ Amari's Natural Gradient
- ▶ Applications in Stochastic Optimization
- ▶ Applications in Training Neural Networks

# Outline of Part 1

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## Standard monographs

S.-I. Amari, H. Nagaoka

Methods of Information Geometry. Oxford University Press, 2000

P.-A. Absil, R. Mahoney, and R. Sepulchre

Optimization Algorithms on Matrix Manifolds. Princeton University Press, 2008

<https://press.princeton.edu/absil>

# Motivations from Statistics and Machine Learning

Consider the following optimization problems

- ▶ **log-likelihood estimation** of the parameters of a statistical model

$$\max \log p(x; \xi)$$

- ▶ **stochastic relaxation** of a function  $f(x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\min \mathbb{E}_{p(x; \xi)}[f(x)]$$

(cf. stochastic optimization)

- ▶ minimization (or maximization) of the **polarization measure**

$$\text{POL}(p) = \sum_i p_i^2 (1 - p_i)$$

(Pino and Vidal-Robert, 2013)

# Optimization over Statistical Models

The previous examples fit the general case of the optimization of a function whose variables are the parameters of a statistical model

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Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a **statistical model**, i.e., a set of probability distributions over a sample space  $\Omega$ , e.g.,

- ▶ Gaussian distribution for  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^d$
- ▶ multinomial distribution for  $\Omega$  finite

We want to solve the following optimization problem

$$\inf_{p \in \mathcal{M}} \mathcal{F}(p)$$

# Optimization over Statistical Models

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We want to solve the following optimization problem

$$\inf_{p \in \mathcal{M}} \mathcal{F}(p)$$

Given a **parameterization**  $\xi$  for  $\mathcal{M}$ , i.e.,

$$\mathcal{M} = \{p_{\xi}(x; \xi) : \xi \in \Xi\}$$

the problem can be reformulated in a parametric form

$$\inf_{\xi \in \Xi} F(\xi) = \inf_{\xi \in \Xi} (\mathcal{F} \circ p)(\xi)$$

# Gradient Descent Over Statistical Models

Optimizing  $F(\xi)$  over  $\Xi$  may be a non-trivial task, e.g., for **non-convex functions** and in absence of closed-form solutions

A naive but still powerfull approach is **gradient descent**

$$\xi_{t+1} = \xi_t - \lambda \nabla F(\xi_t)$$

where  $\lambda > 0$  is the step size, and  $\nabla$  stands for  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}$

However a series of issues may arise:

- ▶ dependence on the parameterization  $\xi$
- ▶ slow convergence over plateaux
- ▶ a projection of the gradient is required on the boundary of  $\Xi$

⇒ Most of these problem can be overcome by choosing a more **convenient** geometry for  $\mathcal{M}$



## A Toy Example from Stochastic Relaxation

Let  $n = 2$ ,  $\Omega = \{-1, +1\}^2$ , we want to minimize  $\mathcal{F}(p) = \mathbb{E}_p[f]$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_1x_2$$

$x_1$	$x_2$	$f(\mathbf{x})$
+1	+1	6
+1	-1	-4
-1	+1	-2
-1	-1	0

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The Euclidean **gradient flow** is the solution of the following differential equation

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}} = \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi})$$

We are interested in studying gradient flows for different parameterization over the **independence model** for  $X_1, X_2$

## Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

$$F(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \Omega} f(\boldsymbol{x}) p_1(x_1) p_2(x_2) = -4\mu_1 - 2\mu_2 + 12\mu_1\mu_2$$

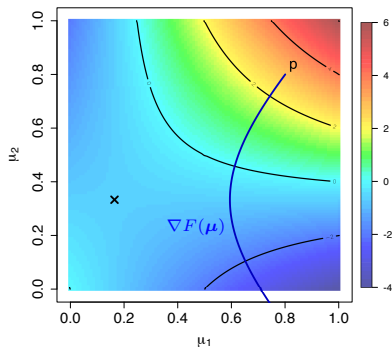
$$\nabla F(\boldsymbol{\mu}) = (-4 + 12\mu_2, -2 + 12\mu_1)^T$$

# Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

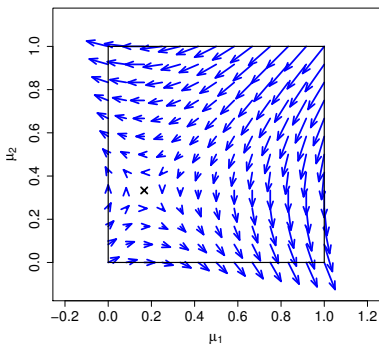
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Gradient flow in  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$



Gradient vector in  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ,  $\lambda = 0.025$

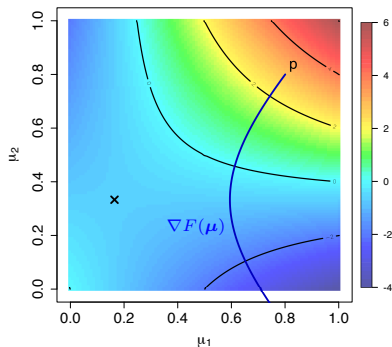


# Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

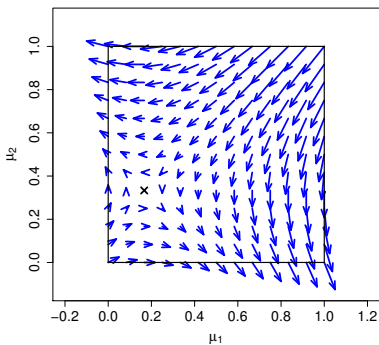
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Gradient flow in  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$



Gradient vector in  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ ,  $\lambda = 0.025$



$\nabla F(\boldsymbol{\eta})$  does not convergence to local optima, projection is required

## Natural Parameters for the Independence Model

If we restrict to positive probabilities  $p > 0$ , we can represent the interior of the independence model as the **exponential family**

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i x_i - \psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right\}$$

where  $\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \ln Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is the log partition function

The **natural parameters** of the independence model  $\mathcal{M}_1$  represented by an exponential family are  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , with

$$p_i(x_i) = \frac{e^{\theta_i x_i}}{e^{\theta_i} + e^{-\theta_i}}$$

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The mapping between **marginal probabilities** and **natural parameters** is one-to-one for  $p > 0$

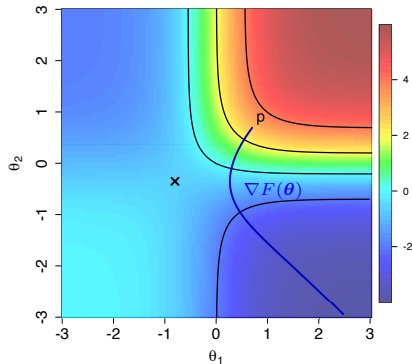
$$\theta_i = (\ln(\mu_i) - \ln(1 - \mu_i)) / 2 \qquad \mu_i = \frac{e^{\theta_i}}{e^{\theta_i} + e^{-\theta_i}}$$

# Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

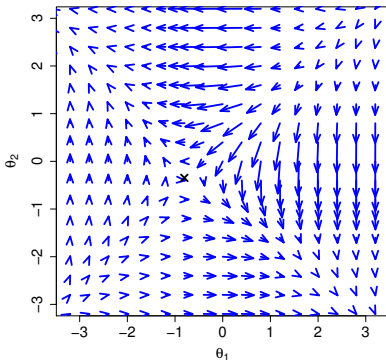
$$F(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = (-4e^{\theta_1 - \theta_2} - 2e^{-\theta_1 + \theta_2} + 6e^{\theta_1 + \theta_2})/Z(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\nabla F(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}[f(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}[\mathbf{X}])] = \text{Cov}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(f, \mathbf{X})$$

Gradient flow in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$



Gradient vectors in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ,  $\lambda = 0.15$



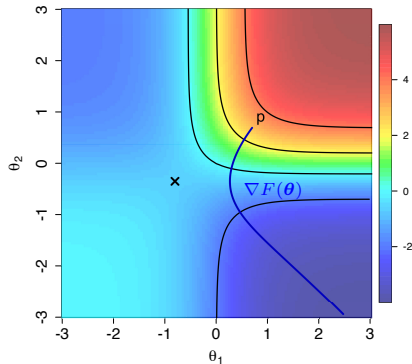


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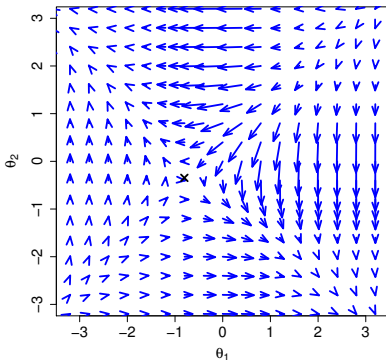
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Gradient flow in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$



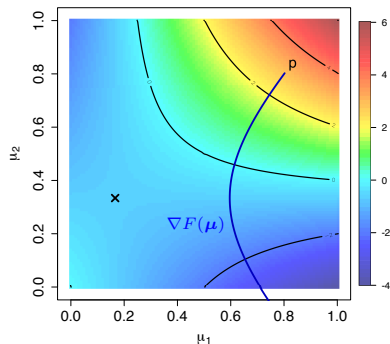
Gradient vectors in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ ,  $\lambda = 0.15$



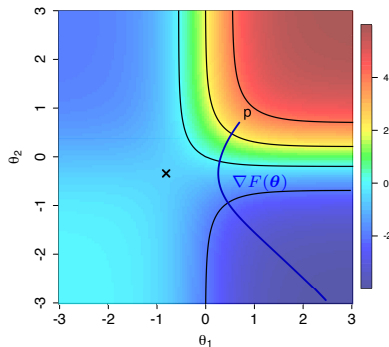
In the  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  parameters,  $\nabla F(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  vanishes over the plateaux

# Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

Marginal probabilities  $\mu$

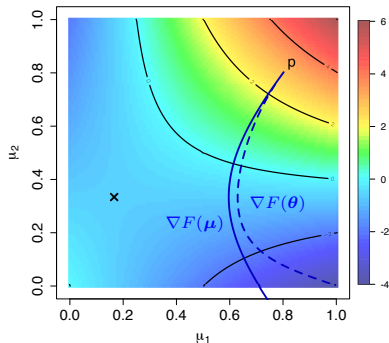


Natural parameters  $\theta$

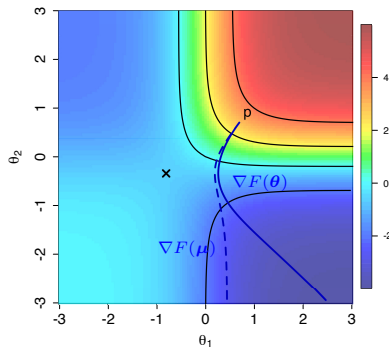


# Gradient Flows on the Independence Model

Marginal probabilities  $\mu$



Natural parameters  $\theta$



Gradient flows  $\nabla F(\xi)$  depend on the parameterization

In the  $\eta$  parameters,  $\nabla F(\eta)$  does not converge to the expected distribution  $\delta_{x^*}$  over an optimum

# Riemannian Optimization

# Riemannian Optimization

Riemannian optimization refers to the optimization of a cost function defined over a Riemannian manifold

$$f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Manifold structures appear in presence of **symmetries** in the space, **invariance properties** of the cost function, or in the constraints

Applications in linear algebra, signal processing, robotics, machine learning, statistics, physics, ...

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Advantages of a Riemannian approach to optimization:

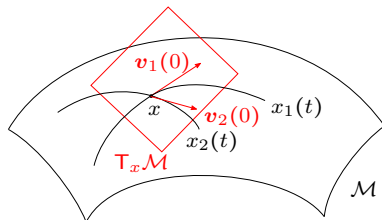
- ▶ by taking into account the structure of the problem, **more effective** algorithms can be developed
- ▶ a mathematical framework which provides the basis for **convergence analysis** of the algorithms

# The Tangent Space

Suppose we have a manifold structure with **coordinate charts**

To implement first-order calculus, we need a **differentiable structure**

This is obtained by defining a **tangent bundle**  $T\mathcal{M}$ , i.e., a set of tangent spaces  $T_x\mathcal{M}$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{M}$



The tangent space can be identified by the linear space spanned by the **velocity vectors** to all smooth curves passing through  $x$

# Riemannian Metric

Over the tangent space is a vector space we can define an **inner product** called **Riemannian metric**

$$g(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle_x : T_x \mathcal{M} \times T_x \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

The inner product induces a **norm**

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_x = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle_x}$$

The inner product can be used to measure the **length** of a curve  $x(t)$  with  $t \in [a, b]$

$$L(x(t)) = \int_a^b \sqrt{\langle \dot{x}(t), \dot{x}(t) \rangle_x} dt$$

A **geodesic** is a length-minimizing curve between two points



# Riemannian Gradient

Let  $\mathcal{F}(x) : \mathcal{M} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  be a smooth function over  $(\mathcal{M}, g)$

For each vector field  $V \ni \boldsymbol{v}$  over  $\mathcal{M}$ , the **Riemannian gradient** of  $f(x)$ , i.e., the direction of steepest ascent is the unique vector that satisfies

$$g(\text{grad } f, \boldsymbol{v}) = D_{\boldsymbol{v}} f,$$

where  $D_{\boldsymbol{v}} f$  is the directional derivative of  $f$  in the direction  $\boldsymbol{v}$

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Given a **parameterization**  $\psi^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \mapsto x$  for  $\mathcal{M}$ , let  $\tilde{f} = f \circ \psi^{-1}$

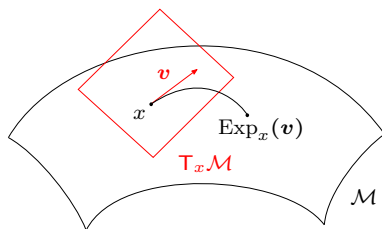
$$\text{grad } \tilde{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i,j} g^{ij} \frac{\partial \tilde{f}}{\partial \theta_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j}$$

with components  $\tilde{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1} \nabla \tilde{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

