

Efficient Factor Analysis Using the Multivariate t -Distribution via PX-EM

ZHOU Rui

1 Preliminary Knowledge

1.1 Student- t Distribution

The multivariate student- t distribution with notation $\mathbf{t}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \nu)$ has the density

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+p}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2}) \nu^{\frac{p}{2}} \pi^{\frac{p}{2}} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left[1 + \frac{1}{\nu} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right]^{-\frac{\nu+p}{2}}$$

where ν is the degrees of freedom, $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is a $p \times p$ matrix, $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ is a p -dimensional constant vector, $\Gamma(a) = \int_0^\infty t^{a-1} \exp(-t) dt$ is the gamma function. Note here the covariance matrix should be $\frac{\nu}{\nu-2} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$.

1.2 Gamma Distribution

The standard Gamma(a, b) distribution has density function

$$f(\tau) = b^a \tau^{(a-1)} \frac{\exp(-b\tau)}{\Gamma(a)}$$

According to the properties of Gamma distribution, the expectation of τ is $E(\tau) = a/b$ and logarithmic expectation is $E(\log \tau) = \phi(a) - \log b$, where $\phi(x) = d \log(\Gamma(x)) / dx$ is the digamma function.

1.3 Hierarchical Structure of Student- t

A classical student- t distribution can be represented in hierarchical structure as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}_p\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \frac{1}{\tau} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right) \\ \tau &\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \text{Gamma}\left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

1.4 PX-EM

The classical EM algorithm is usually criticised for its slow convergence rate. Liu [1] proposed a method called parameter expansion to accelerate EM, i.e., PX-EM. As presented in [1], it can be used in multivariate student- t situation as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathcal{N}_p\left(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \frac{1}{\tau} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right) \\ \tau &\stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \alpha \cdot \text{Gamma}\left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{\nu}{2}\right) \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where α is a expanded scale parameter to be estimated. Note that when the $\alpha = 1$, this model can be reduced to classical hierarchical structure of student- t distribution.

2 Introduction

In this report, we consider the observed p -dimension data $\mathbf{y}_i, i = 1, \dots, n$ follows a student- t distribution, i.e., $\mathbf{y}_i \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathbf{t}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}, \nu)$. Note here we assume \mathbf{y}_i to be mean-centered. According to factor analysis, the high-dimensional observed data can also be represented by the sum of low-dimensional

factors influence and some residuals as $\mathbf{y}_i = \boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{L}\mathbf{f}_i + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$. The \mathbf{L} is a $p \times r$ matrix, \mathbf{f}_i is a r -dimensional vector and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$ is a p -dimensional vector. Besides, \mathbf{f}_i and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$ are usually assumed to be uncorrelated and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_i$ be inter-elements uncorrelated. This structure implies that the parameter $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ should have the certain structure as

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T + \boldsymbol{\Psi},$$

where $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times r}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Psi} = \text{diag}(\psi_1, \dots, \psi_p) \geq \epsilon \mathbf{I}$. To simplify the discussion in the following Section, we denote $\boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{B}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}, \nu\}$. And we can also express the distribution of \mathbf{y} as

$$\mathbf{y}_i \stackrel{i.i.d}{\sim} \mathbf{t}_p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T + \boldsymbol{\Psi}, \nu).$$

3 Estimation of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ Using PX-ML

Considering the hierarchical structure of student- t distribution, the $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ can be estimated through PX-EM. Assuming the $\boldsymbol{\tau} = \{\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n\}$ is observed, we can express the negative log likelihood of complete data $(\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$, ignoring the constants, is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_* | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\tau}) &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\mathbf{y}_i | \tau_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*) - \sum_{i=1}^n \log f(\tau_i | \boldsymbol{\theta}_*) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}| + \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \tau_i (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{n\nu}{2} \log \frac{\nu}{2} - \frac{\nu}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\log \frac{\tau_i}{\alpha} - \frac{\tau_i}{\alpha} \right) + n \log \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\theta}_* = \{\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{B}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}, \nu, \alpha\}$ is the expanded parameters set.

