Application of learning algorithms to nonlinear filtering and MCMC

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Thanks to friends & family



Outline

- PhD Proposal Recap
- Poisson's Equation
- Oifferential LSTD learning
- 4 Applications to Nonlinear filtering
- 6 Applications to MCMC

Work till then

- Presented the feedback particle filter (FPF) an approximation of the nonlinear filter that requires computing a gain function by solving a Poisson's equation.
- Proposed a differential TD-learning algorithm to approximate the gradient of the solution to Poisson's equation.

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- Presented the feedback particle filter (FPF) an approximation of the nonlinear filter that requires computing a gain function by solving a Poisson's equation.
- Proposed a differential TD-learning algorithm to approximate the gradient of the solution to Poisson's equation.
- Presented numerical examples for gain approximation and state estimation for scalar systems.

Tasks promised and accomplished

• Extend the algorithm to a multidimensional setting.

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- \bullet Extend the algorithm to a multidimensional setting. \checkmark
- Explore appropriate basis selection for these algorithms.

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New direction

- Simplified version of the algorithm for Langevin diffusion.
- Improvements for online gain estimation.
- Explored the application to MCMC algorithms.

$$0 = \tilde{c} + \mathcal{D}h$$

$$h(x) = \mathsf{E} \Big[\int_0^\tau \tilde{c}(X(t)) \, dt \Big]_{\text{with } X(0) \,=\, x}$$

$$\left\{ (x)_{n}\Lambda_{n}\mathbb{Q}+(u_{i}x)_{3}\right\} \dot{\min}_{y}gxs=(x)_{1+n}\phi$$

Optimal FPF Gain

$$K = \nabla h$$

Optimal MCMC CV Optimal Control

Poisson's Equation



- Second order partial differential equation with applications in various fields.
- General form in stochastic systems

$$\mathcal{D}h := -f$$

 \mathcal{D} - differential operator

f - forcing function, usually centered

h - solution to Poisson's equation

Stochastic optimal control

Example: In average cost optimal control problems,

$$\min_{u} \{ c(x, u) + P_u h^*(x) \} = h^*(x) + \eta^*$$

- c(x,u) Cost function associated with state x and action u.
 - P_u Transition kernel of the controlled Markov chain.
 - η^* Optimal average cost.
 - $h^*(x)$ Relative value function.

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Poisson's equation is the dynamic programming equation.

Langevin Diffusion

Langevin diffusion is given by the SDE,

$$\mathrm{d}\Phi_t = \underbrace{-\nabla U(\Phi_t)\,\mathrm{d}t}_{\mathrm{Drift\ term}} + \underbrace{\sqrt{2}\,\mathrm{d}W_t}_{\mathrm{Diffusion\ term}}\;, \qquad \Phi \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

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- May be regarded as a *d*-dimensional gradient flow with "noise".
- Diffusion is reversible, with unique invariant density $\rho=e^{-U+\Lambda}$, where Λ is a normalizing constant.

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Differential generator \mathcal{D} ,

$$\mathcal{D}f := \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\mathsf{E}[f(\Phi_t)|\Phi_0 = x] - f(x)}{t}$$

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Let $c \colon \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function of interest, and

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Function $h \in C^2$ solves Poisson's equation with forcing function c if

$$\mathcal{D}h := -\tilde{c}, \qquad \tilde{c} = c - \eta.$$

$$h := \int_0^\infty \mathsf{E}[\tilde{c}(\Phi_t)] \mathsf{d}t$$

Existence of a solution

- A solution exists under weak assumptions on U and c [Glynn 96,Kontoyiannis 12].
- Representations for the gradient of h and bounds are obtained in [Laugesen 15,Devraj 18].
- A smooth solution $h \in C^2$ exists under stronger conditions in [Pardoux 01], subject to growth conditions on c similar to [Glynn 96].

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Goal: For a given function class \mathcal{H} , find the minimizer of

$$g^* := \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \|h - g\|_{L^2}^2$$

Such minimum norm optimization problems can be solved using *TD learning* [Tsitsikilis 99, CTCN].

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Challenge - No algorithm exists for state spaces of dimension > 1.