The Riemannian gradient depends on the metric  $g$  through  $G = [g_{ij}]$ , with  $G^{-1} = [g^{ij}]$

# Exponential Map

The **exponential map** is a map from the tangent space  $T_x\mathcal{M}$  to the manifold  $\mathcal{M}$ , such that  $v$  is the tangent vector to the geodesic from  $x$  to  $\text{Exp}_{\theta_t} v$



Moreover, the exponential map may be hard to be computed, since it requires the evaluation of the **geodesic**  $\gamma(t)$ , with  $\gamma(0) = x$  for a given  $\dot{\gamma}(0)$

# Riemannian Gradient Descent

Consider the naïve implementation of gradient descent on  $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \lambda \nabla f(x_t)$$

This cannot be directly applied to manifolds, since we cannot sum  $x \in \mathcal{M}$  and  $v \in T_x \mathcal{M}$

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Moreover, the gradient depends on the parameterization

Such problem can be addressed by computing the **Riemannian gradient** and applying the **exponential map**

$$x_{t+1} = \text{Exp}_{x_t}(-\lambda \text{grad } f(x_t))$$

Relaxations, can be obtained using a **retraction**  $R_\theta$ , a map from tangent space to the manifold

$$R_x(v) : T_x \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$$

which requires weaker conditions compared to the exponential map

# Geometry Derived by the KL Divergence

## Geometry Derived by the KL Divergence

An alternative geometry for a statistical model can be defined by measuring infinitesimal distances using the [Kullback-Leibler divergence](#)

$$D_{\text{KL}}(p||q) = \int_{\Omega} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

# Geometry Derived by the KL Divergence

An alternative geometry for a statistical model can be defined by measuring infinitesimal distances using the **Kullback-Leibler divergence**

$$D_{\text{KL}}(p||q) = \int_{\Omega} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} dx$$

It can be proved that such choice determines a Riemannian structure for  $\mathcal{M}$ , where the **Fisher Information matrix** plays the role of **metric tensor**

The direction of steepest ascent  $\Delta\xi$  in a Euclidean space for  $F$  can then be evaluated by minimizing  $F(\xi + \Delta\xi)$  with  $\|\Delta\xi\| = 1$

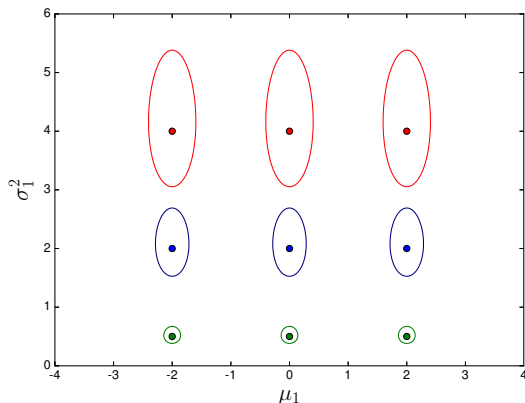
Amari replaces this constraint with the KL divergence

$$\begin{aligned} & \arg \min_{\Delta\xi} F(\xi + \Delta\xi) \\ & \text{s.t. } D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\xi}||p_{\xi+\Delta\xi}) = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$



# Example: The Gaussian Distribution

$\epsilon$ -ball of constant KL divergence,  $\epsilon = 0.02$



Let  $p_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$ , and  $p_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ ,

$$D_{\text{KL}}(p_0 \| p_1) = \log \frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_0} + \frac{\sigma_0^2 + (\mu_0 - \mu_1)^2}{2\sigma_1^2} - \frac{1}{2}$$

## Amari's Natural Gradient (1998) 1/2

By taking the second-order Taylor approximation of the KL divergence in  $\xi$  we get

$$\begin{aligned}D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\xi}||p_{\xi+\Delta\xi}) &= \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\log p_{\xi}] - \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\log p_{\xi+\Delta\xi}] \\&\approx \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\log p_{\xi}] - \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\log p_{\xi}] - \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[\nabla \log p_{\xi}]^T \Delta\xi + \\&\quad - \frac{1}{2} \Delta\xi^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi} [\nabla^2 \log p_{\xi}] \Delta\xi \\&= \frac{1}{2} \Delta\xi^T I(\xi) \Delta\xi,\end{aligned}$$

where  $I(\xi)$  is the Fisher Information matrix

$$\begin{aligned}I(\xi) &= -\mathbb{E}_{\xi} [\nabla^2 \log p_{\xi+\Delta\xi}] \\&= \mathbb{E}_{\xi} [\nabla \log p(\xi) \nabla \log p(\xi)^T]\end{aligned}$$

## Amari's Natural Gradient (1998) 2/2

We proceed by taking the first-order approximation of  $F(\boldsymbol{\xi} + \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi})$

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_{\Delta\boldsymbol{\xi}} \quad & F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi})^T \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \frac{1}{2} \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi}^T I_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

We apply the Lagrangian method, and solve for  $\Delta\boldsymbol{\xi}$

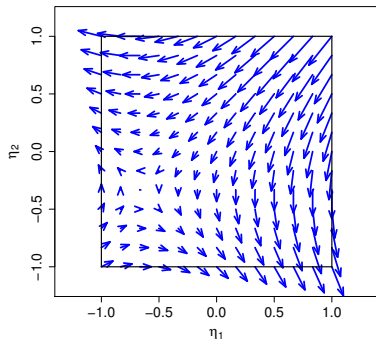
$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\Delta\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left( F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) + \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi})^T \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} - \lambda \frac{1}{2} \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi}^T I(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} \right) &= 0 \\ \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) - \lambda I(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} &= 0 \\ \Delta\boldsymbol{\xi} &= \lambda I(\boldsymbol{\xi})^{-1} \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) \end{aligned}$$

Such derivations lead to the **natural gradient** (Amari, 1998)

$$\widetilde{\nabla} F(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = I(\boldsymbol{\xi})^{-1} \nabla F(\boldsymbol{\xi})$$

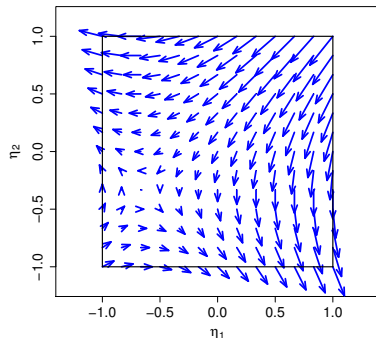
# Vanilla vs Natural Gradient: $\eta$

Vanilla gradient  $\nabla F(\eta)$

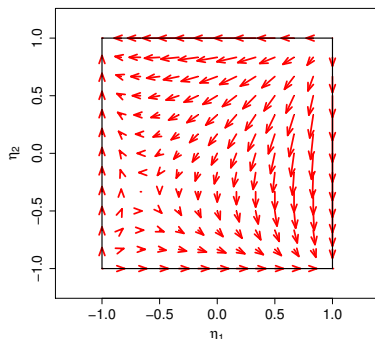


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Vanilla gradient  $\nabla F(\eta)$



