

# From Divergence Function to Information Geometry: Metric, Equiaffine, and Symplectic Structures

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## 1 Divergence Functions

Divergence functions are fundamental objects in *Information Geometry*, the differential geometric study of the manifold of (parametric or non-parametric) probability distributions (see Amari, 1985; Amari and Nagaoka, 2000). They measure the directed (asymmetric) difference between two points on this manifold, where each point represents a probability function or a vector in the parametric space. This paper will review and report new results on how divergence functions are used to construct geometric structures on a manifold, namely the Riemannian structure on the tangent bundle and the symplectic structure on the cotangent bundle.

### 1.1 Definition and examples

**Definition.** A divergence function  $\mathcal{D} : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  on a convex set  $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a smooth function (differentiable up to third order) which satisfies

- (i)  $\mathcal{D}(x, y) \geq 0 \ \forall x, y \in V$  with equality holding if and only if  $x = y$ ;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{D}_i(x, x) = \mathcal{D}_{,j}(x, x) = 0, \forall i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ ;
- (iii)  $-\mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, x)$  is positive definite.

Here  $\mathcal{D}_i(x, y) = \partial_{x^i} \mathcal{D}(x, y)$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_{,i}(x, y) = \partial_{y^i} \mathcal{D}(x, y)$  denote partial derivatives with respect to the  $i$ -th component of the  $x$ -variable and of the  $y$ -variable, respectively,  $\mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y) = \partial_{x^i} \partial_{y^j} \mathcal{D}(x, y)$  denotes the second-order mixed derivative, etc. The following are familiar examples.

*Bregman divergence* (Bregman, 1967).  $\mathcal{B}_\Phi(x, y)$  is induced by a smooth and strictly convex function  $\Phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\mathcal{B}_\Phi(x, y) = \Phi(x) - \Phi(y) - \langle x - y, \partial\Phi(y) \rangle \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\partial\Phi = [\partial_1\Phi, \dots, \partial_n\Phi]$  and  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_n$  denotes the canonical pairing of a point/vector  $x = [x^1, \dots, x^n] \in V$  and a point/co-vector  $u = [u_1, \dots, u_n] \in \tilde{V}$  (dual to  $V$ ):  $\langle x, u \rangle_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x^i u_i$ .

*Kullback-Leibler divergence* (Kullback, 1957).  $\mathcal{K}(x, y)$  plays a fundamental role in statistical inference:

$$\mathcal{K}(x, y) = \sum_i \left( y^i - x^i - x^i \log \frac{y^i}{x^i} \right) = \mathcal{K}^*(y, x) . \quad (1.2)$$



*f-divergence* (Csiszár, 1967). For a convex function  $f_c : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  with  $f_c(1) = 0, f'_c(1) = 0$ :

$$\mathcal{F}_{f_c}(x, y) = \sum_i x^i f_c\left(\frac{y^i}{x^i}\right). \quad (1.3)$$

*Alpha divergence* (Amari 1982; 1985) A parametric family  $\mathcal{A}^{(\alpha)}$  of divergence functions :

$$\mathcal{A}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \sum_i \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} x^i + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y^i - (x^i)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}} (y^i)^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}} \right), \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (1.4)$$

Note that  $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 1} \mathcal{A}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \mathcal{K}(x, y)$ ,  $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow -1} \mathcal{A}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \mathcal{K}(y, x)$ .

*Jenson Difference* (Rao, 1987). A family of divergence functions (we add the  $\frac{4}{1-\alpha^2}$  factor here)

$$\mathcal{E}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \sum_i \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} x^i \log \frac{x^i}{\frac{1-\alpha}{2} x^i + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y^i} + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y^i \log \frac{y^i}{\frac{1-\alpha}{2} x^i + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y^i} \right), \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \quad (1.5)$$

that also recovers the Kullback-Leibler divergence (1.2) by letting  $\alpha \rightarrow \pm 1$ .

*Alpha-beta divergence* (Zhang, 2004). A two-parameter family  $\mathcal{D}^{\alpha, \beta}$  of divergence functions

$$\mathcal{D}^{(\alpha, \beta)}(x, y) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \frac{2}{1+\beta} \sum_i \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} x^i + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y^i - \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} (x^i)^{\frac{1-\beta}{2}} + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} (y^i)^{\frac{1-\beta}{2}} \right)^{\frac{2}{1-\beta}} \right) \quad (1.6)$$

with  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ , which reduces to (1.4) when  $\alpha \rightarrow \pm 1$  or  $\beta \rightarrow -1$ , and to (1.5) when  $\beta \rightarrow 1$ .

## 1.2 Divergence Induced by Convex Functions

To allow unifying treatment of divergence functions and the geometrical structures they generate, Zhang (2004) proposed a general family of divergence functions based on convex analysis. A strictly convex (or simply “convex”) function  $\Phi : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \mapsto \Phi(x)$  is defined on a non-empty convex set  $S = \text{int dom}(\Phi) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  such that for any two points  $x \in S, y \in S$  and any real number  $\alpha \in (-1, 1)$ , the following is valid

$$\frac{1-\alpha}{2} \Phi(x) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \Phi(y) - \Phi\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2} x + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y\right) \geq 0 \quad (1.7)$$

The inequality sign is reversed when  $|\alpha| > 1$  (with equality holding only when  $x = y$ ). We assume  $\Phi$  to be sufficiently smooth (differentiable up to fourth order). A family of functions on  $V \times V$ , as indexed by  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , were introduced by Zhang (2004) as divergence functions

$$\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \Phi(x) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \Phi(y) - \Phi\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{2} x + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} y\right) \right). \quad (1.8)$$

Clearly,  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(-\alpha)}(y, x)$ , and  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\pm 1)}(x, y)$  is defined by taking  $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \pm 1}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(1)}(x, y) &= \mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(-1)}(y, x) &= \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}(x, y), \\ \mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(-1)}(x, y) &= \mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(1)}(y, x) &= \mathcal{B}_{\Phi}(y, x). \end{aligned}$$



**Lemma 1.1.** *For a smooth function  $\Phi : V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the following are equivalent:*

- (i)  $\Phi$  is strictly convex;
- (ii)  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(1)}(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in V$ ;
- (iii)  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(-1)}(x, y) \geq 0, \forall x, y \in V$ ;
- (iv)  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $|\alpha| < 1$  and  $\forall x, y \in V$ ;
- (v)  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) \geq 0$  for all  $|\alpha| > 1$  and  $\forall x, y \in V$ .

