

More PRML Errata

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January 18, 2017

Preface

This report¹ communicates some more errata for *Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning* or PRML by Bishop (2006) that are not listed in the official errata document (Svensén and Bishop, 2011)² at the time of this writing. When specifying the location of an error, I follow the notational conventions adopted by Svensén and Bishop (2011). As the official errata document “is intended to be complete,” this report also tries to correct even trivial typographical errors as well.

PRML is arguably such a great textbook in the field of machine learning that it is extremely helpful and easier to understand than any other similar account. That said, there are a few subtleties that some readers (including I) might have hard time to appreciate. In hopes to help such readers get out of struggle or become more confident about important concepts, I have also included in this report some comments and suggestions for improving the readability to which I would have liked to refer when I first read PRML.

It should also be noted that the readers of the Japanese edition of PRML will find its [support page](#) (in Japanese) useful. Along with other information, it lists errata specific to the Japanese edition as well as some additional errata for the English edition, which have also been included in this report for the reader’s convenience.

Corrections

Pages 5 and 10

Equation (1.1) and the text after (1.4): The ellipsis should be centered, i.e., “ \cdots ” (`\cdots` or, with the `amsmath` or `mathtools` package, `\dots` will do) instead of “ \ldots ” (`\ldots`). For example, (1.1) should read

$$y(x, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1x + w_2x^2 + \cdots + w_Mx^M = \sum_{j=0}^M w_jx^j. \quad (1)$$

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Equation (1.85): A period (.) should terminate (1.85).

¹The source code of this report can be found at: https://github.com/yousuketakada/prml_errata

² The last line but one of the bibliographic information page of the copy of PRML I have reads “9 8 7 (corrected at 6th printing 2007).” So I refer to Version 2 of the errata document (Svensén and Bishop, 2011).



Figure 1 A physical “proof” for Jensen’s inequality (MacKay, 2003). Suppose that we have a set of point masses $m_i = p(\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_i)$, denoted by filled blue circles (●) with areas proportional to m_i , and place them at the corresponding locations $(x, y) = (\xi(\mathbf{z}_i), f(\xi(\mathbf{z}_i)))$ on a convex curve $y = f(x)$. The center of gravity of those masses, which is $(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[\xi(\mathbf{z})], \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[f(\xi(\mathbf{z}))])$, denoted by a cross sign (×), must lie above the convex curve and thus right above the point $(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[\xi(\mathbf{z})], f(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[\xi(\mathbf{z})]))$ on the curve, denoted by a filled square (■), showing Jensen’s inequality (2). One can also see that, if $f(\cdot)$ is strictly convex, the equality in (2) implies that $\xi(\cdot)$ is constant (it is trivial to show that the converse is true).

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Equation (1.98): Following the notation (1.93) for the entropy, we should write the left hand side of (1.98) as $H[X]$ instead of $H[p]$. As suggested in the first paragraph on Page 703, if we see $H[\cdot]$ as a functional, we could write $H[p]$. However, it is probably better to maintain the notational consistency here.

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Equation (1.116): In general, we cannot interpret λ_i in Jensen’s inequality (1.115) as a probability distribution over a discrete variable x such that $\lambda_i \equiv p(x = x_i)$ because, since (1.115) holds for any $\{x_i\}$, we can take $x_i = x_j$ and $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j$ where $i \neq j$, assigning different probabilities for the same value of x . Instead, we should rather introduce another set of underlying random variables \mathbf{z} such that $\lambda_i \equiv p(\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{z}_i)$ and a function $\xi(\mathbf{z})$ of the random variables \mathbf{z} such that $x_i \equiv \xi(\mathbf{z}_i)$, giving a more general result

$$f(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[\xi(\mathbf{z})]) \leq \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[f(\xi(\mathbf{z}))] \quad (2)$$

where $f(\cdot)$ is a convex function but $\xi(\cdot)$ can be any. Moreover, if $f(\cdot)$ is strictly convex, the equality in (2) holds if and only if $\xi(\cdot)$ is constant. See Figure 1 for an intuitive, physical “proof” for the inequality (2). Since the random variables \mathbf{z} as well as their probability $p(\mathbf{z})$ can be chosen arbitrarily, it makes sense to write \mathbf{z} implicit in (2), giving a simpler form of Jensen’s inequality

$$f(\mathbb{E}[\xi]) \leq \mathbb{E}[f(\xi)]. \quad (3)$$

For continuous random variables, we have

$$f\left(\int \xi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}\right) \leq \int f(\xi(\mathbf{x}))p(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \quad (4)$$

where we have used \mathbf{x} to denote the underlying random variables for which we take the expectations. Making use of (4) and identifying $f(\xi) = -\ln \xi$ and $\xi(\mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{x})/p(\mathbf{x})$, one can show that the Kullback-Leibler divergence (1.113) satisfies $\text{KL}(p||q) \geq 0$ with equality if and only if $p(\mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{x})$.