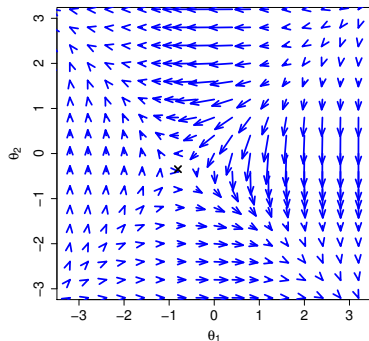
Natural gradient  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\eta)$



In both cases there exist two basins of attraction, however  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\eta)$  converges to  $\delta_x$  distributions, which are local optima for  $F(\eta)$  and where  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\delta_x) = 0$

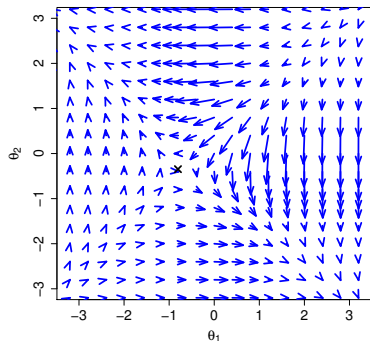
# Euclidean vs Natural Gradient: $\theta$

Vanilla gradient  $\nabla F(\theta)$

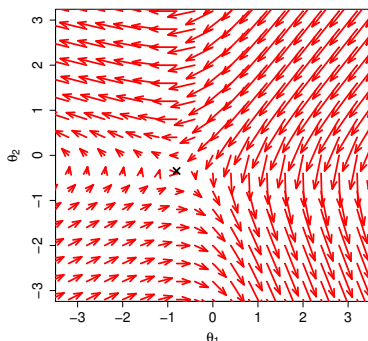


# Euclidean vs Natural Gradient: $\theta$

Vanilla gradient  $\nabla F(\theta)$



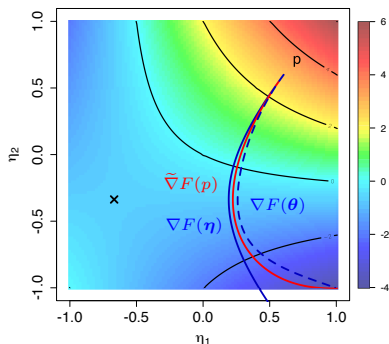
Natural gradient  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\theta)$



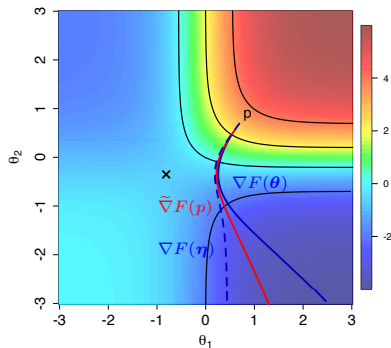
In both cases there exist two basins of attraction, however in the natural parameters  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\theta)$  “speeds up” over the plateaux

# Euclidean vs Natural Gradient

Expectation parameters  $\eta$



Natural parameters  $\theta$



Vanilla gradient  $\nabla F$  vs Natural gradient  $\tilde{\nabla} F$

The natural gradient flow is invariant to parameterization



# Riemannian Geometry of Statistical Manifolds

# Riemannian Geometry of Statistical Manifolds

In the previous slide the natural gradient has been derived by imposing a constant KL divergence

From a differential geometry point of view, the natural gradient corresponds to the **Riemannian gradient** over a statistical manifold endowed with the Fisher information metric

# The Exponential Family

In the following, we consider models in the **exponential family**  $\mathcal{E}$

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \theta_i T_i(\mathbf{x}) - \psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)$$

- ▶ sufficient statistics  $\mathbf{T} = (T_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, T_m(\mathbf{x}))$
- ▶ natural parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m) \in \Theta \subset \mathbb{R}^m$
- ▶ log-partition function  $\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

# Fisher Information Metric

The **tangent space** at each point  $p$  is defined by

$$\mathsf{T}_p\mathcal{M} = \{U(\boldsymbol{x}) : \mathbb{E}_p[U(\boldsymbol{x})] = 0\}$$

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Consider a curve  $p(\theta)$  such that  $p(0) = p$ , then  $\frac{\dot{p}}{p} \in T_p$

In a moving coordinate system, **tangent (velocity) vectors** in  $T_{p(\theta)}$  to the curve are given by logarithmic derivative

$$\frac{\dot{p}(\theta)}{p(\theta)} = \frac{d}{d\theta} \log p(\theta) \quad T_p\mathcal{M} = \text{Span}\{T_i(\mathbf{x}) - E_p[T_i(\mathbf{x})]\}$$

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The **tangent space** at each point  $p$  is defined by

$$\mathcal{T}_p \mathcal{M} = \{U(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{E}_p[U(\mathbf{x})] = 0\}$$

Consider a curve  $p(\theta)$  such that  $p(0) = p$ , then  $\frac{\dot{p}}{p} \in \mathcal{T}_p$

In a moving coordinate system, **tangent (velocity) vectors** in  $\mathcal{T}_{p(\theta)}$  to the curve are given by logarithmic derivative

$$\frac{\dot{p}(\theta)}{p(\theta)} = \frac{d}{d\theta} \log p(\theta) \quad \mathcal{T}_p \mathcal{M} = \text{Span}\{T_i(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}_p[T_i(\mathbf{x})]\}$$

The tangent space is provided with an **inner product**  $\langle U, V \rangle_p = \mathbb{E}_p[UV] = \mathbf{u}^T I(p) \mathbf{v}$  defined by the Fisher information matrix

$$I(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = [g_{ij}] = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left[ \frac{d}{d\theta_i} \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \frac{d}{d\theta_j} \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \right]$$

## Riemannian Natural Gradient

Let  $\mathcal{F}(p) : \mathcal{M} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  be a smooth function over  $(\mathcal{M}, g)$

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For each vector field  $U$  over  $\mathcal{M}$ , the **natural gradient** of  $\mathcal{F}(p)$ , i.e., the direction of steepest ascent is the unique vector that satisfies

$$g(\text{grad } \mathcal{F}, U) = D_U \mathcal{F},$$

where  $D_U \mathcal{F}$  is the directional derivative of  $\mathcal{F}$  in the direction  $U$



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Given a coordinate system  $\xi$  for  $\mathcal{M}$  we have

$$\tilde{\nabla} F(\xi) = \sum_{i,j=1}^d g^{ij} \frac{\partial F}{\partial \xi_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi_j} = I(\xi)^{-1} \nabla F(\xi)$$

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The **Riemannian gradient** depends on the metric  $g$  through  $I = [g_{ij}]$

