

Computational Information Geometry

From Euclidean to flat Pythagorean geometries

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High-dimensional datasets abound in applications

Heterogeneous feature **vector** spaces

$$(\mathcal{F} = \prod_{i=1}^m \mathcal{F}_i).$$

Noisy datasets

- Image indexing and searching,
($\mathcal{F}$: color, texture, shape, location, etc.)
- Sound/speech processing,
($\mathcal{F}$: loudness, pitch, timbre, textures, etc.)
- Hypertext documents,
($\mathcal{F}$: words, out-links, in-links, etc.)
- XML data objects,
($\mathcal{F}$: textual/referential/graphical/numerical/categorical features.)
- Social networks, bio-informatics, etc.

21st Century data processing challenges

Practitioners.

- Which distance function is most **appropriate** ?
- Does my algorithmic toolbox **handles** that distance?

Theoreticians.

- Recover **intrinsic dimensionality** (eg., MST & entropy),
→ Degree of freedom of datasets (eg., dof. of face illumination)
- Recover **topology** (eg., theory of zigzag persistence),
- Recover **intrinsic geometry** (eg., distance learning, invariants)

Computational information geometry: Customize geometries to datasets, generic non-Euclidean algorithmic toolboxes.

George E. P. Box (Statistician)

All models are false but some models are useful.

Lecture plan

Part I. Extending Euclidean algorithms to Bregman divergences :

- From Lloyd to modern k -means clustering,
- Bregman k -means,
- Bregman soft clustering
(*expectation-maximization of mixture models made easy*),

Part II. Information geometry, flat and curved spaces :

- Nearest neighbor queries: Bregman ball trees and vantage point trees
- Bregman smallest enclosing balls
- Bregman Voronoi and dual Bregman triangulations
- Geometrization of statistics (differential geometry/invariance)

Clustering with k -means

— Les nuées dynamiques —



Lloyd's iterative k -means refinement

Vector quantization (VQ)

(codeword $\in$ codebook for compression/transmission; rate distortion theory)

Hard clustering : Find a **partition** of $\mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ into k **clusters** $\mathcal{V}_1, \dots, \mathcal{V}_k$ such as to minimize the **intra-cluster variance** :

$$L(\mathcal{V}) = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^k \underbrace{\sum_{v_j \in \mathcal{V}_i} \|v_j - c_i\|^2}_{\text{cluster}}}_{\text{partition } \mathcal{V} = \uplus_{i=1}^k \mathcal{V}_i} \geq 0$$

- Initialization: Seed $\{c_i\}_{i=1}^k$ uniformly chosen at random from $\mathcal{V}$ [Forgy].
- Repeat until convergence:

Assignment. Assign vectors to their **nearest cluster**

$$\forall i, \mathcal{V}_i = \{v_j \mid \|v_j - c_i\| \leq \|v_j - c_l\| \ \forall l \in \{1, \dots, k\}\}$$

Cluster relocation. Update cluster center c_i as the **centroid** of $\mathcal{V}_i$

$$c_i = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{V}_i|} \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}_i} v \text{ (=center of mass)}$$

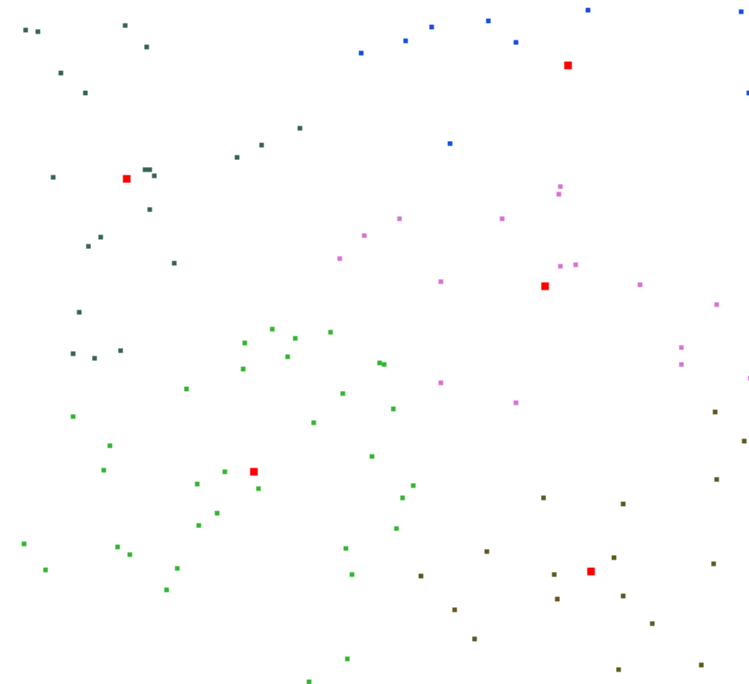
k -means: Potential/loss function

$$L(\mathcal{V}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{v_j \in \mathcal{V}_i} \|v_j - c_i\|^2 \geq 0$$

L **monotonically** converges. Lloyd' iterations only minimize **locally** L .

All clusters are always **non-empty**

Never repeat a configuration: upper bound #iter = $O(k^n)$



Loss function=3.4778652391084526 Iteration:5

→ repeat until convergence (**local minimum**)

Framework for a generic k -means paradigm

- Initialize cluster centers from randomly choosing k seeds
- Repeat until convergence
 - **Partition assignment** : Allocate points to their nearest cluster center
 - **Center relocation** : Adjust centers of each cluster

Properties of k -means:

- Potential (loss) function **monotonically** decreases
(and hence converge): $L_D(\mathcal{V}) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{v_i \in C_j} D(v_i, c_j) \geq 0$
- Center relocation of each cluster can be solved as a MINAVG optimization: $c^* = \arg \min_c \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} D(v, c)$

Some k -means-like algorithms

For example,

- Euclidean (Lloyd) k -means: $D(p, q) = \|p - q\|^2$ ($\rightarrow$ center of mass)
- Spherical k -means: relocate $\frac{\sum_i v_i}{\|\sum_i v_i\|}$ (centers lie on unit sphere)
- Convex k -means
(assume convexity of $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ in the *second* argument)

Convex k -means [Modha & Spangler, 2003]

A Unified Continuous Optimization Framework for Center-Based Clustering Methods
[Teboulle, JMLR 2007].

k -means with MINAVG optimizer as the centroid

- Initialize k seeds
- Repeat until convergence
 - **Partition assignment** : Allocate points to their nearest center wrt. D
 - **Center relocation** : Move the cluster center to the **cluster centroid**

Problem: Find class of distances D that yield centroid as the MINAVG minimizer

Bregman divergences are the **only** distances such that MINAVG optimizer is the data centroid.

(**Only** the distance change in your k -means code! $\|p - q\|^2 \rightarrow D(p, q)$)

- Bregman k -means [Banerjee et al., JMLR'2005]
- Axiomatization and **exhaustiveness** :
On the optimality of conditional expectation as a Bregman predictor [IEEE TIT'05]

Bregman divergences B_F

Bregman generator : **Strictly convex** and **differentiable** function F .

For scalars: $B_f(p||q) = f(p) - f(q) - (p - q)f'(q)$ with $f'(x)$ the derivative function.

For vectors: $B_F(p||q) = F(p) - F(q) - \langle p - q, \nabla F(q) \rangle$ with $\nabla F(x) = [\frac{\partial F(x)}{\partial x_i}]_i^T$ the gradient vector, and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ the inner product.

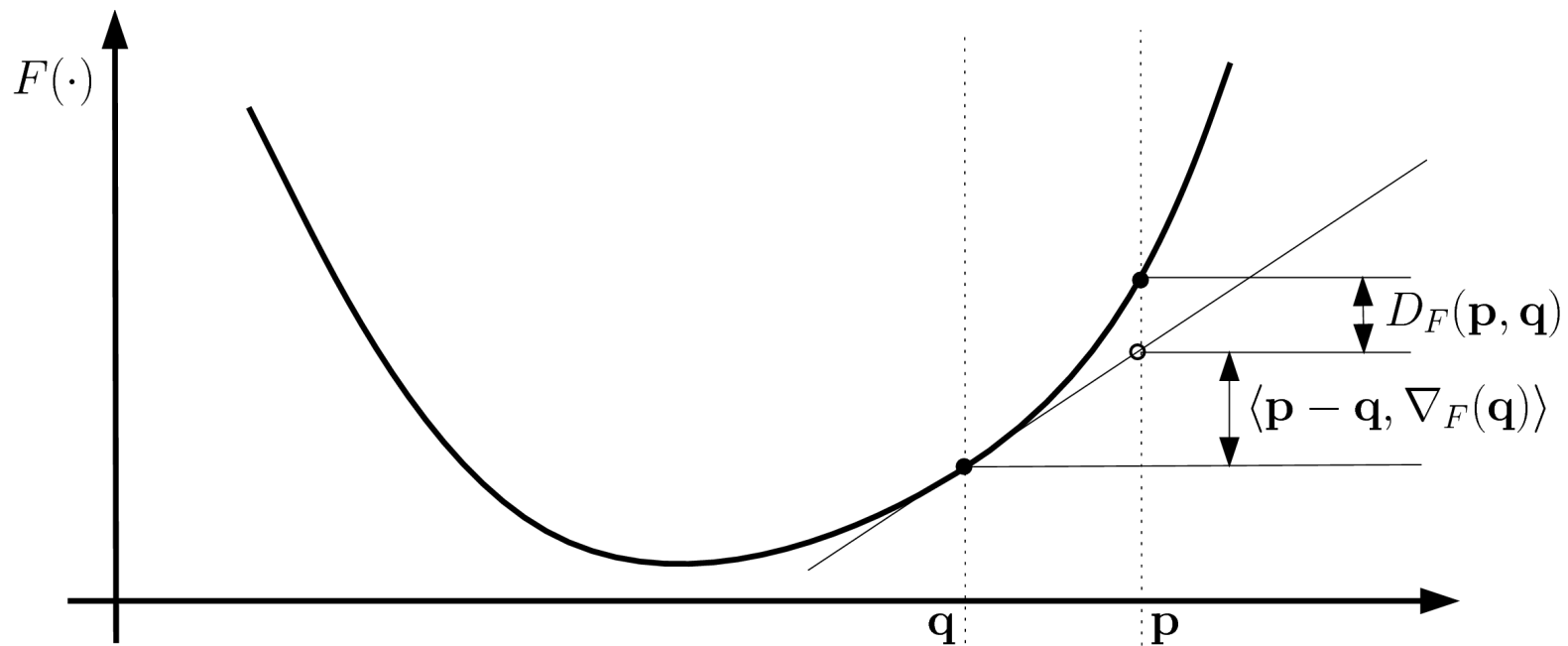
Strictly convex F : Hessian $\nabla^2 F \succ 0$ (psd.) $\longrightarrow \nabla F$ is monotonous.

Separable Bregman divergences: $F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d f_i(x_i)$.

Bregman divergences: A geometric visualization

Potential function f , graph plot $\mathcal{F} : (x, f(x))$.

$$B_f(p||q) = f(p) - f(q) - (p - q)f'(q)$$

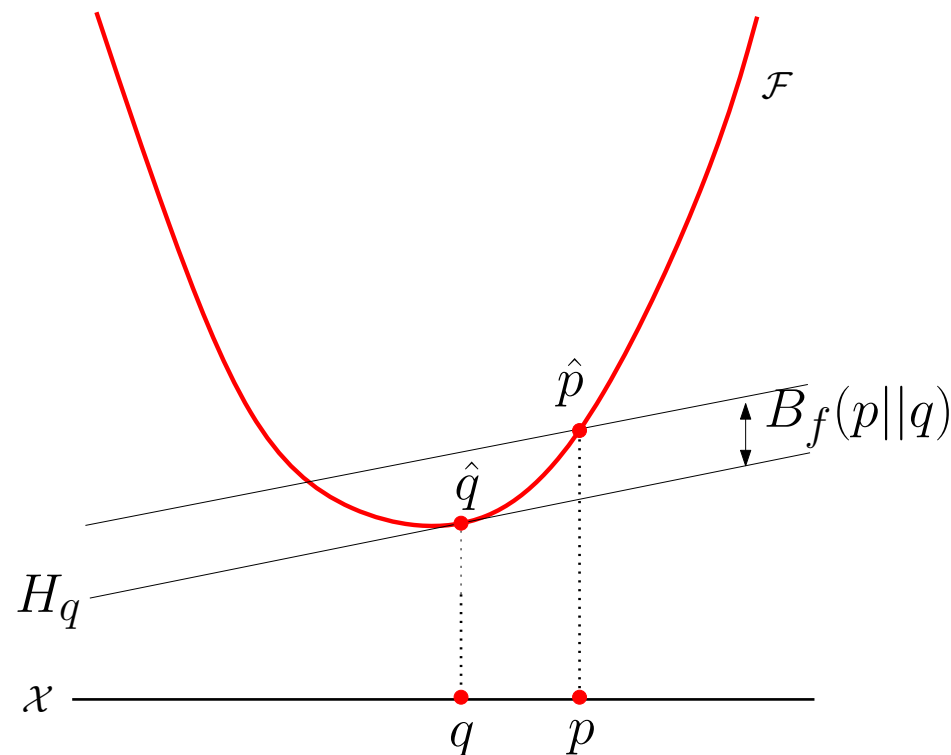


<http://www.sonycs1.co.jp/person/nielsen/BregmanDivergence/>

Bregman divergences: Another geometric visualization

Potential function f , graph plot $\mathcal{F} : (x, f(x))$.

$$B_f(p||q) = f(p) - f(q) - (p - q)f'(q)$$



$D_f(.||q)$ depicted by the vertical distance between the hyperplane H_q tangent to $\mathcal{F}$ at lifted point $\hat{q}$, and the translated hyperplane at $\hat{p}$.

Squared Euclidean distance (aka. L_2^2)

Take $F(x) = x^T x$. Gradient $\nabla F(x) = 2x$.

$$\begin{aligned} B_F(p, q) &= F(p) - F(q) - (p - q)^T \nabla F(q) \\ &= p^T p + q^T q - 2p^T q \\ &= \|p - q\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Squared Euclidean distance is a Bregman divergence.

Squared Euclidean distance is not a metric: Triangle inequality **fails**.

E.g., $q = 2p$ and $r = \frac{3}{2}p$.