Page 70

Line –1: The ellipsis should be centered, i.e., “ \cdots ” (\cdots or \dots will do).

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Equation (2.52): We usually take eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i to be the columns of \mathbf{U} as in (C.37). If we follow this convention, (2.52) and the following text should read

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{U}^T(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{U} is a matrix whose columns are given by \mathbf{u}_i so that $\mathbf{U} = (\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_D)$. From (2.46) it follows that \mathbf{U} is an *orthogonal* matrix, i.e., it satisfies $\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$ and hence also $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}$ where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix.

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Equations (2.53) and (2.54): If we write the change of variable from \mathbf{x} to \mathbf{y} as (5) instead of (2.52), the Jacobian matrix $\mathbf{J} = (J_{ij})$ is simply given by \mathbf{U} . Equation (2.53) should read

$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_j} = U_{ij} \quad (6)$$

where U_{ij} is the (ij) -th element of \mathbf{U} . The square of the determinant of the Jacobian matrix (2.54) can then be evaluated as

$$|\mathbf{J}|^2 = |\mathbf{U}|^2 = |\mathbf{U}^T| |\mathbf{U}| = |\mathbf{U}^T\mathbf{U}| = |\mathbf{I}| = 1. \quad (7)$$

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Line -1: Since the Jacobian matrix \mathbf{J} is only assumed to be orthogonal here, the determinant of \mathbf{J} can be either positive or negative so that we should write $|\mathbf{J}| = \pm 1$ instead of $|\mathbf{J}| = 1$.

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Equation (2.56): We should take the absolute value of the determinant for the same reason given above; the factor $|\mathbf{J}|$ should read $|\det(\mathbf{J})|$. Note that we cannot write $\|\mathbf{J}\|$ to mean $|\det(\mathbf{J})|$ because it is confusingly similar to the matrix norm $\|\mathbf{J}\|$, which usually refers to the largest singular value of \mathbf{J} (Golub and Van Loan, 2013). This notational inconsistency has been caused by the abuse of the notation $|\cdot|$ for both the absolute value and the matrix determinant. If we always use $\det(\cdot)$ for the determinant, confusion will not arise and the notation be consistent. An alternative solution to this problem would be to explicitly define

$$|\mathbf{A}| \equiv |\det(\mathbf{A})| \quad (8)$$

for any square matrix \mathbf{A} so that we have $|\mathbf{J}| = 1$ and (2.56) holds as is. Note also that this notation (8) is mostly consistent in other part of PRML because we have $|\mathbf{A}| = \det(\mathbf{A})$ for any positive (semi)definite matrix $\mathbf{A} \succeq 0$ (see Appendix C) and most matrices for which we take determinants, such as the covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ or the precision $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ of the multivariate Gaussian distribution and the scale matrix \mathbf{W} of the Wishart distribution, are positive definite.³

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Line -6: The partitioned vector should read $\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_a^T, \mathbf{x}_b^T)^T$.

³In this report, we assume as customary that the concept of positive/negative (semi)definiteness is restricted to symmetric matrices. For example, when we say “a matrix \mathbf{A} is positive definite” or $\mathbf{A} \succ 0$, \mathbf{A} is also assumed to be symmetric so that $\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{A}$, though we still sometimes say “ \mathbf{A} is symmetric positive definite” to avoid confusion.

