Mixture weights optimisation for Alpha-Divergence Variational Inference

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Abstract

This paper focuses on α-divergence minimisation methods for Variational Inference. More precisely, we are interested in algorithms optimising the mixture weights of any given mixture model, without any information on the underlying distribution of its mixture components parameters. The Power Descent, defined for all $\alpha \neq 1$, is one such algorithm and we establish in our work the full proof of its convergence towards the optimal mixture weights when $\alpha < 1$. Since the α-divergence recovers the widely-used forward Kullback-Leibler when $\alpha \to 1$, we then extend the Power Descent to the case $\alpha = 1$ and show that we obtain an Entropic Mirror Descent. This leads us to investigate the link between Power Descent and Entropic Mirror Descent: first-order approximations allow us to introduce the Renyi Descent, a novel algorithm for which we prove an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate. Lastly, we compare numerically the behavior of the unbiased Power Descent and of the biased Renyi Descent and we discuss the potential advantages of one algorithm over the other.

1 Introduction

Bayesian Inference involves being able to compute or sample from the posterior density. For many useful models, the posterior density can only be evaluated up to a normalisation constant and we must resort to approximation methods.

One major category of approximation methods is Variational Inference, a wide class of optimisation methods which introduce a simpler density family $\mathcal{Q}$ and use it to approximate the posterior density (see for example Variational Bayes [1, 2] and Stochastic Variational Inference [3]). The crux of these methods consists in being able to find the best approximation of the posterior density among the family $\mathcal{Q}$ in the sense of a certain divergence, most typically the Kullback-Leibler divergence. However, The Kullback-Leibler divergence is known to have some undesirable properties (e.g posterior overestimation/underestimation [4]) and as a consequence, the α-divergence [5, 6] and Renyi's α-divergence [7, 8] have gained a lot of attention recently as a more general alternative [9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19].

Noticeably, [17] introduced the (α, Γ)-descent, a general family of gradient-based algorithms that are able to optimise the *mixture weights* of mixture models by α-divergence minimisation, without any information on the underlying distribution of its mixture components parameters. The benefit of these types of algorithms is that they allow, in an Sequential Monte Carlo fashion [20], to select the mixture components according to their overall importance in the set of component parameters. From there, one is able to optimise the weights and the components parameters alternatively [17].

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The (α, Γ)-descent framework recovers the Entropic Mirror Descent algorithm (corresponding to $\Gamma(v) = e^{-\eta v}$ with $\eta > 0$) and includes the Power Descent, an algorithm defined for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ and all $\eta > 0$ that sets $\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha-1)v+1]^{\eta/(1-\alpha)}$. Although these two algorithms are linked to one another from a theoretical perspective through the (α, Γ)-descent framework, numerical experiments in [17] showed that the Power Descent outperforms the Entropic Mirror Descent when $\alpha < 1$ as the dimension increases.

Nonetheless, the global convergence of the Power Descent algorithm when $\alpha < 1$, as stated in [17], is subjected to the condition that the limit exists. Furthermore, even though the convergence towards the global optimum is derived, there is no convergence rate available for the Power Descent when $\alpha < 1$. While there is no general rule yet on how to select the value of α in practice, the case $\alpha < 1$ has the advantage that it enforces a *mass-covering* property, as opposed to the *mode-seeking* property exhibited when $\alpha \geqslant 1$ ([4] and [17]) and which often may lead to posterior underestimation. We are thus interested in studying Variational Inference methods for optimising the mixture weights of mixture models when $\alpha < 1$. After recalling the basics of the Power Descent algorithm in Section 2, we make the following contributions in the paper:

- In Section 3, we derive the full convergence proof of the Power Descent algorithm towards the optimal mixture weights when $\alpha < 1$ (Theorem 2).
- Since the α-divergence becomes the traditional forward Kullback-Leibler when $\alpha \to 1$, we first bridge in Section 4 the gap between the cases $\alpha < 1$ and $\alpha > 1$ of the Power Descent: we obtain that the Power Descent recovers an Entropic Mirror Descent performing forward Kullback-Leibler minimisation (Proposition 1). We then keep on investigating the connections between the Power Descent and the Entropic Mirror Descent by considering first-order approximations. In doing so, we are able to go beyond the (α, Γ)-descent framework and to introduce an algorithm closely-related to the Power Descent that we call the *Renyi Descent* and that is proved in Theorem 3 to converge at an $O(1/N)$ rate towards its optimum for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Finally, we run some numerical experiments in Section 5 to compare the behavior of the Power Descent and the Renyi Descent altogether, before discussing the potential benefits of one approach over the other.

2 Background

We start by introducing some notation. Let $(\mathsf{Y}, \mathcal{Y}, \nu)$ be a measured space, where ν is a σ-finite measure on $(\mathsf{Y}, \mathcal{Y})$. Assume that we have access to some observed variables $\mathscr{D}$ generated from a probabilistic model $p(\mathscr{D}|y)$ parameterised by a hidden random variable $y \in \mathsf{Y}$ that is drawn from a certain prior $p_0(y)$. The posterior density of the latent variable y given the data $\mathscr{D}$ is then given by:

$$p(y|\mathscr{D}) = \frac{p(y, \mathscr{D})}{p(\mathscr{D})} = \frac{p_0(y)p(\mathscr{D}|y)}{p(\mathscr{D})} \ ,$$

where the normalisation constant $p(\mathscr{D}) = \int_{\mathsf{Y}} p_0(y)p(\mathscr{D}|y)\nu(\mathrm{d}y)$ is called the *marginal likelihood* or *model evidence* and is oftentimes unknown.