However Euclidean distance is a metric (with triangular inequality).

→ Many square root symmetrized Bregman divergences are metrics iff. $(\log f'')'' \geq 0$ [Chen'08].

For example, the square root of Jensen-Shannon divergence.

Metrics defined by Bregman Divergences, Commun. Math. Sci. 6(4) 4 (2008), 915-926.

Entropy H , uncertainty and information

The **entropy** of a random variable X is its amount of **uncertainty** .
Shannon entropy [1948, communication in noisy/gaussian channels]:

Discrete random variable:

$X \sim \{E_1, \dots, E_n\}$ with $\Pr(X = E_i) \stackrel{\text{equal}}{=} p_i$ (**probability mass function**):
$$H(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 p_i \text{ (in bits, or nats for base } e)$$

Continuous random variable:

$X \sim \mathcal{X}$ with $\Pr(X = x) \stackrel{\text{equal}}{=} p(x)$ (**probability density function**):
$$H(X) = \int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p(x) \log_2 \frac{1}{p(x)} dx = - \int p(x) \log p(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{X}}[-\log p(X)]$$

Two remarkable facts:

- Maximum uncertainty (entropy) is obtained for the **uniform distribution** :
$$0 \leq H(X) \leq \log n$$
- Maximum entropy for unit variance pdf. is the **Gaussian distribution** .

Cross-entropy $H^\times$

Measures the average number of bits needed to identify an event from a set of possibilities **when** a coding scheme is used based on a given probability distribution $\tilde{P}$, rather than the true (unknown) distribution P .

$$H^\times(P||\tilde{P}) = \mathbb{E}_P[-\log p(\tilde{P})] \geq H(P) \geq 0$$

In modeling probability, P is the *true/target* distribution and $\tilde{P}$ is the **model**.

The closer the cross-entropy is to the entropy, the better the model .

(for $\tilde{P} = P$, $H^\times(P||P) = H(P)$).

● Discrete rv.: $H^\times(P||\tilde{P}) = \sum_i p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{\tilde{p}_i} = -\sum_i p_i \log_2 \tilde{p}_i$

● Continuous rv.:

$$H^\times(P||\tilde{P}) = \int p(x) \log_2 \frac{1}{\tilde{p}(x)} dx = -\int_x p(x) \log_2 \tilde{p}(x) dx$$

Statistical distance: Relative entropy (KL)

The **Kullback-Leibler** measures the **divergence** between two distributions.

$$D(P||\tilde{P}) = H^\times(P||\tilde{P}) - H(P) \geq 0$$

KL = cross-entropy of true/model distributions minus the true entropy.

Expected extra message-length per symbol that must be communicated if a code for a given (approximated) distribution $\tilde{P}$ is used instead of optimal P [Covers & Thomas'06].

For probability mass functions:

$$D(P||\tilde{P}) = \sum_i p_i \log_2 \frac{p_i}{\tilde{p}_i} \quad D(P||\tilde{P}) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} p(x) \log_2 \frac{p(x)}{\tilde{p}(x)} dx$$

Many synonyms: Information discrimination, relative entropy, etc.

Relative entropy is also a Bregman divergence

Bregman divergence on probability measures p, q :

$$B_f(p||q) = \int (f(p) - f(q) - (p - q)f'(q)) \, d\mu$$

Take $f(x) = x \log x = -x \log \frac{1}{x}$, the **negative (convex) Shannon entropy** (with $f'(x) = 1 + \log x$ and $f''(x) = \frac{1}{x} > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}_*^+$):

$$\begin{aligned} B_f(p(x)||q(x)) &= \int (p(x) \log p(x) - q(x) \log q(x) - (p(x) - q(x))(1 + \log q(x))) \, d\mu \\ &= \int \left(p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right) \, d\mu - \underbrace{\int p(x) \, d\mu}_{=1} + \underbrace{\int q(x) \, d\mu}_{=1} \\ &= \int \left(p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \right) \, d\mu = D(p(x)||q(x)) \end{aligned}$$

(I-divergence is KL divergence for **unnormalized** measures)

Bregman k -means

Bregman divergences **unify** geometric **squared Euclidean distance** with entropic asymmetric **Kullback-Leibler divergence** .

Bregman divergences are always convex in the first argument but may *not* be convex in the second argument (eg., $F(x) = -\log x$, the Burg entropy).

Thus Bregman k -means is not necessarily a convex k -means [Modha & Spangler'03] (actually, it is! -:) using Legendre transformation).

However, the right-side MINAVG optimization problem **surprisingly** always yield the **centroid** (center of mass) as the minimizer.

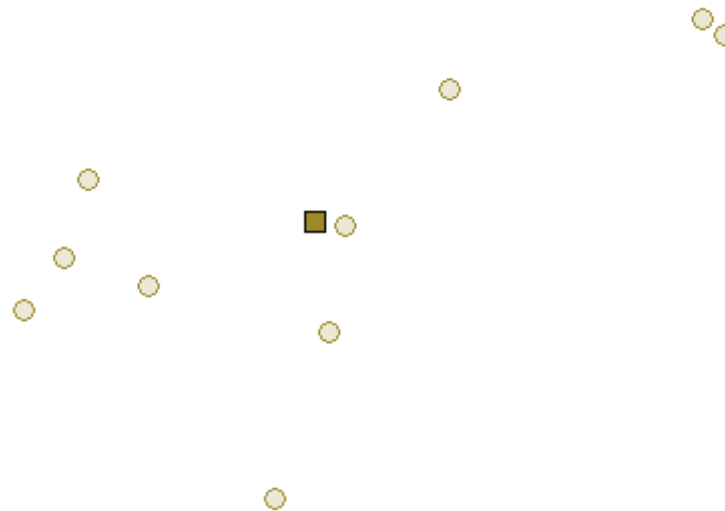
→ Bregman divergences allows us to generalize Lloyd k -means.

Bregman representative and Bregman information

Bregman representative : center cluster, (Bregman) centroid

Bregman information : minimum loss function $I_F(\mathcal{P}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i B_F(p_i || \bar{p})$,
center radius, Bregman/information radius

For squared Euclidean distance, Bregman information = **cluster variance** .



Sample variance $\frac{1}{n} \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2$.

(For Kullback-Leibler divergence, it is *related* to the **mutual information** .)

Quantization: Potential/loss function of k -means

A careful **rewriting** of the loss function yields [Duda et al., 2001]:

$$L_F(\mathcal{P}; \mathcal{C}) = I_F(\mathcal{P}) - I_F(\mathcal{C})$$

$I_F(\mathcal{P})$ total Bregman information

$I_F(\mathcal{C})$ between-cluster Bregman information

$L_F(\mathcal{P})$ within-cluster Bregman information

total Bregman information = within-cluster Bregman information + between-cluster Bregman information.

$$I_F(\mathcal{P}) = L_F(\mathcal{P}; \mathcal{C}) + I_F(\mathcal{C})$$

Bregman clustering amounts to find the partition $\mathcal{C}$ such that minimizes the information loss:

$$L_F^*(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}) = \min_{\mathcal{C}} (I_F(\mathcal{P}) - I_F(\mathcal{C}))$$

...preserve as much as possible Bregman information.

Bregman k -means: Unifying former algorithms

Bregman generator	Bregman divergence	Clustering algorithm
Squared norm	Squared loss	k -means (1956, 1957)
Negative Shannon entropy	Kullback-Leibler divergence	Information-theoretic clustering (2003)
Burg entropy	Itakura-Saito divergence	Linde-Buo-Gray (1980)
... F ...	... B_F ...	...Bregman k -means...

Bregman k -means yields a **parametric** family of clustering algorithms.

→ **Meta-algorithm** .

Key question: How to choose F ?

→ Many works involve generalized quadratic/Mahalanobis distances.

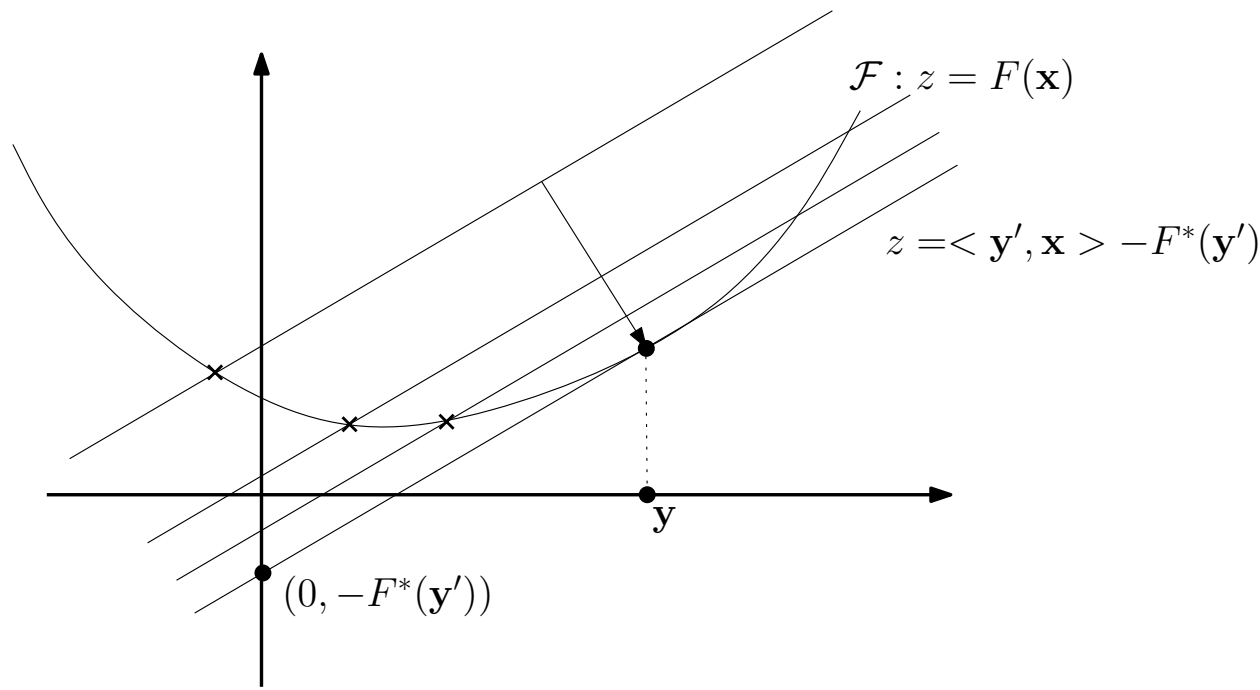
Legendre transformation: Convex conjugates

Let F^* be the **Legendre convex conjugate** of F :

$$F^*(y) = \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \{ \langle y, x \rangle - F(x) \}.$$

The supremum is reached at the *unique* point y where the gradient of $F^*(x) = \langle y, x \rangle - F(x)$ vanishes: $\frac{\partial F^*(x)}{\partial x} = 0 \implies y = \nabla F(x)$.

Convex functions come **pairwise** with their domains: $(F, \mathcal{X}) \Leftrightarrow (F^*, \mathcal{X}^*)$



Computing Legendre transformation

Legendre transformation = slope transformation
(dual parameterizations of convex functions: $x, \nabla F(x)$)

In practice:

- Get ∇F from F (easy, fully automatic)
- Compute **reciprocal gradient** : $(\nabla F)^{-1} = \nabla F^*$
(For non-closed form solutions, perform Householder's root-finding algorithm)
- Compute integral $F^* = \int \nabla F^* = \int (\nabla F)^{-1}$
(can be tricky too)

$$\boxed{(F^*)^* = F}$$

For example, consider $f(x) = \exp x$, $f'(x) = \exp x$, $f' * (y) = \log y$,
 $\Rightarrow f^*(y) = y \log y - y$.

Dual Bregman divergences

Follows from the Legendre transformation:

$$B_F(p||q) = F(p) + F^*(\nabla F(q)) - \langle p, \nabla F(q) \rangle = B_{F^*}(\nabla F(q)||\nabla F(p))$$

Dual divergences :

$$B_F(p||q) = B_{F^*}(\nabla F(q)||\nabla F(p)) \quad \forall (p, q) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$$

$$B_{F^*}(r||s) = B_F(\nabla F^*(s)||\nabla F^*(r)) \quad \forall (r, s) \in \mathcal{X}^* \times \mathcal{X}^*$$

(See information geometric interpretation and canonical divergences)

Generalized means: f -means

A sequence $\mathcal{V}$ of n real numbers $\mathcal{V} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$
 f -means:

$$M(\mathcal{V}; f) = f^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(v_i) \right)$$

Pythagoras' means :

- Arithmetic: $f(x) = x$
- Geometric: $f(x) = \log x$
- Harmonic: $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

Property:

$$\min_i x_i \leq M(\mathcal{V}; f) \leq \max_i x_i$$

Note: min and max are **power means** ($f(x) = x^p$) for $p \rightarrow \pm\infty$

Left-sided and right-sided Bregman barycenters

The *right-sided barycenter* $b_F(w)$ is **independent** of F and computed as the **weighted arithmetic mean** on the point set, a generalized mean for the identity function: $b_F(\mathcal{P}; w) = b(\mathcal{P}; w) = M(\mathcal{P}; x; w)$ with $M(\mathcal{P}; f; w) = f^{-1}(\sum_{i=1}^n w_i f(v_i))$.

The *left-sided Bregman barycenter* b_F^* is computed as a **generalized mean** on the point set for the gradient function ∇F : $b_F^*(\mathcal{P}) = M(\mathcal{P}; \nabla F; w)$.