Discounted cost case

Discounted-cost value function:

$$h^{\gamma}(x) := \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-\gamma t) \mathsf{E}_x[c(\Phi_t)] \mathsf{d}t, \qquad \gamma > 0$$
 - discount factor

Discounted-cost optimality equation:

$$\gamma h^{\gamma} = c + \mathcal{D}h^{\gamma}$$

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$$\mathsf{LSTD} \ \mathsf{goal} - g^* := \arg\min_{g \in \mathcal{H}} \|h^\gamma - g\|_{L^2}^2$$

Discounted cost case

$$g = h^{\theta} := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta_i \psi_i$$
$$\theta^* = M^{-1}b$$
$$M_{ij} = \langle \psi_i, \psi_j \rangle_{L^2}, \quad b_i = \langle \psi_i, h^{\gamma} \rangle_{L^2}$$

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$$M_{ij} = \langle \psi_i, \psi_j \rangle_{L^2}, \quad b_i = \langle \psi_i, h^{\gamma} \rangle_{L^2}$$

$$= \langle \psi_i, R_{\gamma} c \rangle_{L^2}$$
 Resolvent kernel - $R_{\gamma} c(x) := \int_0^{\infty} \mathsf{E}_x \Big[\exp(-\gamma t) c(\Phi_t) \Big] \mathrm{d}t$
$$R_{\gamma} c = (I_{\gamma} - \mathcal{D})^{-1} c$$

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LSTD goal -
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For a linear parameterization

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Using an adjoint operation and applying the stationarity of Φ .

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LSTD goal -
$$g^* := \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\arg\min} \|h^{\gamma} - g\|_{L^2}^2$$

$$\begin{split} g = h^{\theta} := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta_i \psi_i \\ \theta^* = M^{-1} b \\ M_{ij} = \langle \psi_i, \psi_j \rangle_{L^2}, \quad b_i = \langle R_{\gamma}^{\dagger} \psi_i, \, c \rangle_{L^2} \\ \text{Eligibility vector - } \varphi_{\psi}(r) := \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-\gamma (t-r)) \psi(\Phi_{r-t}) \mathrm{d}t \\ R_{\gamma}^{\dagger} \psi_i(x) = \mathsf{E}[\varphi_{\psi_i}(t) | \Phi_t = x] \end{split}$$

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Discounted cost case

ODE formulation of the LSTD algorithm:

$$\frac{d}{dt}M(t) = \psi(\Phi_t)\psi^{\mathsf{T}}(\Phi_t)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}\varphi_{\psi}(t) = -\gamma\,\varphi_{\psi}(t) + \psi(\Phi_t)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}b(t) = \varphi_{\psi}(t)c(\Phi_t)$$

$$\theta(t) := M(t)^{-1}b(t)$$

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By law of large numbers,

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \theta(t) = \theta^*$$

Drawback: Requires the existence of a regenerating state.

Idea: Approximate the gradient of h directly [RDM 16, DM 16]:

$$g^* := \mathop{\arg\min}_{g \in \mathcal{H}} \|\nabla h - \nabla g\|_{L^2}^2$$

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Need to choose a function class $\mathcal H$ for g (or ∇g)

- A finitely parameterized family of functions.
- A reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS).

Poisson's equation

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- A finitely parameterized family of functions.
 - A reproducing kernel Hilbert space (RKHS).
 Choice of basis is not an easy task
 - ⇒ RKHS framework is far easier to implement.

Poisson's equation

$$\nabla ext{-LSTD goal}$$
 - $g^* := \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{g \in \mathcal{H}} \|\nabla h - \nabla g\|_{L^2}^2$

Challenge: the function h is not known, and hence the objective function is not observable

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∇-LSTD: For a linear parameterization

$$g = h^{\theta} := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta_i \psi_i \implies \nabla g = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \theta_i \nabla \psi_i$$
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 $\text{Resolvent kernel - } R_{U''}\nabla c\left(x\right) := \int_{0}^{\infty} \mathsf{E}_{x} \Big[\exp\Big(-\int_{\bar{0}}^{t} U''(\Phi_{s}) \, \mathrm{d}s \Big) \nabla c(\Phi_{t}) \Big] \mathrm{d}t$

 $=\langle \nabla \psi_i, R_{II''} \nabla c \rangle_{L^2}$

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 ∇ -LSTD-L: For Langevin diffusion, if $f,g \in L^2(\rho)$

$$\langle \nabla f, \nabla g \rangle_{L^2} = -\langle f, \mathcal{D}g \rangle_{L^2} = -\langle \mathcal{D}f, g \rangle_{L^2}.$$

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Applying this and Poisson's equation $\mathcal{D}h = -\tilde{c}$:

$$\begin{split} \|\nabla h - \nabla g\|_{L^{2}}^{2} &= \|\nabla h\|_{L^{2}}^{2} + \|\nabla g\|_{L^{2}}^{2} - 2\langle \nabla h, \nabla g \rangle_{L^{2}} \\ &= \|\nabla h\|_{L^{2}}^{2} + \|\nabla g\|_{L^{2}}^{2} + 2\langle \mathcal{D}h, g \rangle_{L^{2}} \end{split}$$

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Differential LSTD learning on RKHS (∇ -LSTD-RKHS) Basics of RKHS

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A kernel function $K(\cdot,\cdot)$ defines an RKHS if (Moore-Aronsjazn theorem)

- Symmetric: K(x,y) = K(y,x) for any $x,y \in X$
- Positive definite: For any finite subset $\{x^i\} \subset X$, the matrix $\{M_{ij} := K(x^i, x^j)\}$ is positive definite.