Pages 93 and 94

Equations (2.121) and (2.122): We obtain the maximum likelihood solutions $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}}$ for the Gaussian by setting the derivatives of the log likelihood function $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ given by (2.118) with respect to $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ equal to zero, which, however, only implies that $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}}$ are stationary points. We should also show that $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}}$ indeed maximize the likelihood. This can be easily done for $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ by noting that the log likelihood (2.118) is quadratic in $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ so that

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{N}{2} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}) + \text{const} \quad (9)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ is given by (2.121). Since the covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ is positive definite and so is its inverse $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$, we see that the log likelihood is concave with respect to $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and that $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ indeed maximizes the likelihood. Next we consider $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}}$ given by (2.122), which we obtain by solving

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} \ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \mathbf{O} \quad (10)$$

where $\nabla_{\mathbf{A}}$ is the gradient operator with respect to a matrix \mathbf{A} defined by (157) and \mathbf{O} is a zero matrix. Making use of the eigenvalue expansion (2.48) of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$, we can write the log likelihood (2.118) in terms of the eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$ so that

$$\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = -\frac{N}{2} \sum_{i=1}^D \left\{ \ln \lambda_i + \frac{S_i}{\lambda_i} \right\} + \text{const} \quad (11)$$

where

$$S_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N y_{ni}^2 \quad (12)$$

$$y_{ni} = \mathbf{u}_i^T (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}). \quad (13)$$

From (11), we see that $\ln p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \rightarrow -\infty$ if $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ approaches the boundary of the space of symmetric positive definite matrices, i.e., $\lambda_i \rightarrow 0$ or $\lambda_i \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore, if (10) has a unique solution $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}} \succ 0$, then $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\text{ML}}$ jointly maximize the likelihood. Note that a similar observation holds when we maximize the log likelihood in terms of the precision $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \equiv \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ (in which case one can see that the log likelihood is concave also with respect to the eigenvalues of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$). See [Anderson and Olkin \(1985\)](#) for further discussions.

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Equations (2.147) and (2.148): We are also interested in the logarithmic expectation $\mathbb{E}[\ln \lambda]$ given by (B.30) because it is required to evaluate the entropy $H[\lambda]$ given by (B.31). The logarithmic expectation $\mathbb{E}[\ln \lambda]$ can be easily calculated by making use of the derivative of the gamma distribution (2.146) with respect to a , which is given by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a} \text{Gam}(\lambda|a, b) = (\ln \lambda - \psi(a) + \ln b) \text{Gam}(\lambda|a, b) \quad (14)$$

where $\psi(\cdot)$ is the *digamma* function defined by (B.25) so that

$$\psi(a) \equiv \frac{d}{da} \ln \Gamma(a) = \frac{\Gamma'(a)}{\Gamma(a)}. \quad (15)$$

Differentiating the both sides of the integral identity

$$\int_0^\infty \text{Gam}(\lambda|a, b) d\lambda = 1 \quad (16)$$

with respect to a , interchanging the order of the differentiation and the integral, and substituting (14), we obtain

$$\mathbb{E} [\ln \lambda] = \psi(a) - \ln b. \quad (17)$$

It is worth noting here that the above expectation can also be written in the form

$$\mathbb{E} [\ln \lambda] = \ln \frac{a}{b} - \varphi(a) \quad (18)$$

where $\varphi(\cdot)$ is the *log minus digamma* function defined by

$$\varphi(x) \equiv \ln x - \psi(x). \quad (19)$$

The log minus digamma function $\varphi(\cdot)$ arises in the maximum likelihood solutions for the gamma distribution (2.146) as well as in the EM algorithm for the Student's t-distribution (2.159) or (2.162) in Exercise 12.24 as we shall see shortly.

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Equation (2.155): Although an interpretation for the parameters of the gamma distribution (2.146) has been given, no such an interpretation for the parameters of the Wishart distribution (2.155) is given here nor in Exercise 2.45. Generally speaking, when we construct a probabilistic model with priors, we must choose some reasonable initial values for their parameters, known as hyperparameters. This calls for an intuitive interpretation for the parameters of such priors. In order to give one for the parameters of the Wishart distribution, let us consider a simple Bayesian inference problem in which, given a set of N observations $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ for a zero-mean Gaussian random variable, we infer the covariance matrix Σ or, equivalently, the precision matrix $\Lambda \equiv \Sigma^{-1}$. The likelihood $p(\mathbf{X}|\Lambda)$ in terms of the precision Λ is given by

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\Lambda) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\mathbf{x}_n|\Lambda) = \prod_{n=1}^N \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{0}, \Lambda^{-1}). \quad (20)$$