To approximate the posterior density, the Power Descent considers a variational family $\mathcal{Q}$ that is large enough to contain mixture models and that we redefine now: letting $(\mathsf{T}, \mathcal{T})$ be a measurable space, $K : (\theta, A) \mapsto \int_A k(\theta, y)\nu(\mathrm{d}y)$ be a Markov transition kernel on $\mathsf{T} \times \mathcal{Y}$ with kernel density k defined on $\mathsf{T} \times \mathsf{Y}$, the Power Descent considers the following approximating family

$$\left\{ y \mapsto \int_{\mathsf{T}} \mu(\mathrm{d}\theta)k(\theta, y) \ : \ \mu \in \mathsf{M} \right\} \ ,$$

where M is a convenient subset of $\mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, the set of probability measures on $(\mathsf{T}, \mathcal{T})$. This choice of approximating family extends the typical parametric family commonly-used in Variational Inference since it amounts to putting a prior over the parameter θ (in the form of a measure) and does describe the class of mixture models when μ is a weighted sum of Dirac measures.

Problem statement Denote by $\mathbb{P}$ the probability measure on $(\mathsf{Y}, \mathcal{Y})$ with corresponding density $p(\cdot|\mathscr{D})$ with respect to ν and for all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, for all $y \in \mathsf{Y}$, denote $\mu k(y) = \int_{\mathsf{T}} \mu(\mathrm{d}\theta) k(\theta, y)$. Furthermore, given $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, let f_α be the convex function on $(0, +\infty)$ defined by $f_0(u) = u - 1 - \log(u)$, $f_1(u) = 1 - u + u\log(u)$ and $f_\alpha(u) = \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha-1)}\left[u^\alpha - 1 - \alpha(u-1)\right]$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0, 1\}$. Then, the α-divergence between μK and $\mathbb{P}$ (extended by continuity to the cases $\alpha = 0$ and $\alpha = 1$ as for example done in [21]) is given by

$$D_\alpha(\mu K || \mathbb{P}) = \int_{\mathsf{Y}} f_\alpha\left(\frac{\mu k(y)}{p(y|\mathscr{D})}\right) p(y|\mathscr{D}) \nu(\mathrm{d}y) \ ,$$

and the goal of the Power Descent is to find

$$\operatorname{arginf}_{\mu \in \mathsf{M}} D_\alpha(\mu K || \mathbb{P}) \ . \tag{1}$$

More generally, letting p be any measurable positive function on $(\mathsf{Y}, \mathcal{Y})$, the Power Descent aims at solving

$$\operatorname{arginf}_{\mu \in \mathsf{M}} \Psi_\alpha(\mu; p) \ , \tag{2}$$

where for all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, $\Psi_\alpha(\mu; p) = \int_{\mathsf{Y}} f_\alpha\left(\mu k(y)/p(y)\right) p(y) \nu(\mathrm{d}y)$. The Variational Inference optimisation problem (1) can then be seen as an instance of (2) that is equivalent to optimising $\Psi_\alpha(\mu; p)$ with $p(y) = p(y, \mathscr{D})$ (see Appendix A.1). In the following, the dependency on p in Ψ_α may be dropped throughout the paper for notational ease when no ambiguity occurs and we now present the Power Descent algorithm.

The Power Descent algorithm. The optimisation problem (2) can be solved for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ by using the Power Descent algorithm introduced in [17] : given an initial measure $\mu_1 \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ such that $\Psi_\alpha(\mu_1) < \infty$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$, $\eta > 0$ and κ such that $(\alpha - 1)\kappa \geqslant 0$, the Power descent algorithm is an iterative scheme which builds the sequence of probability measures $(\mu_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$

$$\mu_{n+1} = \mathcal{I}_\alpha(\mu_n) \ , \qquad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star \ , \tag{3}$$

where for all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, the one-step transition $\mu \mapsto \mathcal{I}_\alpha(\mu)$ is given by Algorithm 1 and where for all $v \in \mathrm{Dom}_\alpha$, $\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha - 1)v + 1]^{\eta/(1-\alpha)}$ [and Dom_α denotes an interval of $\mathbb{R}$ such that for all $\theta \in \mathsf{T}$, all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, $b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta) + \kappa$ and $\mu(b_{\mu,\alpha}) + \kappa \in \mathrm{Dom}_\alpha$].

Algorithm 1: *Power descent one-step transition* $(\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha - 1)v + 1]^{\eta/(1-\alpha)})$

1. <u>Expectation step</u> : $b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta) = \displaystyle\int_{\mathsf{Y}} k(\theta, y) f'_\alpha\left(\frac{\mu k(y)}{p(y)}\right) \nu(\mathrm{d}y)$
2. <u>Iteration step</u> : $\mathcal{I}_\alpha(\mu)(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \dfrac{\mu(\mathrm{d}\theta) \cdot \Gamma(b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta) + \kappa)}{\mu(\Gamma(b_{\mu,\alpha} + \kappa))}$

In this algorithm, $b_{\mu,\alpha}$ can be understood as the gradient of Ψ_α. Algorithm 1 then consists in applying the transform function Γ to the translated gradient $b_{\mu,\alpha} + \kappa$ and projecting back onto the space of probability measures.