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- Positive definite: For any finite subset $\{x^i\} \subset X$, the matrix $\{M_{ij} := K(x^i, x^j)\}$ is positive definite.
- Smooth: $K \in C^2(X \times X \to \mathbb{R})$.

Final condition is required for our loss function.

Basics of RKHS

Vector space \mathcal{H}° : all finite linear combinations

$$g_{\alpha}(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i K(x^i, y), \quad y \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

scalars $\{\alpha_i\} \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $\{x^i\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ arbitrary.

Inner product: for $g_{\alpha}, g_{\beta} \in \mathcal{H}^{\circ}$,

$$\langle g_{\alpha}, g_{\beta} \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} := \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \beta_j K(x^i, z^j)$$

Reproducing property: $g_{\alpha}(x) = \langle g_{\alpha}, K(x, \cdot) \rangle, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Assume \mathcal{H}° admits a completion \mathcal{H}

Empirical risk minimization (ERM)

Recall ∇ -LSTD goal:

$$g^* = \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \Big\{ \|\nabla g\|_{L^2}^2 - 2\langle \tilde{c}, g \rangle_{L^2} \Big\}$$

Approximation via empirical risk minimization (ERM):

$$\underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\arg\min} \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\|\nabla g(x^i)\|^2 - 2\tilde{c}_N(x^i)g(x^i) \right]}_{\text{Empirical risk}} + \underbrace{\lambda \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2}_{\text{Regularization}}$$

 \tilde{c} is also approximated as:

$$\tilde{c}_N(x) = c(x) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} c(x^i), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Empirical risk minimization (ERM)

Extended Representer Theorem [Zhou 08]

If loss function $L(x,\cdot,\cdot)$ is convex on \mathbb{R}^{d+1} for each $x\in\mathbb{R}^d$, then the optimizer g^* over $g\in\mathcal{H}$ exists, is unique and has the form

$$g^*(\cdot) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[\beta_i^{0*} K(x^i, \cdot) + \sum_{k=1}^d \beta_i^{k*} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} K(x^i, \cdot) \right]$$

where $\{\beta_i^{k*}: i=1,\cdots,N, k=0,\cdots,d\}$ are real numbers.

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where $\{\beta_i^{k*}: i=1,\cdots,N, k=0,\cdots,d\}$ are real numbers.

Our loss function is convex: $L(x, g, \nabla g) = ||\nabla g(x)||^2 - 2\tilde{c}(x)g(x)$

Optimal solution in one dimension

∇ -LSTD-RKHS ERM:

$$g^* = \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\arg\min} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ (g'(x^i))^2 - 2\tilde{c}_N(x^i)g(x^i) \right\} + \lambda \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$$

Solution:
$$g^*(y) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ \beta_i^{0*} K(x^i, y) + \beta_i^{1*} \partial_x K(x^i, y) \right\}, \quad y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Optimal solution in one dimension

∇ -LSTD-RKHS ERM:

$$g^* = \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\arg\min} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left\{ (g'(x^i))^2 - 2\tilde{c}_N(x^i)g(x^i) \right\} + \lambda \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$$

Solution:
$$g^*(y) = \sum_{i=1}^N \left\{ \beta_i^{0*} K(x^i, y) + \beta_i^{1*} \partial_x K(x^i, y) \right\}, \quad y \in \mathbb{R}$$

Notation:

$$M_{00}(i,j) := K(x^{i}, x^{j}), \qquad M_{10}(i,j) := \frac{\partial K}{\partial x}(x^{i}, x^{j})$$

$$M_{01}(i,j) := \frac{\partial K}{\partial y}(x^{i}, x^{j}), \qquad M_{11}(i,j) := \frac{\partial^{2} K}{\partial x \partial y}(x^{i}, x^{j})$$

$$\tilde{\varsigma}^{T} := [\tilde{c}_{N}(x^{1}), \dots, \tilde{c}_{N}(x^{N})], \qquad \beta^{T} = [\beta_{1}^{0}, \dots, \beta_{N}^{0}, \beta_{1}^{1}, \dots, \beta_{N}^{1}]$$