The **Bregman information** (information radius) of sided barycenters is a **F -Jensen remainder** (also known as Burbea-Rao divergences):

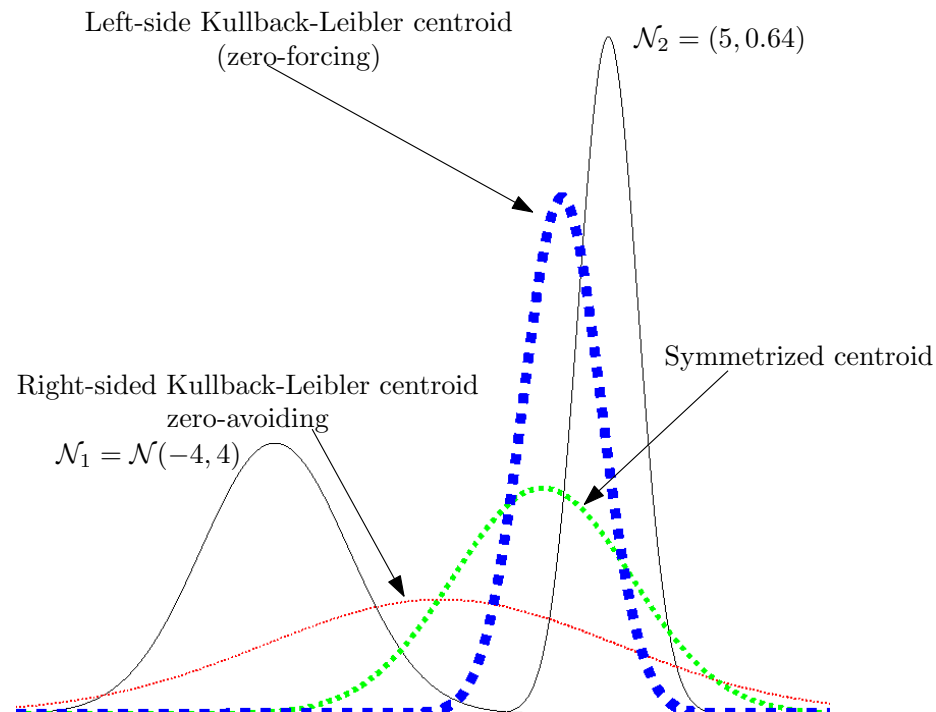
$$\text{JS}_F(\mathcal{P}; w) = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i F(p_i) - F\left(\sum_{i=1}^d w_i p_i\right) \geq 0$$

(Jensen's inequality)

Left-sided or right-sided centroids (k -means) ?

Left/right Bregman centroids=Right/left entropic centroids (KL of exp. fam.)
Left-sided/right-sided centroids: *different* (statistical) properties:

- **Right-sided entropic centroid** : **zero-avoiding** (cover support of pdfs.)
- **Left-sided entropic centroid** : **zero-forcing** (captures highest mode).



Soft clustering & EM algorithm

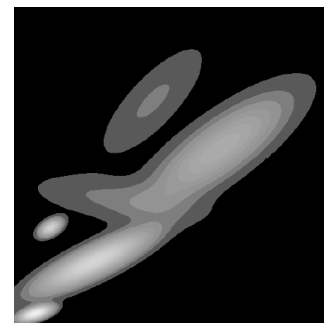
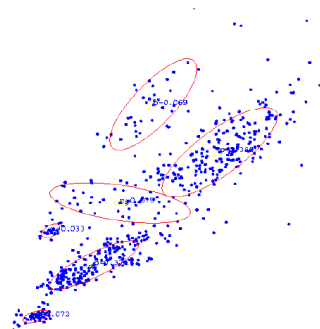
Soft clustering: each point belongs to all clusters according to a weight distribution (=density). → statistical modeling

Gaussian mixture models (GMMs, MoGs: mixture of Gaussians):

Probabilistic modeling of data:

$\Pr(X = x) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \Pr(X = x | \mu_i, \Sigma_i)$ (with $\sum_i w_i = 1$ and all $w_i \geq 0$).

$$\Pr(X = x | \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right\}.$$



Similar to k -means, soft clustering wrt. to **log-likelihood** is minimized by the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm [Dempster'77]

Exponential families in statistics

→ Workhorses of probabilistic modeling.

Canonical decomposition of the probability measures:

$$p_F(x|\theta) = \exp(\langle t(x), \theta \rangle - F(\theta) + k(x))$$

- F : **log-normalizer** , **strictly convex function** characterizing the family: Gaussian, Multinomial, Poisson, Beta, Gamma, Rayleigh, Weibull, Wishart, von Mises, etc. (∞ many)
- θ : **natural parameters** (fix a family member)
- $t(x)$: **sufficient statistics** (for recovering parameters from observations)
- $k(x)$: **carrier measure** (usually Lebesgue or counting)

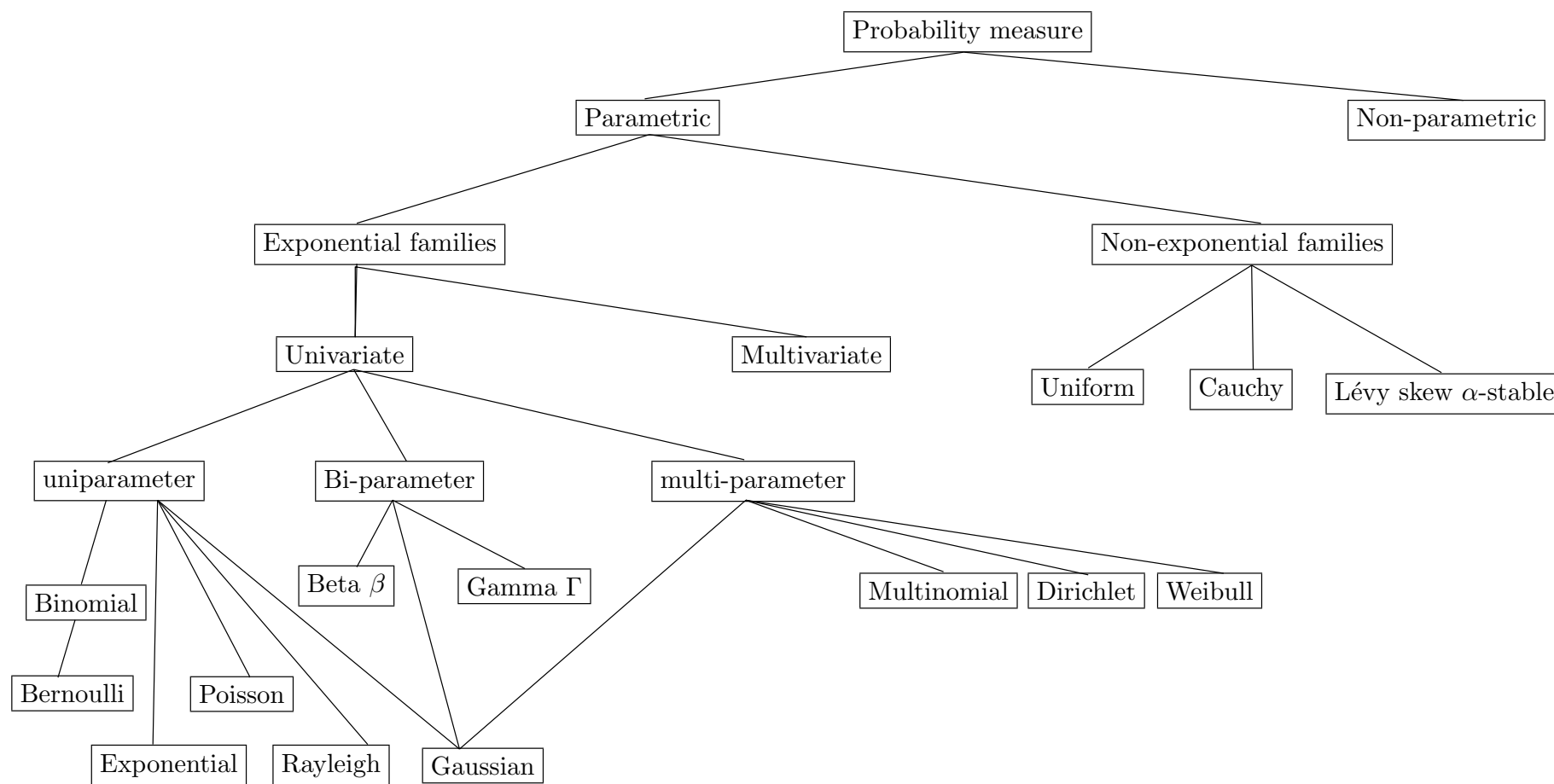
Log normalizer : From $\int_{x \in \mathcal{X}} p_F(x|\theta) dx = 1$

$$\Rightarrow F(\theta) = \log \int e^{\langle t(x), \theta \rangle + k(x)} dx$$

Exponential family = **log-linear model** .

(Convex conjugate F^* : negative entropy)

A taxonomy of probability measures



Expectation and variance of exponential families

$$X \sim p_F(\theta)$$

● Expectation:

$$E[t(X)] = \nabla F(\theta)$$

● Variance:

$$\text{var}[t(X)] = \nabla^2 F(\theta)$$

(for natural sufficient statistics $t(X)$ s)

Exponential families have always **finite moments** . F is C^∞
(incl. expectations & variances.)

($\rightarrow$ Cauchy distributions have not finite moments, $\rightarrow$ do not belong to the exponential families).

Example of exponential families: Gaussian distributions

Multivariate normal distributions of $\mathbb{R}^d$ has following pdf.:

$$\Pr(X = x) = p(x; \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{d}{2}} \sqrt{\det \Sigma}} \exp \left(-\frac{(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)}{2} \right)$$

Σ : Variance/covariance matrix (=dispersion matrix)

Source parameter is a **mixed-type** of *vector* $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and *matrix* $\Sigma \succ 0$:

$$\tilde{\Lambda} = (\mu, \Sigma)$$

Order of the parametric distribution:

$$D = d + \underbrace{\frac{d+1}{2}}_{\text{symmetric psd.}} = \frac{d(d+3)}{2} > d.$$

$\Sigma \succ 0$ is symmetric psd.

(cone of positive semidefinite matrices)

Multivariate normals: Canonical decomposition

Multivariate normal distribution belongs to the exponential families:

$$\exp(\langle \theta, t(x) \rangle - F(\theta) + C(x))$$

- Sufficient statistics: $\tilde{x} = (x, -\frac{1}{2}xx^T)$ ($\rightarrow$ mean & sample covariance)
- Natural parameters: $\tilde{\Theta} = (\theta, \Theta) = (\Sigma^{-1}\mu, \frac{1}{2}\Sigma^{-1})$
- Log normalizer:

$$F(\tilde{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{4}\text{Tr}(\Theta^{-1}\theta\theta^T) - \frac{1}{2}\log\det\Theta + \frac{d}{2}\log\pi$$

Mixed-type separable inner product:

$$\langle \tilde{\Theta}_p, \tilde{\Theta}_q \rangle = \langle \Theta_p, \Theta_q \rangle + \langle \theta_p, \theta_q \rangle$$

with **matrix inner product** defined as:

$$\langle \Theta_p, \Theta_q \rangle = \text{Tr}(\Theta_p \Theta_q^T)$$

Multivariate normals: Dual Legendre log normalizers

$$F(\tilde{\Theta}) = \frac{1}{4} \text{Tr}(\Theta^{-1} \theta \theta^T) - \frac{1}{2} \log \det \Theta + \frac{d}{2} \log \pi$$

$$F^*(\tilde{H}) = -\frac{1}{2} \log(1 + \eta^T H^{-1} \eta) - \frac{1}{2} \log \det(-H) - \frac{d}{2} \log(2\pi e)$$

Converting parameters: $\tilde{H} \leftrightarrow \tilde{\Theta} \leftrightarrow \Lambda$

$$\tilde{H} = \begin{pmatrix} \eta = \mu \\ H = -(\Sigma + \mu \mu^T) \end{pmatrix} \iff \tilde{\Lambda} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda = \mu \\ \Lambda = \Sigma \end{pmatrix} \iff \tilde{\Theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \theta = \Sigma^{-1} \mu \\ \Theta = \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{H} = \nabla_{\tilde{\Theta}} F(\tilde{\Theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{\tilde{\Theta}} F(\theta) \\ \nabla_{\tilde{\Theta}} F(\Theta) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \Theta^{-1} \theta \\ -\frac{1}{2} \Theta^{-1} - \frac{1}{4} (\Theta^{-1} \theta) (\Theta^{-1} \theta)^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ -(\Sigma + \mu \mu^T) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\tilde{\Theta} = \nabla_{\tilde{H}} F^*(\tilde{H}) = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{\tilde{H}} F^*(\eta) \\ \nabla_{\tilde{H}} F^*(H) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -(H + \eta \eta^T)^{-1} \eta \\ -\frac{1}{2} (H + \eta \eta^T)^{-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma^{-1} \mu \\ \frac{1}{2} \Sigma^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

Maximum likelihood estimator of exponential families

d : dimensionality of the observations

D : order (= #parameters) of the exponential family (ie., $\frac{d(d+3)}{2}$ for normals)

The **maximum likelihood estimator** (MLE) is:

$$\hat{\eta} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t(x_i)$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \nabla F^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t(x_i) \right) = \nabla F^* \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n t(x_i) \right)$$

(called **observed point** in information geometry)

(For non-closed form solutions, use Newton or Householder **root findings** to get *arbitrary* fine approximations of ∇F^{-1} .)