If we choose the prior $p(\Lambda)$ over Λ to be a Wishart distribution so that

$$p(\Lambda) = \mathcal{W}(\Lambda | \mathbf{W}_0, \nu_0) \quad (21)$$

our analysis can be simplified because it is the conjugate prior. In fact, the posterior $p(\Lambda|\mathbf{X})$ is given by

$$p(\Lambda|\mathbf{X}) \propto p(\mathbf{X}|\Lambda) p(\Lambda) \quad (22)$$

$$\propto |\Lambda|^{N/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n^T \Lambda \mathbf{x}_n \right\} |\Lambda|^{(\nu_0 - D - 1)/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{W}_0^{-1} \Lambda) \right\} \quad (23)$$

$$= |\Lambda|^{(\nu_N - D - 1)/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{W}_N^{-1} \Lambda) \right\} \quad (24)$$

where

$$\nu_N = \nu_0 + N \quad (25)$$

$$\mathbf{W}_N^{-1} = \mathbf{W}_0^{-1} + \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^T. \quad (26)$$

Reinstating the normalization constant, we indeed see that the posterior becomes again a Wishart distribution of the form

$$p(\Lambda|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{W}(\Lambda | \mathbf{W}_N, \nu_N). \quad (27)$$

This result suggests us how we can interpret the parameters of the Wishart distribution (2.155), namely the scale matrix \mathbf{W} and the number of degrees of freedom ν . Since observing N data points increases the number of degrees of freedom ν by N , we can interpret ν_0 in the prior (21) as the number of “effective” prior observations. The N observations also contribute $N\Sigma_{\text{ML}}$ to the inverse of the scale matrix \mathbf{W} where Σ_{ML} is the maximum likelihood estimate for the covariance of the observations given by

$$\Sigma_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^T. \quad (28)$$

This suggests an interpretation of \mathbf{W} in terms of the “covariance” parameter

$$\Sigma \equiv (\nu \mathbf{W})^{-1}. \quad (29)$$

More specifically, we can interpret $\Sigma_0 = (\nu_0 \mathbf{W}_0)^{-1}$ as the covariance of the ν_0 “effective” prior observations. Note that this interpretation is in accordance with another observation that the expectation of Λ with respect to the prior (21) is indeed given by $\mathbb{E}[\Lambda] = \nu_0 \mathbf{W}_0 = \Sigma_0^{-1}$ where we have used (B.80).

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Equation (2.157): Again, no interpretation is given for the parameters of the Gaussian-Wishart distribution (2.157) nor for those of the Gaussian-gamma distribution (2.154). Since the Gaussian-gamma can be obtained as a special case of the Gaussian-Wishart where the dimension is one so that $D = 1$, we shall make an interpretation only for the parameters of the Gaussian-Wishart here. Let us consider a problem of inferring the mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and the precision Λ given the Gaussian likelihood

$$p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda) = \prod_{n=1}^N \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda^{-1}) \quad (30)$$

and the Gaussian-Wishart prior

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, (\beta_0 \Lambda)^{-1}) \mathcal{W}(\Lambda|\mathbf{W}_0, \nu_0). \quad (31)$$

At this moment, we introduce notations for the maximum likelihood estimates for the mean and the covariance given the N observations $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$, i.e.,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \mathbf{x}_n, \quad \Sigma_{\text{ML}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}})(\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}})^T \quad (32)$$

respectively. Evaluating the posterior, we have

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda|\mathbf{X}) \propto p(\mathbf{X}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda) p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \Lambda) \quad (33)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\propto |\Lambda|^{N/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \Lambda (\mathbf{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} \\ &\quad \times |\Lambda|^{(\nu_0 - D)/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\left\{ \mathbf{W}_0^{-1} + \beta_0 (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^T \right\} \Lambda \right) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

$$= |\Lambda|^{(\nu_N - D)/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \left(\left\{ \mathbf{W}_N^{-1} + \beta_N (\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_N)(\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_N)^T \right\} \Lambda \right) \right\} \quad (35)$$

where

$$\beta_N = \beta_0 + N \quad (36)$$

$$\beta_N \boldsymbol{\mu}_N = \beta_0 \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 + N \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}} \quad (37)$$

$$\nu_N = \nu_0 + N \quad (38)$$

$$\mathbf{W}_N^{-1} = \mathbf{W}_0^{-1} + N \Sigma_{\text{ML}} + \frac{\beta_0 N}{\beta_0 + N} (\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}} - \boldsymbol{\mu}_0)^T. \quad (39)$$