Denote the convex conjugate  $\tilde{\Phi} : \tilde{V} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined through the Legendre-Fenchel transform:

$$\tilde{\Phi}(u) = \langle (\partial\Phi)^{-1}(u), u \rangle - \Phi((\partial\Phi)^{-1}(u)), \quad (1.9)$$

with  $\tilde{\tilde{\Phi}} = \Phi$  and  $(\partial\Phi) = (\partial\tilde{\Phi})^{-1}$ . The function  $\tilde{\Phi}$  is also convex, and satisfy the Fenchel inequality:

$$\Phi(x) + \tilde{\Phi}(u) - \langle x, u \rangle \geq 0$$

for any  $x \in V$ ,  $u \in \tilde{V}$ , with equality holding if and only if (below “lefttrightharrow” means “equivalently”)

$$u = (\partial\Phi)(x) = (\partial\tilde{\Phi})^{-1}(x) \longleftrightarrow x = (\partial\tilde{\Phi})(u) = (\partial\Phi)^{-1}(u), \quad (1.10)$$

or, in component form,

$$u_i = \frac{\partial\Phi}{\partial x^i} \longleftrightarrow x^i = \frac{\partial\tilde{\Phi}}{\partial u_i}. \quad (1.11)$$

Finally, introduce “canonical divergence”  $\mathcal{A}_{\Phi} : V \times \tilde{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  (and  $\mathcal{A}_{\tilde{\Phi}} : \tilde{V} \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ )

$$\mathcal{A}_{\Phi}(x, v) = \Phi(x) + \tilde{\Phi}(v) - \langle x, v \rangle = \mathcal{A}_{\tilde{\Phi}}(v, x).$$

They are related to the Bregman divergence (1.1) via

$$\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}(x, (\partial\Phi)^{-1}(v)) = \mathcal{A}_{\Phi}(x, v) = \mathcal{B}_{\tilde{\Phi}}((\partial\tilde{\Phi})(x), v).$$

## 2 Riemannian Structure Induced by Divergence Functions

### 2.1 Metric, conjugate connections, and equiaffine volumn forms

Let  $\mathfrak{M}$  be a smooth manifold endowed with a Riemannian metric  $g$ :

$$g_{ij}(x) = g(\partial_i, \partial_j) \quad (2.1)$$

written in local coordinates  $\partial_i \equiv \partial/\partial x^i$  of the tangent space  $\mathcal{T}\mathfrak{M}_x$ . An affine connection  $\nabla$ , written out in its “contravariant” form  $\Gamma_{ij}^l$ , is

$$\nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_j = \sum_l \Gamma_{ij}^l \partial_l. \quad (2.2)$$



The torsion  $T$  of a connection  $\nabla$  is given by  $T(\partial_i, \partial_j) = \nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_j - \nabla_{\partial_j} \partial_i = \sum_k T_{ij}^k \partial_k$ , where

$$T_{ij}^k(x) = \Gamma_{ij}^k(x) - \Gamma_{ji}^k(x).$$

The curvature  $R$  of a connection  $\nabla$  is given by  $R(\partial_i, \partial_j) \partial_k = (\nabla_{\partial_i} \nabla_{\partial_j} - \nabla_{\partial_j} \nabla_{\partial_i}) \partial_k = \sum_l R_{kij}^l \partial_l$  with

$$R_{kij}^l(x) = \frac{\partial \Gamma_{jk}^l(x)}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial \Gamma_{ik}^l(x)}{\partial x^j} + \sum_m \Gamma_{im}^l(x) \Gamma_{jk}^m(x) - \sum_m \Gamma_{jm}^l(x) \Gamma_{ik}^m(x).$$

The covariant forms of  $\Gamma$  and  $R$  are

$$\Gamma_{ij,k} = g(\nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_j, \partial_k) = \sum_l g_{lk} \Gamma_{ij}^l, \quad R_{lkij} = \sum_m g_{lm} R_{kij}^m. \quad (2.3)$$

When  $\Gamma$  is torsion free,  $R_{lkij}$  is anti-symmetric when  $i \leftrightarrow j$  or when  $k \leftrightarrow l$ , and symmetric when  $(i, j) \leftrightarrow (l, k)$ . The Ricci tensor  $\text{Ric}$  is

$$\text{Ric}_{ij}(x) = \sum_k R_{ikj}^k(x) = \sum_{k,l} R_{likj} g^{kl}. \quad (2.4)$$

For torsion-free connections  $\Gamma_{ij}^k = \Gamma_{ji}^k$ , we can further consider a restrictive class, called “equiaffine” connections  $\nabla$ , when the manifold  $\mathfrak{M}$  (with such  $\nabla$ ) may admit uniquely a volume form  $\Omega$  that is parallel under  $\nabla$ . Here, a volume form is a non-degenerate, skew-symmetric multilinear map from  $V \times \dots \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and “parallel” is in the sense that  $(\partial_i \Omega)(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n) = 0$  where

$$(\partial_i \Omega)(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n) \equiv (\nabla_{\partial_i} \Omega)(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n) = \partial_i(\Omega(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n)) - \sum_{l=1}^n \Omega(\dots, \nabla_{\partial_i} \partial_l, \dots). \quad (2.5)$$

Applying (2.2), the equiaffine condition becomes

$$\partial_i(\Omega(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n)) = \sum_{l=1}^n \Omega\left(\dots, \sum_{k=1}^n \Gamma_{il}^k \partial_k, \dots\right) = \sum_{l,k=1}^n \Gamma_{il}^k \delta_k^l \Omega(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n) = \Omega(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n) \sum_{l=1}^n \Gamma_{il}^l \quad (2.6)$$

or

$$\sum_l \Gamma_{il}^l(x) = \frac{\partial \log \Omega(x)}{\partial x^i}. \quad (2.7)$$

For torsion-free connections, the equiaffine condition is equivalent to Ricci tensor being symmetric:

$$\text{Ric}_{ij} - \text{Ric}_{ji} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} \left( \sum_l \Gamma_{jl}^l(x) \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \left( \sum_l \Gamma_{il}^l(x) \right). \quad (2.8)$$

Equivalently,  $\sum_k R_{kij}^k = 0$ . One can check that the Levi-Civita connection is always equiaffine.