Kullback-Leibler & Bregman divergences

The **KL divergence** of distributions of the **same** exponential family is the Bregman divergence induced by the log-normalizer on the corresponding natural parameters (with parameter order swapping):

Furthermore, generic formula for entropy and relative entropy:

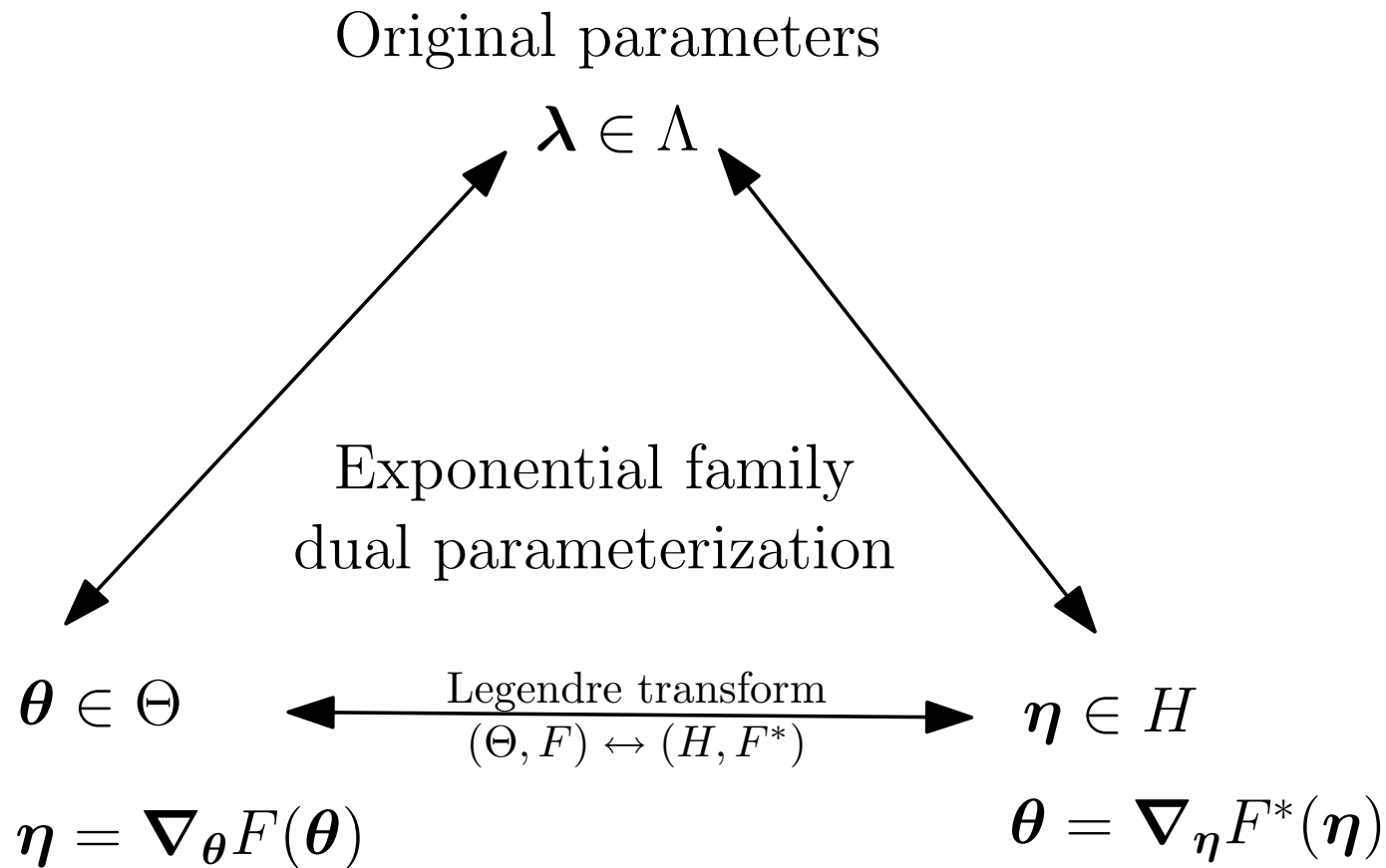
$$\begin{aligned}\text{KL}(p_F(x; \theta_1) || p_F(x; \theta_2)) &= B_F(\theta_2 || \theta_1) \\ &= H^\times(p_F(x; \theta_1) || p_F(x; \theta_2)) - H(p_F(x; \theta_1))\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}H(p) &= H_F(\theta_p) = F(\theta_p) - \langle \theta_p, \nabla F(\theta_p) \rangle + b \\ H_F^\times(\theta_p || \theta_q) &= F(\theta_q) - \langle \theta_q, \nabla F(\theta_p) \rangle + b\end{aligned}$$

$b = - \int k(x) p_F(x; \theta) dx$ (0 for some exponential families like Gaussians).

Statistical exponential families: A digest with flash cards, arXiv,
<http://arxiv.org/abs/0911.4863>, 2009.

Parameterization of exponential families



(θ/η are the two dual affine biorthogonal coordinate systems.)

Bijection: Exponential families $\Leftrightarrow$ Bregman divergences

Regular exponential family $\Leftrightarrow$ regular Bregman divergence:

$$\log p_F(x; \theta) = -B_{F^*}(x || \nabla F(\theta)) + \log c_{F^*}(x)$$

$\mu \stackrel{\text{equal}}{=} \nabla F(\theta)$ is the expectation of the distribution.

F^* : generalized entropy functional.

Note: For some generators F , the Legendre dual F^* may not have closed-form solutions. Use Householder formula to approximate the $\nabla F(\theta)$ for a given θ (root finding).

[JMLR'05] Clustering with Bregman divergences.

Visualizing the density/distance bijection

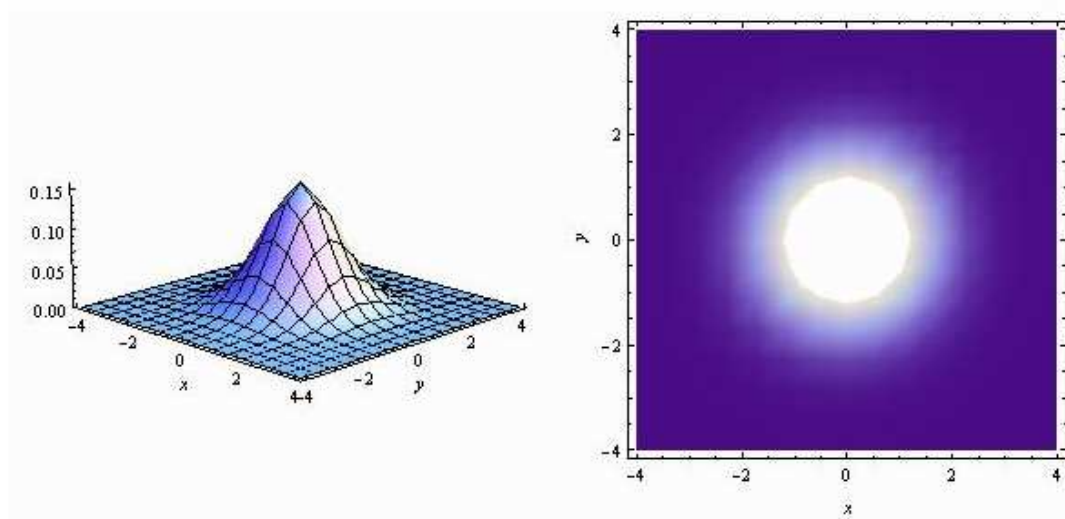
Consider a probability measure of an exponential family $p_F(x; \theta)$.

The **expectation** is $\int p_F(x; \theta) dx = \nabla F(\theta) \stackrel{\text{equal}}{=} \mu$.

The **iso-density** is $p_F(x; \theta) = \lambda \iff c_{F^*}(x) \exp -B_{F^*}(x || \nabla F(\theta)) = \lambda$.

Bregman divergences are **always convex** in first argument.

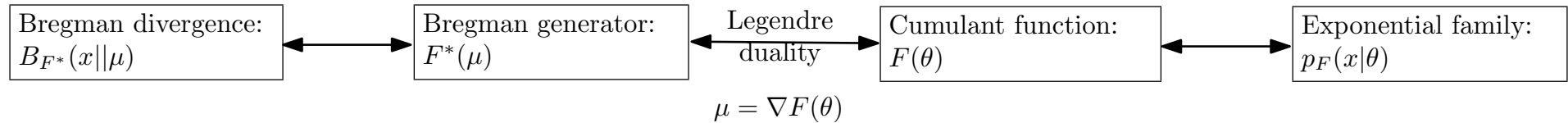
$\mu = \nabla F(\theta)$ is located as the **second argument**



Convex contours centered at the mean
(=convex distance centered at a point = iso-density).

Exponential families have always finite means
(Therefore Cauchy distributions does not belong to exp. fam.)

Bregman divergences $\Leftrightarrow$ Exponential families



$$p_F(x; \theta) = \lambda \iff c_{F^*}(x) \exp -B_{F^*}(x||\nabla F(\theta)) = \lambda$$

Dual coordinate systems $(\theta, \eta = \nabla F(\theta) = \mu)$

Examples: Exponential families $\Leftrightarrow$ Bregman divergences

Generator	Distribution	Loss/energy	
x^2	Spherical Gaussian	$\Leftrightarrow$	Squared loss
$x \log x$	Multinomial	$\Leftrightarrow$	Kullback-Leibler divergence
$x \log x - x$	Poisson	$\Leftrightarrow$	I -divergence
$-\log x$	Geometric	$\Leftrightarrow$	Itakura-Saito divergence
$\dots F(x) \dots$	$\dots p_F(x \theta) \dots$	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\dots B_{F^*} \dots$ (∞ many)

Soft Bregman clustering

Model data with mixture of the **same** exponential family.
Expectation-maximization (EM) for exponential families:

$$X \sim \sum_{i=1}^k w_i p_F(x|\theta_i)$$

with $w_i > 0$ and $\sum_i w_i = 1$.

From $\log p_F(x|\theta) \propto -B_{F^*}(x||\mu)$, with $\mu = \nabla F(\theta)$:

Maximum log-likelihood (max. $\log p_F$) $\Leftrightarrow$ Minimum Bregman divergence(B_{F^*})

—→ yields **very efficient** soft clustering.

Soft clustering (EM) extends hard (k -means) clustering

Bregman soft clustering made easy

Bregman EM clustering algorithm on $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$:

Initialization. Set $\{w_i, c_i\}_{i=1}^k$ with $\sum_i w_i = 1$
(eg., Bregman k -means++ using:
the centroids of sufficient statistics per cluster)

Loop until convergence.

Expectation. (compute the **posterior** probability)

For all observations x

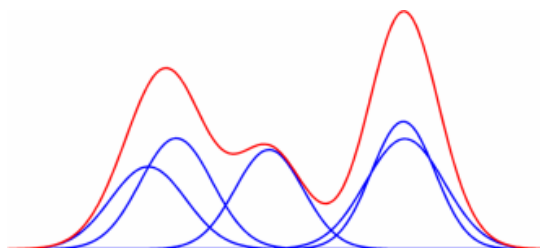
For all model component i :

$$\Pr(i|x) = \frac{w_i \exp - B_{F^*}(x||c_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^k w_j \exp - B_{F^*}(x||c_j)}$$

Maximization. For all model components i

$$w_i = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \Pr(i|x_j)$$
$$c_i = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n \Pr(i|x_j) x_j}{\sum_{j=1}^n \Pr(i|x_j)}$$

jMEF: Mixture of exponential families



- A Java library to create, process and manage mixtures of exponential families (MEF):
 - Estimation of a MEF using the Bregman soft clustering.
 - Simplification of a MEF using the Bregman hard clustering.
 - Hierarchical representation of a MEF using the Bregman hierarchical clustering.
 - Learn the *optimal* MEF using the Bregman hierarchical clustering.
- Open-source:
<http://www.lix.polytechnique.fr/~nielsen/MEF/>
- Cross platform

Bregman dual bisectors: Hyperplane/hypersurface

Right-sided bisector: $\rightarrow$ Hyperplane

$$H_F(p, q) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid B_F(x||p) = B_F(x||q)\}.$$

$$H_F : (\nabla F(p) - \nabla F(q))x + (F(p) - F(q) + \langle q, \nabla F(q) \rangle - \langle p, \nabla F(p) \rangle) = 0$$

Left-sided bisector: $\rightarrow$ Hypersurface

$$H'_F(p, q) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid B_F(p||x) = B_F(q||x)\}.$$

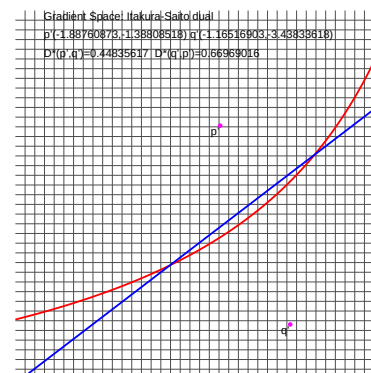
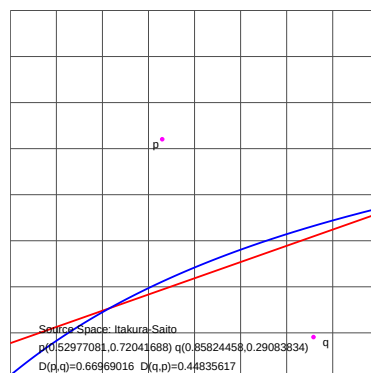
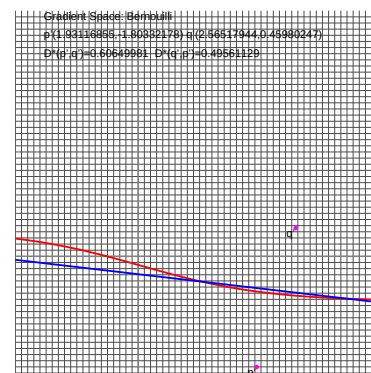
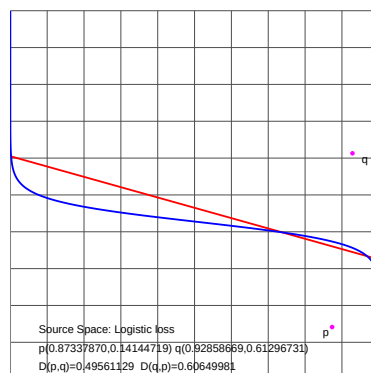
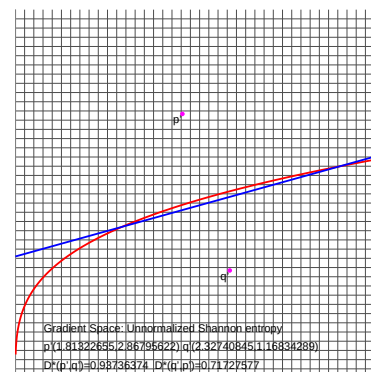
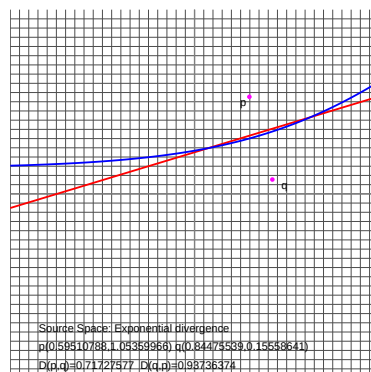
$$H'_F : \langle \nabla F(x), q - p \rangle + F(p) - F(q) = 0$$

(hyperplane in the “gradient space” $\nabla \mathcal{X}$ = dual coordinate system)

Visualizing Bregman bisectors

Primal coordinates θ
natural parameters

Dual coordinates η
expectation parameters



Bregman MINIBALL (infsup/minimax) algorithm

Problem: Given a point set $\mathcal{P} = \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$, finds the smallest enclosing ball with respect to a Bregman divergence B_F :

$$c^* = \arg \min_{c \in \mathcal{X}} \max_{i=1}^n B_F(c || p_i)$$

→ unique ball/circumcenter, and

→ unique radius $r^* = \min_{c \in \mathcal{X}} \max_{i=1}^n B_F(c || p_i)$.