We use  $\tilde{\nabla} F(\xi)$  to distinguish the natural gradient from the **vanilla gradient**  $\nabla F(\xi)$ , i.e., the vector of partial derivatives of  $F$  w. r. t.  $\xi$

# Natural Gradient in Machine Learning

Natural gradient (Amari, 1998) methods are becoming constantly popular in machine learning, e.g.,

- ▶ Training of Neural Networks (Amari, 1997) and recently Deep Learning (Ollivier et. al., 2014)
- ▶ Reinforcement learning and Markov Decision Processes (Kakade, 2001, Peters and Schaal, 2008)
- ▶ Stochastic Relaxation and Evolutionary Optimization (i.e., black-box derivative-free methods) (Wiestra et. al., 2008-14; Malagò et. al., 2011; Ollivier et. al., 2011, Akimoto et. al., 2012)
- ▶ Bayesian variational inference (Honkela et. al., 2008)
- ▶ Bayesian optimization
- ▶ and many others

# Information Geometry of the Gaussian Distribution in View of Stochastic Optimization

## References

L. Malagò, M. Matteucci, and G. Pistone  
Towards the geometry of estimation of distribution algorithms based on the exponential family  
In FOGA '11, pages 230–242, ACM, New York, NY, USA, 2011

# Context and Motivation

In this section we present an application of [Information Geometry](#) to the context [Random Search](#) optimization

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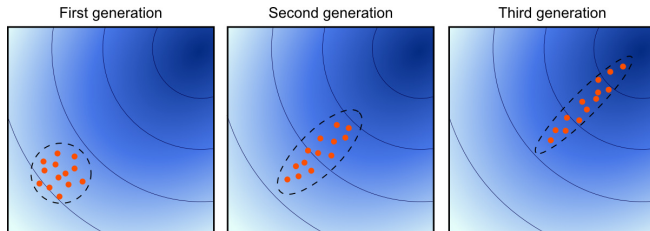
We study the case of **continuous** domains, where statistical model are **Gaussian distributions**



# A Small Example

A naïve **model-based** optimization algorithm is an iterative procedure based on

1. Sampling from a statistical model
2. Evaluation of the function over the sample
3. Updating of the parameters of the distribution



Source: Wikipedia, CMA-ES

# Optimization over Statistical Models

Algorithms and heuristics in **model-based** optimization

- ▶ Sampling, Selection and Estimation paradigm (EDAs, Larrañaga and Lozano, 2002, CE method, Rubinstein, 1997)
- ▶ Fitness Modeling (DEUM, Shakya et al., 2005)
- ▶ Covariance Matrix Adaptation (CMA-ES, Hansen et al., 2001), Natural Evolutionary Strategies (NES, Wierstra et al., 2008)
- ▶ Boltzmann distribution and Gibbs sampler (Geman and Geman, 1984), Simulated Annealing and Boltzmann Machines (Aarts and Korst, 1989)

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Many different fields of applications

- ▶ Random Search and Stochastic Optimization
- ▶ Policy Learning in Reinforcement Learning
- ▶ Neural Networks training
- ▶ Parameter estimation in Statistics

## Stochastic Relaxation in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Consider the unconstrained minimization problem of  $f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

$$(P) \quad \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

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Let  $\mathcal{M} = \{p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\xi})\}$  be a **statistical model** parametrized by some parameter vector  $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \Xi$

Define  $F(p) = \mathbb{E}_p[f] : \mathcal{M} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  and its parametric representation  $F_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}[f]$

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Define  $F(p) = \mathbb{E}_p[f] : \mathcal{M} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$  and its parametric representation  $F_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}[f]$

We look for the minimum of  $f$  by optimizing its **stochastic relaxation**

$$(SR) \quad \min_{\boldsymbol{\xi} \in \Xi} F(\boldsymbol{\xi})$$

Some hypothesis on  $\mathcal{M}$  are required for (R) and (SR) to be equivalent

# Gradient Descent

We need a **statistical model** for the relaxation of  $f$  defined over  $\mathbb{R}^n$

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→ A standard approach is **gradient descent**

$$\boldsymbol{\xi}^{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\xi}^t - \lambda \widetilde{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} F(\boldsymbol{\xi})$$

- ▶  $\widetilde{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} F(\boldsymbol{\xi})$  is the natural gradient vector
- ▶  $\lambda > 0$  is step size

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In **black-box** contexts  $f$  is unknown and can only be evaluated

## Amari's Natural Gradient

Why  $\tilde{\nabla}_{\xi} F(\xi)$  and not just  $\nabla_{\xi} F(\xi)$  ?

# Amari's Natural Gradient

Why  $\tilde{\nabla}_{\xi} F(\xi)$  and not just  $\nabla_{\xi} F(\xi)$  ?

At this point we should know that the geometry of  $\mathcal{M}$  is not Euclidean, Euclidean gradients are **not invariant** to reparametrization

$\tilde{\nabla}_{\xi} F(\xi)$  is the **natural gradient**, i.e., the direction of **steepest descent** evaluated over a statistical model

In general  $\tilde{\nabla}_{\xi} F(\xi)$  does not coincide with the vector of **partial derivatives** with respect to  $\xi$  denoted by  $\nabla_{\xi} F(\xi)$

# The Gaussian Distribution

## The multivariate Gaussian Distribution

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  is the mean vector
- ▶  $\Sigma$  is the covariance matrix

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- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$  is the mean vector
- ▶  $\Sigma$  is the covariance matrix

The Gaussian distribution belongs to the exponential family

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \boldsymbol{\theta}_i T_i(\mathbf{x}) - \psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})\right)$$

- ▶  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  natural parameters
- ▶  $\{T_i\}$  sufficient statistics
- ▶  $\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  log of the partition function

## Change of Parameters: from $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

By writing the Gaussian distribution as an exponential family

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{T} &= ((X_i), (X_i^2), (2X_i X_j)_{i < j})^T \\ &= ((T_i), (T_{ii}), (T_{ij})_{i < j})^T\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\theta} &= \left(\Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}, \left(-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{ii}\right), \left(-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{ij}\right)_{i < j}\right)^T \\ &= ((\theta_i), (\theta_{ii}), (\theta_{ij})_{i < j})^T\end{aligned}$$

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{4} \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\Theta}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\theta} - \frac{1}{2} \log | -2\boldsymbol{\Theta} |$$



## Change of Parameters: $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

Equivalently we represent  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}; \Theta)$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_i) = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

$$\Theta = \sum_i \theta_{ii} \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i^T + \sum_{i < j} \theta_{ij} (\mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_j^T + \mathbf{e}_j \mathbf{e}_i^T) = -\frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-1}$$

so that

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp(\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T \Theta \mathbf{x} - \psi(\boldsymbol{\theta}))$$

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$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_i)^T = \Sigma^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mu}$$

$$\Theta = [\theta_{ij}] = -\frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = -\frac{1}{2} \Theta^{-1} \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

$$\Sigma = -\frac{1}{2} \Theta^{-1}$$

## Dual Parameterization

Exponential families admit a dual parametrization given by the expectation parameters  $\boldsymbol{\eta} = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}[\boldsymbol{T}]$

