# Improving Convergence and Generalization Using Parameter Symmetries 

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#### Abstract

In overparametrized models, different parameter values may result in the same loss. Parameter space symmetries are loss-invariant transformations that change the model parameters. Teleportation (Zhao et al., 2022) applies such transformations to accelerate optimization. However, the exact mechanism behind this algorithm's success is not well understood. In this paper, we prove that teleportation is guaranteed to converge faster for smooth non-convex loss functions. Additionally, teleporting to minima with different curvatures improves generalization, which suggests a connection between the curvature of the minima and generalization ability. Finally, we show that integrating teleportation into optimization-based meta-learning improves convergence over traditional algorithms that perform only local updates. Our results showcase the versatility of teleportation and demonstrate the potential of incorporating symmetry in optimization.


## 1. Introduction

Given a deep neural network architecture and a batch of data, there may exist multiple points in the parameter space that correspond to the same loss value. Despite having the same loss, the gradients and learning dynamics starting at these points can be very different (Kunin et al., 2021). Parameter space symmetries, which are transformations of the parameters that leave the loss function invariant, allow us to teleport between points in the parameter space on the same level set of the loss function (Armenta et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2022). In particular, teleporting to a steeper point in the loss landscape leads to faster optimization.

Despite empirical evidence, the exact mechanism of how teleportation improves convergence in optimizing non-convex objectives remains elusive. Previous work shows that the gradient increases momentarily after a single teleportation step, but could not show that this results in overall faster convergence (Zhao et al., 2022). In the first part of this paper, we provide theoretical guarantees on the convergence rate of teleportation. In particular, we show that SGD (stochastic gradient descent) with teleportation converges to a basin of stationary points, where every parameter that can be reached by teleportation is also a stationary point.

Previous applications of teleportation are limited to accelerating optimization. The second part of this paper explores a different objective - improving generalization. We relate the properties of minima to their generalization ability and optimize them using teleportation. We empirically verify that certain sharpness metrics are correlated with generalization (Keskar et al., 2017) and that teleporting towards flatter regions improves validation loss. Additionally, we hypothesize that generalization also depends on the curvature of minima. For fully connected networks, we derive an explicit expression for estimating curvatures and show that teleporting towards larger curvatures improves the model's generalizability.

In previous works, teleportation requires optimization on the group manifold which can be computationally expensive. In the last part of this work, we explore the possibility of teleporting without implementing this optimization. Inspired by optimization-based metalearning (Andrychowicz et al., 2016), we propose a meta-optimizer that learns the group element used to teleport. Our result suggests that non-local updates via a learned teleportation have the potential to outperform the current practice of updating parameters only locally.

## 2. Theoretical Guarantees for Improving Optimization

In this section, we provide theoretical analysis of teleportation. We show that with teleportation, SGD converges to a basin of stationary points. Moreover, in certain loss functions, one teleportation guarantees optimality of the entire gradient flow trajectory.

Teleportation We briefly review the teleportation algorithm (Zhao et al., 2022) that exploits parameter symmetry to accelerate optimization. Consider the optimization problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{*}=\underset{w \in \mathbb{R}^{d}}{\arg \min } \mathcal{L}(w), \quad \mathcal{L}(w) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mathbb{E}_{\xi \sim \mathcal{D}}[\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)] \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mathcal{D}$ is the data distribution, $\xi$ is data sampled from $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{L}$ the loss, $w$ the parameters of the model, and $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ the parameter space. Let $\mathcal{G}$ be a group acting on the parameter space that preserves the loss: $\mathcal{L}(w)=\mathcal{L}(g \cdot w), \forall g \in \mathcal{G}, \forall w \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$. Symmetry teleportation transforms the parameters by the group element $g$ that maximizes the magnitude of gradients:

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{\prime}=g \cdot w, \quad g=\underset{g \in G}{\operatorname{argmax}}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(g \cdot w)\|^{2} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This optimization is usually implemented using gradient ascent on $g$. One gradient ascent step in a single teleportation has the same time complexity as one step of back-propagation of $\mathcal{L}$ (Zhao et al., 2022).

### 2.1. Accelerating SGD on smooth nonconvex loss functions

At each iteration $t \in \mathbb{N}^{+}$in SGD, we choose a group element $g^{t} \in \mathcal{G}$ and use teleportation before each gradient step as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{t+1}=g^{t} \cdot w^{t}-\eta \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\eta$ is a learning rate, $\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right)$ is a gradient of $\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right)$ with respect to the parameters $w$, and $\xi^{t} \sim \mathcal{D}$ is a mini-batch of data sampled i.i.d at each iteration. By choosing the group
element that maximizes the gradient norm, the iterates (3) converge to a basin of stationary points, where all points that can be reached via teleportation are also stationary points.

Theorem 1 Let $\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)$ be $\beta$-smooth and let $\sigma^{2} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left[\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\right]$. Consider the iterates $w^{t}$ given by equation 3 where $g^{t} \in \arg \max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}$. If $\eta=\frac{1}{\beta \sqrt{T-1}}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{t=0, \ldots, T-1} \mathbb{E}\left[\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq \frac{2 \beta}{\sqrt{T-1}} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)\right]+\frac{\beta \sigma^{2}}{\sqrt{T-1}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the expectation is the total expectation with respect to the data $\xi^{t}$ for $t=0, \ldots, T-1$.
Theorem 1 is an improvement over vanilla SGD, for which we would have instead that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{t=0, \ldots, T-1} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq \frac{2 \beta}{\sqrt{T-1}} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)\right]+\frac{\beta \sigma^{2}}{\sqrt{T-1}} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equation (5) only guarantees that there exists a single point $w^{t}$ for which the gradient norm will eventually be small. In contrast, our result in equation 4 guarantees that for all points over the orbit $\left\{g \cdot \theta^{t}: \forall g \in \mathcal{G}\right\}$, the gradient norm will be small. For strictly convex loss functions, $\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(g \cdot w)\|^{2}$ is non-decreasing with $\mathcal{L}(w)$. In this case, the value of $\mathcal{L}$ is smaller after $T$ steps of SGD with teleportation than vanilla SGD (Proposition 6 in Appendix B).

### 2.2. When is one teleportation enough

Despite the guaranteed improvement in convergence rate, teleporting at every step in gradient descent is not computationally feasible. In this section, we give a sufficient condition for when one teleportation results in an optimal trajectory for general loss functions.

Let $V: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow T \mathcal{M}$ be a vector field on the manifold $\mathcal{M}$, where $T \mathcal{M}$ denotes the associated tangent bundle. Here we consider the parameter space $\mathcal{M}=\mathbb{R}^{n}$, but results in this section can be extended to optimization on other manifolds. In this case, we may write $V=v^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}}$ using the component functions $v^{i}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and coordinates $w^{i}$.

Consider a smooth loss function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $\mathfrak{X}$ be the set of all vector fields on $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let $R=r^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}}$, where $r^{i}=-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}}$, be the reverse gradient vector field. A gradient flow is a curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ where the velocity is the value of $R$, i.e. $\gamma^{\prime}(t)=R_{\gamma(t)}$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Let $G$ be a continuous symmetry group of $\mathcal{L}$, i.e. $\mathcal{L}(g \cdot \boldsymbol{w})=\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}$ and $g \in G$. The infinitesimal action of its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ defines a set of vector fields $\mathfrak{X}_{\mathfrak{g}}$. To simplify notations, we write $([W, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for a set of vector fields $W \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$ when the Lie bracket $([A, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$. We call a gradient flow optimal if every point on the flow is a critical point of the function that maps a point in a level set to the magnitude of gradient at that point.
Definition 2 Let $f: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(\boldsymbol{w}) \mapsto\left\|\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right\|_{2}^{2}$. A point $\boldsymbol{w} \in M$ is optimal with respect to a set of vector fields $W$ if $A f(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$. A gradient flow $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ is optimal with respect to $W$ if $\gamma(t)$ is optimal with respect to $W$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 3 A point $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}$ is optimal with respect to a set of vector fields $W$ if and only if $([W, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$.

The following proposition states that a sufficient condition for one teleportation to result in an optimal trajectory is that whenever $[W, R] \mathcal{L}$ vanishes at $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}$, it vanishes along the entire gradient flow starting at $\boldsymbol{w}$. Proofs and discussions can be found in Appendix C.