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Computation: $\beta^* = M^{-1}b$

$$M = \frac{1}{N} \left[\frac{M_{01}}{M_{11}} \right] \left[M_{10} \left| M_{11} \right] + \lambda \left[\frac{M_{00} \left| M_{01}}{M_{10} \left| M_{11} \right|} \right] \right]$$
$$b = \frac{1}{N} \left[\frac{M_{00}}{M_{10}} \right]$$

Simplified solution

Drawback : Complexity grows linearly with d, since $\beta^* \in \mathbb{R}^{(d+1) \times N}$

Simplified solution : By considering the finite-dimensional function class - $\mathcal{H}_N := \operatorname{span}\{K_{x^j}: 1 \leq j \leq N\}$

$$g^*(y) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \beta_j^* K(x^j, y)$$

$$\beta^* = M^{-1}b$$

where,
$$M:=N^{-1}M_{01}M_{10}+\lambda M_{00}, \qquad b:=N^{-1}M_{00}\tilde{\varsigma}$$

Surprising empirical observation : Simplified solution does as good as the optimal solution for $d \le 5$.

Feedback Particle Filter

Goal : To obtain estimates of the state of a stochastic dynamical system based on noisy partial observations.

Kalman filter is optimal for a linear Gaussian system.

For nonlinear systems, conditional distribution fails to be Gaussian, cannot be captured by a finite set of parameters.

Particle filters are Monte-Carlo approximations of the nonlinear filter.

Feedback Particle Filter

Problem:

Signal:
$$\mathrm{d} X_t = a(X_t)\mathrm{d} t + \mathrm{d} B_t, \quad X_0 \sim \rho_0^*,$$
 Observation: $\mathrm{d} Z_t = c(X_t)\mathrm{d} t + \mathrm{d} W_t,$

- $X_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the state at time t.
- $\{Z_t : t \ge 0\}$ is the observation process.
- a(.),c(.) are C^1 functions.
- $\{B_t\}, \{W_t\}$ are mutually independent Wiener processes.

Feedback Particle Filter

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- $\rho_t^* := P(X_t | \{Z_s : s \le t\})$ is the posterior distribution.

Feedback Particle Filter

Feedback particle filter (FPF) [Yang 13] is motivated by techniques from mean-field optimal control.

Feedback Particle Filter

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N particles are propagated in the form of a controlled system.

$$\mathrm{d}X^i_t = \underbrace{a(X^i_t)dt + \mathrm{d}B^i_t}_{\text{Propagation}} + \underbrace{\mathrm{d}U^i_t}_{\text{Update}}\,, \quad i = 1 \text{ to } N$$

- ullet $X^i_t \in \mathbb{R}$ is the state of the i^{th} particle at time t
- ullet U_t^i is the control input applied to i^{th} particle
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Approximation of ρ_t^* :

$$\rho_t^* \approx \rho_t^{(N)}(A) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{I}\{X_t^i \in A\}, \quad A \subset \mathbb{R}.$$

Feedback Particle Filter

Asymptotically exact filter obtained by minimizing the KL divergence between ρ_t^* and ρ_t (see [Yang 13]):

$$\mathrm{d}U_t^i = \mathsf{K}_t(X_t^i) \circ (\overbrace{\mathrm{d}Z_t - \frac{1}{2}[c(X_t^i) + \hat{c}_t]\mathrm{d}t}^{\mathrm{d}I_t^i})\,,$$

 I_t^i : Innovations process.

 K_t : FPF gain, similar in nature to the Kalman gain.

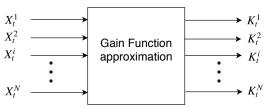
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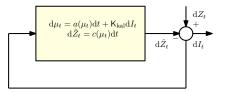
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Finite-N implementation

Feedback Particle Filter

$$\mathrm{KF:} \qquad \mathrm{d}\mu_t = a(\mu_t)\mathrm{d}t + \underbrace{\mathrm{K_{kal}}(\mathrm{d}Z_t - c(\mu_t)\mathrm{d}t)}_{\mathrm{update}}$$