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\eta} &= ((\mu_i), (\sigma_{ii} - \mu_i^2), (2\sigma_{ij} - 2\mu_i\mu_j)_{i < j})^T \\ &= ((\mu_i), (\eta_{ii}), (\eta_{ij})_{i < j})^T\end{aligned}$$

where  $\varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$  is the negative entropy of  $p$

$$\varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = -\frac{n}{2} (\log(2\pi) + 1) - \frac{1}{2} \log |E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T|$$

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where  $\varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$  is the **negative entropy** of  $p$

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The Gaussian distribution in the  $\boldsymbol{\eta}$  parameters becomes

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\eta}) &= \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\eta})^T (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\eta}) + \varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta}) + \frac{n}{2} \right) \\ &= \exp \left( \sum_{i=1}^k (T_i - \eta_i) \partial_i \varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta}) + \varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \right)\end{aligned}$$

## Change of Parameters: $(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma)$ and $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

Equivalently we represent  $\boldsymbol{\eta} = (\eta; E)$

$$\eta = (\eta_i) = \boldsymbol{\mu} ,$$

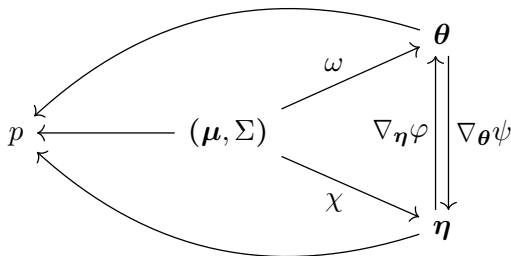
$$E = \sum_i \eta_{ii} \mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_i^T + \sum_{i < j} \eta_{ij} \frac{\mathbf{e}_i \mathbf{e}_j^T + \mathbf{e}_j \mathbf{e}_i^T}{2} = \Sigma + \boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\mu}^T$$

and

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \eta = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}[\mathbf{X}]$$

$$\Sigma = E - \eta \eta^T = \text{Cov}_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X})$$

## Change of Parameters: $(\mu, \Sigma)$ , $\eta$ and $\theta$

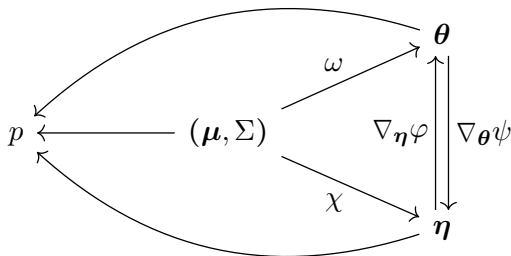


Variable transformations are given by

$$\eta = \nabla_{\theta}\psi(\theta) = (\nabla_{\eta}\varphi)^{-1}(\theta)$$

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The  $\theta$  and  $\eta$  are connected by the Legendre transform

$$\psi(\theta) + \varphi(\eta) - \langle \theta, \eta \rangle = 0$$

# Fisher Information Matrix

The geometry of  $\mathcal{M}$  is not Euclidean and the **metric tensor** is given by the Fisher information matrix

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} \left[ (\partial_i \log p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\xi})) (\partial_j \log p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\xi}))^T \right]$$

with  $\partial_i = \partial / \partial \xi_i$



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In the exponential family, the Fisher information in  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\eta}$  can be evaluated as the Hessian of the dual functions

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{Hess } \psi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \text{Hess } \varphi(\boldsymbol{\eta})$$

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In the Gaussian distribution the Fisher information matrix admits a closed formula (Miller, 1974)

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$$I_{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \left[ (\partial_i \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_j \boldsymbol{\mu}) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left( \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_i \Sigma) \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_j \Sigma) \right) \right]_{ij}$$

## Fisher Information Matrix

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Let  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  be a function of the parameter vector  $\xi$

$$I_{\xi}(\xi) = \left[ (\partial_i \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_j \mu) + \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left( \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_i \Sigma) \Sigma^{-1} (\partial_j \Sigma) \right) \right]_{ij}$$

When  $\mu$  and  $\Sigma$  depend on disjoint sets of parameters, such as in the mean and covariance parameterization,  $I_{\xi}(\xi)$  becomes block diagonal

## Fisher Information Matrix in $(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \Sigma)$

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Sigma}(\boldsymbol{\mu}; \Sigma) = \begin{matrix} & j & \\ & i & \\ & \Sigma^{-1} & \\ mn & \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} & kl \\ \hline 0 & \alpha_{klmn} \end{array} \right] & \end{matrix}$$

$$\alpha_{klmn} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(\sigma^{kk})^2, & \text{if } k = l = m = n \\ \sigma^{km}\sigma^{ln}, & \text{if } k = l \vee m = n \\ \sigma^{km}\sigma^{ln} + \sigma^{lm}\sigma^{kn}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Fisher Information Matrix in $\theta$

$$I_{\theta}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \times \begin{matrix} i & kl \\ j & \\ mn & \end{matrix} \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} -\Theta^{-1} & \Lambda_{kl}\theta \\ \hline \theta^T \Lambda_{mn} & \lambda_{klmn} - \theta^T \Lambda_{klmn} \theta \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Lambda_{kl} = \begin{cases} [\Theta^{-1}]_{\cdot k} [\Theta^{-1}]_{k \cdot} , & \text{if } k = l \\ [\Theta^{-1}]_{\cdot k} [\Theta^{-1}]_{l \cdot} + [\Theta^{-1}]_{\cdot l} [\Theta^{-1}]_{k \cdot} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\lambda_{klmn} = \begin{cases} [\Theta^{-1}]_{kk} [\Theta^{-1}]_{kk} , & \text{if } k = l = m = n \\ [\Theta^{-1}]_{km} [\Theta^{-1}]_{ln} + [\Theta^{-1}]_{lm} [\Theta^{-1}]_{kn} , & \text{if } k = l \vee m = n \\ 2 ([\Theta^{-1}]_{km} [\Theta^{-1}]_{ln} + [\Theta^{-1}]_{lm} [\Theta^{-1}]_{kn}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\Lambda_{klmn} = \begin{cases} [\Lambda_{kk}]_{\cdot m} [\Theta^{-1}]_{n \cdot} , & \text{if } k = l \\ [\Lambda_{kl}]_{\cdot m} [\Theta^{-1}]_{n \cdot} + [\Lambda_{kl}]_{\cdot n} [\Theta^{-1}]_{m \cdot} , & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Fisher Information Matrix in $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ 1/2

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \begin{matrix} & i & & kl \\ j & \Gamma & | & -K_{kl}\boldsymbol{\eta} \\ mn & \hline & -\boldsymbol{\eta}^T K_{mn} & | & \kappa_{klmn} \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma = & (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} + (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}\boldsymbol{\eta} + \\ & + (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}\boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

$$K_{kl} = \begin{cases} [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{\cdot k} [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{k \cdot} , & \text{if } k = l \\ \frac{1}{2} \left( [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{\cdot k} [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{l \cdot} + \right. \\ \quad \left. + [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{\cdot l} [ (E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1} ]_{k \cdot} \right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