Proposition 4 Let $W \subseteq \mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$ be a set of vector fields that are orthogonal to $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}$. Assume that for all $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}$ such that $([W, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$, we have $(R[W, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$. Then the gradient flow starting at any optimal point with respect to $W$ is optimal with respect to $W$.

## 3. Teleportation for Improving Generalization

Teleportation was originally proposed to speed up optimization. In this section, we explore the suitability of teleportation for improving generalization by teleporting parameters to regions with different sharpness and curvature. We define sharpness as the change in the loss value averaged over random directions as in Izmailov et al. (2018). We then provide a novel method to estimate the curvature of the minima by averaging the curvature of the curves on minima, whose velocities are defined by infinitesimal group actions (curve $\gamma$ in Figure 1 left). Details of these curves and experiment setups can be found in Appendix E.

Figure 1 shows the training curve of SGD on CIFAR-10, with one teleportation at epoch 20. Teleporting to flatter points slightly improves the validation loss, while teleporting to a sharper point has no effect. Interestingly, teleportation that changes curvature is able to affect generalization. Teleporting to points with larger curvatures helps find a minimum with lower validation loss, while teleporting to points with smaller curvatures has the opposite effect. This suggests that at least locally, curvature is correlated with generalization.




Figure 1: Left: gradient flow $(\mathcal{L})$ and a curve on the minimum $(\gamma)$. Middle and right: changing sharpness or curvature using teleportation and its effect on generalization on CIFAR-10. Solid lines represent average test loss, and dashed lines represent training loss.

## 4. Learning to Teleport

In optimization-based meta-learning, the parameter update rule or hyperparameters are learned with a meta-optimizer (Andrychowicz et al., 2016; Finn et al., 2017). Teleportation introduces an additional degree of freedom in parameter updates. We augment existing meta-learning algorithms by learning both the local update and teleportation. This allows us to teleport without implementing the additional optimization step on groups, which reduces computation time.

Let $\boldsymbol{w}_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be the parameters at time $t$, and $\nabla_{t}=\left.\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right|_{\boldsymbol{w}_{t}}$ be the gradient of loss $\mathcal{L}$. Let $G$ be a group whose action on the parameter space leaves $\mathcal{L}$ invariant. Extending meta-learning beyond an additive update rule, we train two meta-optimizers $m_{1}, m_{2}$ with hidden states $h_{1}, h_{2}$ to learn the update direction $f_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and the group element $g_{t} \in G$ :

$$
\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1}=g_{t} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{t}+f_{t}\right) \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{t}  \tag{6}\\
h_{1_{t+1}}
\end{array}\right]=m_{1}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{1_{t}}\right), \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
g_{t} \\
h_{2_{t+1}}
\end{array}\right]=m_{2}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{2_{t}}\right) .
$$

We train and test on small fully connected neural networks, with details deferred to Appendix F. Compared to vanilla gradient descent ("GD"), learning only the local update $f_{t}$ ("LSTM(update)"), and learning only the group element $g_{t}$ along with SGD learning rate ("LSTM(lr,tele)"), learning the two types of updates together ("LSTM(update,tele)") achieves better convergence rate (Figure 2). Our result suggests that augmenting existing optimization techniques with non-local updates can be beneficial.

## 5. Conclusion \& Discussion

Teleportation provides a powerful tool to search on the loss level sets for parameters with desired properties. We provide theoretical guarantees that teleportation accel-


Figure 2: Performance of metaoptimizers on test data. Learning both local and nonlocal transformation results in better convergence rate than learning only local updates or only teleportation. erates the convergence rate of SGD. Using concepts in symmetry, we propose a distinct notion of curvature and show that incorporating additional teleportation objectives such as changing the curvatures can be beneficial to generalization. The close relationship between symmetry and optimization opens up a number of exciting opportunities. Exploring other objectives appears to be an interesting future direction. Another potential application is to extend teleportation to different architectures, such as convolutional or graph neural networks, and different algorithms, such as sampling-based optimization.

The empirical results linking sharpness and curvatures to generalization are intriguing. However, the theoretical origin of their relation remains unclear. In particular, a precise description of how the loss landscape changes under distribution shifts is not known. More investigation of the correlation between curvatures and generalization will help teleportation further improve generalization and lead to a better understanding of the loss landscape.

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## Appendix A. Related Work

Parameter space symmetry Various symmetries have been identified in neural networks. Permutation symmetry has been linked to the structure of minima (Simşek et al., 2021; Entezari et al., 2022). Continuous symmetries are identified in various architectures, including homogeneous activations (Badrinarayanan et al., 2015; Du et al., 2018), radial rescaling activations (Ganev et al., 2022), and softmax and batch norm functions (Kunin et al., 2021). Quiver representation theory provides a more general framework for symmetries in neural networks with point-wise (Armenta and Jodoin, 2021) and rescaling activations (Ganev and Walters, 2022). A new class of nonlinear and data-dependent symmetries is identified in (Zhao et al., 2023). Since symmetry defines transformations of parameters within a level set of the loss function, these works are the basis of the teleportation method used in our paper.

Knowledge of parameter space symmetry motivates new optimization methods. One line of work seeks algorithms that are invariant to symmetry transformations (Neyshabur et al., 2015; Meng et al., 2019). Others search in the orbit for parameters that can be optimized faster (Armenta et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2022). We build on the latter by providing theoretical analysis on the improvement of the convergence rate and by augmenting the teleportation objective to improve generalization.

Initializations and restarts Teleportation before training changes the initialization of parameters. Initialization is known to affect both optimization and generalization. For example, imbalance between layers at initialization affects the convergence of gradient flows in two-layer models (Tarmoun et al., 2021). Different initializations, among other sources of variance, lead to different model performances after convergence (Dodge et al., 2020; Bouthillier et al., 2021). The Fourier spectrum at initialization is related to generalization because different frequency functions are learned at different rates (Ramasinghe et al., 2022). For shallow networks, certain initialization is required to learn symmetric functions with generalization guarantees (Nachum and Yehudayoff, 2021). Teleportation during training re-initializes the parameters to a point with the same loss. A similar effect is achieved by warm restart, (Loshchilov and Hutter, 2017), which encourages the parameters to move to more stable regions by periodically increasing the learning rate. Compared to initialization methods, teleportation allows multiple changes in the landscape during the training. Compared to restarts, teleportation leads to a smaller temporary increase in loss and provides more control of where to move the parameters.

Sharpness of minima and generalization The sharpness of minima has been linked to the generalization ability of models both empirically and theoretically (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997; Keskar et al., 2017; Petzka et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2020), which motivates optimization methods that find flatter minima (Chaudhari et al., 2017; Foret et al., 2021; Kwon et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022). We employ teleportation in service of this goal by searching for flatter points along the loss level sets. The sharpness of a minimum is often defined by properties of the Hessian of the loss function, such as the number of small eigenvalues (Keskar et al., 2017; Chaudhari et al., 2017; Sagun et al., 2017) or the product of the top $k$ eigenvalues Wu et al. (2017). Alternatively, sharpness can be characterized by the maximum loss within a neighborhood of a minimum (Keskar et al., 2017; Foret et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2022) or approximated by the growth in the loss curve averaged over random directions (Izmailov et al., 2018). The sharpness of the minima does not always explain generalization (Dinh et al., 2017). Transformation of parameters that keep the function unchanged does not affect generalization but can lead to minima with different sharpness.

## Appendix B. Proof of Theorem 1 and Additional Discussion

Lemma 5 (Descent Lemma) Let $\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)$ be $\beta$-smooth function. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}\left[\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\|^{2}\right] \leq 2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}(w)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)\right)+2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left[\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\right]\right) . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof Since $\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)$ is smooth we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(z, \xi)-\mathcal{L}(w, \xi) \leq\langle\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi), z-w\rangle+\frac{\beta}{2}\|z-w\|^{2}, \quad \forall z, w \in \mathbb{R}^{d} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

By inserting

$$
z=w-\frac{1}{\beta} \nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)
$$

into equation 8 we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(w-(1 / \beta) \nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)) \leq \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)-\frac{1}{2 \beta}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\|^{2} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Re-arranging we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\mathcal{L}(w, \xi) & =\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)+\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)-\mathcal{L}(w, \xi) \\
\leq & \mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)+\mathcal{L}(w-(1 / \beta) \nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi))-\mathcal{L}(w, \xi) \\
& \stackrel{\text { equation } 9}{\leq} \mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)-\frac{1}{2 \beta}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\|^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

where the first inequality follows because $\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi) \leq \mathcal{L}(w, \xi), \forall w$. Re-arranging the above and taking expectation gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left[\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\|^{2}\right] & \leq 2 \mathbb{E}\left[\beta\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)+\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)\right)\right] \\
& \leq 2 \beta \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)-\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)+\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}, \xi\right)\right] \\
& \leq 2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}(w)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)\right)+2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left[\inf _{w}^{\mathcal{L}}(w, \xi)\right]\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof of Theorem 1.