Let us now revisit the concept of “conjugate connection”. A connection  $\nabla^*$  is said to be “conjugate” to  $\nabla$  with respect to  $g$  if

$$\partial_k g(\partial_i, \partial_j) = g(\nabla_{\partial_k} \partial_i, \partial_j) + g(\partial_i, \nabla_{\partial_k}^* \partial_j). \quad (2.9)$$



Clearly,  $(\nabla^*)^* = \nabla$ . Moreover, the Levi-Civita connection  $\widehat{\nabla} = (\nabla + \nabla^*)/2$  is self-conjugate, with the parallel volume form given by

$$\widehat{\Omega}(x) = \sqrt{\det[g_{ij}(x)]} \longleftrightarrow \widehat{\Omega}(u) = \sqrt{\det[g^{ij}(u)]}.$$

Writing out (2.9) explicitly,

$$\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} = \Gamma_{ki,j} + \Gamma_{kj,i}^*, \quad (2.10)$$

where analogous to (2.2) and (2.3),

$$\nabla_{\partial_i}^* \partial_j = \sum_l \Gamma_{ij}^{*l} \partial_l$$

so that

$$\Gamma_{kj,i}^* = g(\nabla_{\partial_j}^* \partial_k, \partial_i) = \sum_l g_{il} \Gamma_{kj}^{*l}.$$

It can be shown that the curvatures  $R_{lkij}$  and  $R_{lkij}^*$  for  $\nabla, \nabla^*$  satisfy

$$R_{lkij} = R_{lkij}^*.$$

So,  $\nabla$  is flat if and only if  $\nabla^*$  is flat. In this case, the manifold  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g, \gamma, \gamma^*\}$  is said to be “dually flat”; it is called a “Hessian manifold” (Shima, 2001; Shima and Yagi, 1997). In general, when  $\nabla, \nabla^*$  are not dually flat but nevertheless are torsion-free (the torsion-freeness of one implies the torsion-freeness of the other),  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g, \gamma, \gamma^*\}$  is called a “statistical manifold” (Lauritzen, 1987); they have been in affine differential geometry (Nomizu and Sasaki, 1994), quite separately from the development of information geometry. Statistical manifolds admit a one-parameter family of affine connections  $\nabla^{(\alpha)}$ , called “ $\alpha$ -connections” ( $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ) introduced by Amari (1985):

$$\nabla^{(\alpha)} = \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \nabla + \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \nabla^*. \quad (2.11)$$

Obviously,  $\nabla^{(0)} = \widehat{\nabla}$ . When  $\nabla, \nabla^*$  are dually flat,  $\nabla^{(\alpha)}$  is called “ $\alpha$ -transitively flat” (Uohashi, 2002). In such case, we call  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g, \nabla^{(\alpha)}, \nabla^{(-\alpha)}\}$  an “ $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold”. Conjugate connections which admit torsion has been recently studied by H. Matsuzoe.

## 2.2 Biorthogonal coordinates

Consider coordinate transform  $x \mapsto u$ ,

$$\partial^i \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial u_i} = \sum_l \frac{\partial x^l}{\partial u_i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^l} = \sum_l F^{li} \partial_l$$

where the Jacobian matrix  $F$  is given by

$$F_{ij}(x) = \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x^j}, \quad F^{ij}(u) = \frac{\partial x^i}{\partial u_j}, \quad \sum_l F_{il} F^{lj} = \delta_k^j \quad (2.12)$$

where  $\delta_i^j$  is Kronecker delta (taking the value of 1 when  $i = j$  and 0 otherwise). If the new coordinate system  $u = [u_1, \dots, u_n]$  (with components expressed by subscripts) is such that

$$F_{ij}(x) = g_{ij}(x), \quad (2.13)$$



then the  $x$ -coordinate system and the  $u$ -coordinate system are said to be “biorthogonal” to each other since, from the definition of metric tensor (2.1),

$$g(\partial_i, \partial^j) = g(\partial_i, \sum_l F^{lj} \partial_l) = \sum_l F^{lj} g(\partial_i, \partial_l) = \sum_l F^{lj} g_{il} = \delta_i^j.$$

In such a case, denote

$$g^{ij}(u) = g(\partial^i, \partial^j), \quad (2.14)$$

which equals  $F^{ij}(u)$ , the Jacobian of the inverse coordinate transform  $u \mapsto x$ . Also introduce the (contravariant version) of the affine connection  $\nabla$  under the  $u$ -coordinate system and denote it by an unconventional notation  $\Gamma_t^{rs}$  and  $\Gamma_t^{*rs}$  defined by

$$\nabla_{\partial^r} \partial^s = \sum_t \Gamma_t^{rs} \partial^t; \quad \nabla_{\partial^r}^* \partial^s = \sum_t \Gamma_t^{*rs} \partial^t.$$

The covariant version of the affine connections will be denoted by superscripted  $\Gamma$  and  $\Gamma^*$

$$\Gamma^{ij,k}(u) = g(\nabla_{\partial^i} \partial^j, \partial^k), \quad \Gamma^{*ij,k}(u) = g(\nabla_{\partial^i}^* \partial^j, \partial^k). \quad (2.15)$$