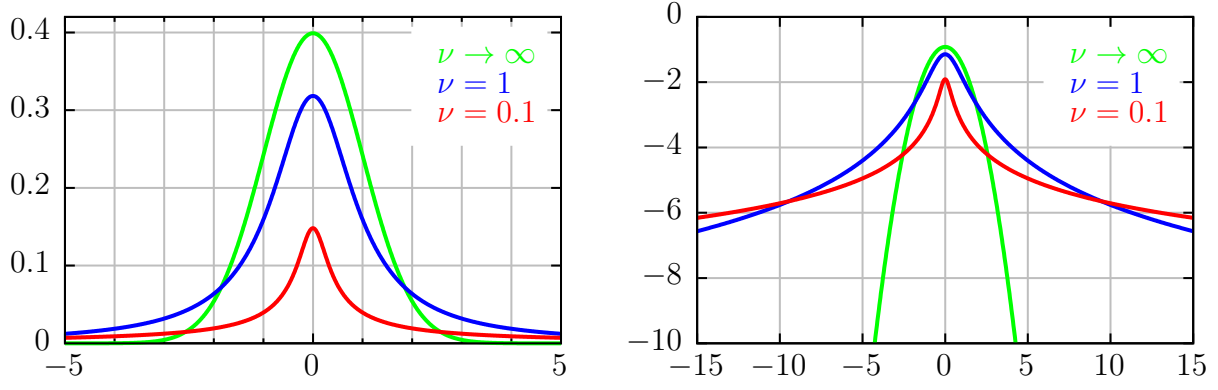


Figure 2 Plot of Student's t-distribution density functions $\text{St}(x|\mu, \lambda, \nu)$ (left) and corresponding log density functions $\ln \text{St}(x|\mu, \lambda, \nu)$ (right) for various values of ν where we have fixed $\mu = 0$ and $\lambda = 1$.

Thus, we find that the posterior is again a Gaussian-Wishart of the form

$$p(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_N, (\beta_N \boldsymbol{\Lambda})^{-1}) \mathcal{W}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathbf{W}_N, \nu_N). \quad (40)$$

From this result, we see that the parameters β_0 and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$ for the mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ are basically (but not completely) separate from the parameters ν_0 and \mathbf{W}_0 for the precision $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$. We can interpret β_0 as the number of “effective” prior observations for the mean and $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$ as the mean of the β_0 prior observations. The interpretation of ν_0 and \mathbf{W}_0 is similar to the one we have made in the previous erratum except that we have in (39) a term due to the uncertainty in the mean, that is, the difference between the maximum likelihood mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{\text{ML}}$ and the prior mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_0$. Note that a similar result is obtained in Section 10.2.1 for a Bayesian mixture of Gaussians model in which we assume a Gaussian-Wishart prior for each Gaussian component.

Page 102

Line -2: “Gamma” should read “gamma” (without capitalization).

Page 103

Figure 2.15: The tails of the Student's t-distributions are too high; one can easily see that, if compared to the corresponding Gaussian distribution labeled $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, the t-distributions are not correctly normalized. Figure 2 gives the correct plot.

Page 104

The text after (2.160): The Gaussian $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda})$ should read $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$.

Page 116

Equation (2.224): The right hand side should be a zero vector $\mathbf{0}$.

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Figure 2.28: The red, green, and blue points correspond to the “homogeneous,” “annular,” and “laminar (or stratified)” classes, respectively.

Page 129

Exercise 2.9: Remove the period (.) after **www**.

Page 138

Equation (3.1): The ellipsis should be centered, i.e., “ \cdots ” (\code{\cdots} or \code{\dots} will do).

Page 141

Equation (3.13): The use of the gradient operator ∇ is not consistent here. As in (2.224), the gradient of a scalar function is usually defined as a column vector of derivatives so that (3.13) should read⁴

$$\nabla \ln p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}, \beta) = \beta \sum_{n=1}^N \left\{ t_n - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \right\} \phi(\mathbf{x}_n). \quad (41)$$

Moreover, I would like to also suggest that we should give a definition for the gradient before we use it or, at least, in an appendix. Although Appendix C defines the vector derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$, which is used interchangeably with the gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}$ throughout PRML, there is no mention of the gradient. We shall come back to this issue later in this report.

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Equation (3.14): The left hand side should be a zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ instead of a scalar zero 0. Thus, (3.14) should read

$$\mathbf{0} = \sum_{n=1}^N t_n \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) - \left(\sum_{n=1}^N \phi(\mathbf{x}_n) \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)^T \right) \mathbf{w} \quad (42)$$

where we have used the gradient of the form (41) instead of (3.13).