A remarkable property of the Power Descent algorithm, which has been proven in [17] (it is a special case of [17, Theorem 1] with $\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha - 1)v + 1]^{\eta/(1-\alpha)}$), is that under (A1) as defined below

(A1) The density kernel k on $\mathsf{T} \times \mathsf{Y}$, the function p on Y and the σ-finite measure ν on $(\mathsf{Y}, \mathcal{Y})$ satisfy, for all $(\theta, y) \in \mathsf{T} \times \mathsf{Y}$, $k(\theta, y) > 0$, $p(y) > 0$ and $\int_{\mathsf{Y}} p(y)\nu(\mathrm{d}y) < \infty$.

the Power Descent ensures a monotonic decrease in the α-divergence at each step for all $\eta \in (0, 1]$ (this result is recalled in Theorem 4 of Appendix A.2 for the sake of completeness). Under the additional assumptions that $\kappa > 0$ and

$$\sup_{\theta \in \mathsf{T}, \mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})} |b_{\mu,\alpha}| < \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \Psi_\alpha(\mu_1) < \infty \ , \tag{4}$$

the Power Descent is also known to converge towards its optimal value at an $O(1/N)$ rate when $\alpha > 1$ [17, Theorem 3]. On the other hand, when $\alpha < 1$, the convergence towards the optimum as written in [17] holds under different assumptions including

(A2) (i) T is a compact metric space and $\mathcal{T}$ is the associated Borel σ-field;

(ii) for all $y \in \mathsf{Y}$, $\theta \mapsto k(\theta, y)$ is continuous;

(iii) we have $\int_{\mathsf{Y}} \sup_{\theta \in \mathsf{T}} k(\theta, y) \times \sup_{\theta' \in \mathsf{T}} \left(\frac{k(\theta', y)}{p(y)} \right)^{\alpha - 1} \nu(\mathrm{d}y) < \infty$.

If $\alpha = 0$, assume in addition that $\int_{\mathsf{Y}} \sup_{\theta \in \mathsf{T}} \left| \log \left(\frac{k(\theta, y)}{p(y)} \right) \right| p(y) \nu(\mathrm{d}y) < \infty$.

so that [17, Theorem 4], that is recalled below under the form of Theorem 1, states the convergence of the Power Descent algorithm towards the global optimum.

Theorem 1 ([17, Theorem 4])**.** *Assume* (A1) *and* (A2)*. Let $\alpha < 1$ and let $\kappa \leqslant 0$. Then, for all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$, $\Psi_\alpha(\mu) < \infty$ and any $\eta > 0$ satisfies $0 < \mu(\Gamma(b_{\mu,\alpha} + \kappa)) < \infty$. Further assume that $\eta \in (0, 1]$ and that there exist $\mu_1, \mu^\star \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ such that the (well-defined) sequence $(\mu_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ defined by* (3) *weakly converges to $\mu^\star$ as $n \to \infty$. Finally, denote by $\mathrm{M}_{1,\mu_1}(\mathsf{T})$ the set of probability measures dominated by μ_1. Then the following assertions hold*

(i) $(\Psi_\alpha(\mu_n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ is nonincreasing,

(ii) $\mu^\star$ is a fixed point of $\mathcal{I}_\alpha$,

(iii) $\Psi_\alpha(\mu^\star) = \inf_{\zeta \in \mathrm{M}_{1,\mu_1}(\mathsf{T})} \Psi_\alpha(\zeta)$.

The above result assumes there must exist $\mu_1, \mu^\star \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ such that the sequence $(\mu_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ defined by (3) weakly converges to $\mu^\star$ as $n \to \infty$, that is it assumes the limit already exists. Our first contribution consists in showing that this assumption can be alleviated when μ is chosen a weighted sum of Dirac measures, that is when we seek to perform mixture weights optimisation by α-divergence minimisation.

3 Convergence of the Power Descent algorithm in the mixture case

Before we state our convergence result, let us first make two comments on the assumptions from Theorem 1 that shall be retained in our upcoming convergence result.

A first comment is that (A1) is mild since the assumption that $p(y) > 0$ for all $y \in \mathsf{Y}$ can be discarded and is kept for convenience [17, Remark 4]. A second comment is that (A2) is also mild and covers (4) as it amounts to assuming that $b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta)$ and $\Psi_\alpha(\mu)$ are uniformly bounded with respect to μ and θ. To see this, we give below an example for which (A2) is satisfied.