Under biorthogonal coordinates, the component forms of the metric tensor  $g$  satisfy

$$\sum_k g^{ik}(u) g_{kj}(x) = \delta_j^i$$

while the pair of conjugate connections  $\nabla, \nabla^*$  satisfy

$$\Gamma^{*ts,r}(u) = - \sum_{i,j,k} g^{ir}(u) g^{js}(u) g^{kt}(u) \Gamma_{ij,k}(x) \quad (2.16)$$

and

$$\Gamma_r^{*ts}(u) = - \sum_j g^{js}(u) \Gamma_{jr}^t(x). \quad (2.17)$$

Next, we discuss the conditions under which biorthogonal coordinates exist on an arbitrary Riemannian manifold. From its definition (2.13), we have

**Theorem 2.1.** *A Riemannian manifold  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g\}$  admits biorthogonal coordinates if and only if the derivative of the metric  $\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k}$  is totally symmetric<sup>1</sup>*

$$\frac{\partial g_{ij}(x)}{\partial x^k} = \frac{\partial g_{ik}(x)}{\partial x^j}. \quad (2.18)$$

That (2.18) is satisfied for biorthogonal coordinates is evident by virtue of (2.12) and (2.13). Conversely, given (2.18), there must be  $n$  functions  $u_i(x), i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  such that

$$\frac{\partial u_i(x)}{\partial x^j} = g_{ij}(x) = g_{ji}(x) = \frac{\partial u_j(x)}{\partial x^i}.$$

The above identity, in turn, implies that there exist a function  $\Phi$  such that  $u_i = \partial_i \Phi$  and, by positive definiteness of  $g_{ij}$ ,  $\Phi$  would have to be a strictly convex function! In this case, the

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<sup>1</sup>Note that  $\frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} \equiv \partial_k(g(\partial_i, \partial_j)) \neq (\partial_k g)(\partial_i, \partial_j)$ , the latter is necessarily totally symmetric whenever there exist a pair of torsion-free connections  $\Gamma, \Gamma^*$  that are conjugate with respect to  $g$ .



$x$ - and  $u$ -variables satisfy (1.10), and the pair of convex functions,  $\Phi$  and its conjugate  $\tilde{\Phi}$ , are related to  $g_{ij}$  and  $g^{ij}$  by

$$g_{ij}(x) = \frac{\partial^2 \Phi(x)}{\partial x^i \partial x^j} \longleftrightarrow g^{ij}(u) = \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\Phi}(u)}{\partial u_i \partial u_j}.$$

When (2.18) is satisfied, we can define a pair of torsion-free connections by

$$\gamma_{ij,k}(x) = 0, \quad \gamma_{ij,k}^*(x) = \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k}$$

and show that they are conjugate with respect to  $g$ , that is, they satisfy (2.9). This is to say that we selected an affine connection  $\gamma$  such that  $x$  is its affine coordinate system. We can now express  $\gamma^*$  in  $u$ -coordinates (applying the standard formula for a change of coordinate)

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma^{*rs,t}(u) &= \sum_{i,j,k} F^{ir}(u) F^{js}(u) F^{kt}(u) \gamma_{ij,k}^*(x) + \frac{\partial F^{ts}(u)}{\partial u_r} = \sum_{i,j,k} g^{ir}(u) g^{js}(u) \frac{\partial x^k}{\partial u_t} \frac{\partial g_{ij}(x)}{\partial x^k} + \frac{\partial g^{ts}(u)}{\partial u_r} \\ &= \sum_{i,j} g^{ir}(u) \left( -\frac{\partial g^{js}(u)}{\partial u_t} g_{ij}(x) \right) + \frac{\partial g^{ts}(u)}{\partial u_r} = -\sum_j \delta_j^r \frac{\partial g^{js}(u)}{\partial u_t} + \frac{\partial g^{ts}(u)}{\partial u_r} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that  $u$  is an affine coordinate system with respect to  $\gamma^*$ . Therefore, biorthogonal coordinates are affine coordinates for a pair of dually-flat connections.

Let us now consider the parallel volume forms under biorthogonal coordinates. Contracting the indices  $t$  with  $r$  in (2.17), and invoking (2.7), we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \log \Omega^*(u)}{\partial u_s} + \sum_j \frac{\partial x^j}{\partial u_s} \frac{\partial \log \Omega(x)}{\partial x^j} = \frac{\partial \log \Omega^*(u)}{\partial u_s} + \frac{\partial \log \Omega(x(u))}{\partial u_s} = 0.$$

After integration,

$$\Omega^*(u) \Omega(x) = \text{const.} \quad (2.19)$$

Note that  $\Omega(x) = \Omega(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n)$  and  $\Omega^*(x) = \Omega^*(\partial_1, \dots, \partial_n)$ , as skew-symmetric multilinear maps, transform to  $\Omega(u) = \Omega(\partial^1, \dots, \partial^n)$  and  $\Omega^*(u) = \Omega^*(\partial^1, \dots, \partial^n)$  via

$$\Omega(x) = \det[F_{ij}(x)] \Omega(u) \longleftrightarrow \Omega^*(x) = \det[F^{ij}(u)] \Omega^*(u),$$

where  $\det[F_{ij}(x)] = \det[g_{ij}(x)] = (\det[F^{ij}(u)])^{-1} = (\det[g^{ij}(u)])^{-1}$ . Therefore,

$$\Omega(x) \Omega^*(x) = (\hat{\Omega}(x))^2 = \det[g_{ij}(x)], \quad (2.20)$$

$$\Omega(u) \Omega^*(u) = (\hat{\Omega}(u))^2 = \det[g^{ij}(u)]. \quad (2.21)$$

and

$$\Omega(u) \Omega^*(x) = \text{const.} \quad (2.22)$$

The relations (2.19) and (2.22) indicate that the volume forms of the pair of conjugate connections, when expressed in biorthogonal coordinates respectively, are inversely proportional to each other. The  $\Gamma^{(\alpha)}$ -parallel volume element  $\Omega^{(\alpha)}$  can be shown to be given by

$$\Omega^{(\alpha)} = \Omega^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}} (\Omega^*)^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}}$$

in either  $x$ - or  $u$ -coordinates. Clearly,

$$\Omega^{(\alpha)}(x) \Omega^{(-\alpha)}(x) = \det[g_{ij}(x)] \longleftrightarrow \Omega^{(\alpha)}(u) \Omega^{(-\alpha)}(u) = \det[g^{ij}(u)].$$



### 2.3 $\alpha$ -Hessian Structure Induced from $\mathcal{D}_\Phi$ -Divergence

It is well-known that a statistical structure  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g, \Gamma, \Gamma^*\}$  can be induced from a divergence function.