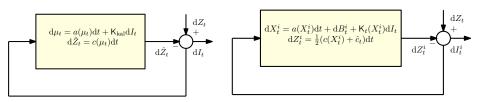


Kalman filter

Feedback Particle Filter

KF:
$$d\mu_t = a(\mu_t)dt + \underbrace{\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{kal}}(\mathsf{d}Z_t - c(\mu_t)dt)}_{\mathsf{update}}$$

$$\mathsf{FPF:} \qquad \mathsf{d}X^i_t = a(X^i_t)\mathsf{d}t + \mathsf{d}B^i_t + \underbrace{\mathsf{K}_t(X^i_t) \circ (\mathsf{d}Z_t - \frac{1}{2}[c(X^i_t) + \hat{c}_t]\mathsf{d}t)}_{\mathsf{update}}$$



Kalman filter

Feedback particle filter (FPF)

FPF Gain function

Representation:
$$\mathbf{K}_t = \nabla h$$

h solves Poisson's equation: $\mathcal{D}h = -\nabla U \cdot \nabla h + \Delta h = -\tilde{c}$.

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$$\min_{g \in \mathcal{H}} \|\mathsf{K} - \hat{\mathsf{K}}\|_{L^2}^2 = \min_{g \in \mathcal{H}} \|\nabla h - \nabla g\|_{L^2}^2$$

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Can be solved using ∇ -LSTD learning

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FPF implementation requires online gain estimation for each t.

- ullet abla-LSTD-RKHS with optimal mean
- ∇-LSTD-RKHS with memory

∇-LSTD-RKHS-OM

Constant gain approximation for K is the minimizer obtained over all deterministic vectors:

$$\widehat{\mathsf{K}}^* := \mathop{\arg\min}_{\widehat{\mathsf{K}} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \|\mathsf{K} - \widehat{\mathsf{K}}\|_{L^2}^2$$

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Solution is evidently the mean, $\widehat{K}^* = E[K].$

$$\widehat{\mathsf{K}}_k^* = \langle \mathsf{K}, \, e_k \rangle_{L^2}$$

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$$\begin{split} \widehat{\mathsf{K}}_k^* &= \langle \mathsf{K}, \, e_k \rangle_{L^2} \\ &= \langle \nabla h, \, e_k \rangle_{L^2} \\ &= -\langle \mathcal{D}h, \, x_k \rangle_{L^2} = \langle \tilde{c}, \, x_k \rangle_{L^2} \end{split}$$

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Empirical approximation:

$$\widehat{\mathsf{K}}_k^* \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N [c(x^i) - \hat{c}] x_k^i$$

Redefine the approximation to K as,

$$\nabla g = \widehat{\mathsf{K}}^* + \nabla \tilde{g}$$

Modified ERM with constaints is:

$$\begin{split} \tilde{g}^* &:= \underset{\tilde{g} \in \mathcal{H}}{\text{arg min}} & \| \nabla h - \widehat{\mathsf{K}}^* - \nabla \tilde{g} \|_{L_2}^2 \\ & \text{s.t.} & \langle \partial_{x_k} \tilde{g}, 1 \rangle_{L_2} = 0, \quad 1 \leq k \leq d \end{split}$$

Solution obtained by finding a saddle point for the Lagrangian

$$L(\tilde{g}, \mu) := \|\nabla h - \widehat{\mathsf{K}}^* - \nabla \tilde{g}\|_{L_2}^2 + \langle \mu, \nabla \tilde{g} \rangle_{L_2}$$

where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are the Lagrange multipliers.

Using the finite-dimensional function class, $\mathcal{H}_N := \operatorname{span}\{K_{x^j}: 1 \leq j \leq N\}$

Using the finite-dimensional function class, $\mathcal{H}_N := \operatorname{span}\{K_{x^j}: 1 \leq j \leq N\}$ β and μ can be obtained by solving N+d linear equations:

$$0 = 2\left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{k=1}^{d} M_{x_{k}}^{\mathsf{T}} M_{x_{k}} + \lambda M_{00}\right) \beta^{*} + \frac{\kappa \mu^{*}}{N} + \frac{2}{N} \left(\kappa \widehat{\mathsf{K}}^{*} - M_{00} \widetilde{\varsigma}\right)$$
$$0 = \kappa^{\mathsf{T}} \beta^{*}$$

Gain is then computed as $K = \widehat{K}^* + \nabla \widetilde{g}^*$.

 ∇ -LSTD-RKHS-memory

Gain updates are done at $t=n\delta$, where δ is the inter-sampling time. Continuity : $\mathsf{K}_n=\mathsf{K}_{t_n}\approx\mathsf{K}_{t_{n-1}}$ if $\delta\approx0$.

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Continuity : $K_n = K_{t_n} \approx K_{t_{n-1}}$ if $\delta \approx 0$.