Proof First note that if $\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)$ is $\beta$-smooth, then $\mathcal{L}(w)$ is also a $\beta$-smooth function, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{L}(z)-\mathcal{L}(w)-\langle\nabla \mathcal{L}(w), z-w\rangle \leq \frac{\beta}{2}\|z-w\|^{2} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using equation 3 with $z=w^{t+1}$ and $w=g^{t} \cdot w^{t}$, together with equation 10 and the definition of symmetry, we have that

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t+1}\right) & \leq \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)+\left\langle\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right), w^{t+1}-g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right\rangle+\frac{\beta}{2}\left\|w^{t+1}-g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right\|^{2}  \tag{11}\\
& =\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)-\eta_{t}\left\langle\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right), \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right)\right\rangle+\frac{\beta \eta_{t}^{2}}{2}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right)\right\|^{2} . \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

Taking expectation conditioned on $w^{t}$, we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t+1}\right)\right] \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)-\eta_{t}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}+\frac{\beta \eta_{t}^{2}}{2} \mathbb{E}_{t}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}, \xi^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now since $\mathcal{L}(w, \xi)$ is $\beta$-smooth, from Lemma 5 below we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}\left[\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\|^{2}\right] \leq 2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}(w)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)\right)+2 \beta\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left[\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\right]\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using equation 14 with $w=g^{t} \circ w^{t}$ we have that

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t+1}\right)\right] \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right) & -\eta_{t}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \\
& +\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)+\mathcal{L}\left(w^{*}\right)-\mathbb{E}\left[\inf _{w} \mathcal{L}(w, \xi)\right]\right) . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

Using that $\mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)=\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)$, taking full expectation and re-arranging terms gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta_{t} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2}\right) \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]-\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t+1}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]+\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2} \sigma^{2} . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now we use a re-weighting trick introduced in Stich (2019). Let $\alpha_{t}>0$ be a sequence such that $\alpha_{t}\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2}\right)=\alpha_{t-1}$. Consequently if $\alpha_{-1}=1$ then $\alpha_{t}=\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2}\right)^{-(t+1)}$. Multiplying by both sides of equation 16 by $\alpha_{t}$ thus gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{t} \eta_{t} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq \alpha_{t-1} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]-\alpha_{t} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{t+1}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]+\alpha_{t} \beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2} \sigma^{2} . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Summing up from $t=0, \ldots, T-1$, and using telescopic cancellation, gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]+\beta^{2} \sigma^{2} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}^{2} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $A=\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}$. Dividing both sides by $A$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
\min _{t=0, \ldots, T-1} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] & \leq \frac{1}{\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \\
& \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]+\beta^{2} \sigma^{2} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}^{2}}{\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t}} \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

Finally, if $\eta_{t} \equiv \eta$ then

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t} & =\eta \sum_{t=0}^{T-1}\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta_{t}^{2}\right)^{-(t+1)}=\frac{\eta}{1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}} \frac{1-\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)^{-T}}{1-\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)^{-1}}  \tag{20}\\
& =\frac{1-\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)^{-T}}{\beta^{2} \eta} \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

To bound the term with the $-T$ power, we use that

$$
\left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)^{-T} \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \frac{\log (2)}{\log \left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)} \leq T
$$

To simplify the above expression we can use

$$
\frac{x}{1+x} \leq \log (1+x) \leq x, \quad \text { for } x \geq-1
$$

thus

$$
\frac{\log (2)}{\log \left(1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}\right)} \leq \frac{1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}{\beta^{2} \eta^{2}} \leq T
$$

Using the above we have that

$$
\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha_{t} \eta_{t} \geq \frac{1}{2 \beta^{2} \eta}, \quad \text { for } T \geq \frac{1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}{\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}
$$

Using this lower bound in equation 19 gives

$$
\min _{t=0, \ldots, T-1} \mathbb{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g^{t} \cdot w^{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leq 2 \beta^{2} \eta \mathbb{E}\left[\mathcal{L}\left(w^{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}^{*}\right]+\eta \beta^{2} \sigma^{2}, \quad \text { for } T \geq \frac{1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}{\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}
$$

Now note that

$$
T \geq \frac{1+\beta^{2} \eta^{2}}{\beta^{2} \eta^{2}} \Leftrightarrow \beta^{2} \eta^{2}(T-1) \geq 1 \Leftrightarrow \eta \geq \frac{1}{\beta \sqrt{(T-1)}}
$$

Thus finally setting $\eta=\frac{1}{\beta \sqrt{T-1}}$ gives the result equation 4.

Proposition 6 Assume that $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is strictly convex and twice continuously differentiable. Assume also that for any two points $w_{a}, w_{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{a}\right)=\mathcal{L}\left(w_{b}\right)$, there exists a $g \in G$ such that $w_{a}=g \cdot w_{b}$. At two points $w_{1}, w_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, if $\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w_{1}\right)\right\|^{2}=$ $\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right\|^{2}$, then $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$.

Proof Let $S(x)=\{w: \mathcal{L}(w)=x\}$ be the level sets of $\mathcal{L}$, and $X=\left\{\mathcal{L}(w): w \in \mathbb{R}^{n}\right\}$ be the image of $\mathcal{L}$. Since $G$ acts transitively on the level sets of $\mathcal{L}$, $\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(g \cdot w)\|^{2}=$ $\max _{w \in S(x)}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w)\|^{2}$. To simplify notation, we define a function $F: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, F(x)=$ $\max _{w \in S(x)}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w)\|^{2}$. Since $\nabla \mathcal{L}(w)$ is continuously differentiable, the directional derivative of $F$ is defined. Additionally, since $\mathcal{L}$ is continuous and its domain $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is connected, its image $X$ is also connected. This means that for any $w_{1}, w_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\min \left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right) \leq$ $y \leq \max \left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right), \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right)$, there exists a $w_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ such that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)=y$.

Next, we show that $F(\cdot)$ is strictly increasing by contradiction.
Suppose that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)<\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$ and $F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)\right) \geq F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right)$. By the mean value theorem, there exists a $w_{3}$ such that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)<\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)<\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$ and the directional derivative of $F$ in the direction towards $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$ is non-positive: $\partial_{\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)} F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)\right) \leq 0$. Let $w_{3}^{*} \in$ $\arg \max _{w \in S\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)\right)}\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(w)\|^{2}$ be a point that has the largest gradient norm in $S\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}\right)\right)$. Then at $w_{3}^{*},\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\|^{2}$ cannot increase along the gradient direction. However, this means

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial w}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right)\right\|^{2}=\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right)^{T} H \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right) \leq 0 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we assumed that $\mathcal{L}$ is convex and $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right)$ is not a minimum $\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right)>\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)\right)$, we have that $\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{3}^{*}\right) \neq 0$. Therefore, equation 22 contradicts with $\mathcal{L}$ being strictly convex, and we have $F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)\right)<F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right)$.

We have shown that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)<\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$ implies $F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)\right)<F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right)$. Taking the contrapositive and switching $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}, F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right)\right) \leq F\left(\mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right)$ implies $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$. Equivalently, $\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w_{1}\right)\right\|^{2} \leq \max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w_{2}\right)\right\|^{2}$ implies that $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$.

Finally, since

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w_{1}\right)\right\|^{2}=\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)\right\|^{2} \leq \max _{g \in \mathcal{G}}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(g \cdot w_{2}\right)\right\|^{2}, \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

we have $\mathcal{L}\left(w_{1}\right) \leq \mathcal{L}\left(w_{2}\right)$.

## Appendix C. Is one teleportation enough to find the optimal trajectory?

This section provides additional mathematical background and proofs omitted in Section 2.2. We also discuss alternative methods to check whether one teleportation is sufficient and when the conditions are satisfied in practice.

