

Observations for Maximization of f -divergences:

Optimization Perspective

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1. Calculations of the gradients of the matrix functions:

1) Calculation of $\frac{\partial \log |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A}$:

What we want is $\frac{\partial \log |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A}$. Since $\frac{\partial \log |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = \frac{\partial \log |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|} \cdot \frac{\partial |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = \frac{1}{|\Lambda \Sigma A^T|} \frac{\partial |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A}$, the core task is to compute $\frac{\partial |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|}{\partial A}$.

So, let's find out what impact a small perturbation on the element at i -th row, j -th column of A will have on $|\Lambda \Sigma A^T|$.

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} (A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T &= \Lambda \Sigma A^T + t\Lambda \Sigma E_{ij}^T + tE_{ij}\Sigma \Lambda^T + t^2 E_{ij}\Sigma E_{ij}^T \\ &= \Lambda \Sigma A^T + t \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \text{col}_j(\Lambda \Sigma) & 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma \Lambda^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t^2 E_{ij}\Sigma E_{ij}^T \end{aligned}$$

\uparrow i -th column \nwarrow i -th row

Assume $\Lambda \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} y_{11} & \cdots & y_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{r1} & \cdots & y_{rn} \end{pmatrix}$, also notice that Σ is symmetric, so $\text{row}_j(\Sigma \Lambda^T) =$

$[\text{col}_j(\Lambda \Sigma)]^T$, and we have:

$$(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T = \Lambda \Sigma A^T + t \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \cdots & y_{1j} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ y_{1j} & \cdots & 2y_{jj} & \cdots & y_{rj} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & y_{rj} & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} + O(t^2)$$

\downarrow i -th column \nwarrow i -th row

Suppose $|(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T| = C_0 + C_1 t + O(t^2)$. Now we want to decide C_0 and C_1 .

Recalling the formula for calculation of determinants:

$$|D| = \sum (-1)^{\tau(i_1 i_2 i_3 \dots i_n)} d_{1i_1} d_{2i_2} d_{3i_3} \dots d_{ni_n}$$

So, each time we choose the i_k -th element in the k -th row of D ($1 \leq k \leq n$) and make sure that i_1, \dots, i_n are mutually different. We multiply these factors together with a coefficient $+1$ or -1 to get one term in $|D|$. Taking the sum of all those terms, we get the determinant of D .

So, C_0 is the sum of those terms in $(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T$ that are free from t . It can be deduced that in fact $C_0 = |\Lambda \Sigma A^T|$.

Then let us find out what C_1 is. For example, if we choose y_{1j} at the 1-st row, i -th column

of $(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T$, then, to make a term of order t , all the remaining factors should be outside 1-st row or i -th column, and they should be free from t . It can be deduced that the sum of all those terms is Z_{1i} . Here, $Z = A\Sigma A^T$ and Z_{ij} is the algebraic cofactor of Z .

So, we find out that in $C_1 t$ there is a term $y_{1j} Z_{1i}$ as one of the components. Following the same deduction, and taking the fact that Z is symmetric into consideration, eventually we have:

$$C_1 t = 2\text{row}_i(Z^{*T})\text{col}_j(A\Sigma)t$$

Where $Z^* = \begin{pmatrix} Z_{11} & \cdots & Z_{r1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Z_{1r} & \cdots & Z_{rr} \end{pmatrix}$ is the adjugate matrix of Z .

To compute the derivate of 1-st order, we can disregard the $O(t^2)$ terms in $|(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T|$. Hence we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial a_{ij}} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{|(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma(A + tE_{ij})^T| - |A\Sigma A^T|}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{C_1 t + O(t^2)}{t} = C_1 \\ &= 2\text{row}_i(Z^{*T})\text{col}_j(A\Sigma) \end{aligned}$$

So we have:

$$\frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = 2Z^{*T}A\Sigma$$

As $Z^{-1} = \frac{1}{|Z|}Z^*$, we have:

$$\frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = 2|Z|Z^{-T}A\Sigma$$

Since $Z = A\Sigma A^T$ is symmetric, we have $Z^{-1} = Z^{-T}$ and:

$$\frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = 2|A\Sigma A^T|(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma$$