Example 1. *Consider the case $\mathsf{Y} = \mathbb{R}^d$ with $\alpha \in [0, 1)$. Let $r > 0$ and let $\mathsf{T} = \mathcal{B}(0, r) \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. Furtheremore, let K_h be a Gaussian transition kernel with bandwidth h and denote by k_h its associated kernel density. Finally, let p be a mixture density of two d-dimensional Gaussian distributions multiplied by a positive constant c such that $p(y) = c \times [0.5\mathcal{N}(y; \theta_1^\star, \boldsymbol{I_d}) + 0.5\mathcal{N}(y; \theta_2^\star, \boldsymbol{I_d})]$ for all $y \in \mathsf{Y}$ where $\theta_1^\star, \theta_2^\star \in \mathsf{T}$ and $\boldsymbol{I_d}$ is the identity matrix. Then,* (A2) *holds (see Appendix B.1).*

Next, we introduce some notation that are specific to the case of mixture models we aim at studying in this section. Given $J \in \mathbb{N}^\star$, we introduce the simplex of $\mathbb{R}^J$:

$$\mathcal{S}_J = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\lambda} = (\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_J) \in \mathbb{R}^J \ : \ \forall j \in \{1, \ldots, J\} \, , \ \lambda_j \geqslant 0 \text{ and } \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j = 1 \right\}$$

and we also define $\mathcal{S}_J^+ = \{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathcal{S}_J \ : \ \forall j \in \{1, \ldots, J\} \, , \ \lambda_j > 0\}$. We let $\Theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J) \in \mathsf{T}^J$ be fixed and for all $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathcal{S}_J$, we define $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta} \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ by $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta} = \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j \delta_{\theta_j}$.

Consequently, $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta} k(y) = \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_j k(\theta_j, y)$ corresponds to a mixture model and if we let $(\mu_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ be defined by $\mu_1 = \mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta}$ and (3), an immediate induction yields that for every $n \in \mathbb{N}^\star$, μ_n can be expressed as $\mu_n = \sum_{j=1}^J \lambda_{j,n} \delta_{\theta_j}$ where $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n = (\lambda_{1,n}, \ldots, \lambda_{J,n}) \in \mathcal{S}_J$ satisfies the initialisation $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_1 = \boldsymbol{\lambda}$ and the update formula:

$$\boldsymbol{\lambda}_{n+1} = \mathcal{I}_\alpha^{\mathrm{mixt}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n) \ , \ n \in \mathbb{N}^\star \ , \tag{5}$$

where for all $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathcal{S}_J$,

$$\mathcal{I}_\alpha^{\mathrm{mixt}}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) := \left(\frac{\lambda_j \Gamma(b_{\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta},\alpha}(\theta_j) + \kappa)}{\sum_{\ell=1}^J \lambda_\ell \Gamma(b_{\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta},\alpha}(\theta_\ell) + \kappa)} \right)_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J}$$

with $\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha-1)v+1]^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}}$ for all $v \in \mathrm{Dom}_\alpha$. Finally, let us rewrite (A2) in the simplified case where μ is a sum of Dirac measures, which gives (A3) below.

(A3) (i) For all $y \in \mathsf{Y}$, $\theta \mapsto k(\theta, y)$ is continuous;

(ii) we have $\displaystyle\int_{\mathsf{Y}} \max_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J} k(\theta_j, y) \times \max_{1 \leqslant j' \leqslant J} \left(\frac{k(\theta_{j'}, y)}{p(y)} \right)^{\alpha-1} \nu(\mathrm{d}y) < \infty.$

If $\alpha = 0$, we assume in addition that $\displaystyle\int_{\mathsf{Y}} \max_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J} \left| \log \left(\frac{k(\theta_j, y)}{p(y)} \right) \right| p(y)\nu(\mathrm{d}y) < \infty.$

We then have the following theorem, which establishes the full proof of the global convergence towards the optimum for the mixture weights when $\alpha < 1$.

Theorem 2. *Assume* (A1) *and* (A3). *Let $\alpha < 1$, let $\Theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J) \in \mathsf{T}^J$ be fixed and let κ be such that $\kappa \leqslant 0$. Then for all $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathcal{S}_J$, $\Psi_\alpha(\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta}) < \infty$ and for any $\eta > 0$ the sequence $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ defined by $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_1 \in \mathcal{S}_J$ and* (5) *is well-defined. If in addition $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_1, \eta) \in \mathcal{S}_J^+ \times (0, 1]$ and $\{K(\theta_1, \cdot), \ldots, K(\theta_J, \cdot)\}$ are linearly independent, then*

(i) $(\Psi_\alpha(\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n,\Theta}))_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ is nonincreasing,

(ii) the sequence $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$ converges to some $\boldsymbol{\lambda}_\star \in \mathcal{S}_J$ which is a fixed point of $\mathcal{I}_\alpha^{\mathrm{mixt}}$,

(iii) $\Psi_\alpha(\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_\star,\Theta}) = \inf_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}' \in \mathcal{S}_J} \Psi_\alpha(\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}',\Theta})$.

The proof of this result builds on Theorem 1 and Theorem 4 and is deferred to Appendix B.2. Notice that since Ψ_α depends on $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ through $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta} K$ in Theorem 2, an identifiably condition was to be expected in order to achieve the convergence of the sequence $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}^\star}$. Following Example 1, this identifiably condition notably holds for $J \leqslant d$ under the assumption that the $\theta_1, ..., \theta_J$ are full-rank.

We thus have the convergence of the Power Descent under less stringent conditions when $\alpha < 1$ and when we consider the particular case of mixture models. This algorithm can easily become feasible for any choice of kernel K by resorting to an unbiased estimator of $(b_{\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}_n,\Theta},\alpha}(\theta_j))_{1 \leqslant j \leqslant J}$ in the update formula (5) (see Algorithm 3 of Appendix B.3).