Page 146

Equation (3.31): The left hand side should be $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{W})$ instead of $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$.

Page 166

The second paragraph, Line 1: “Gamma” should read “gamma” (without capitalization).

Pages 168–169, and 177

Equations (3.88), (3.93), and (3.117) as well as the text before (3.93): The derivative operators should be partial differentials. For example, (3.117) should read

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \ln |\mathbf{A}| = \text{Tr} \left(\mathbf{A}^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \mathbf{A} \right). \quad (43)$$

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Figure 3.15: The eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_i are unit vectors. The scaled vectors \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 in Figure 3.15 should be labeled as $\lambda_1^{-1/2} \mathbf{u}_1$ and $\lambda_2^{-1/2} \mathbf{u}_2$.

⁴ Note that we use a different typeface for the data vector $\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N)^T$. See “Mathematical notation” on page xi of PRML.

Page 179

Line 9: The decision surfaces are defined by linear *equations* of the input vector \mathbf{x} and thus are $(D - 1)$ -dimensional hyperplanes within the D -dimensional input space.

Page 205

Equation (4.88): In order to be consistent with the mathematical notations in PRML, the differential operator d should be upright d .

Page 207

Equation (4.92): The gradient and the Hessian in the right hand side, which are in general functions of the parameter \mathbf{w} , must be evaluated at the previous estimate \mathbf{w}^{old} for the parameter. Thus, (4.92) should read

$$\mathbf{w}^{\text{new}} = \mathbf{w}^{\text{old}} - [\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}^{\text{old}})]^{-1} \nabla E(\mathbf{w}^{\text{old}}) \quad (44)$$

where $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{w}) \equiv \nabla \nabla E(\mathbf{w})$ is the Hessian matrix whose elements comprise the second derivatives of $E(\mathbf{w})$ with respect to the components of \mathbf{w} .

Page 210

Equation (4.110) and the preceding text: The left hand side of (4.110) is obtained by taking the gradient of $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}_j} E$ given in (4.109) with respect to \mathbf{w}_k and corresponds to the (k, j) -th block of the Hessian, *not* the (j, k) -th. Thus, (4.110) should read

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}_k} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_j} E(\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_K) = \sum_{n=1}^N y_{nj} (I_{kj} - y_{nk}) \phi_n \phi_n^T. \quad (45)$$

To be clear, we have used the following notation. If we group all the parameters $\mathbf{w}_1, \dots, \mathbf{w}_K$ into a column vector

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_K \end{pmatrix} \quad (46)$$

the gradient and the Hessian of the error function $E(\mathbf{w})$ with respect to \mathbf{w} are given by

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} E = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_1} E \\ \vdots \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_K} E \end{pmatrix}, \quad \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} E = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_1} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_1} E & \cdots & \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_1} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_K} E \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_K} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_1} E & \cdots & \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_K} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_K} E \end{pmatrix} \quad (47)$$

respectively.

Pages 212–214

Equations (4.119), (4.122), (4.126), and (4.128): The differential operator d should be upright d .

Page 239

Figure 5.6: The eigenvectors \mathbf{u}_1 and \mathbf{u}_2 should be unit vectors. Thus, their orientations should be shown as in Figure 2.7. Or, the scaled vectors should be labeled as $\lambda_1^{-1/2} \mathbf{u}_1$ and $\lambda_2^{-1/2} \mathbf{u}_2$.

Page 251

The second paragraph: The outer product approximation to the Hessian of the form (5.84) is usually referred to as the *Gauss-Newton* approximation (Press et al., 1992), which not only eliminates the computation of second derivatives but also guarantees that the Hessian thus approximated is positive (semi)definite, whereas the *Levenberg-Marquardt* method (Press et al., 1992) is a method that improves the numerical stability of (Gauss-)Newton type iterations by correcting the Hessian matrix so as to be more diagonal dominant. Let us now compare the two types of approximation to the Hessian, i.e., Gauss-Newton and Levenberg-Marquardt, more specifically in the following. We first observe that the Gauss-Newton approximation to the Hessian given in the right hand side of (5.84) can be written succinctly in terms of matrix product as

$$\mathbf{H}_{\text{GN}} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J} \quad (48)$$