3.1 E-step

The E-step of the EM algorithm is to find the conditional expectation of $\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_* | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\tau})$ under the observed \mathbf{Y} and the current estimation of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_*$, i.e., $\boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}$. Applying the Bayes theorem, the conditional distribution of τ_i given \mathbf{y}_i is

$$\mathbf{y}_i \sim \alpha^{(t)} \text{Gamma} \left(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + p}{2}, \frac{\nu^{(t)} + (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})^T (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(t)} / \alpha^{(t)})^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})}{2} \right)$$

whose proof is similar to last report. Therefore, we can have the follows

$$\mathbb{E} \left(\tau_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) = \alpha^{(t)} \frac{\nu^{(t)} + p}{\nu^{(t)} + (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})^T (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(t)} / \alpha^{(t)})^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})}$$

$$\mathbb{E} \left(\log \tau_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) = \log \alpha^{(t)} + \phi \left(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + p}{2} \right) - \log \frac{\nu^{(t)} + (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})^T (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{(t)} / \alpha^{(t)})^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})}{2}$$

Denote the approximation function under the current parameters estimation as $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_* | \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)})$, which can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_* | \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}) &= \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\tau}} \left(\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_* | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\tau}) | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) \\ &= -\frac{n}{2} \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}| + \frac{n}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\tau \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}}^{(t)} \right) \\ &\quad - \frac{n\nu}{2} \log \frac{\nu}{2} - \frac{n\nu}{2} \hat{S}_{\tau^* \tau}(\alpha) + n \log \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\tau \mathbf{Y} \mathbf{Y}}^{(t)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E} \left(\tau_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)}) (\mathbf{y}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t)})^T$ and

$$\hat{S}_{\tau^* \tau}(\alpha) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\mathbb{E} \left(\log \tau_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) - \log \alpha - \mathbb{E} \left(\tau_i | \mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)} \right) / \alpha \right).$$

3.2 M-step

The M-step of EM algorithm is to find the minimum solution to the approximation function, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\text{minimize}} \quad Q\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}_*|\boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}\right) \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T + \boldsymbol{\Psi} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \boldsymbol{\Psi} = \text{diag}(\psi_1, \dots, \psi_p) \geq \epsilon \mathbf{I} \end{aligned}$$

Note that the optimal value of variables $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and α can be directly derived by taking its derivative be zero, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\mu}^{(t+1)} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left(\tau_i|\mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}\right) \mathbf{y}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left(\tau_i|\mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}\right)} \\ \alpha^{(t+1)} &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}\left(\tau_i|\mathbf{y}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_*^{(t)}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Besides, because the optimization variables $(\mathbf{B}, \boldsymbol{\Psi})$ and ν are fully decoupled in objective function and constraint. The above problem can be easily rewritten into two problem, the one w.r.t ν is

$$\underset{\nu}{\text{minimize}} \quad -\nu \log \frac{\nu}{2} - \nu \hat{S}_{\tau^* \tau}^{(t)}\left(\alpha^{(t+1)}\right) + 2 \log \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) \quad (2)$$

which is a unconstrained problem and can be easily solved by taking the derivative to be zero, i.e., by solving

$$-\log \frac{\nu}{2} - 1 - \hat{S}_{\tau^* \tau}^{(t)}\left(\alpha^{(t+1)}\right) + \phi\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) = 0$$

The above equation is proved to have a unique solution and happen to be the optimal solution to problem (2) when $\hat{S}_{\tau^* \tau}^{(t)}\left(\alpha^{(t+1)}\right) + 1 < 0$ is satisfied. Similarly, we can also get the subproblem w.r.t $(\mathbf{B}, \boldsymbol{\Psi})$ as

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\mathbf{B}, \boldsymbol{\Psi}}{\text{minimize}} \quad -\log|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}| + \text{Tr}\left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\tau Y Y}^{(t)}\right) \\ & \text{subject to} \quad \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T + \boldsymbol{\Psi} \\ & \quad \quad \quad \boldsymbol{\Psi} = \text{diag}(\psi_1, \dots, \psi_p) \geq \epsilon \mathbf{I} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

which has been efficiently solved by algorithm proposed in [2], which could be regarded as MM iterations.