Consider a smooth loss function $\mathcal{L}: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $G$ be a symmetry group of $\mathcal{L}$, i.e. $\mathcal{L}(g \cdot \boldsymbol{w})=\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ for all $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}$ and $g \in G$. Let $\mathfrak{X}$ be the set of all vector fields on $\mathcal{M}$. Let $R=r^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}}$, where $r^{i}=-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}}$, be the reverse gradient vector field. Let $\mathfrak{X}_{\perp}=\left\{A=a^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}} \in\right.$ $\mathfrak{X} \mid a^{i} \in C^{\infty}(\mathcal{M})$ and $\left.\sum_{i} a^{i}(\boldsymbol{w}) r^{i}(\boldsymbol{w})=0, \forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}\right\}$ be the set of vector fields orthogonal to $R$. If $G$ is a Lie group, the infinitesimal action of its Lie algebra $\mathfrak{g}$ defines a set of vector fields $\mathfrak{X}_{\mathfrak{g}} \subseteq \mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$.

A gradient flow is a curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ where the velocity is the value of $R$ at each point, i.e. $\gamma^{\prime}(t)=R_{\gamma(t)}$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. The Lie bracket $[A, R]$ defines the derivative of $R$ with respect to $A$. Flows of $A$ and $R$ commute if and only if $[A, R]=0$ (Theorem 9.44, Lee (2013)). That is, teleportation can affect the convergence rate only if $[A, R] \mathcal{L} \neq 0$ for at least one $A \in \mathfrak{X}_{\mathfrak{g}}$. To simplify notations, we write $([W, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for a set of vector fields $W \subseteq \mathfrak{X}$ when $([A, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$.

Theorem 7 (Theorem 3 in main text) A point $\boldsymbol{w} \in M$ is optimal in a set of vector fields $W$ if and only if $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$.

Proof Note that $A \mathcal{L}=a^{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}=0$. We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
[A, R] \mathcal{L}=A R \mathcal{L}-R A \mathcal{L}=A\left(r^{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}}\right)-0=-A\left\|\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right\|_{2}^{2}=-A f \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

The result then follows from Definition 2.

Proposition 8 (Proposition 4 in main text) Let $W \subseteq \mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$ be a set of vector fields that are orthogonal to the gradient of $\mathcal{L}$. If $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$ implies that $R([A, R] \mathcal{L})(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in W$, then the gradient flow starting at an optimal point in $W$ is optimal in $W$.

Proof Consider the gradient flow $\gamma$ that starts at an optimal point in $W$. The derivative of $[A, R] \mathcal{L}$ along $\gamma$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t}[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\gamma(t))=\gamma^{\prime}(t)([A, R] \mathcal{L})(\gamma(t))=-R[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\gamma(t)) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\gamma(0)$ is an optimal point, $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\gamma(0))=0$ for all $A \in W$ by Proposition 3. By assumption, if $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\gamma(t))=0$ for all $A \in W$, then $R([A, R] \mathcal{L})(\gamma(t))=0$ for all $A \in W$. Therefore, both the value and the derivative of $[A, R] \mathcal{L}$ stay 0 along $\gamma$. Since $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\gamma(t))=0$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}, \gamma$ is optimal in $W$.

To help check when Proposition 4 is satisfied, we provide an alternative form of $R[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ under the assumption that $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$. We will use the following lemmas in the proof.

Lemma 9 For two vectors $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, if $\boldsymbol{v}^{T} \boldsymbol{w}=0$ and $\boldsymbol{w} \neq \mathbf{0}$, then there exists an anti-symmetric matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $\boldsymbol{v}=M \boldsymbol{w}$.

Proof Let $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}=[1,0, \ldots, 0]^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Consider a list of $n-1$ anti-symmetric matrices $M_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, where

$$
M_{i j}^{k}= \begin{cases}-1, & \text { if } j=1 \text { and } k=i+1  \tag{26}\\ 1, & \text { if } j=i+1 \text { and } k=1 \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

In matrix form, the $M_{i}$ 's are

$$
M_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & -1 & 0 & \ldots & 0  \tag{27}\\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
& & \ldots & & \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right], M_{2}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & -1 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
& & \ldots & & \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right], \ldots, M_{n-1}=\left[\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 \\
& & \ldots & & \\
1 & 0 & 0 & \ldots & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Since $M_{i}$ 's are anti-symmetric, $M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ is orthogonal to $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$. The norm of $M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}=\mathbf{e}_{i+1}$ is 1 . Additionally, $M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ is orthogonal to $M_{j} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ for $i \neq j$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right)^{T}\left(M_{j} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right)=\mathbf{e}_{i+1}^{T} \mathbf{e}_{j+1}=\delta_{i j} . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Denote $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{\perp}=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \boldsymbol{x}^{T} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}=0\right\}$ as the orthogonal complement of $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$. Then $M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ forms a basis of $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{\perp}$. Next, we extend this to an arbitrary $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$.

Let $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}=\frac{\boldsymbol{w}}{\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}}$. Since $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ has norm 1, there exists an orthogonal matrix $R$ such that $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}=R \boldsymbol{w}_{0}$. Let $M_{i}^{\prime}=R M_{i} R^{T}$. Then $M_{i}^{\prime}$ is anti-symmetric:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(R M_{i} R^{T}\right)^{T}=R M_{i}^{T} R^{T}=-R M_{i} R^{T} . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

It follows that $M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ is orthogonal to $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$. The norm of $M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ is $\left\|\left(R M_{i} R^{T}\right)\left(R \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right)\right\|=$ $\left\|R M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right\|=\left\|M_{i} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right\|=1$. Additionally, $M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ is orthogonal to $M_{j}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ for $i \neq j$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
\left(M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}\right)^{T}\left(M_{j}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}\right) & =\left(R M_{i} R^{T} R \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right)^{T}\left(R M_{j} R^{T} R \boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right) \\
& =\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T} R^{T} R M_{i}^{T} R^{T} R M_{j} R^{T} R \boldsymbol{w}_{0} \\
& =\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T} M_{i}^{T} M_{j} \boldsymbol{w}_{0} \\
& =\delta_{i j} . \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore, $M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$ spans $\hat{\boldsymbol{w}}^{\perp}=\boldsymbol{w}^{\perp}$. This means that any vector $\boldsymbol{v} \in \boldsymbol{w}^{\perp}$ can be written as a linear combination of $M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}$. That is, there exists $k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$, such that $\boldsymbol{v}=\sum_{i} k_{i}\left(M_{i}^{\prime} \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}\right)$. To find the anti-symmetric $M$ that takes $\boldsymbol{w}$ to $\boldsymbol{v}$, note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{v}=\left(\sum_{i} k_{i} M_{i}^{\prime}\right) \hat{\boldsymbol{w}}=\left(\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{-1} \sum_{i} k_{i} M_{i}^{\prime}\right) \boldsymbol{w} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the sum of anti-symmetric matrices is anti-symmetric, and the product of an antisymmetric matrix and a scalar is also anti-symmetric, $\|\boldsymbol{w}\|_{2}^{-1} \sum_{i} k_{i} M_{i}^{\prime}$ is anti-symmetric.

Lemma 10 Let $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be a nonzero vector. Then the two sets $\left\{M \boldsymbol{v}: M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, M^{T}=\right.$ $-M\}$ and $\left\{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{v}=0\right\}$ are equal.

Proof Let $A=\left\{M \boldsymbol{v}: M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, M^{T}=M^{-1}\right\}$ and $B=\left\{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}: \boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{v}=0\right\}$. Since $(M \boldsymbol{v})^{T} \boldsymbol{v}=0$ for all anti-symmetric $M$, every element in $A$ is in $B$. By Lemma 9, every element in $B$ is in $A$. Therefore $A=B$.

Let $S=\left\{\left.\left(M \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right)^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}} \in \mathfrak{X} \right\rvert\, M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, M^{T}=-M\right\}$ be the set of vector fields constructed by multiplying the gradient by an anti-symmetric matrix. Recall that $R=-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}}$ is the reverse gradient vector field, and $\mathfrak{X}_{\perp}=\left\{a^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{i}} \left\lvert\, \sum_{i} a^{i}(\boldsymbol{w}) \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w^{i}}=0\right., \forall \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{M}\right\}$ is the set of all vector fields orthogonal to $R$. From Lemma 10, we have $S=\mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$. Therefore, a point $\boldsymbol{w}$ is an optimal point in $S$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{w}$ is an optimal point in $\mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$.