Nevertheless, contrary to the case $\alpha > 1$ we still do not have a convergence rate for the Power Descent when $\alpha < 1$. Furthermore, the important case $\alpha \to 1$, which corresponds to performing forward Kullback-Leibler minimisation, is not covered by the Power Descent algorithm. In the next section, we extend the Power Descent to the case $\alpha = 1$. As we shall see, this will lead us to investigate the connections between the Power Descent and the Entropic Mirror Descent beyond the (α, Γ)-descent framework. As a result, we will introduce a novel algorithm closely-related to the Power Descent that yields an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate when $\mu = \mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta}$ and $\alpha < 1$ (and more generally when $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$).

4 Power Descent and Entropic Mirror Descent

Recall from Section 2 that the Power Descent is defined for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$. In this section, we first establish in Proposition 1 that the Power Descent can be extended to the case $\alpha = 1$ and that we recover an Entropic Mirror Descent, showing that a deeper connection runs between the two approaches beyond the one identified by the (α, Γ)-descent framework. This result relies on typical convergence and differentiability assumptions summarised in (D1) and which are deferred to Appendix C.1, alongside with the proof of Proposition 1.

Proposition 1 (Limiting case $\alpha \to 1$)**.** *Assume* (A1) *and* (D1). *Then, for all continuous and bounded real-valued functions h on T, we have that*

$$\lim_{\alpha \to 1} [\mathcal{I}_\alpha(\mu)](h) = [\mathcal{I}_1(\mu)](h) \ ,$$

where for all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ and all $\theta \in \mathsf{T}$, we have set

$$\mathcal{I}_1(\mu)(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \frac{\mu(\mathrm{d}\theta)e^{-\eta b_{\mu,1}(\theta)}}{\mu\left(e^{-\eta b_{\mu,1}}\right)} \quad \textit{and} \quad b_{\mu,1}(\theta) = \int_{\mathsf{Y}} k(\theta,y)\log\left(\frac{\mu k(y)}{p(y)}\right)\nu(\mathrm{d}y)\ . \tag{6}$$

Here, we recognise the one-step transition associated to the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_1. This algorithm is a special case of [17] with $\Gamma(v) = e^{-\eta v}$ and $\alpha = 1$ and as such, it is known to lead to a systematic decrease in the forward Kullback-Leibler divergence and to enjoy an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate under the assumptions that (4) holds and $\eta \in (0,1)$ [17, Theorem 3].

We have thus obtained that the Power Descent coincides exactly with the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_1 when $\alpha = 1$ and we now focus on understanding the links between Power Descent and Entropic Mirror Descent when $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$. For this purpose, let κ be such that $(\alpha-1)\kappa \geqslant 0$ and let us study first-order approximations of the Power Descent and the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α when $b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta) \approx \mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})$ for all $\theta \in \mathsf{T}$.

Letting $\eta > 0$, we have that the update formula for the Power Descent is given by

$$\mu_{n+1}(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \frac{\mu_n(\mathrm{d}\theta)\left[(\alpha-1)(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta)+\kappa)+1\right]^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}}}{\mu_n(\left[(\alpha-1)(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}+\kappa)+1\right]^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}})}\ , \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star\ .$$

Now using the first order approximation $u^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}} \approx v^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}} - \frac{\eta}{\alpha-1}v^{\frac{\eta}{1-\alpha}-1}(u-v)$ with $u = \frac{(\alpha-1)(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta)+\kappa)+1}{(\alpha-1)(\mu(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})+\kappa)+1}$ and $v = 1$, we can deduce the following approximated update formula

$$\mu_{n+1}(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \mu_n(\mathrm{d}\theta)\left[1 - \frac{\eta}{\alpha-1}\frac{b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta) - \mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})}{\mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})+\kappa+1/(\alpha-1)}\right]\ , \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star\ .$$

Letting $\eta' > 0$, the update formula for the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α can be written as

$$\mu_{n+1}(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \frac{\mu_n(\mathrm{d}\theta)\exp\left[-\eta'(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta)+\kappa)\right]}{\mu_n(\exp\left[-\eta'(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}+\kappa)\right])}\ , \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star\ , \tag{7}$$

and we obtain in a similar fashion that an approximated version of this iterative scheme is

$$\mu_{n+1}(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \mu_n(\mathrm{d}\theta)\left[1 - \eta'\left(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta) - \mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})\right)\right]\ , \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star\ .$$

Thus, for the two approximated formulas above to coincide, we need to set $\eta' = \eta\left[(\alpha-1)(\mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})+\kappa)+1\right]^{-1}$. Now coming back to (7), we see that this leads us to consider the update formula given by

$$\mu_{n+1}(\mathrm{d}\theta) = \frac{\mu_n(\mathrm{d}\theta)\exp\left[-\eta\frac{b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta)}{(\alpha-1)(\mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})+\kappa)+1}\right]}{\mu_n\left(\exp\left[-\eta\frac{b_{\mu_n,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)(\mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha})+\kappa)+1}\right]\right)}\ , \quad n \in \mathbb{N}^\star\ . \tag{8}$$