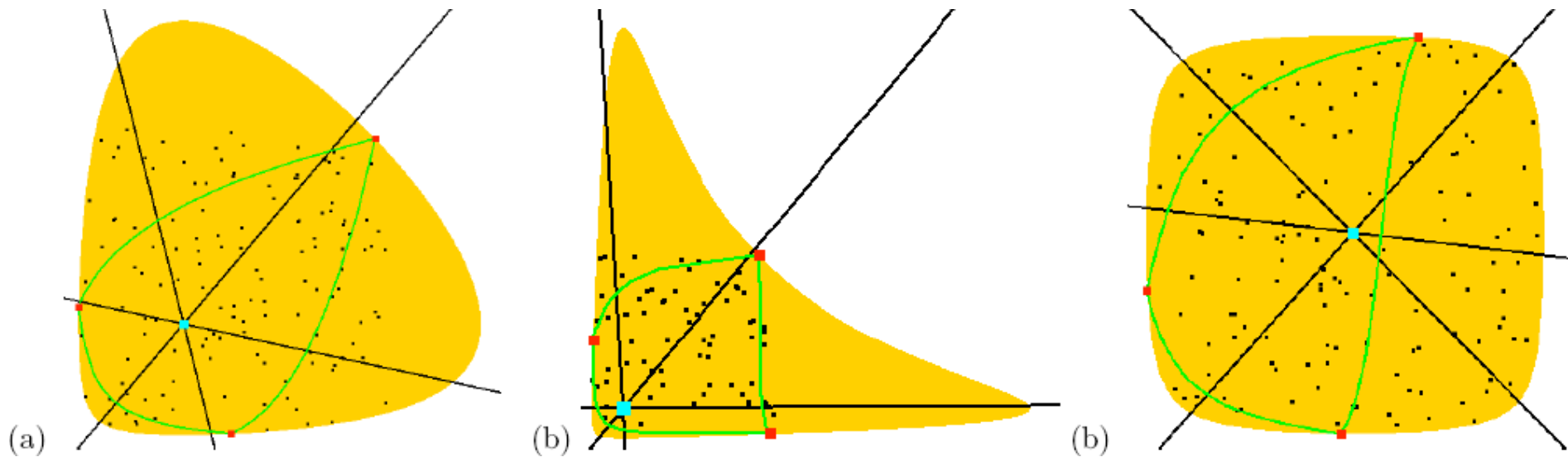
Fit the LP-type framework

[IPL'08] On the smallest enclosing information disk. (2008)

Bregman MINIBALL: Demo

[DEMO]

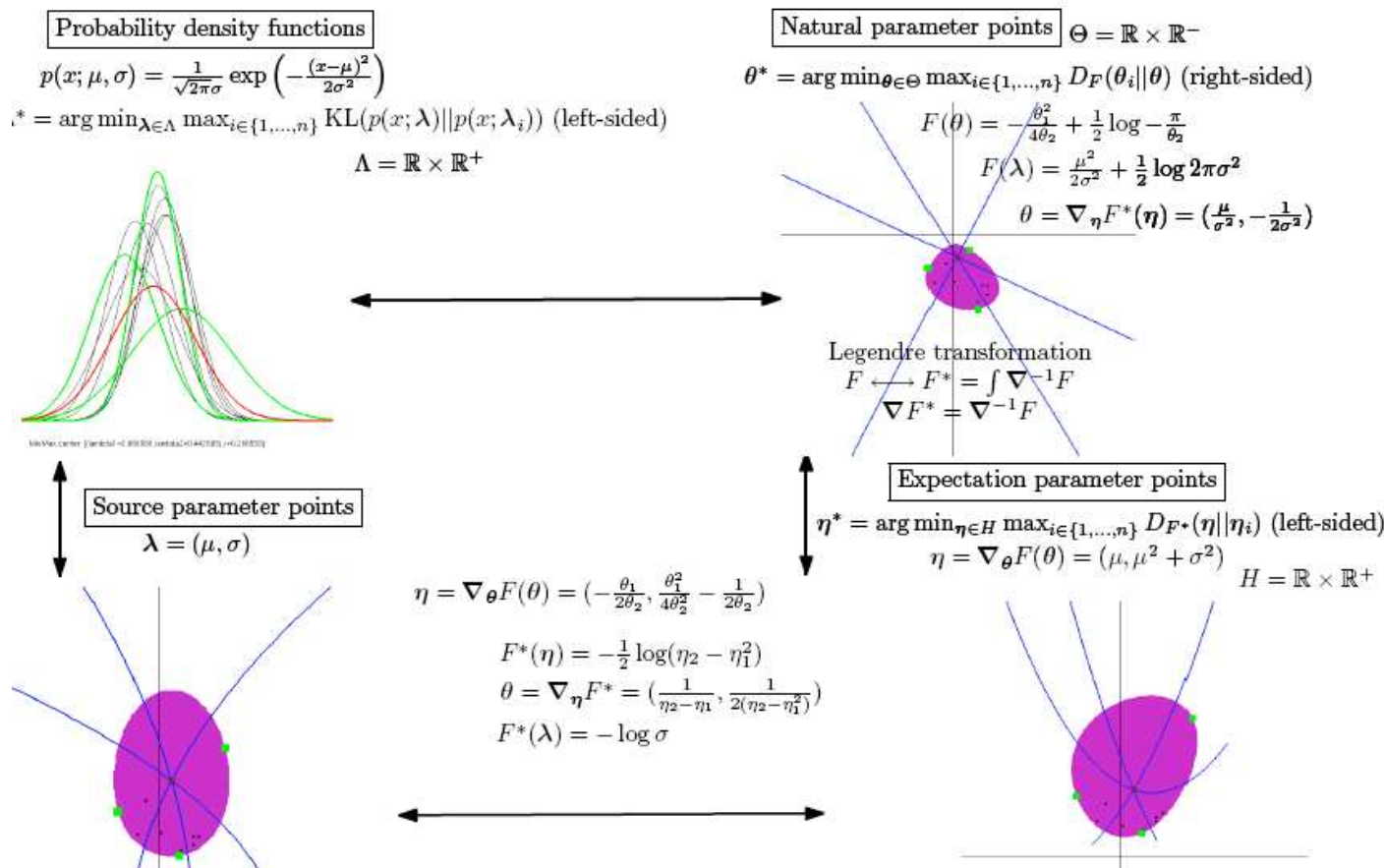
<http://www.sonycs1.co.jp/person/nielsen/BregmanBall/MINIBALL/>



[IPL'08] On the smallest enclosing information disk.(2008)

Bregman MINIBALL: Entropic centers

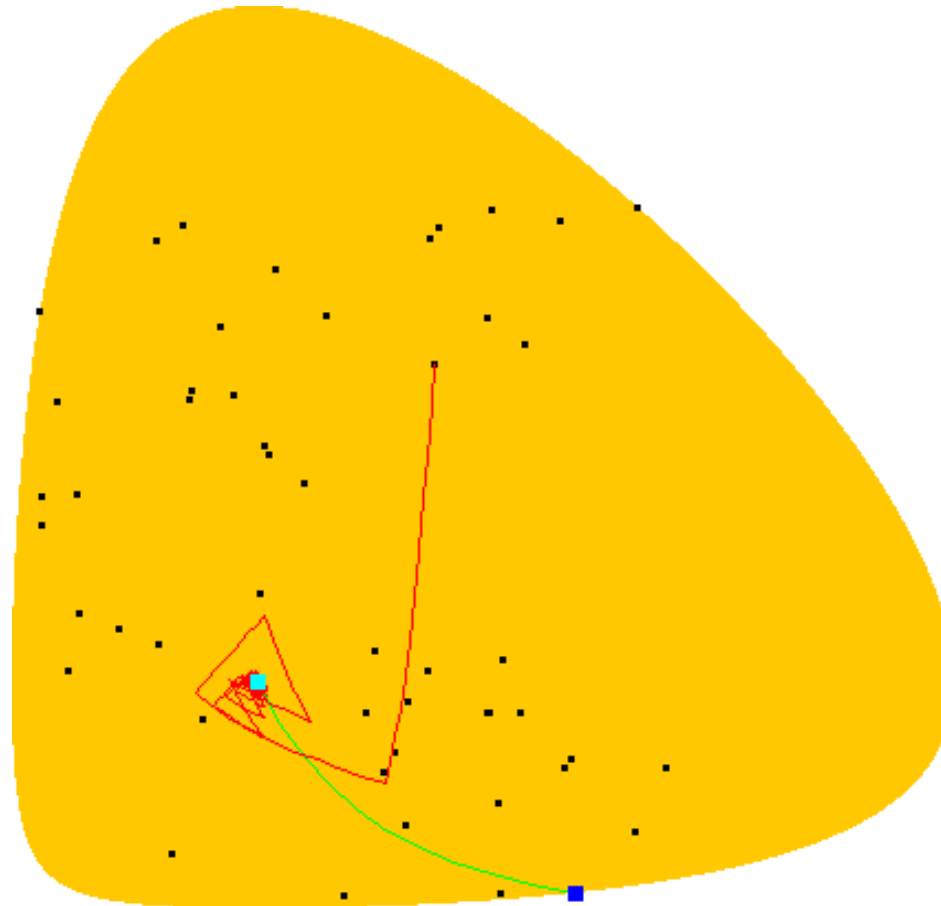
Given a set of n normal distributions $\mathcal{N}_1, \dots, \mathcal{N}_n$, find the unique distribution $\mathcal{N}^*$ that **minimizes** the maximum Kullback-Leibler divergence to the others. (KL of exp. fam.= Bregman divergences with parameters swap)



[EuroCG'08] The Entropic Centers of Multivariate Normal Distributions.

Bregman core-sets: Demo

In high dimensions:



<http://www.sonycs1.co.jp/person/nielsen/BregmanBall/MINIBALL/>
[ECML'05] Fitting the smallest enclosing Bregman ball.

Space of Bregman spheres

Right-centered and **left-centered** Bregman balls (with bounding spheres):

$$\text{Ball}_F^r(c, r) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid B_F(x||c) \leq r\} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Ball}_F^l(c, r) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid B_F(c||x) \leq r\}$$

From Legendre duality, $\text{Ball}_F^l(c, r) = (\nabla F)^{-1}(\text{Ball}_{F^*}^r(\nabla F(c), r))$.

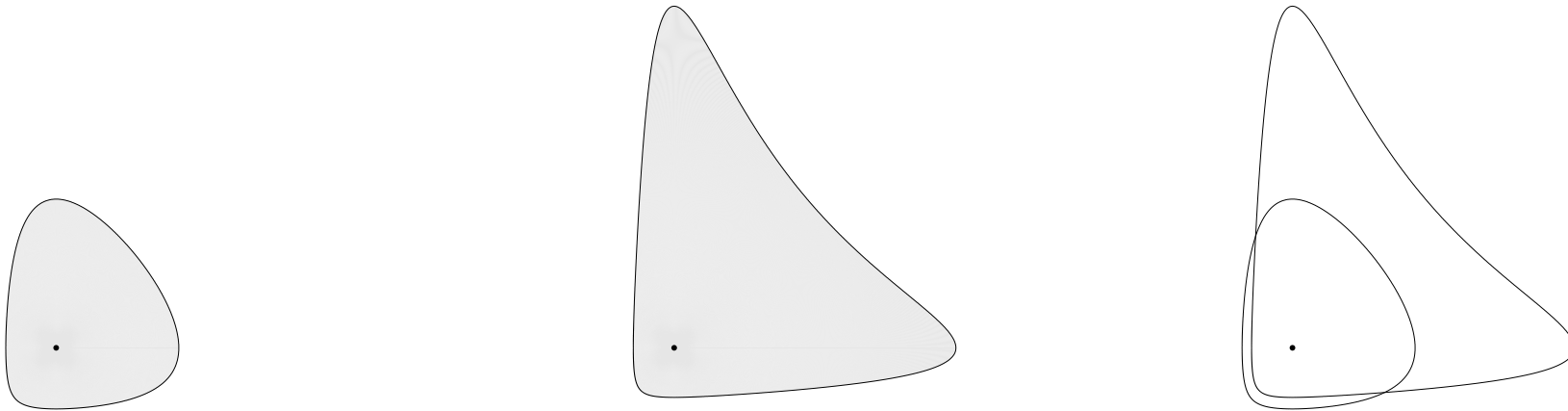


Illustration for Itakura-Saito divergence, $F(x) = -\log x$

Space of Bregman spheres: Lifting map

$\mathcal{F} : x \mapsto \hat{x} = (x, F(x))$, hypersurface in $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$.