We are now ready to prove the following proposition, which provides another way to check the condition in Proposition 4.

Proposition 11 If at all optimal points in $S$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}=0 \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all anti-symmetric matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, then the gradient flow starting at an optimal point in $S$ is optimal in $S$.

Proof Expanding $R[A, R] \mathcal{L}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
R[A, R] \mathcal{L} & =R\left(A\left(r^{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right)-0\right) \\
& =r^{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(a^{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{j}}\left(r^{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right)\right) \\
& =r^{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(a^{j}\left(\frac{\partial r^{i}}{\partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+r^{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right)\right) \\
& =-r^{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(a^{j}\left(\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}}\right) \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i}} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right)\right) \\
& =-2 r^{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(a^{j} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right) \\
& =-2 r^{k}\left(\frac{\partial a^{j}}{\partial w^{k}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+a^{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right)\right) \\
& =2 \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial a^{j}}{\partial w^{k}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+2 \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} a^{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right) \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

Assume that $\boldsymbol{w}$ is an optimal point in $S$. By Lemma $10, \boldsymbol{w}$ is also an optimal point in $\mathfrak{X}_{\perp}$. By Lemma C. 4 in Zhao et al. (2022), $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}$ is an eigenvector of $\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}}$. Therefore, $\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}=\lambda \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}}$ for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$. Additionally, $a^{j}=M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}}$ and $\frac{\partial a^{j}}{\partial w^{k}}=M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha} \partial w^{k}}$. We are now ready to simplify both terms in equation 33 .

For the first term in equation 33 ,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial a^{j}}{\partial w^{k}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} & =\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha} \partial w^{k}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \\
& =M_{\alpha}^{j}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha} \partial w^{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}}\right)\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right) \\
& =M_{\alpha}^{j}\left(\lambda_{1} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}}\right)\left(\lambda_{2} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}}\right) \\
& =\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}} \\
& =0 \tag{34}
\end{align*}
$$

The last equality holds because $M$ is anti-symmetric.

For the second term in equation 33 ,

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} a^{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial w^{k}}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\right) & =\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} a^{j}\left(\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i}}\right) \\
& =\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}}\left(\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i}}\right) \\
& =M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\lambda_{1} \lambda_{2} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}} \\
& =M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \tag{35}
\end{align*}
$$

In summary,

$$
\begin{equation*}
R[A, R] \mathcal{L}=2 M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since we assumed that $[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$, when $R[A, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ for all $A \in S$, the gradient flow starting at an optimal point in $S$ is optimal in $S$.

Proposition 12 Suppose that $\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{\alpha}}=\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}}$ holds for all $i, k, j, \alpha$. Then for all anti-symmetric matrices $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}=0$.
Proof If $\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{\alpha}}=\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}}$ for all $i, k, j, \alpha$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \\
= & \sum_{i, k, \alpha<j} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\sum_{i, k, \alpha>j} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \\
= & \sum_{i, k, \alpha<j} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\sum_{i, k, j>\alpha} M_{j}^{\alpha} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{j}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \\
= & \sum_{i, k, \alpha<j} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}+\sum_{i, k, j>\alpha}-M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{j}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}} \\
= & \sum_{i, k, \alpha<j} M_{\alpha}^{j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{k}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{i}}\left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{j}}-\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{j}} \frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w_{i} \partial w^{\alpha}}\right) \\
= & 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

where the first equality uses that the diagonal of an anti-symmetric matrix is 0 , the second equality swaps $\alpha$ and $j$ in the second term, the third equality uses that $M$ is anti-symmetric.

From Proposition 11 , we see that $R[W, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ is not automatically 0 when $[W, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=$ 0 . Therefore, even if the group is big enough, one teleportation does not guarantee that the gradient flow intersects all future level sets at an optimal point. However, for loss functions that satisfy $R[W, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$ when $[W, R] \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=0$, teleporting once optimizes the entire trajectory. This is the case, for example, when $\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{j}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{\alpha}}=\frac{\partial^{3} \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{k} \partial w^{i} \partial w^{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{j}}$ for all $i, k, j, \alpha$ (Proposition 12). In particular, all quadratic functions meet this condition.

Example (Quadratic function) Consider the quadratic function $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})=\frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{w}^{T} A \boldsymbol{w}+$ $\mathbf{b}^{T} \boldsymbol{w}+\mathbf{c}$, where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric, $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, and $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Two examples of quadratic functions are the ellipse $\mathcal{L}_{e}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{2}\left(w_{1}^{2}+\lambda^{2} w_{2}^{2}\right)$ and the Booth function $\mathcal{L}_{b}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=\left(w_{1}+2 w_{2}-7\right)^{2}+\left(2 w_{1}+w_{2}-5\right)^{2}$. Since the third derivative of $\mathcal{L}$ is 0 , one teleportation guarantees optimal trajectory.

## Appendix D. Group Actions and Curves on Minima

## D.1. Group actions for MLP

Consider a multi-layer neural network with elementwise activation function $\sigma$. The output of the $m^{t h}$ layer is $h_{m}=\sigma\left(W_{m} h_{m-1}\right)$, where $W_{m} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{m} \times d_{m-1}}$ is the weight, $h_{m-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{m-1} \times k}$ is the output of the $m-1^{\text {th }}$ layer, and $h_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{0} \times k}$ is the data. There are at least two ways to define a $\mathrm{GL}_{d_{m-1}}(\mathbb{R})$ symmetry acting on $W_{m}$ and $W_{m-1}$. Unless stated otherwise, we use the second group action since it does not require $\sigma$ to be invertible. We use pseudoinverses in experiments.

Group action 1 (Zhao et al., 2022). Assume that $h_{m-2}$ is invertible and $\sigma$ is bijective. For $g_{m} \in \mathrm{GL}_{d_{m-1}}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$
g_{m} \cdot W_{k}=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
W_{m} g_{m}^{-1} & k=m  \tag{37}\\
\sigma^{-1}\left(g_{m} \sigma\left(W_{m-1} h_{m-2}\right)\right) h_{m-2}^{-1} & k=m-1 \\
W_{k} & k \notin\{m, m-1\}
\end{array}\right.
$$

Group action 2 Assume that $g_{m} \sigma\left(W_{m-1} h_{m-2}\right)$ is invertible. For $g_{m} \in \mathrm{GL}_{d_{m-1}}(\mathbb{R})$,

$$
g_{m} \cdot W_{k}=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
W_{m} \sigma\left(W_{m-1} h_{m-2}\right) \sigma\left(g_{m} W_{m-1} h_{m-2}\right)^{-1} & k=m  \tag{38}\\
g_{m} W_{m-1} & k=m-1 \\
W_{k} & k \notin\{m, m-1\}
\end{array}\right.
$$

## D.2. Curvature

The curvature of a curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is $\kappa(t)=\frac{\left\|T^{\prime}(t)\right\|}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|}$, where $T(t)=\frac{\gamma^{\prime}(t)}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|}$ is the unit tangent vector. The curvature can be written as a function of $\gamma^{\prime}$ and $\gamma^{\prime \prime}$ (Aléssio, 2012; Shelekhov, 2021):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\kappa(t)=\frac{\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{3}} . \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

## D.3. The derivative of curvature

To compute the derivative of $\kappa(t)$, we first list the derivatives of a few commonly used terms:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2} & =\frac{d}{d t}\left(\gamma_{1}^{\prime 2}+\gamma_{2}^{\prime 2}+\gamma_{3}^{2}+\ldots\right)=2 \gamma_{1}^{\prime} \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime}+2 \gamma_{2}^{\prime} \gamma_{2}^{\prime \prime}+2 \gamma_{3}^{\prime} \gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime}+\ldots=2 \gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime} \\
\frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2} & =\frac{d}{d t}\left(\gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime 2}+\gamma_{2}^{\prime \prime 2}+\gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime 2}+\ldots\right)=2 \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime} \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}+2 \gamma_{2}^{\prime \prime} \gamma_{2}^{\prime \prime \prime}+2 \gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime} \gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime \prime}+\ldots=2 \gamma^{\prime \prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime} \\
\frac{d}{d t}\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right) & =\frac{d}{d t}\left(\gamma_{1}^{\prime} \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\gamma_{2}^{\prime} \gamma_{2}^{\prime \prime}+\gamma_{3}^{\prime} \gamma_{3}^{\prime \prime} \ldots\right)=\gamma_{1}^{\prime} \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime \prime}+\gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime} \gamma_{1}^{\prime \prime}+\ldots=\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}+\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime} \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