Adding a regularizer term to the loss function:

$$g_n^* := \underset{g \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N L_n(x_n^j, g, \nabla g) + \lambda \|g\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2$$

$$L_n(x,g,\nabla g) := \|\nabla g(x)\|^2 - 2\tilde{c}_N(x)g(x) + \underbrace{\lambda_{mem}\|\nabla g(x) - \nabla g_{n-1}(x)\|^2}_{\text{continuity penalty}}$$

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$$\beta_n^* = M^{-1}b$$
 where,
$$M = (1+\lambda_{mem})\sum_{k=1}^d M_{x_k}^\intercal M_{x_k} + \lambda N M_{00}$$

$$b = M_{00}\tilde{\varsigma} + \lambda_{mem}\sum_{k=1}^d M_{x_k}^\intercal \mathsf{K}_{n-1,k}$$

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Both refinements 1 and 2 can be applied independently or simultaneously.

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$$0 = \kappa^{\mathsf{T}} \beta^*$$

Gain is then computed as $K = \widehat{K}^* + \nabla \widetilde{g}^*$.

Markov kernel approximation [Taghvaei 16]

Approximates the transition kernel of the Langevin diffusion:

$$h = P_{\epsilon}h + \int_0^{\epsilon} P_s(c - \hat{c}) ds,$$

Give the expression for kernel approx. Empirical approximation on particle locations x^i :

$$h_i = \sum_{j=1}^N \mathsf{T}_{ij} h_j + \epsilon (c - \hat{c}), \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } N$$

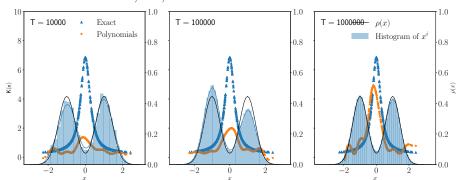
Gain K is then obtained by approximating the gradient ∇h_i .

Example: For a fixed $t,~\rho_t$ a Gaussian mixture $c(x)\equiv x$ $T=10^4,10^5,10^6 \text{ with } \delta=0.01$

Example: For a fixed t, ρ_t a Gaussian mixture

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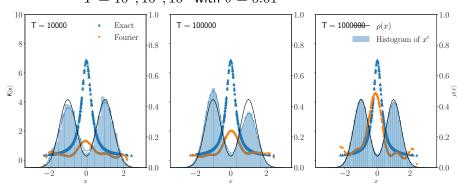


 ∇ -LSTD with $\psi_i = x^i$ with $1 \le i \le 10$.

Example: For a fixed t, ρ_t a Gaussian mixture

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$$T = 10^4, 10^5, 10^6 \text{ with } \delta = 0.01$$

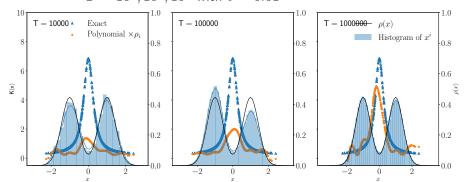


 ∇ -LSTD with $\psi_i = \sin ix$, $\psi_{i+1} = \cos ix$ with $1 \le i \le 5$.

Example: For a fixed t, ρ_t a Gaussian mixture

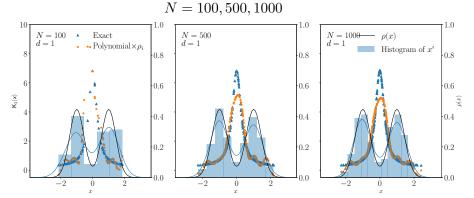
$$c(x) \equiv x$$

 $T = 10^4, 10^5, 10^6 \text{ with } \delta = 0.01$



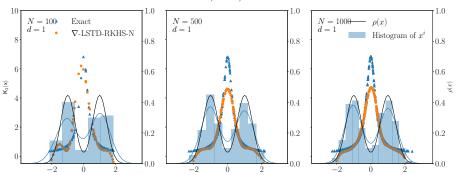
 ∇ -LSTD with $\psi_i = x^i \rho_1(x), \ \psi_{i+1} = x^i \rho_2(x)$ with $1 \le i \le 5$.

Example: For a fixed t, ρ_t a Gaussian mixture $c(x) \equiv x$



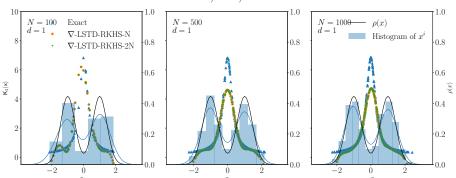
 ∇ -LSTD-L with $\psi_i = x^i \rho_1(x), \ \psi_{i+1} = x^i \rho_2(x)$ with $1 \le i \le 5$.