Algorithm 1 Efficient algorithm to problem (3)

Require $\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{(0)}$ and set $\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(0)} = \left(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{(0)}\right)^{-1}$, $t = 0$

repeat

$$\begin{aligned} 1. \text{ compute } \quad \nabla_i &= \left(\left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(t)} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{D}_1 \mathbf{U}^T \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(t)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{S} \right)_{ii} \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, p, \quad \text{where} \\ \mathbf{U} \text{diag}(\lambda_1^*, \dots, \lambda_p^*) \mathbf{U}^T &= \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(t)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{S} \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(t)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{D}_1 = \text{diag}(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_p) \quad \text{with} \\ \delta_i &= \begin{cases} \max\left\{0, 1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_i^*}\right\} & 1 \leq i \leq r \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

$$2. \text{ update } \Phi_{ii}^{(t+1)} = \min\left\{\frac{1}{S_{ii} - \nabla_i}, \frac{1}{\epsilon}\right\} \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, p \text{ and } t \leftarrow t + 1$$

until convergence

$$\text{recovery } \boldsymbol{\Psi}^* = \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{(t)}\right)^{-1}$$

compute $\mathbf{B}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Psi}^*)^{\frac{1}{2}} [\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, \dots, \mathbf{z}_r]$ where \mathbf{z}_i are the largest r eigenvectors of $(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^*)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{S} (\boldsymbol{\Psi}^*)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ rescaled by corresponding largest r eigenvalues $\lambda_i^*, i \leq r$, with $\|\mathbf{z}_i\|^2 = \max\{1, \lambda_i^*\} - 1$

3.3 Complete EM algorithm

The complete PX-EM algorithm is presented as Algorithm 1. It should be mentioned that the EM algorithm is a particular case of MM algorithm. Therefore, to avoid the heavy computation incurred by double loop, we can run only one iteration when solve the problem (3).

Algorithm 2 PX-EM algorithm

Require: $\mathbf{B}^{(0)}, \Psi^{(0)}$ and $\nu^{(0)}$, $t = 0$

repeat

E-step: calculate $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{\tau YY}^{(t)}$ and $\hat{S}_{\tau * \tau}^{(t)}$

M-step: update $\mu^{(t+1)}$ and $\alpha^{(t+1)}$

update $\nu^{(t+1)}$ by solving problem (2)

update $\mathbf{B}^{(t+1)}, \Psi^{(t+1)}$ by solving problem (3)

$t \leftarrow t + 1$

until convergence

4 Numerical simulation

In this section, we compare the performance of classical EM algorithm and PX-EM algorithm. We generate data following student- t distribution $\mathbf{t}_p(\mu, \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T + \Psi, \nu)$ and compare the estimation results $\{\hat{\mathbf{B}}, \hat{\Psi}\}$ in relative error as follows:

$$\text{RE}(\hat{\mathbf{B}}\hat{\mathbf{B}}^T) = \frac{\|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T - \hat{\mathbf{B}}\hat{\mathbf{B}}^T\|_F}{\|\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T\|_F}, \quad \text{RE}(\hat{\Psi}) = \frac{\|\Psi - \hat{\Psi}\|_F}{\|\Psi\|_F}$$

$$\text{RE}(\hat{\Sigma}) = \frac{\|\Sigma - \hat{\Sigma}\|_F}{\|\Sigma\|_F}, \quad \text{RE}(\hat{\mu}) = \frac{\|\mu - \hat{\mu}\|_2}{\|\mu\|_2}$$

In Figure 1, we set $p = 200$, $n = 5p$ and $\nu = 5$. Here \mathbf{B} and Ψ are generated randomly with all conditions satisfied. The initial value of estimated parameters are given by $\mathbf{B}^{(0)} = \mathbf{U}_K \Lambda_K^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $\Psi^{(0)} = \text{diag}(\mathbf{S} - \mathbf{B}^{(0)}\mathbf{B}^{(0)T})$ with $\mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{U}$ be the eigen value decomposition of sample covariance matrix \mathbf{S} . In another word, the initial point is determined by PCA estimation. It is obvious that the proposed algorithms can both improve a lot compared with simple PCA. Surprisingly, the PX-EM can be one order of magnitude faster than the PX-EM. In Figure 2, we set $p = 400$, $n = 5p$ and $\nu = 5$. The same properties are still held.