So finally we have:

$$\frac{\partial \log |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = \frac{\partial \log |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|} \cdot \frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = \frac{1}{|A\Sigma A^T|} \frac{\partial |A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} = 2(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma$$

2) Calculation of $\frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial A}$:

We can follow similar ideas to calculate $\text{tr}\left[\left((A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T\right)^{-1}(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_2(A + tE_{ij})^T\right]$.

$$\left((A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T\right)^{-1} = [A\Sigma_1 A^T + t(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T) + O(t^2)]^{-1}$$

According to theorems in functional analysis, if T is invertible and $\|\Delta T\|$ is sufficiently small, then $S = T + \Delta T$ is also invertible:

$$S^{-1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k T^{-1}(T^{-1}\Delta T)^k$$

So, if t is sufficiently small, then $(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T$ is invertible. In our case, $T =$

$A\Sigma_1 A^T$ and $\Delta T = t(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T) + O(t^2)$, hence we have:

$$\left((A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T \right)^{-1} = (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} - t(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T) + O(t^2)$$

$$(A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_2(A + tE_{ij})^T = A\Sigma_2 A^T + t(A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T) + O(t^2)$$

So we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \left[\left((A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T \right)^{-1} (A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_2(A + tE_{ij})^T \right] \\ = \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 A^T] + t \cdot \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T] + t \\ \cdot \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T] - t \cdot \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T)A\Sigma_2 A^T] \\ + O(t^2) \end{aligned}$$

As:

$$\frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial a_{ij}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{tr} \left[\left((A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_1(A + tE_{ij})^T \right)^{-1} (A + tE_{ij})\Sigma_2(A + tE_{ij})^T \right] - \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{t},$$

we can disregard all the terms in $O(t^2)$, so we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial a_{ij}} \\ = \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T] + \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T] \\ - \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T)A\Sigma_2 A^T] \end{aligned}$$

First, we compute $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T]$.

Notice that

$$(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T = (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \text{i-th column} \\ \text{col}_j(A\Sigma_2) & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

So $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T]$ is in fact the element at i -th row and i -th column of $(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T$, which is:

$$\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T] = \text{row}_i(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \cdot \text{col}_j(A\Sigma_2)$$

Similarly, we can obtain:

$$(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T = (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{i-th row}$$

Since $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$, we have:

$$\text{tr} \left[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \text{tr} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \right]$$

$\text{tr} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \right]$ is in fact the element at i -th row and i -th column of

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}$. So we have:

$$\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{row}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T) \text{col}_i(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}$$

So, $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T]$ is the element at j -th row and i -th column of $\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}$, which is the element at i -th row and j -th column of $[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}]^T (\Sigma_2 A^T)^T$. So:

$$\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{row}_i(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \cdot \text{col}_j(A\Sigma_2)$$

For $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}(A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T + E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T)A\Sigma_2 A^T]$, we break it into two terms, $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T A\Sigma_2 A^T]$ and $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T A\Sigma_2 A^T]$.

For the first part, $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T A\Sigma_2 A^T]$, according to $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ we have $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T A\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{tr}[A\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T]$.

Recalling that in the computation of $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T] = \text{row}_i(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1} \cdot \text{col}_j(A\Sigma_2)$, we have learned how to compute arbitrary expressions of $\text{tr}[(\cdot)A\Sigma_2 E_{ij}^T]$. So here we have:

$$\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T A\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{tr}[A\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 E_{ij}^T] = \text{row}_i A\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2} \cdot \text{col}_j A\Sigma_1$$

For the second part, $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T A\Sigma_2 A^T]$, according to $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ we have $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T A\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{tr}[A\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T]$.