## Fisher Information Matrix in $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ 2/2

$$I_{\boldsymbol{\eta}}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \begin{matrix} & i & & kl \\ j & \Gamma & & -K_{kl}\boldsymbol{\eta} \\ mn & \hline & -\boldsymbol{\eta}^T K_{mn} & & \kappa_{klmn} \end{matrix}$$

$$\kappa_{klmn} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{kk}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{kk} , & \text{if } k = l = m = n \\ \frac{1}{2}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{km}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{ln} , & \text{if } k = l \vee m = n \\ \frac{1}{4} \left( [(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{km}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{ln} + \right. & \\ \left. + [(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{lm}[(E - \boldsymbol{\eta}\boldsymbol{\eta}^T)^{-1}]_{kn} \right) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

## Reparameterization of $I_{\xi}$

- ▶ The Fisher information matrix can be reparametrized using the **chain rule** for differentiation

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# Duality Between Natural and Vanilla Gradients

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# Stochastic Natural Gradient Descent

Due to the properties of the exponential family

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Gradients can be estimated from a sample by means of **Monte Carlo methods**

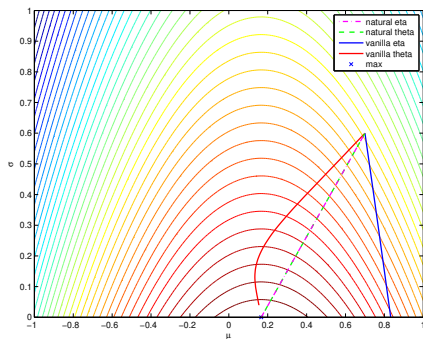
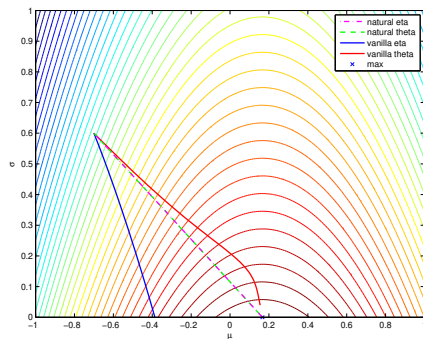
## Vanilla and Natural Gradient

- ▶ Vanilla and Natural **gradient flows** are the solutions of the following differential equations given an initial condition

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(t) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} F(\boldsymbol{\xi}(t)) \qquad \dot{\boldsymbol{\xi}}(t) = \widetilde{\nabla}_{\boldsymbol{\xi}} F(\boldsymbol{\xi}(t))$$

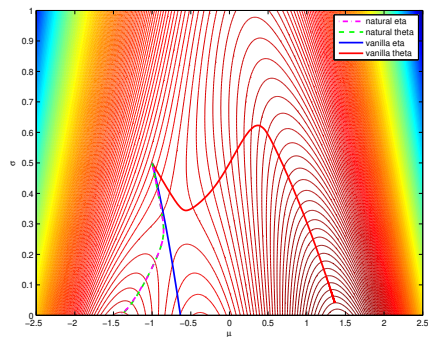
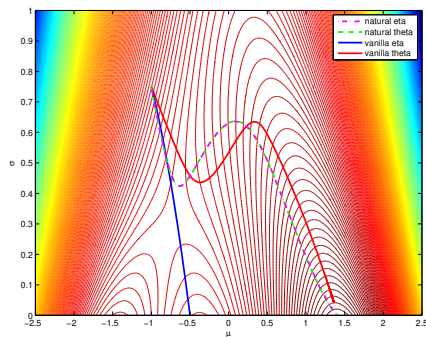
- ▶ Notice that flows represent the expected behavior of an algorithm for infinite sample size, when the step size is infinitesimal

# Quadratic functions in $\mathbb{R}$



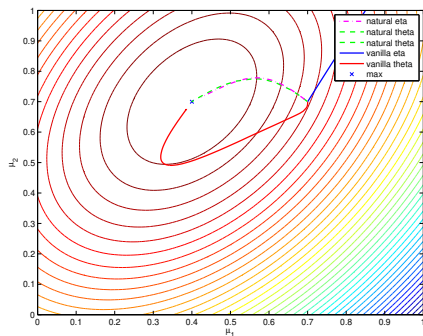
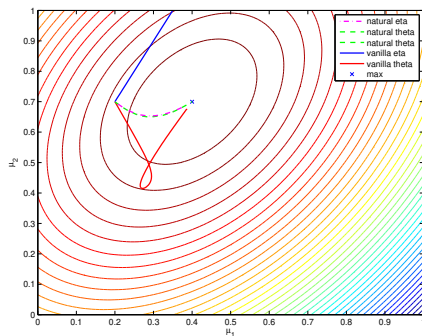
Vanilla and natural flows for  $f = x - 3x^2$ , represented in the parameter space  $(\mu, \sigma)$ . The level lines are associated to  $\mathbb{E}_{\mu, \sigma}[f]$ .

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Vanilla and natural flows for  $f = 6x + 8x^2 - x^3 - 2x^4$ , represented in the parameter space  $(\mu, \sigma)$ . The level lines are associated to  $\mathbb{E}_{\mu, \sigma}[f]$ .

# Quadratic functions in $\mathbb{R}^2$



Vanilla and natural flows for  $f = x_1 + 2x_2 - 3x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 - 2x_2^2$  projected onto  $(\mu_1, \mu_2)$ , with  $\sigma_{11} = 1, \sigma_{12} = -0.5, \sigma_{22} = 2$ . Level lines associated to  $f$ .

## Optimization in the $\theta$ parameters

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A zero entry  $\theta_{ij} = 0$  implies **conditional independence** among  $X_i$  and  $X_j$  given all the other variables, so that the sub-model has a statistical interpretation

# Convergence of Markov Random Fields

[Theorem FOGA'15] For lower-bounded, lower semicontinuous  $f$ , with compact level sets, such that  $f \in \text{Span}\{T_1, \dots, T_k\}$ , i.e.,

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i T_i + c_0$$

then the limits of **natural gradient flows** over the exponential family with sufficient statistics  $\{T_i\}$  **weakly converge** and are supported by the closed set where  $f$  reaches  $\text{ess inf } f$ . If the minimum is unique, we have global convergence to the delta mass at the minimum

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The result applies to the Gaussian distribution, and suggests to choose lower-dimensional models when  $f$  has **sparse interactions**.