The derivatives of the numerator and denominator of $\kappa$ are:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}= & \frac{1}{2}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}} \frac{d}{d t}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right] \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\
& \quad\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}+\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2} \frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}-2\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right) \frac{d}{d t}\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\right] \\
= & \frac{1}{2}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\
& {\left[2\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left(\gamma^{\prime \prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)+2\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)-2\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\left(\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}+\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)\right] } \\
= & {\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left(\gamma^{\prime \prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)\right] } \tag{41}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{3}=\frac{d}{d t}\left(\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}=\frac{3}{2}\left(\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}=\frac{3}{2}\left(\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\left(2 \gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)=3\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the derivatives above, the derivative of $\kappa$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
& \kappa^{\prime}(t)=\frac{\left[\frac{d}{d t}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}\right]\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{3}-\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}\left[\frac{d}{d t}\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{3}\right]}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{6}} \\
& {\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left(\gamma^{\prime \prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)\right]\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{3}} \\
& =\frac{-\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}} 3\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{6}} \\
& {\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{-\frac{1}{2}}\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left(\gamma^{\prime \prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}\right)\right]\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}} \\
& =\frac{-\left[\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{2}\left\|\gamma^{\prime \prime}\right\|^{2}-\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)^{2}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}} 3\left(\gamma^{\prime} \cdot \gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}\right\|^{5}} . \tag{43}
\end{align*}
$$

## D.4. The derivatives of curves on minima

Consider the curve $\gamma_{M}: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ where $M \in \operatorname{Lie}(G)$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{M}(t, \boldsymbol{w})=\exp (t M) \cdot \boldsymbol{w} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this section, we derive $\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}$, and $\gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}$, which are needed to compute the curvature $\kappa(t)$ and its derivative $\kappa^{\prime}(t)$. We are interested in $\kappa$ and $\kappa^{\prime}$ at $\boldsymbol{w}$, or equivalently, at $t=0$. To find the derivatives of $\gamma$ at $t=0$, we write the group action in the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma(t)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f(n)}{n!} t^{n} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the uniqueness of Taylor polynomial, the derivatives are $\gamma^{(n)}(0)=f(n)$.

Consider two consecutive layers $U \sigma(V X)$ in a neural network, where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times h}, V \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{h \times n}$ are weights, $X \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times k}$ is the output from the previous layer, and $\sigma$ is an elementwise activation function. Choosing $G=G L_{h}(\mathbb{R})$, one group action that leaves the output of these two layers unchanged is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g \cdot(U, V, X)=(g \cdot U, g \cdot V, g \cdot X)=\left(U g^{-1}, \sigma^{-1}(g \sigma(V X)) X^{-1}, X\right) \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
g=\exp (t M)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k}, \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $M \in \operatorname{Lie}(G)$ is in the Lie algebra of $G$. The action of $g$ yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
g \cdot(U, V, X)=\left(U \exp (-t M), \sigma^{-1}(\exp (t M) \sigma(V X)) X^{-1}, X\right) . \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next, we expand $\gamma(t)=g \cdot(U, V)$. The Taylor expansion for $g \cdot U$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
U \exp (-t M) & =U \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(-t M)^{k} \\
& =U-t U M+\frac{t^{2}}{2!} U M^{2}-\frac{t^{3}}{3!} U M^{3}+O\left(t^{4}\right) . \tag{49}
\end{align*}
$$

The Taylor expansion for $g \cdot V$ is

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sigma^{-1}(\exp (t M) \sigma(V X)) X^{-1} \\
= & \sigma^{-1}\left(\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k}\right) \sigma(V X)\right) X^{-1} \\
= & \sigma^{-1}\left(\sigma(V X)+\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k} \sigma(V X)\right) X^{-1} \\
= & {\left[\sigma^{-1}(\sigma(V X))+\left.\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k} \sigma(V X)\right)^{\odot j} \odot \frac{\partial^{j} \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A^{j}}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)}\right] X^{-1} } \\
= & V+\left[\left.\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k} \sigma(V X)\right)^{\odot j} \odot \frac{\partial^{j} \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A^{j}}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)}\right] X^{-1}, \tag{50}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\odot$ denotes element-wise product: $(A \odot B)_{m n}=A_{m n} B_{m n}$, and the superscript $\odot$ denotes elementwise power: $\left(A^{\odot j}\right)_{m n}=\left(A_{m n}\right)^{j}$. The Taylor expansion is of each element individually, because $\sigma$ is element-wise.

Since our goal is to find the first 3 derivatives of $\gamma$, we are only interested in the terms up to $t^{3}$. Letting

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(t M)^{k}=t M+t^{2} \frac{M^{2}}{2}+t^{3} \frac{M^{3}}{6}+O\left(t^{4}\right) \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

and considering only the $j=1,2,3$ terms, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sigma^{-1}(\exp (t M) \sigma(V X)) X^{-1} \\
&=V+ {\left[\left.\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left(\left(t M+t^{2} \frac{M^{2}}{2}+t^{3} \frac{M^{3}}{6}\right) \sigma(V X)\right)^{\odot j} \odot \frac{\partial^{j} \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A^{j}}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)}\right] X^{-1}+O\left(t^{4}\right) } \\
&=V+ {\left[\left.\left(\left(t M+t^{2} \frac{M^{2}}{2}+t^{3} \frac{M^{3}}{6}\right) \sigma(V X)\right) \odot \frac{\partial \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)}\right.} \\
&+\left.\left(\left(t M+t^{2} \frac{M^{2}}{2}+t^{3} \frac{M^{3}}{6}\right) \sigma(V X)\right)^{\odot 2} \odot \frac{\partial^{2} \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A^{2}}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)} \\
&\left.+\left.\left(\left(t M+t^{2} \frac{M^{2}}{2}+t^{3} \frac{M^{3}}{6}\right) \sigma(V X)\right)^{\odot 3} \odot \frac{\partial^{3} \sigma^{-1}(A)}{\partial A^{3}}\right|_{A=\sigma(V X)}\right] X^{-1}+O\left(t^{4}\right) \\
&=V+ t\left((M \sigma(V X)) \odot \frac{1}{\sigma^{\prime}(V X)}\right) X^{-1} \\
&+\frac{t^{2}}{2}\left(\left(M^{2} \sigma(V X)\right) \odot \frac{1}{\sigma^{\prime}(V X)}-2(M \sigma(V X))^{\odot 2} \odot \frac{\sigma^{\prime \prime}(V X)}{\sigma^{\prime}(V X)^{3}}\right) X^{-1} \\
&+\frac{t^{3}}{6}\left(\left(M^{3} \sigma(V X)\right) \odot \frac{1}{\sigma^{\prime}(V X)}-6(M \sigma(V X)) \odot\left(M^{2} \sigma(V X)\right) \odot \frac{\sigma^{\prime \prime}(V X)}{\sigma^{\prime}(V X)^{3}}\right. \\
&+O\left(t^{4}\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

Matching terms in equation 49 and equation 52 with equation 45 , we have the expressions for $\gamma^{\prime}, \gamma^{\prime \prime}$, and $\gamma^{\prime \prime \prime}$. This allows us to compute the curvature and its derivative using equation 39 and equation 43.