**Lemma 2.2** (Eguchi, 1983; 1992). *A divergence function induces a Riemannian metric  $g$  and a pair of torsion-free conjugate connections  $\Gamma, \Gamma^*$  given as*

$$g_{ij}(x) = -\mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, x); \quad (2.23)$$

$$\Gamma_{ij,k}(x) = -\mathcal{D}_{ij,k}(x, x); \quad (2.24)$$

$$\Gamma_{ij,k}^*(x) = -\mathcal{D}_{k,ij}(x, x). \quad (2.25)$$

It is easily verifiable that  $g_{ij}, \Gamma_{ij,k}, \Gamma_{ij,k}^*$  as given above satisfy (2.10). Furthermore, under arbitrary coordinate transform, these quantities behave properly as desired. Applying (2.23)–(2.25) to the divergence function  $\mathcal{D}_\Phi^{(\alpha)}(x, y)$  revealed an  $\alpha$ -Hessian structure of  $\mathfrak{M}$ .

**Theorem 2.3** (Zhang, 2004). *The manifold  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g(x), \Gamma^{(\alpha)}(x), \Gamma^{(-\alpha)}(x)\}^2$  associated with  $\mathcal{D}_\Phi^{(\alpha)}(x, y)$  is given by*

$$g_{ij}(x) = \Phi_{ij} \quad (2.26)$$

and

$$\Gamma_{ij,k}^{(\alpha)}(x) = \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \Phi_{ijk}, \quad \Gamma_{ij,k}^{*(-\alpha)}(x) = \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \Phi_{ijk}. \quad (2.27)$$

Here,  $\Phi_{ij}, \Phi_{ijk}$  denote, respectively, second and third partial derivatives of  $\Phi(x)$

$$\Phi_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \Phi(x)}{\partial x^i \partial x^j}, \quad \Phi_{ijk} = \frac{\partial^3 \Phi(x)}{\partial x^i \partial x^j \partial x^k}.$$

Note that such  $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold is equipped with an  $\alpha$ -independent metric and a family of  $\alpha$ -transitively flat connections  $\Gamma^{(\alpha)}$  (i.e.,  $\Gamma^{(\alpha)}$  satisfying (2.11) and  $\Gamma^{(\pm 1)}$  are dually flat). From (2.27),

$$\Gamma_{ij,k}^{*(-\alpha)} = \Gamma_{ij,k}^{(\alpha)},$$

with the Levi-Civita connection given as:

$$\hat{\Gamma}_{ij,k}(x) = \frac{1}{2} \Phi_{ijk}.$$

Straightforward calculation shows that:

**Theorem 2.4** (Zhang, 2004; Zhang, 2007; Zhang and Matsuzoe, 2009). *For  $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g(x), \Gamma^{(\alpha)}(x), \Gamma^{(-\alpha)}(x)\}$ ,*

(i) *the curvature tensor of the  $\alpha$ -connection is given by:*

$$R_{\mu\nu ij}^{(\alpha)}(x) = \frac{1-\alpha^2}{4} \sum_{l,k} (\Phi_{il\nu} \Phi_{jk\mu} - \Phi_{il\mu} \Phi_{jk\nu}) \Psi^{lk} = R_{ij\mu\nu}^{*(-\alpha)}(x),$$

with  $\Psi^{ij}$  being the matrix inverse of  $\Phi_{ij}$ ;

---

<sup>2</sup>The functional argument  $x$  (or  $u$  below) indicates that  $x$ -coordinate system (or  $u$ -coordinate system, resp) is being used. Under  $x$  ( $u$ , resp) local coordinates,  $g$  and  $\Gamma$ , in component forms, are expressed by lower (upper, resp) indices.



(ii) all  $\alpha$ -connections are equiaffine, with the  $\alpha$ -parallel volume forms (i.e., the volume forms that are parallel under  $\alpha$ -connections) given by

$$\Omega^{(\alpha)}(x) = \det[\Phi_{ij}(x)]^{\frac{1-\alpha}{2}}.$$

As  $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold admits biorthogonal coordinates, we can also express the volume form associated with  $\Gamma^{(\alpha)}$  in  $u$ -coordinates as

$$\Omega^{(\alpha)}(u) = \det[\tilde{\Phi}^{ij}(u)]^{\frac{1+\alpha}{2}}.$$

We remark that if two smooth, strictly convex functions  $\Phi(x)$  and  $\hat{\Phi}(x)$  are conformally related, i.e., if there exists some positive function  $\sigma(x) > 0$  such that  $\hat{\Phi}_{ij} = \sigma \Phi_{ij}$ , then the curvatures of their respective  $\alpha$ -connection can be shown to satisfy

$$\hat{R}_{ij\mu\nu}^{(\alpha)} = \sigma R_{ij\mu\nu}^{(\alpha)}. \quad (2.28)$$

Recall that the metric and conjugated connections in the forms (2.26) and (2.27) are induced from (1.8). Using the convex conjugate  $\tilde{\Phi} : \tilde{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  given by (1.9), we introduce the following family of divergence functions  $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  defined by

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) \equiv \mathcal{D}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}((\partial\Phi)(x), (\partial\Phi)(y)).$$

Explicitly written, this new family of divergence functions is

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(x, y) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \tilde{\Phi}(\partial\Phi(x)) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \tilde{\Phi}(\partial\Phi(y)) \tilde{\Phi} \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \partial\Phi(x) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \partial\Phi(y) \right) \right). \quad (2.29)$$

Straightforward calculation shows that an  $\alpha$ -Hessian structure  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g(x), \Gamma(x)^{(-\alpha)}, \Gamma(x)^{(\alpha)}\}$  is induced by  $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(x, y)$ , where  $\Gamma^{(\mp\alpha)}$  are given by (2.27); that is, the pair of  $\alpha$ -connections are themselves “conjugate” (in the sense of  $\alpha \leftrightarrow -\alpha$ ) to those induced by  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(x, y)$ .