Recalling that in the computation of $\text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T] = \text{row}_i[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}]^T \cdot \text{col}_j(\Sigma_2 A^T)^T$, we have learned how to compute arbitrary expressions of $\text{tr}[(\cdot)E_{ij}\Sigma_2 A^T]$. So here we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T A\Sigma_2 A^T] &= \text{tr}[A\Sigma_2 A^T (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}E_{ij}\Sigma_1 A^T] \\ &= \text{row}_i (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2} A\Sigma_2 A^T \text{col}_j A\Sigma_1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have completed the calculation of all components of $\frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial a_{ij}}$. Notice that each component can be expressed in the form of $\text{row}_i(\cdot) \cdot \text{col}_j(\cdot)$, so we can obtain the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial A} &= 2(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma_2 - (A\Sigma_2 A^T)(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 - (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)A\Sigma_1 \end{aligned}$$

The formulas given above are adequate for our discussions. However, for convenience we can give more formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log|A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} &= 2(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma \\ \frac{\partial \log|AA^T|}{\partial A} &= 2(AA^T)^{-1}A \\ \frac{\partial \log|A|}{\partial A} &= A^{-T} \\ \frac{\partial \log|AB|}{\partial A} &= (AB)^{-T}B^T \\ \frac{\partial \log|AB|}{\partial B} &= A^T(AB)^{-T} \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}(A)}{\partial A} &= I_n \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}(A^{-1})}{\partial A} &= (A^{-2})^T \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}(AB)}{\partial A} &= B^T \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}(A\Sigma A^T)}{\partial A} &= 2A\Sigma \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}]}{\partial A} &= -2(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}(AA^T)]}{\partial A} &= 2(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A - AA^T(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}AA^T A\Sigma \\ \frac{\partial \log|A\Sigma A^T + AA^T|}{\partial A} &= 2(A\Sigma A^T + AA^T)^{-1}A(\Sigma + I_n) \\ \frac{\partial \log|A\Sigma_1 A^T + A\Sigma_2 A^T|}{\partial A} &= 2(A(\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2)A^T)^{-1}A(\Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2) \\ \frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma_2 A^T)]}{\partial A} &= 2(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma_2 - A\Sigma_2 A^T(A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_1 - (A\Sigma_1 A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma_2 A^T A\Sigma_1\end{aligned}$$

2. Formulation of the optimization problem:

According to the formulas given above, we can calculate the gradients for KL-divergence, symmetric KL-divergence and Hellinger distance.

1) KL-divergence:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_A KL &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\partial \log|A\Sigma A^T|}{\partial A} - \frac{\partial \log|AA^T|}{\partial A} + \frac{\partial \text{tr}[(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}(AA^T)]}{\partial A} \right] \\ &= (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - (AA^T)^{-1}A + (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A - \frac{1}{2}AA^T(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}AA^T A\Sigma\end{aligned}$$

In our problem, we should find the global maxima where $\nabla_A KL = 0$. According to previous discussions, KL-divergence is invariant under invertible linear transformations of rank r , so for any global optimal solution A , we can always find another global optimal solution \tilde{A} satisfying the constraint $\tilde{A}\tilde{A}^T = I_r$, and $\tilde{A} = RA$, $R \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}$ is invertible. So, without loss of generality, we can constrain ourselves to the points where $\nabla_A KL = 0$ and $AA^T = I_r$.

In the above equation, we let $AA^T = I_r$ and obtain:

$$\nabla_A KL = (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - A + (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma$$

Note that we should calculate the gradient first and then impose the constraint of $AA^T = I_r$. If we do it in reverse order, we will get a wrong answer.

From the above equation, we can deduce that $\nabla_A KL = 0$ is equivalent to:

$$[I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}][(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - A] = 0$$

If $I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1} = 0$, then $D_{KL} = 0$. This is the global minima. So we need $(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - A = 0$ to obtain the maxima.