H_p : Tangent hyperplane at $\hat{p}$, $z = H_p(x) = \langle x - p, \nabla F(p) \rangle + F(p)$

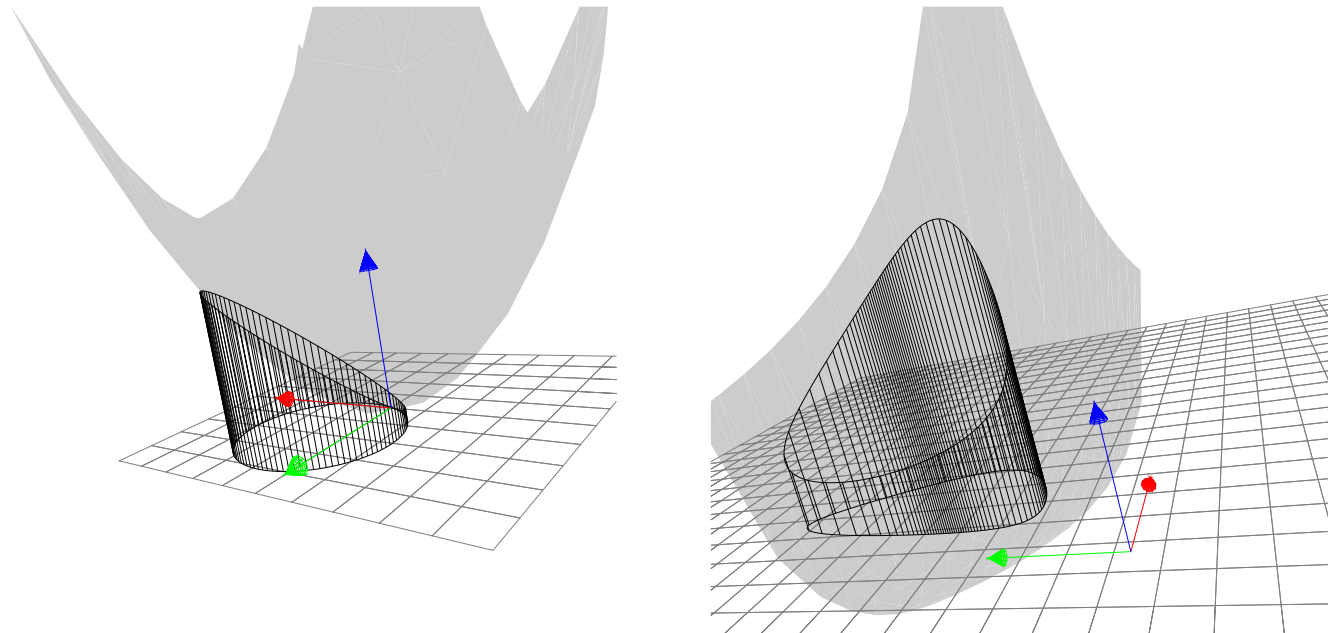
Bregman sphere $\sigma \longrightarrow \hat{\sigma}$ with supporting hyperplane

$H_\sigma : z = \langle x - c, \nabla F(c) \rangle + F(c) + r$. ($\parallel$ to H_c and shifted vertically by r)

$\hat{\sigma} = \mathcal{F} \cap H_\sigma$.

Conversely, the intersection of any hyperplane H with $\mathcal{F}$ projects onto $\mathcal{X}$ as a Bregman sphere:

$H : z = \langle x, a \rangle + b \rightarrow \sigma : \text{Ball}_F(c = (\nabla F)^{-1}(a), r = \langle a, c \rangle - F(c) + b)$



InSphere predicates wrt. Bregman divergences

$$\text{InSphere}(x; p_0, \dots, p_d) = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 & 1 \\ p_0 & \dots & p_d & x \\ F(p_0) & \dots & F(p_d) & F(x) \end{vmatrix}$$

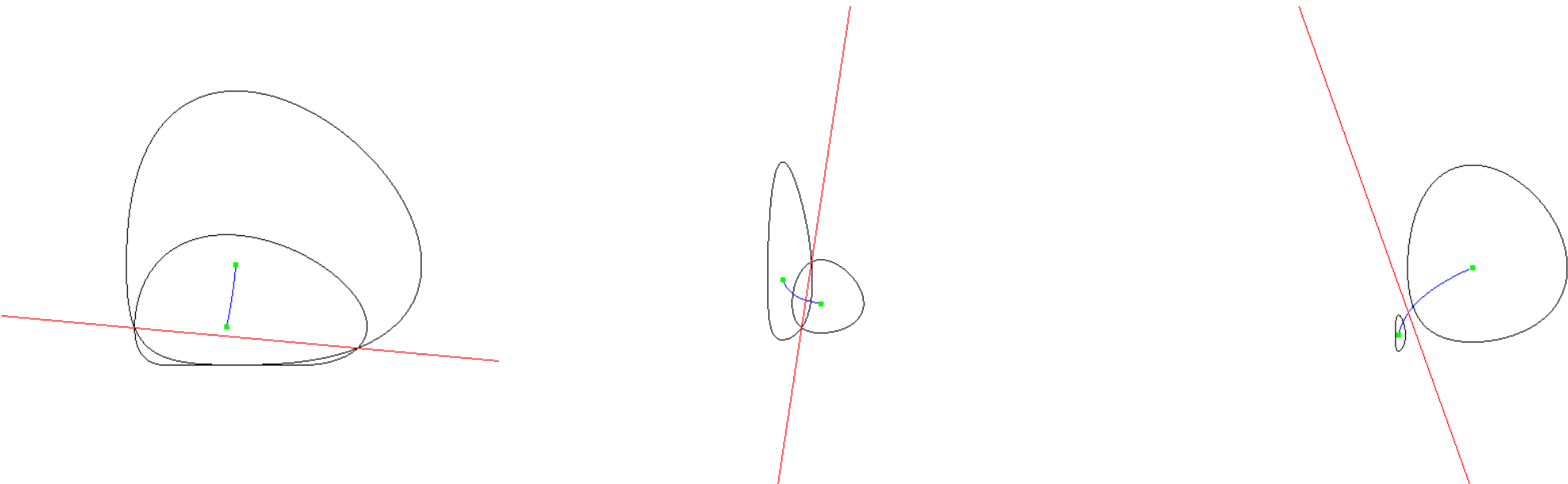
$\text{InSphere}(x; p_0, \dots, p_d)$ is negative, null or positive depending on whether x lies inside, on, or outside σ .

Space of spheres allows us for practical algorithms for computing the union/intersection of Bregman spheres

[BVD'07] Bregman Voronoi Diagrams: Properties, Algorithms and Applications, arXiv:0709.2196. (SODA'07)

Detecting Bregman ball intersections

→ performs a bisection search wrt. the radical axis.



Power to Bregman balls: $H_{12} : B_1(x) - B_2(x) = 0$, where
 $B_1(x) : B_F(x||p) - r_p = 0$ and $B_2(x) : B_F(x||q) - r_q = 0$

Radical hyperplane

$$H_{12} : F(q) - F(p) + r_2 - r_1 + \langle x, \nabla_F(q) - \nabla_F(p) \rangle + \langle p, \nabla_F(p) \rangle - \langle q, \nabla_F(q) \rangle = 0$$

(EuroCG'09) Tailored Bregman Ball Trees for Effective Nearest Neighbors

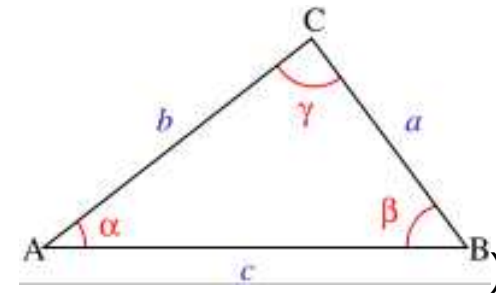
(ICME'09) Bregman vantage point trees for efficient nearest Neighbor Queries

Bregman: Three-point property and Bregman projection

Three-point property:

For any p, q and r of points of $\mathcal{X}$:

$$B_F(p||q) + B_F(q||r) = B_F(p||r) + \underbrace{\langle p - q, \nabla F(r) - \nabla F(q) \rangle}_{\geq 0}$$



(generalizes the law of cosines $c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma$)

Bregman projection:

For any p , there exists a **unique point** $x \in \mathcal{W}$ that minimizes $B_F(x||p)$: the Bregman projection of p onto $\mathcal{W}$ ($x^* = p_{\mathcal{W}}$)

$$p_{\mathcal{W}} = x^* = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{W}} B_F(x||p)$$

Note that $p_{\mathcal{W}} = p, \forall p \in \mathcal{W}$.

Orthogonality & Generalized Pythagoras' theorem

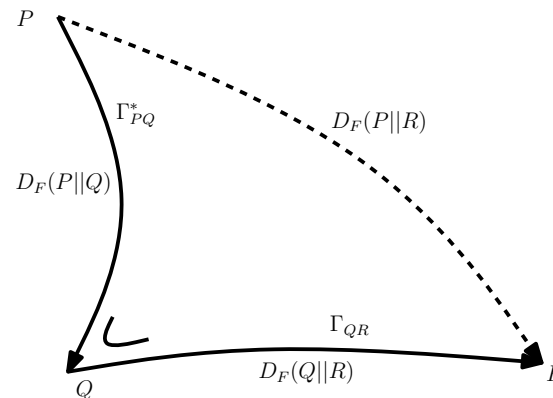
pq **Bregman orthogonal** to qr iff $B_F(p||q) + B_F(q||r) = B_F(p||r)$.
(Equivalent to $\langle p - q, \nabla F(r) - \nabla F(q) \rangle = 0$) [3-point property]

Bregman Pythagoras' inequality:

For convex $\mathcal{W} \subset \mathcal{X}$ and $p \in \mathcal{X}$. We have

$$B_F(w||p) \geq B_F(w||p_{\mathcal{W}}) + B_F(p_{\mathcal{W}}||p),$$

with equality for and only for **affine sets** $\mathcal{W}$.



[Bregman'66] The relaxation method of finding the common points of convex sets and its application to the solution of problems in convex programming.

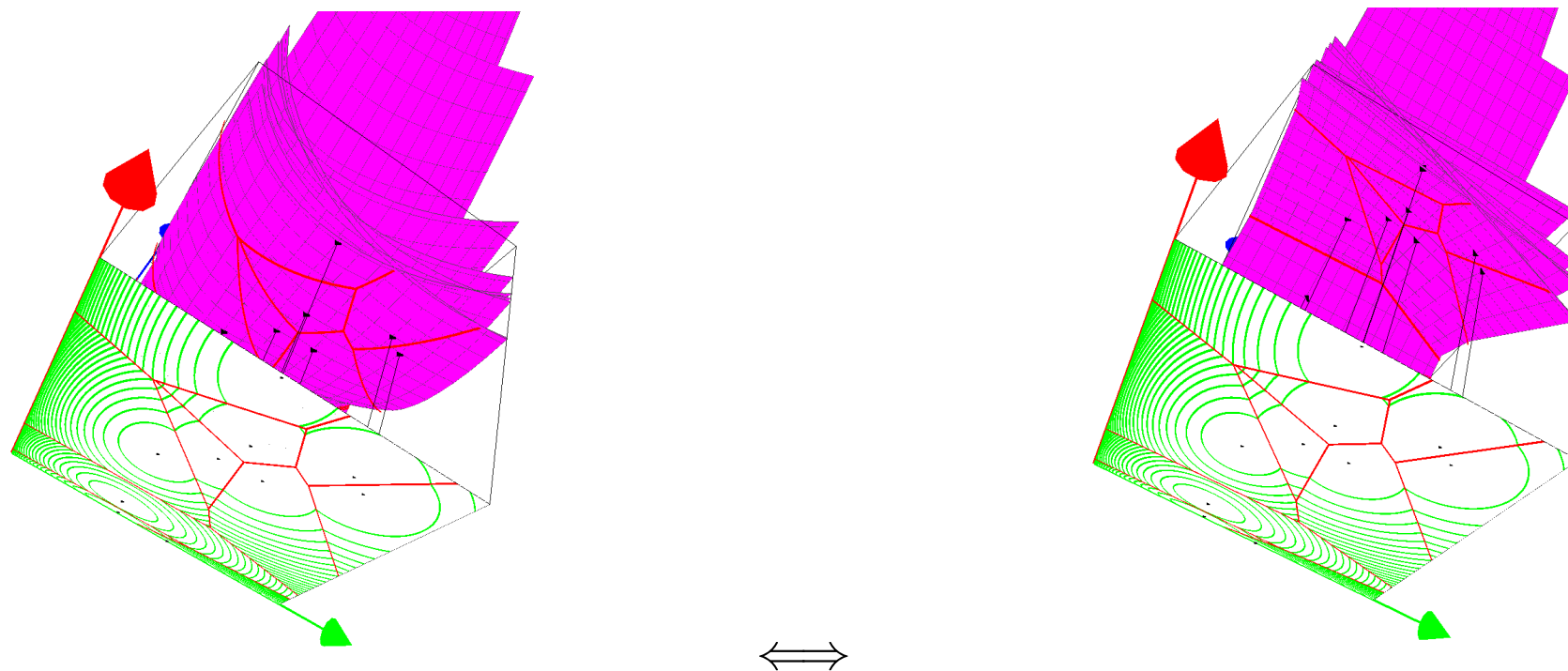
Bregman Voronoi diagrams as minimization diagrams

A subclass of **affine diagrams** which have all cells non-empty.
Extend Euclidean Voronoi to Voronoi diagrams in dually flat spaces.

Minimization diagram of the n functions

$$D_i(x) = B_F(x||p_i) = F(x) - F(p_i) - \langle x - p_i, \nabla F(p_i) \rangle.$$

$\equiv$ minimization of n linear functions: $H_i(x) = (p_i - x)^T \nabla F(p_i) - F(p_i)$.



The sided Bregman Voronoi diagrams of n d -dimensional points have complexity $\Theta(n^{\lfloor \frac{d+1}{2} \rfloor})$
and can be computed in optimal time $\Theta(n \log n + n^{\lfloor \frac{d+1}{2} \rfloor})$.

(SoCG'07) Visualizing Bregman Voronoi diagrams

Bregman Voronoi from Power diagrams

Any affine diagram can be built from a **power diagram** .

(power diagrams are defined in full space $\mathbb{R}^d$, and not only open convex $\mathcal{X}$)

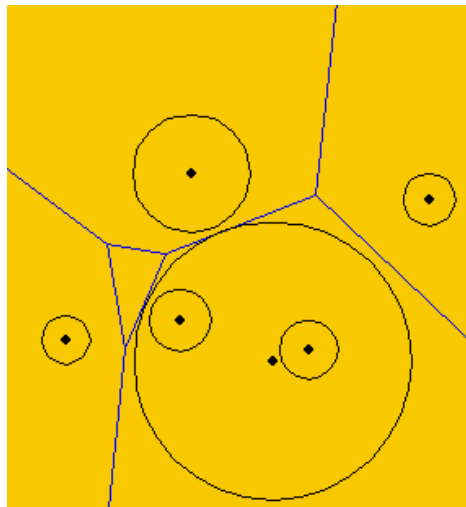
Power distance of x to $\text{Ball}(p, r)$: $\|p - x\|^2 - r^2$.