# Applications to the training of Neural Networks

## References

C. Varady, R. Volpi, L. Malagò, and N. Ay.  
Natural Wake-Sleep Algorithm  
Neural Networks, 155 (2022)

# Sigmoid Belief Networks

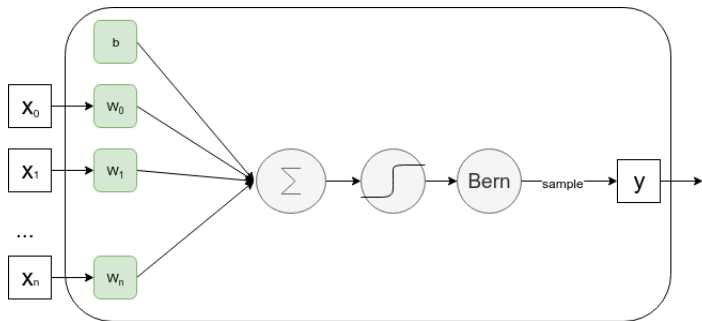


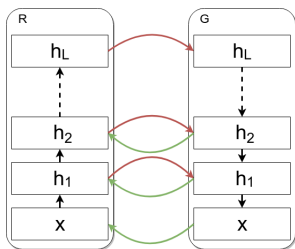
Figure: Node of a Sigmoid Belief Network

$$p(y|x) = \rho^y (1 - \rho)^{1-y}$$

$$\rho = \sigma(b + xW^T)$$

# Wake-Sleep Algorithm

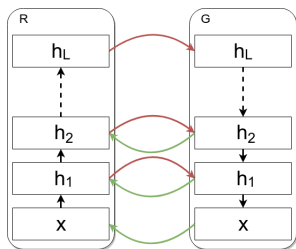
The Helmholtz [Machine Dayan et al., 1995] is a Sigmoid Belief Network constructed from a Generative and Recognition network to optimize the Helmholtz Free Energy. The Wake-Sleep algorithm [Hinton et al., 1995]



Helmholtz Machine  
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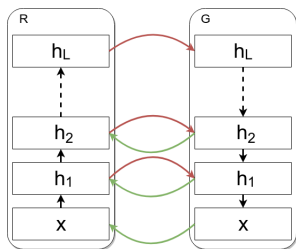
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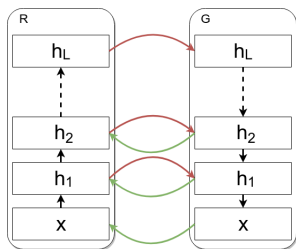
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$$\mathcal{L}_p(\theta, x \sim \mathcal{D}) = -\mathbb{E}_{h, x \sim q_\phi(h|x)} [\ln p(x, h)]$$

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$$\mathcal{L}_q(\phi, (x, h)) = -\mathbb{E}_{h, x \sim p_\theta(x, h)} [\ln q(h|x)]$$

- ▶ Convergence properties were studied by [Ikeda et al., 1999]

# The Fisher Matrix of a Helmholtz Machine

Natural Gradient follows the steepest descent by computing the inverse of the Fisher Information Matrix

$$\mathbf{F} = -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}(x,h)} \left[ \nabla_{\theta}^2 \ln p_{\theta}(x,h) \right] = -\mathbb{E}_{p_{\theta}(x,h)} \left[ \sum_{\substack{r,s \in N_i \\ i \in [0,L]}} \delta_{rs} \nabla_{\theta_r} \nabla_{\theta_s} \ln p(h_r^i | h^{i+1}; \theta_r) \right]$$

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The Fisher Matrix has been shown to be block-diagonal for specific architectures [Ay, 2002], in particular for the HM we can demonstrate

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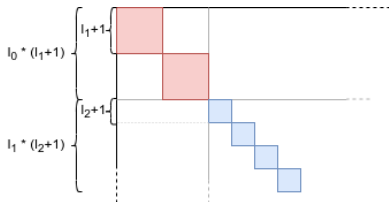
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The fine-grained block diagonal structure of the Fisher Matrix, where  $l_0, l_1, \dots$  are sizes of the layers:



The Fisher Matrices of both  $p$  and  $q$  are block-diagonal, largest block is of size  $l_0 \times l_0$ .

# Natural Reweighted Wake-Sleep

Extension of the Reweighted Wake-Sleep [Bornschein and Bengio, 2014a]:

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- ▶ **Wake** phase: update the  $\nabla_G \mathcal{L}_p$  with the inverse Fisher Matrix of the Generation Network

$$\tilde{\nabla}_G \mathcal{L}_p(\theta, x \sim \mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{F}_G^{-1}(\theta) \mathbb{E}_{q(h|x)} [\nabla_G \ln p(x, h)]$$

- ▶ **Wake** phase **q** update:  $\nabla_R \mathcal{L}_q$  with the inverse Fisher Matrix of the Recognition Network and samples from the dataset:

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- ▶ **Sleep** phase:  $\nabla_R \mathcal{L}_q$  with the inverse Fisher Matrix of the Recognition Network

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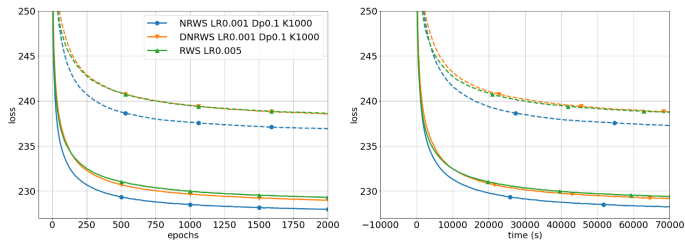
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## Computation

- ▶ The estimation of the FIMs is done by Monte-Carlo sampling
- ▶ The inverse of FIM is stabilized by Tikhonov Regularization and sped up by using the Sherman-Morrison formula.

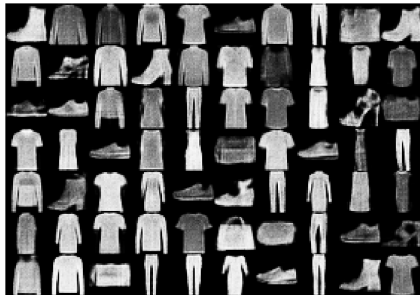


# Results on the FashionMNIST Dataset

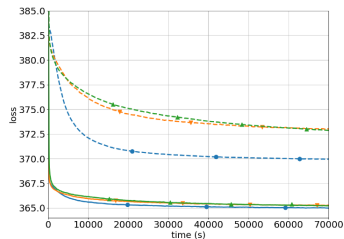
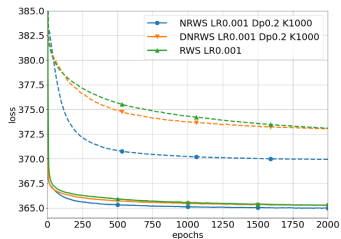


(left) Loss in epochs (left), in seconds (right).

## Generated Images - FashionMNIST



# Results on the TFD Dataset



(left) Loss in epochs (left), in seconds (right).

## Generated Images - TFD Dataset



## Take Home Message

The geometry of statistical models is rich, Riemannian Fisher-Rao geometry is just one component

Dually-flat geometries play a key role in the computation of the natural gradient, since they allow to obtain simplified formula

Natural gradient finds multiple applications in optimization: the key aspect is the choice of models and parametrization which allow computation in large dimensions

# Thanks for Your Attention!

For any question feel free to get in contact `malago@tins.ro`