Example: For a fixed t, ρ_t a Gaussian mixture $c(x) \equiv x \\ N = 100, 500, 1000$



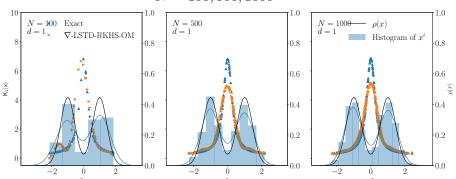
 ∇ -LSTD-RKHS-N with Gaussian kernel, $\varepsilon=0.1$ and $\lambda=10^{-2}$

Example: For a fixed $t, \, \rho_t$ a Gaussian mixture $c(x) \equiv x \\ N = 100, 500, 1000$



 ∇ -LSTD-RKHS-2N with Gaussian kernel, $\varepsilon=0.1$ and $\lambda=10^{-2}$

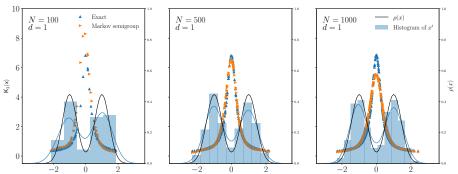
Example: For a fixed $t,\,\rho_t$ a Gaussian mixture $c(x) \equiv x \\ N = 100,500,1000$



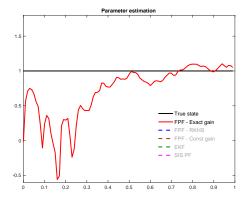
 ∇ -LSTD-RKHS-OM with Gaussian kernel, $\varepsilon = 0.1$ and $\lambda = 10^{-2}$

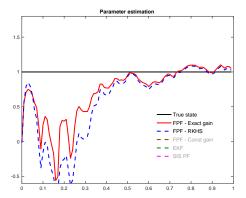
Example: For a fixed $t, \, \rho_t$ a Gaussian mixture $c(x) \equiv x$

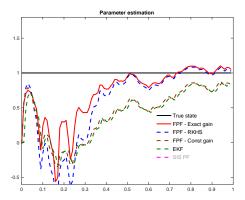
$$N = 100, 500, 1000$$

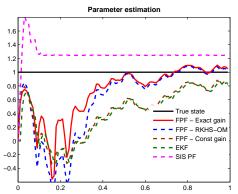


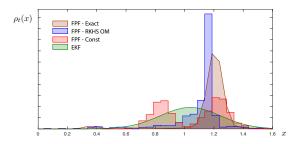
Markov kernel approximation with $\epsilon = 0.1$





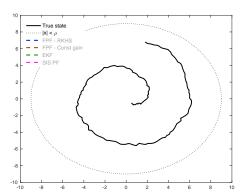




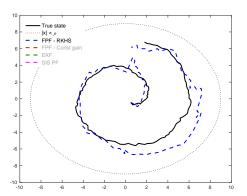


Posterior estimates at t = 1.

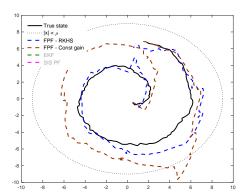
Example: Nonlinear ship dynamics model in 2d.



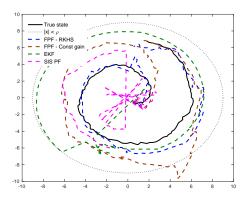
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Applications to MCMC

Introduction to MCMC

In many applications, we need to compute

$$\eta = \int c(x)\rho(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

- $c \colon \mathbb{R}^\ell \to \mathbb{R}$ is a measurable function.
- ρ is a target probability density in \mathbb{R}^{ℓ} .

Markov-Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods provide numerical algorithms to obtain estimates:

$$\eta_t = \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t c(\Phi(s)) \, ds$$

 Φ is a Markov process with steady state distribution ρ .

Applications to MCMC

Asymptotic Variance

Estimates η_t obey a Central Limit Theorem,

$$\sqrt{t}(\eta_t - \eta) \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \gamma^2)$$

Rate of convergence captured by asymptotic variance

$$\gamma^2 = \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathsf{E} \left[\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} \int_0^t (c(\Phi(s)) - \eta) \, ds \right)^2 \right]$$

Alternate representation in terms of covariance

$$\gamma^2 := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} R(s)ds, \qquad R(s) = \mathsf{E}[\tilde{c}(\Phi_0)\tilde{c}(\Phi_s)]$$

Asymptotic Variance

Representation in terms of h:

$$\gamma^2 = 2\langle h, \, \tilde{c} \rangle$$

Asymptotic Variance

Representation in terms of h:

$$\begin{split} \gamma^2 &= 2\langle h,\, \tilde{c}\rangle \\ &= 2\|\nabla h\|_{L^2} \\ \text{(For Langevin diffusion)} \end{split}$$

Control Variates

Goal: To minimize asymptotic variance.