Power or Laguerre diagram : minimization diagram of $D_i(x) = \|p_i - x\|^2 - r_i^2$

Power bisector of $\text{Ball}(p_i, r_i)$ and $\text{Ball}(p_j, r_j)$ = **radical hyperplane** :

$$2\langle x, p_j - p_i \rangle + \|p_i\|^2 - \|p_j\|^2 + r_j^2 - r_i^2 = 0.$$

Affine Bregman Voronoi diagram $\Leftarrow$ Power diagram



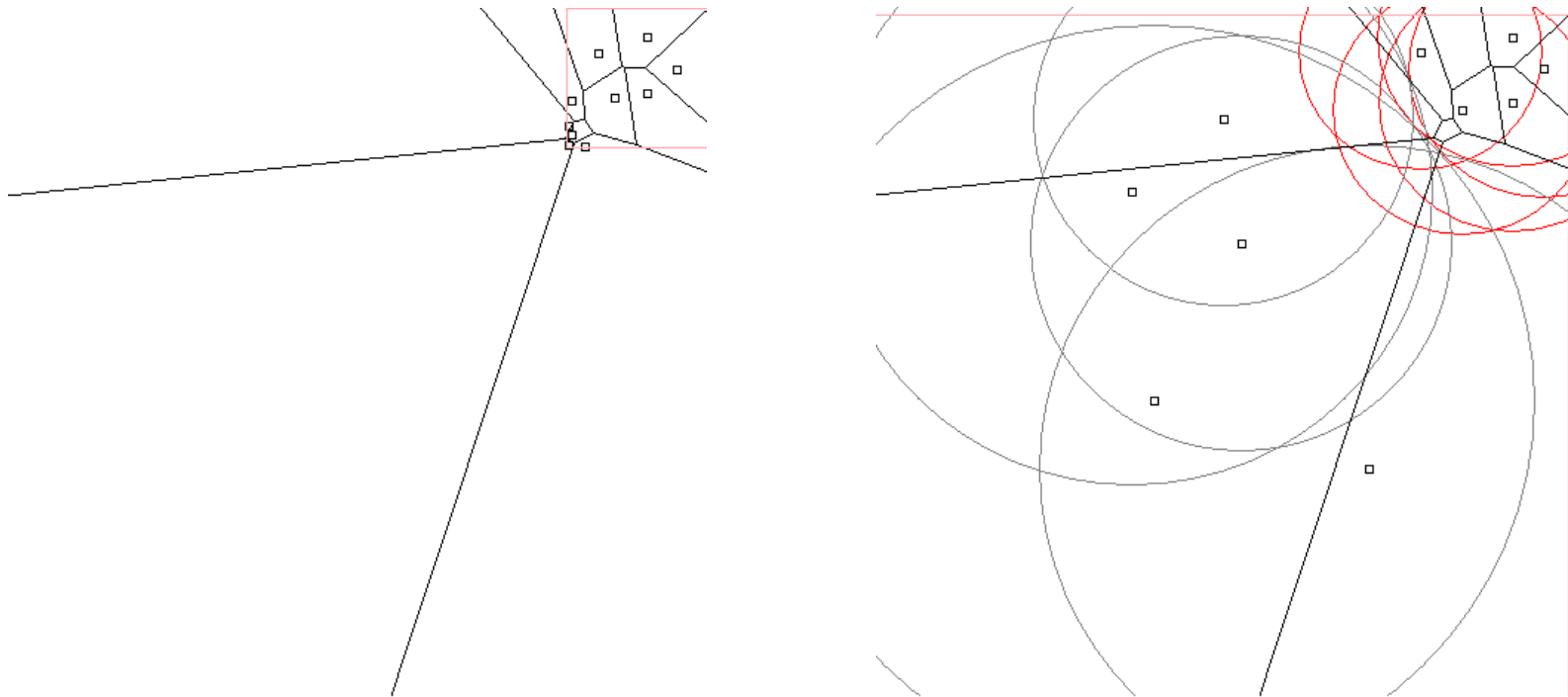
[PVD'87] Franz Aurenhammer: Power Diagrams: Properties, Algorithms and Applications.

Affine Bregman Voronoi diagrams as power diagrams

Equivalence: $B(\nabla F(p_i), r_i)$ with

$$r_i^2 = \langle \nabla F(p_i), \nabla F(p_i) \rangle + 2(F(p_i) - \langle p_i, \nabla F(p_i) \rangle)$$

(**imaginary radii** shown in red)



(Some cells may be empty in the Laguerre diagram but not in the Bregman diagram)

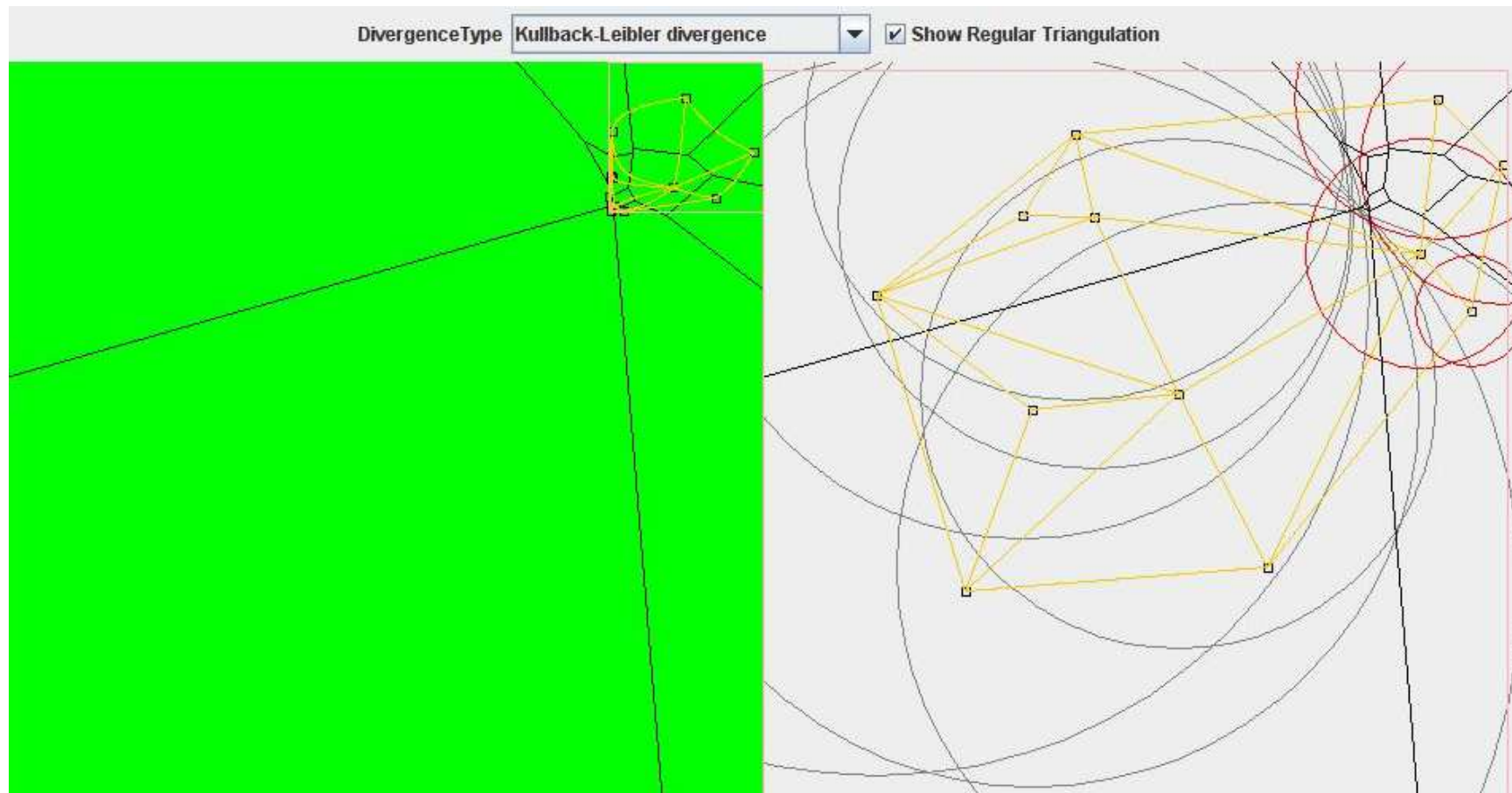
Curved Voronoi diagram as dual affine Voronoi diagram

(requires only to compute $\nabla F^* = \nabla F^{-1}$ at source points.)

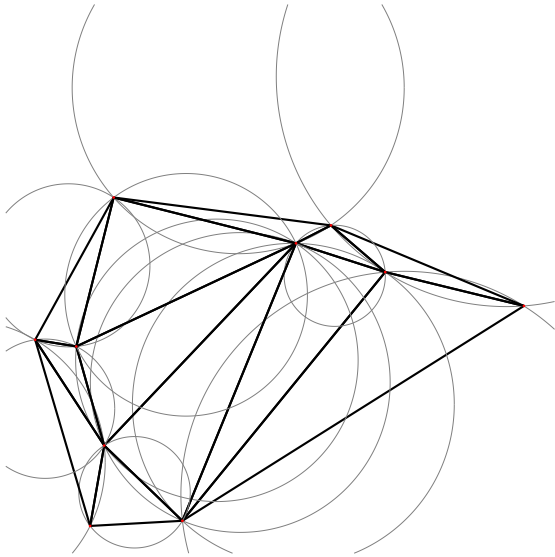
<http://www.csl.sony.co.jp/person/nielsen/BVDapplet/>

Bregman Delaunay/geodesic triangulations

- **Empty-sphere property** : The Bregman sphere circumscribing any simplex of $BT(\mathcal{P})$ is empty.
- **Optimality** : $BT(\mathcal{P}) = \min_T \max_{\tau \in T} r(\tau)$
($r(\tau)$: radius of the smallest Bregman ball containing τ)

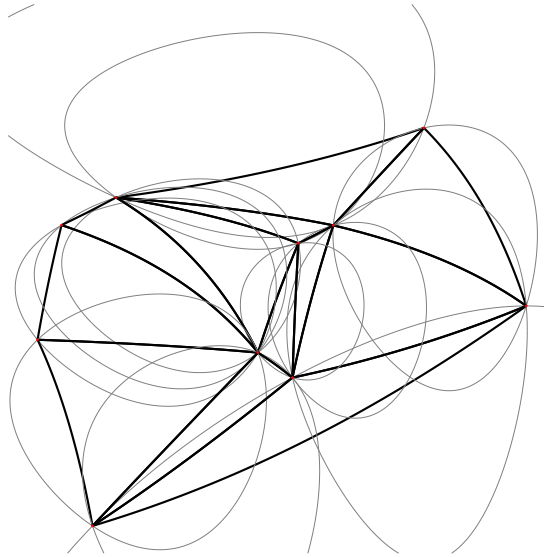


Bregman Delaunay triangulations

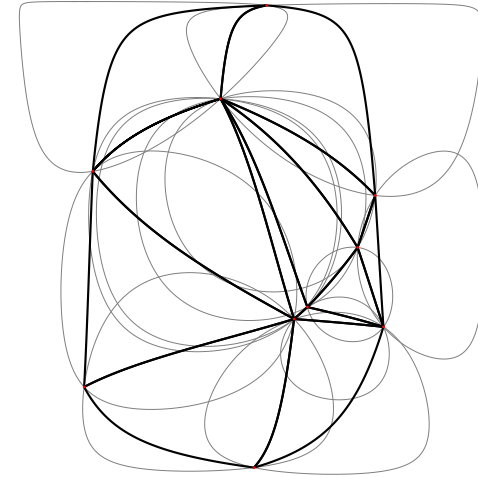


Ordinary Delaunay

- empty Bregman sphere property,
- geodesic triangles.

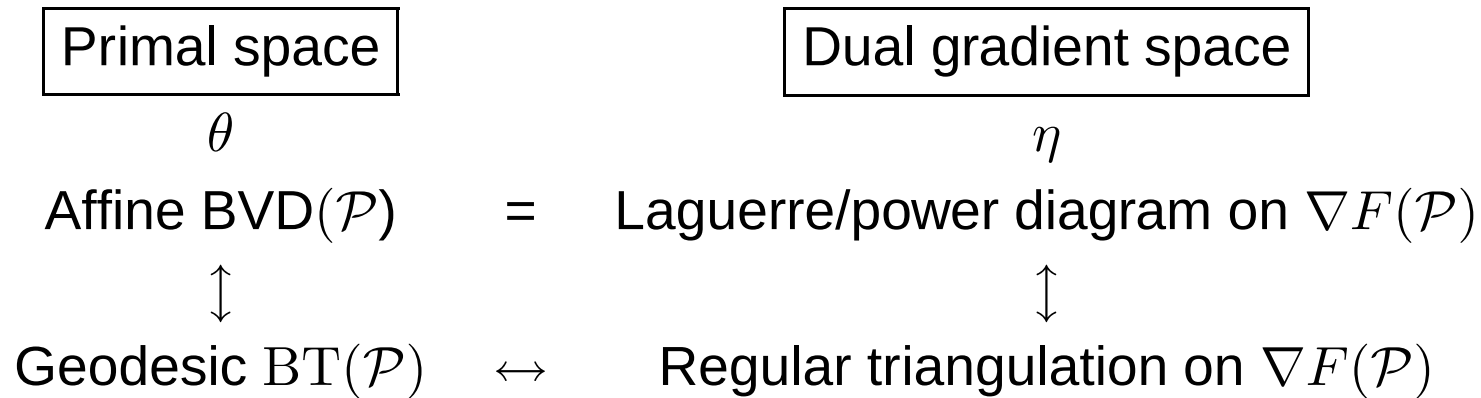


Exponential loss



Hellinger-like divergence

Bregman Voronoi/regular triangulations



Bregman Voronoi diagrams extend to **weighted points** :

$$W_F(p_i || p_j) = B_F(p_i || p_j) + w_i - w_j.$$

Centroids for symmetrized Bregman divergences

$$c^F = \arg \min_{c \in \mathcal{X}} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{D_F(c||p_i) + D_F(p_i||c)}{2} = \arg \min_{c \in \mathcal{X}} \text{AVG}(\mathcal{P}; c)$$