2) Symmetric KL-divergence:

$$D_{\text{Sym}} = \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}[(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}(AA^T)] + \frac{1}{2} \text{tr}[(AA^T)^{-1}(A\Sigma A^T)] - r$$

So:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_A \text{Sym} &= (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A - \frac{1}{2}AA^T(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma - \frac{1}{2}(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}AA^T A\Sigma + (AA^T)^{-1}A\Sigma \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}A\Sigma A^T(AA^T)^{-2}A - \frac{1}{2}(AA^T)^{-2}A\Sigma A^T A\end{aligned}$$

Let $AA^T = I_r$, we have:

$$\nabla_A \text{Sym} = (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}A\Sigma + A\Sigma - A\Sigma A^T A$$

So $\nabla_A \text{Sym} = 0$ is equivalent to:

$$[I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}][(A\Sigma A^T)A - A\Sigma] = 0$$

Suppose $I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2} = 0$. Assume $(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}$'s eigenvalues are $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r$, then

$(A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}$'s eigenvalues are $\lambda_1^2, \dots, \lambda_r^2$. Since $I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2} = 0$, we have $\lambda_1^2 = \dots = \lambda_r^2 = 1$.

If Σ is positive definite and A is of rank r , then $A\Sigma A^T$ is also positive definite. So $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r > 0$, which means that $\lambda_1 = \dots = \lambda_r = 1$. Hence we have $A\Sigma A^T = I_r$ and $D_{Sym} = 0$. So in our problems $I_r - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-2}$ corresponds to the global minima. We need $(A\Sigma A^T)A - A\Sigma = A\Sigma(A^T A - I_n) = 0$ to obtain the maxima.

Note that $(A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - A = 0$ is equivalent to $(A\Sigma A^T)A - A\Sigma = 0$, so basically KL-divergence and symmetric KL-divergence will simultaneously reach the maxima.

3) Hellinger distance:

From previous discussions, we have learned that maximizing Hellinger distance is equivalent to maximizing the following:

$$\frac{|A\Sigma A^T + AA^T|^2}{|A\Sigma A^T||AA^T|}$$

Which is equivalent to maximizing the following:

$$2\log|A\Sigma A^T + AA^T| - \log|A\Sigma A^T| - \log|AA^T|$$

According to the formulas given in section 1, we can calculate the gradient of the above expression. And we can deduce that $\nabla_A H = 0$ is equivalent to:

$$2(A\Sigma A^T + I_r)^{-1}A(\Sigma + I_n) - (A\Sigma A^T)^{-1}A\Sigma - A = 0$$

As each objective function has different gradient, we cannot analyze them in a generic way. In the following section, we will discuss the condition when $\nabla_A KL = 0$. As we have mentioned above, $\nabla_A Sym = 0$ is equivalent to $\nabla_A KL = 0$ so we don't have to have an additional discussion for symmetric KL-divergence.

3. The uniqueness of the linear subspace for KL-divergence and symmetric KL-divergence:

We can verify that $\nabla_A KL = 0$ when $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors are constructed as r eigenvectors of Σ . According to the linear invariance, we can deduce that $\nabla_A KL = 0$ as long as $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors span a linear subspace that is identical to the linear subspace that is spanned by some r eigenvectors of Σ . However, it is not obvious whether or not $\nabla_A KL \neq 0$ when A 's r linear independent row vectors cannot be expressed as linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ . Now we prove that it is true: except for the global minimal point, the following conditions are equivalent:

$$1) \nabla_A KL = 0;$$

2) $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors span a linear subspace that is identical to the linear subspace that is spanned by some r eigenvectors of Σ .

This implies that, except for the global minimal point, all the points satisfying $\nabla_A KL = 0$ can be divided into $\binom{n}{r}$ equivalence classes, each corresponds to a linear subspace spanned by certain r eigenvectors of Σ . In these $\binom{n}{r}$ equivalence classes, we can always identify at least one equivalence class where D_{KL} reaches the maxima.

To prove this, first we have to answer the question: what does it mean by " A 's r linear independent row vectors cannot be expressed as linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ "?

We can explain this by an example. Suppose v_1, \dots, v_n are Σ 's eigenvectors which form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n . If $A = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 + v_3 \\ v_2 + v_3 \end{pmatrix}$, then we can say that A 's row vectors cannot be linearly expressed by any 2 eigenvectors of Σ .