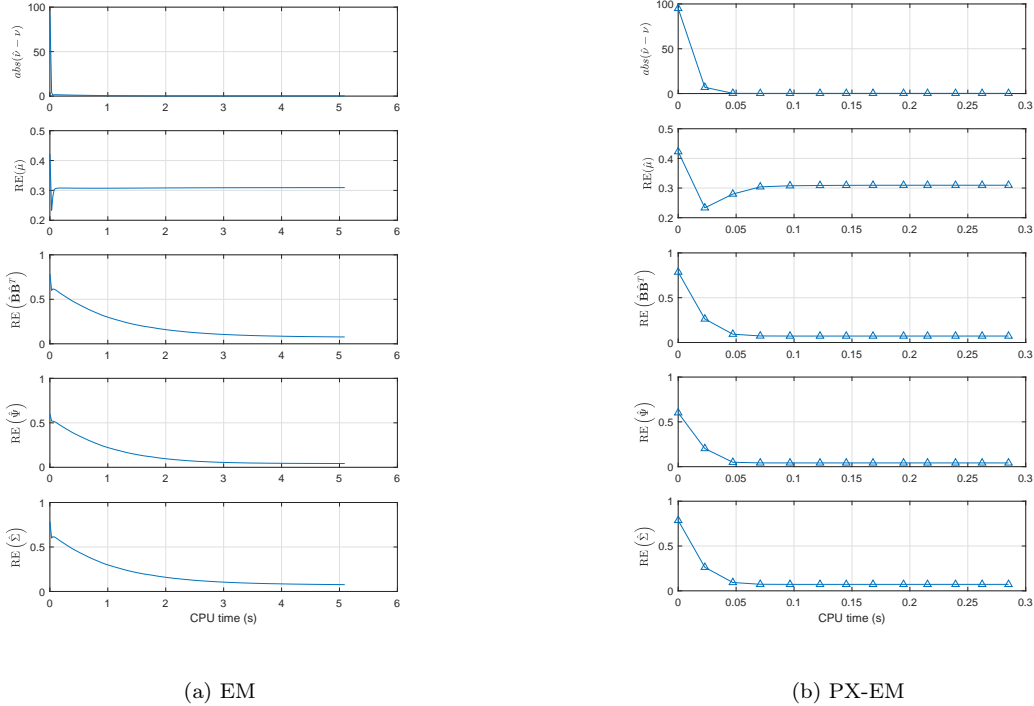
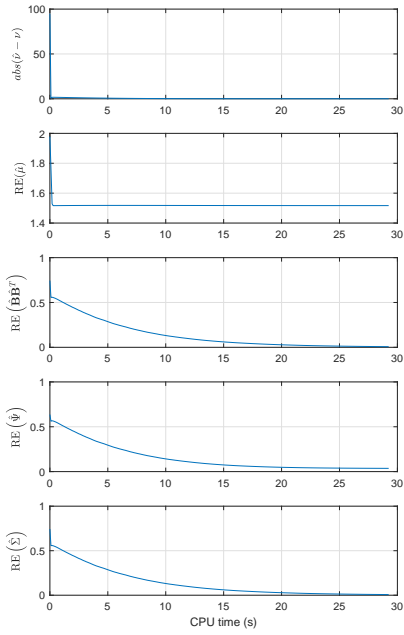
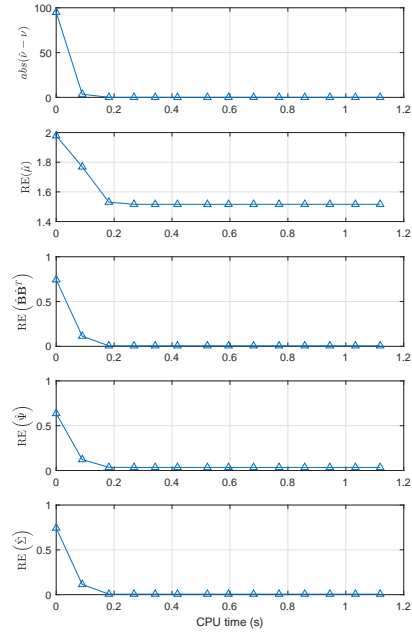


Figure 1: Comparison between EM and PX-EM, $p = 200$, $n = 1000$, $\nu = 5$



(a) EM



(b) PX-EM

Figure 2: Comparison between EM and PX-EM, $p = 400$, $n = 2000$, $\nu = 5$

References

- [1] C. Liu, D. B. Rubin, and Y. N. Wu, "Parameter expansion to accelerate em: the px-em algorithm," *Biometrika*, vol. 85, no. 4, pp. 755–770, 1998.
- [2] K. Khamaru and R. Mazumder, "Computation of the maximum likelihood estimator in low-rank factor analysis," *arXiv preprint arXiv:1801.05935*, 2018.