The symmetrized Bregman centroid c^F is unique and obtained by minimizing $\min_{q \in \mathcal{X}} D_F(c_R^F||q) + D_F(q||c_L^F)$:

$$c^F = \arg \min_{q \in \mathcal{X}} D_F(c_R^F||q) + D_F(q||c_L^F).$$

$$\text{AVG}_F(\mathcal{P}||q) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} F(p_i) - F(\bar{p}) \right) + B_F(\bar{p}||q)$$

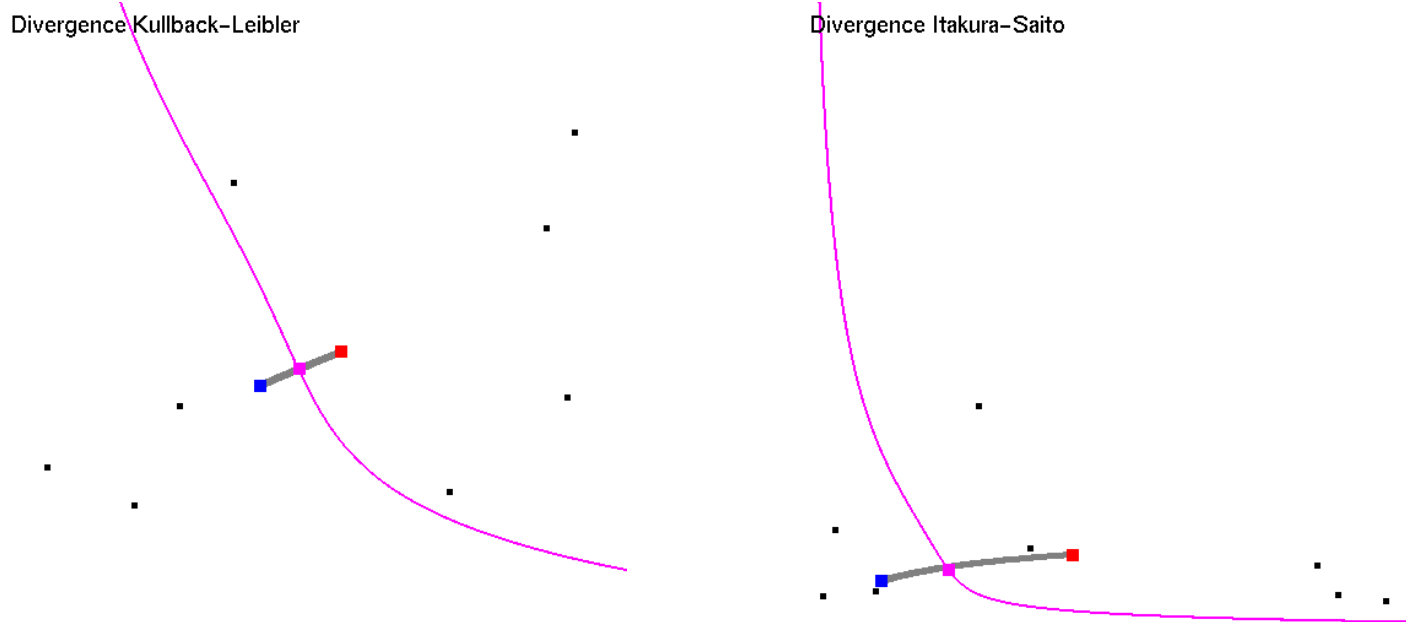
$$\begin{aligned} \text{AVG}_F(q||\mathcal{P}) &= \text{AVG}_{F^*}(\mathcal{P}_{F'}||q') \\ &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} F^*(p'_i) - F^*(\bar{p}') \right) + B_{F^*}(\bar{p}'||q'_F) \end{aligned}$$

But $B_{F^*}(\bar{p}'||q'_F) = B_{F^{**}}(\nabla F^* \circ \nabla F(q)||\nabla F^*(\sum_{i=1}^n \nabla F(p_i))) = B_F(q||c_L^F)$ since $F^{**} = F$, $\nabla F^* = \nabla F^{-1}$ and $\nabla F^* \circ \nabla F(q) = q$.

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \min_{c \in \mathcal{X}} \frac{1}{2} (\text{AVG}_F(\mathcal{P}||q) + \text{AVG}_F(q||\mathcal{P})) &\iff \\ \arg \min_{q \in \mathcal{X}} B_F(c_R^F||q) + B_F(q||c_L^F) &\text{ (removing all terms independent of } q) \end{aligned}$$

Symmetrized Bregman centroid

The symmetrized Bregman centroid c^F is **uniquely** defined as the minimizer of $B_F(c_R^F || q) + B_F(q || c_L^F)$. It is defined geometrically as $c^F = \Gamma_F(c_R^F, c_L^F) \cap M_F(c_R^F, c_L^F)$, where $\Gamma_F(c_R^F, c_L^F) = \{(\nabla F)^{-1}((1 - \lambda)\nabla F(c_R^F) + \lambda\nabla F(c_L^F)) \mid \lambda \in [0, 1]\}$ is the geodesic linking c_R^F to c_L^F , and $M_F(c_R^F, c_L^F)$ is the **mixed-type Bregman** bisector: $M_F(c_R^F, c_L^F) = \{x \in \mathcal{X} \mid B_F(c_R^F || x) = B_F(x || c_L^F)\}$.



[ICPR'08] Bregman Sided and Symmetrized Centroids. arXiv 0711.3242

Meaning of duality/invariance in information geometry

On the manifold of probability measures $\{p_F(x|\theta) \mid \theta \in \Theta\}$:

- **Reparameterization** : $p_F(x|\lambda)$ same as $p_F(x|\theta)$ for a bijective mapping $\lambda \leftrightarrow \theta$.
- **Reference duality** :
Choice of the reference vs comparison points:
 $B_F(p||q) = B_{F^*}(\nabla F(q)||\nabla F(p))$.
- **Representational duality** :
Choice of a monotonic scaling (density or positive measures).

Canonical divergence :

$$\begin{aligned} A_F(\theta||\eta) &= B_F(\theta||\nabla F^{-1}(\eta)) \\ &= F(\theta) + F^*(\eta) - \langle \theta, \eta \rangle \geq 0 \text{ (Legendre inequality)} \\ &= A_{F^*}(\eta||\theta) \end{aligned}$$

Given a divergence B_F , we can derive a **Riemannian metric** and a pair of **conjugate affine connections** [Eguchi'83].

Bregman divergence as exact Taylor remainder

For a given fixed point p , we can view the geometry as a Riemannian geometry.

Bregman divergence:

$$B_F(p||q) = F(p) - F(q) - (p - q)^T \nabla F(q) \\ \frac{1}{2}(p - q)^T \nabla^2 F(\varepsilon)(p - q),$$

with $\varepsilon \in [pq]$.

$\nabla^2 F$: Hessian of F , positive-definite matrix (psd.): $\nabla^2 F \succ 0$.

Example for I -divergence $I(p||q) = \sum_{i=1}^d p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} + q_i - p_i$:

$\nabla^2 F(\varepsilon) = \text{diag}(\frac{1}{x_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{x_i}, \dots, \frac{1}{x_d}) \succ 0$ for $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}_+^d$, $\varepsilon_i = \frac{(p_i - q_i)^2}{2p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} + q_i - p_i}$ with

$\varepsilon \in [pq]$

Numerical example (1D):

$p=0.4200869374923376$, $q=0.5899178549202998$, $I=0.02720232223423058$,

$\text{vareps}=0.5301484973611689$, vareps belongs to $[p,q]$

Representational Bregman divergences

● Bregman generator

$$U(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^d U(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^d U(k(s_i)) = F(\mathbf{s})$$

with $F = U \circ k$.

● Dual 1D generator $U^*(x^*) = \max_x \{xx^* - U(x)\}$ induces dual coordinate system $x_i^* = U'(x_i)$, where U' denotes the derivative of U . $\nabla U(\mathbf{x}) = [U'(x_1) \dots U'(x_d)]^T$.

Canonical separable representational Bregman divergence:

$$B_{U,k}(\mathbf{p}||\mathbf{q}) = U(k(\mathbf{p})) + U^*(k^*(\mathbf{q}^*)) - \langle k(\mathbf{p}), k^*(\mathbf{q}^*) \rangle,$$

with $k^*(\mathbf{x}^*) = U'(k(\mathbf{x}))$.

Often, a Bregman by setting $F = U \circ k$. But although U is a strictly convex and differentiable function and k a strictly monotonous function, $F = U \circ k$ may not be strictly convex.

[ISVD'09] The dual Voronoi diagrams with respect to representational Bregman divergences

Amari's α -divergences

α -divergences on positive arrays (unnormalized discrete probabilities),
 $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$D_{\alpha}(\mathbf{p}||\mathbf{q}) = \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2} p_i + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} q_i - p_i^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} q_i^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}} \right) & \alpha \neq \pm 1 \\ \sum_{i=1}^d p_i \log \frac{p_i}{q_i} + q_i - p_i = \text{KL}(\mathbf{p}||\mathbf{q}) & \alpha = -1 \\ \sum_{i=1}^d q_i \log \frac{q_i}{p_i} + p_i - q_i = \text{KL}(\mathbf{q}||\mathbf{p}) & \alpha = 1 \end{cases}$$

Duality

$$\boxed{D_{\alpha}(\mathbf{p}||\mathbf{q}) = D_{-\alpha}(\mathbf{q}||\mathbf{p}).}$$

Representational Bregman divergences of α -/ β -divergences

Divergence	Convex conjugate functions	Representation functions
Bregman divergences B_F, B_{F^*}	U $U' = (U^{*'})^{-1}$ U^*	$k(x) = x$ $k^*(x) = U'(k(x))$
α -divergences ($\alpha \neq \pm 1$) $F_\alpha(x) = \frac{2}{1+\alpha}x$ $F_\alpha^*(x) = \frac{2}{1-\alpha}x$	$U_\alpha(x) = \frac{2}{1+\alpha} \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2}x \right)^{\frac{2}{1-\alpha}}$ $U'_\alpha(x) = \frac{2}{1+\alpha} \left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2}x \right)^{\frac{1+\alpha}{1-\alpha}}$ $U_\alpha^*(x) = \frac{2}{1-\alpha} \left(\frac{1+\alpha}{2}x \right)^{\frac{2}{1+\alpha}} = U_{-\alpha}(x)$	$k_\alpha(x) = \frac{2}{1-\alpha} x^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}}$ $k_\alpha^*(x) = \frac{2}{1+\alpha} x^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}} = k_{-\alpha}(x)$
β -divergences ($\beta > 0$) $F_\beta(x) = \frac{1}{\beta+1}x^{\beta+1}$ $F_\beta^*(x) = \frac{x^{\beta+1}-x}{\beta(\beta+1)}$	$U_\beta(x) = \frac{1}{\beta+1}(1+\beta x)^{\frac{1+\beta}{\beta}}$ $U'_\beta(x) = (1+\beta x)^{\frac{1}{\beta}} \quad U_\beta^{*'}(x) = \frac{x^\beta-1}{\beta}$ $U_\beta^*(x) = \frac{x^{\beta+1}-x}{\beta(\beta+1)}$	$k_\beta(x) = \frac{x^\beta-1}{\beta}$ $k_\beta^*(x) = x$

α - and β -divergences are representational Bregman divergences in disguise.

Riemannian statistical manifolds

Fisher information and induced Riemannian metric:

$$I(\theta) = \mathbb{E} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} \log p(x; \theta) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \log p(x; \theta) | \theta \right] = g_{ij}(\theta)$$

For exponential families:

$$I(\theta) = \nabla^2 F(\theta)$$

Distance is geodesic length (Rao, 1945)

$$D(P, Q) = \int_{t=0}^{t=1} \sqrt{g_{ij}(t(\theta))} dt, \quad t(\theta_0) = \theta(P), t(\theta_1) = \theta(Q)$$

Fisher-Rao Riemannian geometries:

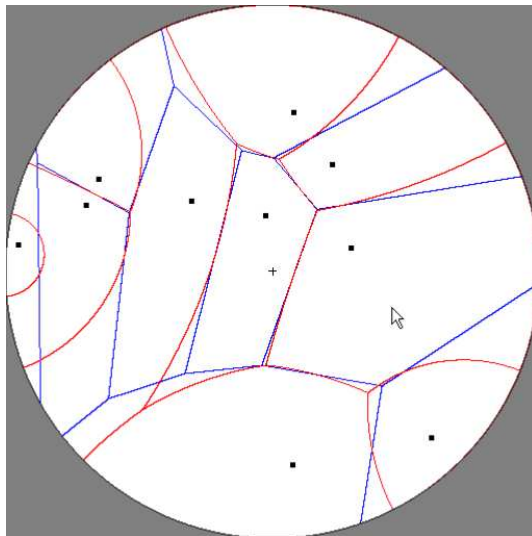
Multinomial distributions $\Rightarrow$ Spherical geometries (constant curvature 1).

Normal distributions $\Rightarrow$ Hyperbolic geometries (negative curvature).

Voronoi diagram in embedded geometries

Imaginary geometry can be realized in many different ways.
For example, hyperbolic geometry:

- Conformal Poincaré upper half-space,
- Conformal Poincaré disk (in red),
- Non-conformal Klein disk (in blue),
- Pseudo-sphere in Euclidean geometry, etc.



Hyperbolic Voronoi diagrams made easy, arXiv:0903.3287, 2009.

Distance between two corresponding points in *any* isometric embedding is the same.

Summary

- Bregman divergences unifies squared Euclidean distance with Kullback-Leibler divergence.
- Bregman divergences = canonical divergences of flat spaces with ± 1 -connections.
- Bregman geometries = flat geometries with Bregman projection/generalized Pythagoras theorems.
- ± 1 -connections are compatible with the Fisher metric.

Statistical manifolds with invariance [Chentsov'72]: Fisher metric and α -connections only. $\alpha = \pm 1 \Rightarrow$ Dually flat spaces.

Perspectives:

- α -geometries and its applications
- Choice of embeddings for relevant computations

Thank you

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- DIGITEO GAS 2008-16D (Geometric Algorithms & Statistics)
- <http://www.informationgeometry.org/>
- <http://blog.informationgeometry.org/>
- ETV C'08: Emerging Trends in Visual Computing:
<http://www.lix.polytechnique.fr/Labo/Frank.Nielsen/ETVC08/>

All geometries are false but some geometries are useful.

Remember that all geometries are wrong; the practical question is how wrong do they have to be to not be useful.