where $\mathbf{J} = (\nabla a_1, \dots, \nabla a_N)^T$ is the Jacobian of the activations a_1, \dots, a_N with respect to the parameters (weights and biases). The Levenberg-Marquardt approximation to the above Hessian typically takes the form

$$\mathbf{H}_{\text{LM}} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J} + \lambda \mathbf{I} \quad (49)$$

or

$$\mathbf{H}_{\text{LM}} = \mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J} + \lambda \text{diag}(\mathbf{J}^T \mathbf{J}) \quad (50)$$

where we have introduced an adjustable damping factor $\lambda \geq 0$ (which will be adjusted through the iterations) and defined that, for a square matrix $\mathbf{A} = (A_{ij})$, $\text{diag}(\mathbf{A})$ is a diagonal matrix obtained by setting the non-diagonal elements equal to zero so that $\text{diag}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{diag}(A_{ii})$.

Page 259

Line 2: The parameters rescaling should be $\lambda_1 \rightarrow a^2 \lambda_1$ and $\lambda_2 \rightarrow c^{-2} \lambda_2$.

Page 275

The text after (5.154): The identity matrix \mathbf{I} should multiply $\sigma_k^2(\mathbf{x}_n)$.

Page 277

Equation (5.160): The factor L should multiply $\sigma_k^2(\mathbf{x})$ because we have

$$s^2(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E} \left[\text{Tr} \left\{ (\mathbf{t} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}]) (\mathbf{t} - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}])^T \right\} | \mathbf{x} \right] \quad (51)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k(\mathbf{x}) \text{Tr} \left\{ \sigma_k^2(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{I} + (\boldsymbol{\mu}_k(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}]) (\boldsymbol{\mu}_k(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}])^T \right\} \quad (52)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k(\mathbf{x}) \left\{ L \sigma_k^2(\mathbf{x}) + \|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}]\|^2 \right\} \quad (53)$$

where L is the dimensionality of \mathbf{t} .

Page 295

Line 1: The vector \mathbf{x} should be a column vector so that $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$.

Page 318

Equations (6.93) and (6.94) as well as the text before (6.93): The text and the equations should read: We can evaluate the derivative of a_n^* with respect to θ_j by differentiating the relation (6.84) with respect to θ_j to give

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_N^*}{\partial \theta_j} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{C}_N}{\partial \theta_j} (\mathbf{t}_N - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_N) - \mathbf{C}_N \mathbf{W}_N \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_N^*}{\partial \theta_j} \quad (54)$$

where the derivatives are Jacobians defined by (C.16) for a vector and analogously by (156) for a matrix. Rearranging (54) then gives

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_N^*}{\partial \theta_j} = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{C}_N \mathbf{W}_N)^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{C}_N}{\partial \theta_j} (\mathbf{t}_N - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_N). \quad (55)$$

Page 335

Line 12: The term “protected conjugate gradients” should read “*projected* conjugate gradients.”

Page 354

Equation (7.112): The mean \mathbf{w}^* of the Laplace approximation to the posterior $p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\alpha})$ can only be obtained iteratively by, say, IRLS as described in the text so that (7.112) does not represent an explicit solution and is thus best removed. However, it is useful to note that, at the convergence of IRLS, we have the following implicit condition for \mathbf{w}^*

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ln p(\mathbf{w}^*|\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{y}^*) - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{0} \quad (56)$$

where \mathbf{y}^* is evaluated at $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^*$ so that $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{y}|_{\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{w}^*}$.

Page 354

Equation (7.113): Since we have

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} = -\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \ln p(\mathbf{w}^*|\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \quad (57)$$

the covariance $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ should be given in terms of $\mathbf{B}^* = \mathbf{B}|_{\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{w}^*}$ by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\mathbf{A} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{B}^* \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1}. \quad (58)$$

Page 355

Equation (7.117): The typeface of the vector \mathbf{y} in (7.117) should be that in (7.110), i.e., \mathbf{y} . Moreover, \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{y} should be those evaluated at $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^*$ so that $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{t}} = \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{w}^* + (\mathbf{B}^*)^{-1} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{y}^*). \quad (59)$$

It should also be noted here that the posterior mean \mathbf{w}^* can be written in terms of $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ so that

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{B}^* \hat{\mathbf{t}}. \quad (60)$$

One can show the above identity (60) by making use of (56), (58), and (59).