Observe then that (8) can again be seen as an Entropic Mirror Descent, but applied this time to the objective function defined for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0,1\}$ by

$$\Psi_\alpha^{AR}(\mu) := \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha-1)}\log\left(\int_{\mathsf{Y}} \mu k(y)^\alpha p(y)^{1-\alpha}\nu(\mathrm{d}y) + (\alpha-1)\kappa\right)\ ,$$

meaning we have applied the monotonic transformation

$$u \mapsto \frac{1}{\alpha(\alpha-1)}\log\left(\alpha(\alpha-1)u + \alpha + (1-\alpha)\int_{\mathsf{Y}} p(y)\nu(\mathrm{d}y) + (\alpha-1)\kappa\right)$$

to the initial objective function Ψ_α (see Appendix C.2 for the derivation of (8) based on the objective function Ψ_α^{AR}). Hence, in the spirit of Renyi's α-divergence gradient-based methods for Variational Inference (e.g [9, 10]), we can motivate the iterative scheme (8) by observing that we recover the Variational Renyi bound introduced in [10] up to a constant $-\alpha^{-1}$ when we let $p = p(\cdot, \mathscr{D})$, $\kappa = 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ in Ψ_α^{AR}. For this reason we call the algorithm given by (8) the *Renyi Descent* thereafter.

Contrary to the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α, the Renyi Descent now shares the same first-order approximation as the Power Descent. This might explain why the behavior of the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α and of the Power Descent differed greatly when $\alpha < 1$ in the numerical experiments from [17] despite their theoretical connection through the (α, Γ)-descent framework (the former performing poorly numerically compared to the later as the dimension increased).

Strikingly, we can prove an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate towards the global optimum for the Renyi Descent. Letting $\kappa' \in \mathbb{R}$, denoting by Dom_α^{AR} an interval of $\mathbb{R}$ such that for all $\theta \in \mathsf{T}$ and all $\mu \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$,

$$\frac{b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta) + 1/(\alpha-1)}{(\alpha-1)(\mu(b_{\mu,\alpha}) + \kappa) + 1} + \kappa' \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\mu(b_{\mu,\alpha}) + 1/(\alpha-1)}{(\alpha-1)(\mu(b_{\mu,\alpha}) + \kappa) + 1} + \kappa' \in \mathrm{Dom}_\alpha^{AR}$$

and introducing the assumption on η

(A4) For all $v \in \mathrm{Dom}_\alpha^{AR}$, $1 - \eta(\alpha-1)(v - \kappa') \geqslant 0$.

we indeed have the following convergence result.

Theorem 3. *Assume* (A1) *and* (A4). *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ and let κ be such that $(\alpha-1)\kappa > 0$. Define $|B|_{\infty,\alpha} := \sup_{\theta\in\mathsf{T},\mu\in\mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})} |b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta) + 1/(\alpha-1)|$ and assume that $|B|_{\infty,\alpha} < \infty$. Moreover, let $\mu_1 \in \mathrm{M}_1(\mathsf{T})$ be such that $\Psi_\alpha(\mu_1) < \infty$. Then, the following assertions hold.*

(i) The sequence $(\mu_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}^\star}$ defined by (8) *is well-defined and the sequence $(\Psi_\alpha(\mu_n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}^\star}$ is non-increasing.*

(ii) For all $N \in \mathbb{N}^\star$, we have

$$\Psi_\alpha(\mu_N) - \Psi_\alpha(\mu^\star) \leqslant \frac{L_{\alpha,2}}{N}\left[KL(\mu^\star||\mu_1) + L\frac{L_{\alpha,3}}{L_{\alpha,1}(\alpha-1)\kappa}\Delta_1\right], \tag{9}$$

where $\mu^\star$ is such that $\Psi_\alpha(\mu^\star) = \inf_{\zeta\in\mathrm{M}_{1,\mu_1}(\mathsf{T})} \Psi_\alpha(\zeta)$, $\mathrm{M}_{1,\mu_1}(\mathsf{T})$ denotes the set of probability measures dominated by μ_1, $KL(\mu^\star||\mu_1) = \int_{\mathsf{T}} \log(\mathrm{d}\mu^\star/\mathrm{d}\mu_1)\,\mathrm{d}\mu^\star$, $\Delta_1 = \Psi_\alpha(\mu_1) - \Psi_\alpha(\mu^\star)$ and $L_{\alpha,2}$, L, $L_{\alpha,3}$, $L_{\alpha,1}$ are finite constants defined in (20).

The proof of this result is deferred to Appendix C.3 and we present in the next example an application of this theorem to the particular case of mixture models.

Example 2. *Let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}\setminus\{1\}$, let $J \in \mathbb{N}^\star$, let $\Theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J) \in \mathsf{T}^J$, let $\mu_1 = J^{-1}\sum_{j=1}^J \delta_{\theta_j}$ and let $\mathrm{Dom}_\alpha^{AR} = [-\frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa} + \kappa', \frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa} + \kappa']$ with $\kappa' \in \mathbb{R}$. In addition, assume that $1 - \eta|\kappa|^{-1}|B|_{\infty,\alpha} > 0$. Then, taking $\kappa' = -3\frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa}$, we obtain*

$$\Psi_\alpha(\mu_N) - \Psi_\alpha(\mu^\star) \leqslant \frac{|\alpha-1|(|B|_{\infty,\alpha} + |\kappa|)}{N}\left[\frac{\log J}{\eta} + \frac{\sqrt{2\log(J)}|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa(1-\eta|\kappa|^{-1}|B|_{\infty,\alpha})}\right],$$