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Idea: Modify the estimator

$$c_g=c+\underbrace{\mathcal{D}g}_{ ext{Control variate}}, \quad ext{where} \quad g\in\mathcal{H}$$
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For asymptotically unbiased estimates, control variate needs to have zero-mean with respect to ρ .

For any $g \in C^2$, Pg is invariant with $\rho \implies \langle \mathcal{D}g, 1 \rangle_{L^2} = 0$.

Optimal control variates

Let
$$\tilde{h}_g = h - g$$
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$$= -c_g + \eta$$

Thus \tilde{h}_g is the solution to Poisson's equation with forcing function c_g .

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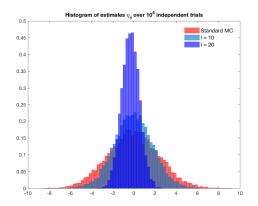
Asymptotic variance of the new estimator:

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_g^2 &= 2\langle \tilde{h}_g, \tilde{c}_g \rangle_{L^2} \\ &= 2\|\nabla h - \nabla g\|_{L^2}^2 \\ \text{(For Langevin diffusion)} \end{aligned}$$

Can be minimized using differential TD-learning.

Numerical Examples

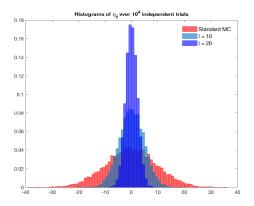
Example: Unadjusted Langevin algorithm (ULA)



Histograms over 10000 independent trials of $\sqrt{T}(\eta^i - \eta)$ for $\ell = 0, 10, 20$

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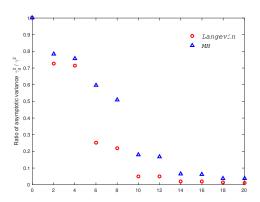
Example: Random walk Metropolis (RWM)



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Numerical Examples

Unadjusted Langevin algorithm (ULA) vs Random walk Metropolis (RWM)



Numerical Examples

Variance vs Asymptotic variance

$$\sigma^2 = \langle \tilde{c}, \tilde{c} \rangle_{L^2} = R(0)$$

- Ordinary variance

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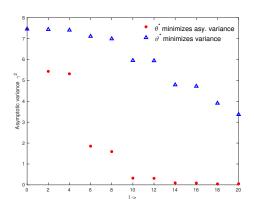
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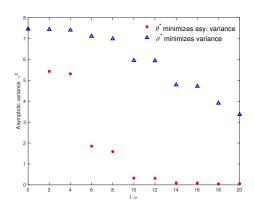
Numerical Examples

Sample variance vs Asymptotic variance



Numerical Examples

Sample variance vs Asymptotic variance



Numerical Examples

Example: Logistic Regression for Swiss bank notes

 $X \in \mathbb{R}^{200 imes 4}$ - Covariates measurements of four features of 200 bank notes.

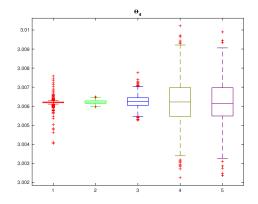
$$\{Y_i \in \{0,1\}, 1 \leq i \leq 200\}$$
 - Labels denoting genuine or counterfeit.

 $\Theta \in \mathbb{R}^4$ - Regression coefficients for classification.

$$\rho(\Theta|\{X_i, Y_i\}_1^N) \propto \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^N \{Y_i \Theta^{\tau} X_i - \log(1 + e^{\Theta^{\tau} X_i})\} - \frac{\Theta^{\tau} \Sigma^{-1} \Theta}{2}\right)$$

Numerical Examples

Example: Logistic Regression for Swiss bank notes



Box plots of estimates of Θ_4 .

Conclusions

- Differential LSTD learning based approaches to approximate solution to Poisson's equation for the Langevin diffusion.
 - Finite dimensional basis.
 - RKHS.
- Two interesting applications
 - Asymptotic variance reduction in MCMC algorithms.
 - Gain function approximation in Feedback particle filter.
- Extended the approach to include reversible Markov chains.

References



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Thank You!

Questions?