If, instead of choosing  $x = [x^1, \dots, x^n]$  as the local coordinates for the manifold  $\mathfrak{M}$ , we use its biorthogonal counterpart  $u = [u_1, \dots, u_n]$  to index points on  $\mathfrak{M}$ . Under this  $u$ -coordinate system, the divergence function  $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}$  between the same two points on  $\mathfrak{M}$  becomes

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(u, v) \equiv \mathcal{D}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}((\partial\tilde{\Phi})(u), (\partial\tilde{\Phi})(v)).$$

Explicitly written,

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(u, v) = \frac{4}{1-\alpha^2} & \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \Phi((\partial\Phi)^{-1}(u)) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \Phi((\partial\Phi)^{-1}(v)) \right. \\ & \left. - \Phi \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2} (\partial\Phi)^{-1}(u) + \frac{1+\alpha}{2} (\partial\Phi)^{-1}(v) \right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

Recall our notation (2.14) and (2.15), we have

**Corollary 2.5.** *The  $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold  $\{\mathfrak{M}, g(u), \Gamma^{(\alpha)}(u), \Gamma^{(-\alpha)}(u)\}$  associated with  $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(u, v)$  is given by*

$$g^{ij}(u) = \tilde{\Phi}^{ij}(u), \quad (2.30)$$



$$\Gamma^{(\alpha)ij,k}(u) = \frac{1+\alpha}{2} \tilde{\Phi}^{ijk}, \quad \Gamma^{*(\alpha)ij,k}(u) = \frac{1-\alpha}{2} \tilde{\Phi}_{ijk}, \quad (2.31)$$

Here,  $\tilde{\Phi}^{ij}$ ,  $\tilde{\Phi}^{ijk}$  denote, respectively, second and third partial derivatives of  $\tilde{\Phi}(u)$

$$\tilde{\Phi}^{ij}(u) = \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\Phi}(u)}{\partial u_i \partial u_j}, \quad \tilde{\Phi}^{ijk}(u) = \frac{\partial^3 \tilde{\Phi}(u)}{\partial u_i \partial u_j \partial u_k}.$$

We remark that the same metric (2.30) and the same  $\alpha$ -connections (2.31) are induced by  $\mathcal{D}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(-\alpha)}(u, v) \equiv \mathcal{D}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(v, u)$ . An application of (2.16) gives rise to the following relations:

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma^{(\alpha)mn,l}(u) &= - \sum_{i,j,k} g^{im}(u) g^{jn}(u) g^{kl}(u) \Gamma_{ij,k}^{(-\alpha)}(x), \\ \Gamma^{*(\alpha)mn,l}(u) &= - \sum_{i,j,k} g^{im}(u) g^{jn}(u) g^{kl}(u) \Gamma_{ij,k}^{(\alpha)}(x), \\ R^{(\alpha)klmn}(u) &= \sum_{i,j,\mu,\nu} g^{ik}(u) g^{jl}(u) g^{\mu m}(u) g^{\nu n}(u) R_{ij\mu\nu}^{(\alpha)}(x). \end{aligned}$$

When  $\alpha = \pm 1$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(u, v)$ , as well as  $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\tilde{\Phi}}^{(\alpha)}(x, y)$  introduced earlier, take the form of Bregman divergence (1.1). In this case, the manifold is dually flat, with curvature tensor  $R_{ij\mu\nu}^{(\pm 1)}(x) = R^{(\pm 1)klmn}(u) = 0$ .

Zhang (2006) refers to  $x \leftrightarrow u$  as the representational duality, and  $\alpha \leftrightarrow -\alpha$  as the reference duality. Together, they reveal “reference-representation biduality”, as shown by this section.

### 3 Symplectic Structure Induced by Divergence Functions

A divergence function is given as a bi-variable function on  $\mathfrak{M}$  (of dimension  $n$ ). We now view it as a (single-variable) function on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  (of dimension  $2n$ ) that assumes zero value along the diagonal  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}} \subset \mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ . We will use  $\mathcal{D}$  to induce both a symplectic form and a compatible metric on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ , which, when restricted to  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$ , is a Lagrange submanifold that carries a statistical structure.

Barndorff-Nielsen and Jupp (1997) associated a symplectic form on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  with any divergence function  $\mathcal{D}$  (referred to as “york”), defined as

$$\omega_{\mathcal{D}}(x, y) = \mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y) dx^i \wedge dy^j \quad (3.1)$$

(the comma separates the variable being in the first slot versus the second slot for differentiation). For example, Bregman divergence  $\mathcal{B}_{\Phi}$  induces the symplectic form  $\sum \Phi_{ij} dx^i \wedge dy^j$ .

Fixing a particular  $y$  or a particular  $x$  in  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  results in two  $n$ -dimensional submanifolds of  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  that will be denoted, respectively,  $\mathfrak{M}_x \equiv \mathfrak{M} \times \{y\}$  and  $\mathfrak{M}_y \equiv \{x\} \times \mathfrak{M}$ . Let us write out the canonical symplectic form  $\omega_x$  on the cotangent bundle  $\mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_x$  given by

$$\omega_x = dx^i \wedge d\xi^i.$$

Given a divergence function  $\mathcal{D}$ , we now define a map  $L_{\mathcal{D}}$  from  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_x$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto (x, \xi)$  given by

$$L_{\mathcal{D}} : (x, y) \mapsto (x, \mathcal{D}_i(x, y) dx^i).$$



It is easily to check that in a neighborhood  $\mathcal{U}$  of the diagonal  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}} \subset \mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ , the map  $L_{\mathcal{D}}$  is a diffeomorphism since the Jacobian matrix is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \delta_{ij} & \mathcal{D}_{ij} \\ 0 & \mathcal{D}_{i,j} \end{pmatrix}.$$

which is nondegenerate in such neighborhood  $\mathcal{U}$  of the diagonal  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$ .