where we have used that $KL(\mu^\star||\mu_1) \leqslant \log J$, $\Delta_1 \leqslant \sqrt{2\log J}|B|_{\infty,\alpha}$ and that the constants defined in (20) *satisfy $L_{\alpha,2} = \eta^{-1}|\alpha-1|(|B|_{\infty,\alpha} + |\kappa|)$, $L = \eta^2 e^{\eta\frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa} - \eta\kappa'}$, $L_{\alpha,3} = e^{\eta\frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa} + \eta\kappa'}$ and $L_{\alpha,1} = (1-\eta|\kappa|^{-1}|B|_{\infty,\alpha})\eta e^{-\eta\frac{|B|_{\infty,\alpha}}{(\alpha-1)\kappa} - \eta\kappa'}$.*

To put things into perspective, notice that the Renyi Descent enjoys an $O(1/\sqrt{N})$ convergence rate as a Entropic Mirror Descent algorithm for the sequence $(\Psi_\alpha(N^{-1}\sum_{n=1}^N \mu_n))_{N\in\mathbb{N}^\star}$ under our assumptions when η is proportional to $1/\sqrt{N}$, N being fixed (see [22] or [23, Theorem 4.2.]).

The improvement thus lies in the fact that deriving an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate usually requires stronger smoothness assumptions on Ψ_α [23, Theorem 6.2] that we do not assume in Theorem 3. Furthermore, due to the monotonicity property, our result only involves the measure μ_N at time N while typical Entropic Mirror Result are expressed in terms of the average $N^{-1}\sum_{n=1}^N \mu_n$.

Finally, observe that the Renyi Descent becomes feasible in practice for any choice of kernel K by letting μ be a weighted sum of Dirac measures i.e $\mu = \mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta}$ and by resorting to an unbiased estimate of $(b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta_j))_{1\leqslant j\leqslant J}$ (see Algorithm 4 of Appendix C.4).

Table 1: Summary of the theoretical results obtained in this paper compared to [17]

	Power Descent	Renyi Descent
[17]	$\alpha < 1$: convergence under restrictive assumptions; $\alpha > 1$: $O(1/N)$ convergence rate	not covered
This paper	$\alpha < 1$: full proof of convergence for mixture weights; extension to $\alpha = 1$ with $O(1/N)$ convergence rate	$O(1/N)$ convergence rate

The theoretical results we have obtained are summarised in Table 1 and we next move on to numerical experiments.

5 Simulation study

Let the target p be a mixture density of two d-dimensional Gaussian distributions multiplied by a positive constant c such that $p(y) = c \times [0.5\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{y}; -s\boldsymbol{u_d}, \boldsymbol{I_d}) + 0.5\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{y}; s\boldsymbol{u_d}, \boldsymbol{I_d})]$, where $\boldsymbol{u_d}$ is the d-dimensional vector whose coordinates are all equal to 1, $s = 2$, $c = 2$ and $\boldsymbol{I_d}$ is the identity matrix. Given $J \in \mathbb{N}^\star$, the approximating family is described by

$$\left\{ y \mapsto \mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}} k_h(y) = \sum_{j=1}^{J} \lambda_j k_h(y - \theta_j) \ : \ \boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathcal{S}_J, \theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J \in \mathsf{T} \right\} ,$$

where K_h is a Gaussian transition kernel with bandwidth h and k_h denotes its associated kernel density.

Since the Power Descent and the Renyi Descent operate only on the mixture weights $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ of $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}} k_h$ during the optimisation, a fully adaptive algorithm can be obtained by alternating T times between an *Exploitation step* where the mixture weights are optimised and an *Exploration step* where the $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J$ are updated, as written in Algorithm 2.

Algorithm 2: *Complete Exploitation-Exploration Algorithm*

Input: p: measurable positive function, α: α-divergence parameter, q_0: initial sampler, K_h: Gaussian transition kernel, T: total number of iterations, J: dimension of the parameter set.
Output: Optimised weights $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ and parameter set Θ.
Draw $\theta_{1,1}, \ldots, \theta_{J,1}$ from q_0.
for $t = 1 \ldots T$ **do**

Exploitation step : Set $\Theta = \{\theta_{1,t}, \ldots, \theta_{J,t}\}$. Perform the Power Descent or Renyi Descent and obtain the optimised mixture weights $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$.

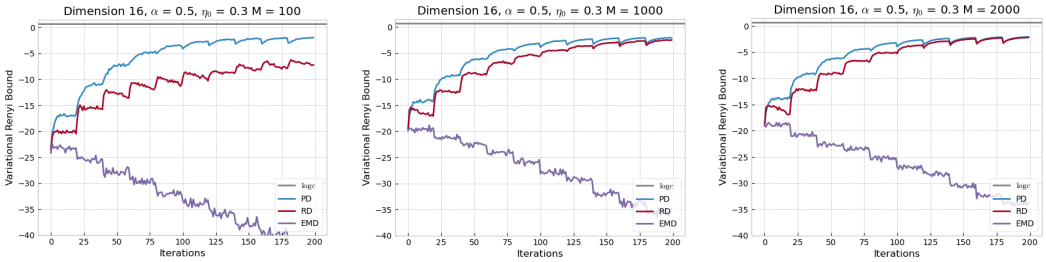
Exploration step : Perform any exploration step of our choice and obtain $\theta_{1,t+1}, \ldots, \theta_{J,t+1}$.