Roughly speaking, if $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors "use" more than r symbols among v_1, \dots, v_n , then we say that A 's row vectors cannot be linear expressed by any r eigenvectors of Σ .

Moreover, we observe that $\nabla_A KL$ is invariant under orthogonal transformations. So, if A 's row vectors "use" more than r symbols among v_1, \dots, v_n , then up to an orthogonal transformation, we can express A by:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_{r-1} \\ \sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i v'_i \end{pmatrix}$$

Where $\sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i^2 = 1$, and there are more than one non-zero elements among μ_i^2 .

Hence, to prove our statement is to prove the following:

$(A\Sigma A^T)A - A\Sigma \neq 0$, $AA^T = I_r$ if and only if up to an orthogonal transformation, $A =$

$$\begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_{r-1} \\ \sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i v'_i \end{pmatrix}, \sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i^2 = 1 \text{ and there are more than one non-zero elements among } \mu_i^2.$$

We just need to verify that $A\Sigma A^T A \neq A\Sigma$. Suppose by eigenvalue decomposition we have

$$\Sigma = (v_1 \quad \dots \quad v_n) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_n \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then:}$$

$$A\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_{r-1} v'_{r-1} \\ \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i v'_i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A\Sigma A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_{r-1} & \\ & & & \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A\Sigma A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_{r-1} v'_{r-1} \\ \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 \cdot \sum_{j=r}^n \mu_j v'_j \end{pmatrix}$$

Suppose there is only one element, say, μ_r , that is non-zero among $\mu_i (r \leq i \leq n)$. Then by $\sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i^2 = 1$ we can deduce that $\mu_r^2 = 1$ and $\mu_i^2 = 0$ for any $i \neq r, r \leq i \leq n$. Then $\sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i v'_i = \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 \cdot \sum_{j=r}^n \mu_j v'_j = \lambda_r \mu_r v'_r$. In this case, we have $A\Sigma = A\Sigma A^T A$, that is, $\nabla_A KL = 0$.

However, if there are more than one non-zero elements among $\mu_i (r \leq i \leq n)$, then without loss of generality we denote them by $\mu_r, \dots, \mu_{r+k} (k \geq 1)$. We can also assume that the corresponding eigenvalues, $\lambda_r, \dots, \lambda_{r+k}$, satisfy $\lambda_r > \dots > \lambda_{r+k}$. Then we argue that we must have $\lambda_r = \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2$ if we want $A\Sigma = A\Sigma A^T A$. However, as there are more than one non-zero elements

in μ_i^2 and $\lambda_r > \dots > \lambda_{r+k}$, we have $\sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 < \lambda_r$, so $A\Sigma \neq A\Sigma A^T A$ when there are more than one non-zero elements among $\mu_i (r \leq i \leq n)$.

Hence, we find the necessary and sufficient condition for $\nabla_A KL = 0$:

If $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has n different eigenvalues, then $\nabla_A KL = 0$ if and only if either of the following conditions is met:

- 1) A is the global minimal point satisfying $A\Sigma A^T = I_r$;
- 2) $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors are constructed as r eigenvectors of Σ ;
- 3) $A \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$'s row vectors are linear independent, and can be expressed as linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ .

Previously, we construct A by heuristic methods. Now we proved that previously we have identified all the possible optimal solutions. To conclude, despite that A has infinite number of choices, the choice of eigenvalues and the choice of the linear subspace in which A 's row vectors serve as a basis, are quite unique. If all of Σ 's eigenvalues are different, and the evaluation function doesn't get the same value at two different eigenvalues of Σ (for example, $\lambda = 2$ and $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}$ are

considered the same by the evaluation function $\lambda + \frac{1}{\lambda}$), then the choice of Σ 's eigenvalues, and the choice of the corresponding linear subspace that is able to maximize f-divergences, are unique. If we consider $A\Sigma A^T$ as a compression, then under mild assumptions this compression is unique.