## Appendix E. Sharpness, Curvature, and Their Relation to Generalization

## E.1. Sharpness of minima

Flat minima tend to generalize well Hochreiter and Schmidhuber (1997). A common definition of flat minimum is based on the number of small eigenvalues of the Hessian. Although Hessian-based sharpness metrics are known to correlate well to generalization, they are expensive to compute and differentiate through. To use sharpness as an objective in teleportation, we consider the change in the loss value averaged over random directions. Let $D$ be a set of vectors drawn randomly from the unit sphere $d_{i} \sim\left\{d \in \mathbb{R}^{n}:\|d\|=1\right\}$. Let $T$ be a list of displacements $t_{j} \in \mathbb{R}$. Then, we have the following metric Izmailov et al. (2018):

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Sharpness: } \quad \phi(\boldsymbol{w}, T, D)=\frac{1}{|T||D|} \sum_{t \in T} \sum_{d \in D} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}+t d) \text {. } \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

## E.2. Alternative definitions of sharpness

A common definition of flat minimum is based on the number of eigenvalues of the Hessian which are small. Minimizers with a large number of large eigenvalues tend to have worse generalization ability Keskar et al. (2017). Let $\lambda_{i}(H)(\boldsymbol{w})$ be the $i^{\text {th }}$ largest eigenvalue of the Hessian of the loss function evaluated at $\boldsymbol{w}$. We can quantify the notion of sharpness by the number of eigenvalues larger than a threshold $\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}^{>0}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{1}(\boldsymbol{w}, \varepsilon)=\left|\left\{\lambda_{i}(H)(\boldsymbol{w}): \lambda_{i}>\varepsilon\right\}\right| . \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

A related sharpness metric uses the logarithm of the product of the $k$ largest eigenvalues Wu et al. (2017),

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{2}(\boldsymbol{w}, k)=\sum_{i=1}^{k} \log \lambda_{i}(H)(\boldsymbol{w}) . \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that both metrics require computing the eigenvalues of the Hessian. Optimizing on these metrics during teleportation is prohibitively expensive. Hence, in this paper we use the average change in loss averaged over random directions $(\phi)$ as objective in generalization experiments.

## E.3. Curvature of minima

At a minimum, the loss-invariant or flat directions are zero eigenvectors of the Hessian. The curvature along these directions does not directly affect Hessian-based sharpness metrics. However, these curvatures may affect generalization, by themselves or by correlating to the curvature along non-flat directions. Unlike the curvature of the loss (curve $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ in Figure 1 left), the curvature of the minima (curve $\gamma$ ) is less well studied. We provide a novel method to quantify the curvature of the minima below.

Assume that the loss function $\mathcal{L}$ has a $G$ symmetry. Consider the curve $\gamma_{M}: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ where $M \in \operatorname{Lie}(G)$ and $\gamma_{M}(t, \boldsymbol{w})=\exp (t M) \cdot \boldsymbol{w}$. Then $\gamma(0, \boldsymbol{w})=\boldsymbol{w}$, and every point on $\gamma_{M}$ is in the minimum if $\boldsymbol{w}$ is a minimum. Let $\gamma^{\prime}=\frac{d \gamma}{d t}$ be the derivative of a curve $\gamma$. The curvature of $\gamma$ is $\kappa(\gamma, t)=\frac{\left\|T^{\prime}(t)\right\|}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|}$, where $T(t)=\frac{\gamma^{\prime}(t)}{\left\|\gamma^{\prime}(t)\right\|}$ is the unit tangent vector. We assume that the action map is smooth, since calculating the curvature requires second derivatives and optimizing the curvature via gradient descent requires third derivatives. For multi-layer network with element-wise activations, we derive the group action, $\gamma$, and $\kappa$ in Appendix D.

Since the minimum can have more than one dimension, we measure the curvature of a point $\boldsymbol{w}$ on the minimum by averaging the curvature of $k$ curves with randomly selected $M_{i} \in \operatorname{Lie}(G)$. The resulting new metric is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Curvature: } \quad \psi(\boldsymbol{w}, k)=\frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \kappa\left(\gamma_{M_{i}}(0, \boldsymbol{w}), 0\right) . \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

There are different ways to measure the curvature of a higher-dimensional minimum, such as using the Gaussian curvature of 2D subspaces of the tangent space. However, our method of approximating the mean curvature is easier to compute and suitable as a differentiable objective.

## E.4. Intuition on curvatures and generalization

The sharpness of minima is well known to be correlated with generalization. Figure 3(a)(b) visualizes an example of the shift in loss landscape $(\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}))$, and the change of loss $\Delta \mathcal{L}$ at a minimizer $\boldsymbol{w}^{*}$ is large when the minimum is sharp. The relation between the curvature of minimum and generalization is less well studied. Figure 3(c)(d) shows one possible shift of the minimum $(\gamma)$. Under this shifting, the minimizer with a larger curvature becomes farther away from the shifted minimum.

(b)

(c)

(d)


Figure 3: Illustration of the effect of sharpness ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ ) and curvature ( $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}$ ) of minima on generalization. See Figure 1(left) for a 3D visualization of the curves $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w})$ and $\gamma$. When the loss landscape shifts due to a change in data distribution, sharper minima have larger increase in loss. In the example shown, minima with larger curvature moves further away from the shifted minima.

## E.4.1. Example: Curvature affects average displacement of minima

Consider an optimization problem with two variables $w_{1}, w_{2} \in \mathbb{R}$. Assume that the minimum is a one-dimensional curve $\gamma: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}$ in the two-dimensional parameter space. For a point $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ on $\gamma$, we estimate its generalization ability by computing the expected distance between $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ and the new minimum obtained by shifting $\gamma$.

We consider the following two curves:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \gamma_{1}: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, t \mapsto\left(t, k t^{2}\right)  \tag{57}\\
& \gamma_{2}:[0,2 \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{2}, \theta \mapsto(k \cos (\theta), k \sin (\theta) . \tag{58}
\end{align*}
$$

The curve $\gamma_{1}$ is a parabola, and the curvature at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}=(0,0)$ is $\kappa_{1}=2 k$. The curve $\gamma_{2}$ is a circle, and the curvature at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}=(0,0)$ is $\kappa_{2}=\frac{1}{k}$. Note that $\gamma_{1}$ is the only polynomial approximation with integer power $\left(\gamma(t)=\left(t, k|t|^{n}\right)\right)$ where the curvature at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ depends on $k$. When $n<1$, the value of $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ is undefined. When $n=1$, the first derivative at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ is undefined. When $n>2, \kappa\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right)=0$.

Assume that a distribution shift in data causes $\gamma$ to shift by a distance $r$, and that the direction of the shift is chosen uniformly at random over all possible directions. Viewing from the perspective of the curve, this is equivalent to shifting $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ by distance $r$.

The distance between a point $\boldsymbol{w}$ and a curve $\gamma$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{dist}(\boldsymbol{w}, \gamma)=\min _{\boldsymbol{w}^{\prime} \in \gamma_{2}}\left\|\boldsymbol{w}^{\prime}-\boldsymbol{w}\right\|_{2} \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $S_{r}$ be the circle centered at the origin with radius $r$. Figure $4(\mathrm{~b})(\mathrm{c})$ shows that the expected distance's dependence on $\kappa$. Using both curves $\gamma_{1}$ and $\gamma_{2}$, the generalization ability of $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ depends on the curvature at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$. However, the type of dependence is affected by the type of curve used. In other words, the curvatures at points around $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ affect how the curvature at $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ affects generalization. Therefore, from these results alone, one cannot deduce whether minima with sharper curvatures generalize better or worse. To find a more definitive relationship between curvature and generalization, further investigation on the type of curves on the minimum is required.

We emphasize that this example only serves as an intuition for connecting curvature to generalization. As a future direction, it would be interesting to consider different families of parametric curves, higher dimensional parameter spaces, and deforming in addition to shifting the minima.


Figure 4: (a) Illustration of the parameter space, the minimum $(\gamma)$, and all shifts with distance $r\left(S_{r}\right)$. (b) Expected distance between $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ and the new minimum as a function of $\kappa$, for quadratic approximation $\gamma_{1}$. (c) Expected distance between $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ and the new minimum as a function of $\kappa$, for constant curvature approximation $\gamma_{2}$. The expected distance is scaled by $r^{-2}$ because the arc length of $S_{r}$ is proportional to $r$, and the average distance at each point on $S_{r}$ is also roughly proportional to $r$.


Figure 5: Left: a 2D minima in a 3D parameter space. Right: a 2D subspace of the parameter space and a curve on the minima (the intersection of the minima and the subspace).

## E.4.2. Higher dimensions

Figure 5 visualizes a curve obtained from a 2D minima. However, it is not immediately clear what curves look like on a higher-dimensional minimum. A possible way to extend previous analysis is to consider sectional curvatures.

## E.5. Computing correlation to generalization

We verify the correlation between sharpness, curvatures, and validation loss on MNIST Deng (2012), Fashion-MNIST Xiao et al. (2017), and CIFAR-10 Krizhevsky et al. (2009). On each dataset, we train 100 three-layer neural networks with LeakyReLU using different initializations.