Many choices of Exploration step can be envisioned in Algorithm 2 since there is no constraint on $\{\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J\}$. Here, we consider the same Exploration step as the one they used in [17]: h is set to be proportional to $J^{-1/(4+d)}$ and the particles are updated by i.i.d sampling according to $\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta} k_h$ (and we refer to Appendix C.5 for some details about alternative possible choices of Exploration step).

As for the Power Descent and Renyi Descent, we perform N transitions of these algorithms at each time $t = 1 \ldots T$ according to Algorithm 3 and 4, in which the initial weights are set to be $[1/J, \ldots, 1/J]$, $\eta = \eta_0/\sqrt{N}$ with $\eta_0 > 0$ and M samples are used in the estimation of $(b_{\mu_{\boldsymbol{\lambda},\Theta},\alpha}(\theta_{j,t}))_{1 \leqslant J}$ at each iteration $n = 1 \ldots N$. We take $J = 100$, $M \in \{100, 1000, 2000\}$, $\alpha = 0.5$, $\kappa = 0$, $\eta_0 = 0.3$ and the initial particles $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_J$ are sampled from a centered normal distribution q_0 with covariance matrix $5\boldsymbol{I_d}$. We let $T = 10$, $N = 20$ and we replicate the experiment 100 times independently in dimension $d = 16$ for each algorithm. The convergence is assessed using a Monte Carlo estimate of the Variational Renyi bound introduced in [10] (which requires next to none additional computations).

The results for the Power Descent and the Renyi Descent are displayed on Figure 1 below and we add the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α as a reference.

Figure 1: Plotted is the average Variational Renyi bound for the Power Descent (PD), the Renyi Descent (RD) and the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α (EMD) in dimension $d = 16$ computed over 100 replicates with $\eta_0 = 0.3$ and $\alpha = 0.5$ and an increasing number of samples M.



We then observe that the Renyi Descent is indeed better-behaved compared to the Entropic Mirror Descent applied to Ψ_α, which fails in dimension 16. Furthermore, it matches the performances of the Power Descent as M increases in our numerical experiment, which illustrates the link between the two algorithms we have established in the previous section.

Discussion From a theoretical standpoint, no convergence rate is yet available for the Power Descent algorithm when $\alpha < 1$. An advantage of the novel Renyi Descent algorithm is then that while being close to the Power Descent, it also benefits from the Entropic Mirror Descent optimisation literature and as such $O(1/\sqrt{N})$ convergence rates hold, which we have been able to improve to $O(1/N)$ convergence rates.

A practical use of the Power Descent and of the Renyi Descent algorithms requires approximations to handle intractable integrals appearing in the update formulas so that the Power Descent applies the function $\Gamma(v) = [(\alpha-1)v+1]^{\eta/(1-\alpha)}$ to an *unbiased* estimator of the translated gradient $b_{\mu,\alpha}(\theta)+\kappa$ before renormalising, while the the Renyi Descent applies the Entropic Mirror Descent function $\Gamma(v) = e^{-\eta v}$ to a *biased* estimator of $b_{\mu_n,\alpha}(\theta)/(\mu_n(b_{\mu_n,\alpha}) + \kappa + 1/(\alpha-1))$ before renormalising.

Finding which approach is most suitable between biased and unbiased α-divergence minimisation is still an open issue in the literature, both theoretically and empirically [15, 16, 19]. Due to the exponentiation, considering the α-divergence instead of Renyi's α-divergence has for example been said to lead to high-variance gradients [11, 10] and low Signal-to-Noise ratio when $\alpha \neq 0$ [16] during the stochastic gradient descent optimization.

In that regard, our work sheds light on additional links between unbiased and biased α-divergence methods beyond the framework of stochastic gradient descent algorithms, as both the unbiased Power Descent and the biased Renyi Descent share the same first order approximation.

6 Conclusion

We investigated algorithms that can be used to perform mixture weights optimisation for α-divergence minimisation regardless of how the mixture parameters are obtained. We have established the full proof of the convergence of the Power Descent algorithm in the case $\alpha < 1$ when we consider mixture models and bridged the gap with the case $\alpha = 1$. We also introduced a closely-related algorithm called the Renyi Descent. We proved it enjoys an $O(1/N)$ convergence rate and illustrated in practice the proximity between these two algorithms when the number of samples M increases.

Further work could include establishing theoretical results regarding the stochastic version of these two algorithms, as well as providing complementary empirical results comparing the performances of the unbiased α-divergence-based Power Descent algorithm to those of the biased Renyi's α-divergence-based Renyi Descent. Since our contributions are mainly theoretical, we believe these will not result in any negative societal impacts.

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Checklist

1. For all authors...
   (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's contributions and scope? [Yes]
   (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes] End of Section 5 and Section 6.
   (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [Yes] Section 6.
   (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to them? [Yes]
2. If you are including theoretical results...
   (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes] Section 3 and Section 4.
   (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes] See Appendices.
3. If you ran experiments...
   (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experimental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes] Section 5 and supplementary.
   (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they were chosen)? [Yes] Section 5.
   (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experiments multiple times)? [N/A]
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