We can calculate the pullback of this symplectic form (defined on  $\mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_x$ ) to  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ :

$$L_{\mathcal{D}}^* \omega_x = L_{\mathcal{D}}^* (dx^i \wedge d\xi^i) = dx^i \wedge d\mathcal{D}_i(x, y) = dx^i \wedge (\mathcal{D}_{ij}(x, y)dx^j + \mathcal{D}_{i,j}dy^j) = \mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y)dx^i \wedge dy^j. \quad (3.2)$$

(Here  $\mathcal{D}_{ij}dx^i \wedge dx^j = 0$  since  $\mathcal{D}_{ij}(x, y) = \mathcal{D}_{ji}(x, y)$  always holds.) On the other hand, we consider the canonical symplectic form  $\omega_y = dy^i \wedge d\eta^i$  on  $\mathfrak{M}_y$  and define a map  $R_{\mathcal{D}}$  from  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_y$ ,  $(x, y) \mapsto (y, \eta)$  given by

$$R_{\mathcal{D}} : (x, y) \mapsto (y, \mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y)dy^j).$$

We then use  $R_{\mathcal{D}}$  to pullback  $\omega_y$  to  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ , and get an analogous formula. To summarize:

**Theorem 3.1.**  $\omega_{\mathcal{D}}$  defined on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  is the pullback by the maps  $L_{\mathcal{D}}$  and  $R_{\mathcal{D}}$  of the canonical symplectic form  $\omega_x$  defined on  $\mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_x$  and  $\omega_y$  defined on  $\mathcal{T}^*\mathfrak{M}_y$  :

$$\begin{aligned} L_{\mathcal{D}}^* \omega_x &= \mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y)dx^i \wedge dy^j = \omega_{\mathcal{D}}, \\ R_{\mathcal{D}}^* \omega_y &= -\mathcal{D}_{i,j}(x, y)dx^i \wedge dy^j = -\omega_{\mathcal{D}}. \end{aligned}$$

### 3.1 Almost complex structure, Hermite metric, and Kähler structure

An almost complex structure  $J$  on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  is defined by a vector bundle isomorphism (from  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  to itself), with the property that  $J^2 = -I$ . Requiring  $J$  to be compatible with  $\omega_{\mathcal{D}}$ , that is,

$$\omega_{\mathcal{D}}(JX, JY) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}}(X, Y), \quad \forall X, Y \in \mathcal{T}_{x,y}\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M},$$

we may obtain a constraint on the divergence function  $\mathcal{D}$ . From

$$\omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( J \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, J \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i} \right).$$

we require, and subsequently call a divergence function “proper” if and only if

$$\mathcal{D}_{i,j} = \mathcal{D}_{j,i}, \quad (3.3)$$

or explicitly

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{D}}{\partial x^i \partial y^j} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{D}}{\partial x^j \partial y^i}.$$

Note that this condition is always satisfied on  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$ , by the definition of a divergence function  $\mathcal{D}$ , which has allowed us to define a Riemannian structure on  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$  (Section 2.3). We now require it to be satisfied on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  (at least a neighborhood of  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$ ).

For proper divergence functions, we can induce a metric  $g_{\mathcal{D}}$  on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  — the induced Riemannian (Hermit) metric  $g_{\mathcal{D}}$  is defined by

$$g_{\mathcal{D}}(X, Y) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}}(X, JY).$$



It is easily to verify  $g_{\mathcal{D}}$  is invariant under the almost complex structure  $J$ . The metric components are given by:

$$\begin{aligned} g_{ij} &= g_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, J \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = -\mathcal{D}_{i,j} , \\ g_{,ij} &= g_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}, J \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = -\mathcal{D}_{j,i} , \\ g_{i,j} &= g_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, J \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) = \omega_{\mathcal{D}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i}, -\frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} \right) = 0 . \end{aligned}$$

So the desired metric on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  is

$$g_{\mathcal{D}} = -\mathcal{D}_{i,j} (dx^i dx^j + dy^i dy^j).$$

So, while a divergence function induces a Riemannian structure on the diagonal manifold  $\Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$  of  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ , a proper divergence function induces a Riemannian structure on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ .

We now discuss the Kähler structure on the product space  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$ . By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} ds^2 &= g_{\mathcal{D}} - \sqrt{-1} \omega_{\mathcal{D}} = -\mathcal{D}_{i,j} (dx^i \otimes dx^j + dy^i \otimes dy^j) + \sqrt{-1} \mathcal{D}_{i,j} (dx^i \otimes dy^j - dy^i \otimes dx^j) \\ &= -\mathcal{D}_{i,j} (dx^i + \sqrt{-1} dy^i) \otimes (dx^j - \sqrt{-1} dy^j) = -\mathcal{D}_{i,j} dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j. \end{aligned}$$

Now introduce complex coordinates  $z = x + \sqrt{-1}y$

$$\mathcal{D}(x, y) = \mathcal{D} \left( \frac{z + \bar{z}}{2}, \frac{z - \bar{z}}{2\sqrt{-1}} \right) \equiv \hat{D}(z, \bar{z})$$

so

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{D}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j} = \frac{1}{4} (\mathcal{D}_{ij} + \mathcal{D}_{,ij}) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathcal{D}}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j}$$

If  $\mathcal{D}$  satisfy

$$\mathcal{D}_{ij} + \mathcal{D}_{,ij} = \kappa \mathcal{D}_{i,j} \quad (3.4)$$

where  $\kappa$  is a constant, then  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  admits a Kähler potential (and hence is a Kähler manifold)

$$ds^2 = \frac{\kappa}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \tilde{\mathcal{D}}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j} dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j.$$