## E.5.1. Setup

We generate the 100 different models used in Section 4.3 by training randomly initialized models. For all three datasets (MNIST, FashionMNIST, and CIFAR-10), we train on 50,000 samples and test on a different set of 10,000 samples. The labels for classification tasks belongs to 1 of 10 classes.

For a batch of flattened input data $X \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 20}$ and labels $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{20}$, the loss function is $\mathcal{L}\left(W_{1}, W_{2}, W_{3}, X, Y\right)=$ CrossEntropy $\left(W_{3} \sigma\left(W_{2} \sigma\left(W_{1} X\right)\right), Y\right)$, where $W_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{10 \times h_{2}}, W_{2} \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{h_{2} \times h_{1}}, W_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{h_{1} \times d}$ are the weight matrices, and $\sigma$ is the LeakyReLU activation with slope coefficient 0.1. For MNIST and Fashion-MNIST, $d=28^{2}$, $h_{1}=16$, and $h_{2}=10$. For CIFAR-10, $d=32^{3} \times 3, h_{1}=128$, and $h_{2}=32$. The learning rate for stochastic gradient descent is 0.01 for MNIST and Fashion-MNIST, and 0.02 for CIFAR-10. We train each model using mini-batches of size 20 for 40 epochs.

When computing the sharpness $\phi$, we choose the displacement list T that gives the highest correlation. The displacements used in this paper are $T=0.001,0.011,0.021, \ldots, 0.191$ for MNIST, and $T=0.001,0.011,0.021, \ldots, 0.191$ for Fashion-MNIST and CIFAR-10. We evaluate the change in loss over $|D|=200$ random directions. For curvature $\psi$, we average over $k=1$ curves generated by random Lie algebras (invertible matrices in this case).

## E.5.2. Results

Table 1 shows the Pearson correlation between validation loss and sharpness or curvature. In all three datasets, sharpness has a strong positive correlation with validation loss, meaning that the average change in loss under perturbations is a good indicator of test performance. This also confirms that wider minima are more generalizable. For the architecture we consider, the curvatures of minima are negatively correlated with validation loss. We observe that the magnitudes of the curvatures are small, which suggests that the minima are relatively flat. Figure 6 and 7 visualizes the correlation result in Table 1. Each point represents one model.

## E.6. Additional details for generalization experiments

On CIFAR-10, we run SGD using the same three-layer architecture as in Section E.5, but with a smaller hidden size $h_{1}=32$ and $h_{2}=10$. At epoch 20 which is close to convergence, we teleport using 5 batches of data, each of size 2000. During each teleportation for $\phi$, we

Table 1: Correlation with validation loss

| sharpness $(\phi)$ |  |  |  |  | curvature $(\psi)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MNIST | Fashion-MNIST | CIFAR-10 |  | MNIST | Fashion-MNIST | CIFAR-10 |  |  |
| 0.704 | 0.790 | 0.899 |  | -0.050 | -0.232 | -0.167 |  |  |



Figure 6: Correlation between sharpness and validation loss on MNIST (left), FashionMNIST (middle), and CIFAR-10 (right). Sharpness and generalization are strongly correlated.


Figure 7: Correlation between curvature and validation loss on MNIST (left), FashionMNIST (middle), and CIFAR-10 (right). There is a weak negative correlation in all three datasets.
perform 10 gradient ascent (or descent) steps on the group element. During each teleportation for $\psi$, we perform 1 gradient ascent (or descent) step on the group element. The learning rate for the optimization on group elements is $5 \times 10^{-2}$.

## Appendix F. Additional Details for Meta-learning Experiments

In optimization-based meta-learning, the parameter update rule or hyperparameters are learned with a meta-optimizer Andrychowicz et al. (2016); Ravi and Larochelle (2017); Finn et al. (2017); Nichol et al. (2018); Chandra et al. (2022). Teleportation introduces an additional degree of freedom in parameter updates. To exploit our ability to teleport without
implementing optimization on groups, we augment existing meta-learning algorithms by learning both the local update rule and teleportation.

Let $\boldsymbol{w}_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ be the parameters at time $t$, and $\nabla_{t}=\left.\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right|_{\boldsymbol{w}_{t}}$ be the gradient of the loss $\mathcal{L}$. In gradient descent, the update rule with learning rate $\eta$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1}=\boldsymbol{w}_{t}-\eta \nabla_{t} . \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

In meta-learning (Andrychowicz et al., 2016), the update on $\boldsymbol{w}_{t}$ is learned using a metalearning optimizer $m$, which takes $\nabla_{t}$ as input. Here $m$ is an LSTM model. Denote $h_{t}$ as the hidden state in the LSTM and $\phi$ as the parameters in $m$. The update rule is

$$
\begin{align*}
\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1} & =\boldsymbol{w}_{t}+f_{t}  \tag{61}\\
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{t} \\
h_{t+1}
\end{array}\right] } & =m\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{t}, \phi\right) . \tag{62}
\end{align*}
$$

Extending this approach beyond an additive update rule, we learn to teleport. Let $G$ be a group whose action on the parameter space leaves $\mathcal{L}$ invariant. We use two meta-learning optimizers $m_{1}, m_{2}$ to learn the update direction $f_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and the group element $g_{t} \in G$ :

$$
\begin{gather*}
\boldsymbol{w}_{t+1}=g_{t} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{t}+f_{t}\right)  \tag{63}\\
{\left[\begin{array}{c}
f_{t} \\
h_{1_{t+1}}
\end{array}\right]=m_{1}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{1_{t}}, \phi_{1}\right), \quad\left[\begin{array}{c}
g_{t} \\
h_{2_{t+1}}
\end{array}\right]=m_{2}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{2_{t}}, \phi_{2}\right) .} \tag{64}
\end{gather*}
$$

Experiment setup. We train and test on two-layer neural networks $\mathcal{L}\left(W_{1}, W_{2}\right)=\| Y-$ $W_{2} \sigma\left(W_{1} X\right) \|_{2}$, where $W_{2}, W_{1}, X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{20 \times 20}$, and $\sigma$ is the LeakyReLU function with slope coefficient 0.1. Both meta-optimizers are two-layer LSTMs with hidden dimension 300. We train the meta-optimizers on multiple trajectories created with different initializations, each consisting of 100 steps of gradient descent on $\mathcal{L}$ with random $X, Y$ and randomly initialized $W$ 's. We update the parameters in $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ by unrolling every 10 steps. The learning rate for meta-optimizers are $10^{-4}$ for $m_{1}$ and $10^{-3}$ for $m_{2}$. We test the meta-optimizers using 5 trajectories not seen in training.

Algorithm 1 summarizes the training procedure. The vanilla gradient descent baseline ("GD") uses the largest learning rate that does not lead to divergence ( $3 \times 10^{-4}$ ). The second baseline ("LSTM(update)") learns the update $f_{t}$ only and does not perform teleportation ( $\left.g_{t}=I, \forall t\right)$. The third baseline ("LSTM(lr,tele)") learns the group element $g_{t}$ and the learning rate used to perform gradient descent instead of the update $f_{t}$. We keep training until adding more training trajectories does not improve convergence rate. We use 700 training trajectories for our approach, 600 for the second baseline, and 30 for the third baseline.

```
Algorithm 1 Learning to teleport
    Input: Loss function \(\mathcal{L}\), learning rate \(\eta\), number of epochs \(T\), LSTM models \(m_{1}, m_{2}\) with
    initial parameters \(\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}\), unroll step \(t_{\text {unroll }}\).
    Output: Trained parameters \(\phi_{1}\) and \(\phi_{2}\).
    for each training initialization do
        for \(t=1\) to \(T\) do
            \(f_{t}, h_{1_{t+1}}=m_{1}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{1_{t}}, \phi_{1}\right)\)
            \(g_{t}, h_{2_{t+1}}=m_{2}\left(\nabla_{t}, h_{2_{t}}, \phi_{2}\right)\)
            \(\boldsymbol{w} \leftarrow g_{t} \cdot\left(\boldsymbol{w}+f_{t}\right)\)
            if \(t \bmod t_{\text {unroll }}=0\) then
                update \(\phi_{1}, \phi_{2}\) by back-propogation from the accumulated loss \(\sum_{i=t-t_{\text {unroll }}}^{t} \mathcal{L}\left(\boldsymbol{w}_{i}\right)\)
            end if
        end for
    end for
```