4. A simplified, generic proof for uniqueness:

In the last section we have proved that the optimal solution for KL-divergence is, in some sense, unique. Our proof seems to depend on the particular form of D_{KL} and $\nabla_A KL$. Since each f-divergence has a different objective function, it seems that we should prove the uniqueness of optimal solution on a case-by-case basis. This is, however, not true. I realized that, we can prove the uniqueness in all cases (KL-divergence, symmetric KL-divergence, Hellinger distance, etc.) using a generic method.

The method is generalized from the proof in the last section.

Assume Σ has n different eigenvalues, $\lambda_1 > \dots > \lambda_n$. Suppose by eigenvalue decomposition

$$\Sigma = (v_1 \quad \dots \quad v_n) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad v_1, \dots, v_n \text{ is an orthonormal basis of } \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Now we suppose that the semi-orthogonal matrix A 's r row vectors are not linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ .

Suppose A 's row vectors "use" all the n symbols, v_1, \dots, v_n . then up to an orthogonal transformation we have:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_{r-1} \\ \sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i v'_i \end{pmatrix}$$

Where $\sum_{i=r}^n \mu_i^2 = 1$. Note that in the previous section we have obtained the following:

$$A\Sigma A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \lambda_{r-1} & \\ & & & \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Assume $A\Sigma A^T$'s eigenvalues are $\gamma_1 > \dots > \gamma_r$. As A uses all the n symbols, we have $\mu_i \neq 0 (r \leq i \leq n)$ and $\lambda_r > \sum_{i=r}^n \lambda_i \mu_i^2 > \lambda_n$. Hence we have:

$$\lambda_n < \gamma_r < \lambda_r$$

Similarly, up to an orthogonal transformation we can rewrite A as:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ \vdots \\ v'_{r-2} \\ \sum_{i=r-1}^{n-1} \mu_i v'_i \\ v'_n \end{pmatrix}$$

And we have:

$$A\Sigma A^T = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \lambda_{r-2} & \\ & & & \sum_{i=r-1}^{n-1} \lambda_i \mu_i^2 \\ & & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

By the same deduction, we have:

$$\lambda_{n-1} < \gamma_{r-1} < \lambda_{r-1}$$

Repeat this argument for r times, we have:

$$\lambda_{n-r+i} < \gamma_i < \lambda_i (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

when A “uses” all the n symbols in v_1, \dots, v_n .

So what if A “uses” $n - k > r$ symbols in v_1, \dots, v_n ? In that case, we simply assume that A uses $v_{j_1}, \dots, v_{j_{n-k}}$. Without loss of generality we assume the corresponding eigenvalues satisfy $\lambda_{j_1} > \dots > \lambda_{j_{n-k}}$, then by the same deduction, we have:

$$\lambda_{j_{n-k-r+i}} < \gamma_i < \lambda_{j_i} (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

Because $\lambda_{j_1} > \dots > \lambda_{j_{n-k}}$ are $n-k$ items that are selected from $\lambda_1 > \dots > \lambda_n$, we have:

$$\lambda_{i+k} \leq \lambda_{j_i} \leq \lambda_i (1 \leq i \leq n - k)$$

So we have:

$$\lambda_{n-r+i} \leq \lambda_{j_{n-k-r+i}} < \gamma_i < \lambda_{j_i} \leq \lambda_i (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

Hence we proved that, if A 's r row vectors are not linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ , then we have:

$$\lambda_{n-r+i} < \gamma_i < \lambda_i (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

If A 's r row vectors are linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ , say, $\lambda_{j_1} > \dots > \lambda_{j_r}$, then we have:

$$\gamma_i = \lambda_{j_i} (1 \leq i \leq r)$$

To conclude, based on this method we can confirm that the optimal choice of A is, in some sense, unique. In fact, we used a different method to prove Cauchy's Interlacing theorem, and we proved that in Cauchy's Interlacing theorem, the equalities hold if and only if A 's r row vectors are

linear combinations of certain r eigenvectors of Σ .