### 3.2 Kähler structure induced from $\mathcal{D}_{\Phi}$ -divergence

Observe that

$$\Phi \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2}x + \frac{1+\alpha}{2}y \right) = \Phi \left( \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{4} + \frac{1+\alpha}{4\sqrt{-1}} \right)z + \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{4} - \frac{1+\alpha}{4\sqrt{-1}} \right)\bar{z} \right) \equiv \hat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(z, \bar{z}), \quad (3.5)$$

we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 \hat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j} = \frac{1+\alpha^2}{8} \Phi_{ij} \left( \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{4} + \frac{1+\alpha}{4\sqrt{-1}} \right)z + \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{4} - \frac{1+\alpha}{4\sqrt{-1}} \right)\bar{z} \right)$$



which is symmetric in  $i, j$ . Both (3.3) and (3.4) are satisfied. The symplectic form, under the complex coordinates, is given by

$$\omega^{(\alpha)} = \Phi_{ij} \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2}x + \frac{1+\alpha}{2}y \right) dx^i \wedge dy^j = \frac{4\sqrt{-1}}{1+\alpha^2} \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j} dz^i \wedge d\bar{z}^j$$

and the line-element is given by

$$ds^{2(\alpha)} = \frac{8}{1+\alpha^2} \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j} dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j.$$

**Theorem 3.2.** *A smooth and strictly convex function  $\Phi : U \subset \mathfrak{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  induces a family of Kähler structure  $(\mathfrak{M}, \omega^{(\alpha)}, g^{(\alpha)})$  defined on  $U \times U \subset \mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  with*

1. *the symplectic form  $\omega^{(\alpha)}$  is given by*

$$\omega^{(\alpha)} = \Phi_{ij}^{(\alpha)} dx^i \wedge dy^j$$

*which is compatible with the canonical almost complex structure*

$$\omega^{(\alpha)}(JX, JY) = \omega^{(\alpha)}(X, Y),$$

*where  $X, Y$  are vector fields on  $U \times U$ ;*

2. *the Riemannian metric  $g^{(\alpha)}$ , compatible with  $J$  and  $\omega^{(\alpha)}$  above, given by*

$$g^{(\alpha)} = \Phi_{ij}^{(\alpha)} (dx^i dx^j + dy^i dy^j);$$

3. *the Kähler structure*

$$ds^{2(\alpha)} = \Phi_{ij}^{(\alpha)} dz^i \otimes d\bar{z}^j = \frac{8}{1+\alpha^2} \frac{\partial^2 \widehat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}}{\partial z^i \partial \bar{z}^j}.$$

*with the Kähler potential given by*

$$\frac{2}{1+\alpha^2} \widehat{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}(z, \bar{z}).$$

Here,  $\Phi_{ij}^{(\alpha)} = \Phi_{ij} \left( \frac{1-\alpha}{2}x + \frac{1+\alpha}{2}y \right)$ .

For the diagonal  $\Delta_U = \{(x, x) \in \mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}\}$ , a basis of the tangent space  $\mathcal{T}_{(x,x)} \Delta_{\mathfrak{M}}$  can be selected as

$$e_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i} \right).$$

The Riemannian metric on the diagonal, induced from  $g^{(\alpha)}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} & g^{(\alpha)}(e_i, e_j)|_{x=y} = \langle g^{(\alpha)}, e_i \otimes e_j \rangle \\ &= \langle \Phi_{kl}^{(\alpha)} (dx^k \otimes dx^l + dy^k \otimes dy^l), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^i} \right) \otimes \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^j} \right) \rangle = \Phi_{ij}^{(\alpha)}(x, x) = \Phi_{ij}(x). \end{aligned}$$



Therefore, restricting to the diagonal  $\Delta\mathfrak{M}$ ,  $g^{(\alpha)}$  reduces to the Riemannian metric induced by the divergence  $D_{\Phi}^{(\alpha)}$  through the Eguchi method.

We next calculate the Levi-Civita connection  $\tilde{\Gamma}$  associated with  $g^{(\alpha)}$ . Denote  $x^{i'} = y^i$ , and that

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{i'jk'} = \langle \nabla_{\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{i'}}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{k'}} \rangle = \langle \nabla_{\frac{\partial}{\partial y^i}} \frac{\partial}{\partial x^j}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y^k} \rangle,$$

and so on. The Levi-Civita connection on  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  is

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{ijk} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{ik}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial g_{jk}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^k} \right) = \frac{1-\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{ijk'} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{ik'}}{\partial x^j} + \frac{\partial g_{jk'}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{ij}}{\partial x^{k'}} \right) = -\frac{1+\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{i'jk'} = \tilde{\Gamma}_{ij'k'} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{ik'}}{\partial x^{j'}} + \frac{\partial g_{j'k'}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{ij'}}{\partial x^{k'}} \right) = \frac{1-\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{i'jk} = \tilde{\Gamma}_{ij'k} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{ik}}{\partial x^{j'}} + \frac{\partial g_{j'k}}{\partial x^i} - \frac{\partial g_{ij'}}{\partial x^k} \right) = \frac{1+\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{i'j'k} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{i'k}}{\partial x^{j'}} + \frac{\partial g_{j'k}}{\partial x^{i'}} - \frac{\partial g_{i'j'}}{\partial x^k} \right) = -\frac{1-\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

$$\tilde{\Gamma}_{i'j'k'} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\partial g_{i'k'}}{\partial x^{j'}} + \frac{\partial g_{j'k'}}{\partial x^{i'}} - \frac{\partial g_{i'j'}}{\partial x^{k'}} \right) = \frac{1+\alpha}{4} \Phi_{ijk}^{(\alpha)}.$$

This implies that  $\mathfrak{M} \times \mathfrak{M}$  is an  $\alpha$ -Hessian manifold.

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