Equation (7.118): This approximate marginal cannot be obtained directly from the Laplace approximation (7.114) to the marginal $p(\mathbf{t}|\boldsymbol{\alpha})$; it is the marginal for a “linearized” version of the RVM classification problem. Since the linearized problem can be regarded as an RVM regression problem having data-dependent precisions, we first review such a regression problem in the following.

The likelihood for the RVM regression problem with data-dependent precisions $\boldsymbol{\beta} = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N\}$ is given by

$$p(\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \prod_{n=1}^N \mathcal{N}(t_n | \mathbf{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_n, \beta_n^{-1}) \quad (61)$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t} | \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{B}^{-1}) \quad (62)$$

where we have omitted the dependence on $\mathbf{X} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$ to keep the notation uncluttered; and written $\boldsymbol{\phi}_n = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_n)$ and

$$\mathbf{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N)^T \quad (63)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi} = (\boldsymbol{\phi}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\phi}_N)^T \quad (64)$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \text{diag}(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N). \quad (65)$$

The prior is the same as (7.80) so that

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \prod_{i=1}^M \mathcal{N}(w_i | 0, \alpha_i^{-1}) \quad (66)$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{A}^{-1}) \quad (67)$$

where

$$\mathbf{A} = \text{diag}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M). \quad (68)$$

The joint distribution is given by a linear Gaussian model of the form

$$p(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{w} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = p(\mathbf{t} | \mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) p(\mathbf{w} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \quad (69)$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t} | \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{B}^{-1}) \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{A}^{-1}). \quad (70)$$

Making use of the general results (2.115) and (2.116) for the marginal and the conditional Gaussians, we can readily evaluate the marginal and the posterior distributions again as Gaussians. The posterior is given by

$$p(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w}^*, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad (71)$$

where

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{t} \quad (72)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\mathbf{A} + \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{B} \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1}. \quad (73)$$

The marginal is given by

$$p(\mathbf{t} | \boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{t} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}) \quad (74)$$

where

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{B}^{-1} + \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T. \quad (75)$$

Let us now return to the RVM classification problem. We have seen that the posterior can be approximated with the Laplace approximation as

$$p(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}) \approx \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{w}^*, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad (76)$$

where \mathbf{w}^* is obtained by the IRLS algorithm and can be written in the form (60); and Σ is given by (58). Comparing this result with that obtained for the RVM regression problem with data-dependent precisions, we see that the Laplace approximation effectively maps the classification problem to a regression problem in which the “linearized” target vector $\hat{\mathbf{t}}$ given by (59) has the precision matrix \mathbf{B}^* . The corresponding marginal for this linearized problem is given by

$$p(\hat{\mathbf{t}}|\alpha) = \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mathbf{t}}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}) \quad (77)$$

where

$$\mathbf{C} = (\mathbf{B}^*)^{-1} + \Phi \mathbf{A}^{-1} \Phi^T. \quad (78)$$

This takes the same form as (74) or (7.85) in the regression problem so that we can apply the same analysis of sparsity and obtain the same fast learning algorithm.

Page 355

Equation (7.119): Both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} should be inverted and, moreover, \mathbf{B} should be that evaluated at $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w}^*$ so that (7.119) should read (78).

Page 414

Figure 8.53, Line 6: The term “max-product” should be “max-sum.”

Page 425

Equation (9.3): The right hand side should be a zero vector $\mathbf{0}$ instead of a scalar zero 0.

Page 432

The text after (9.13): I would like to point out for clarity that, as the prior $p(\mathbf{z})$ given by (9.10) is a multinomial distribution or, more specifically, a categorical distribution (109) so that

$$p(\mathbf{z}) = \text{Mult}(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{z_k} \quad (79)$$

we see that the posterior $p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x})$ again becomes a categorical distribution of the form

$$p(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}) = \text{Mult}(\mathbf{z}|\boldsymbol{\gamma}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \gamma_k^{z_k} \quad (80)$$

where we have written $\gamma_k \equiv \gamma(z_k)$. Called the *responsibility*, γ_k is given by (9.13), which can also be found directly by inspecting the functional form of the joint distribution

$$p(\mathbf{z}) p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \Sigma_k)\}^{z_k} \quad (81)$$

and noting that the categorical distribution (109) can be expressed in terms of unnormalized probabilities as shown in (110) where the normalized probabilities are given by (111). This observation helps the reader understand that evaluating the responsibilities γ_k indeed corresponds to the E step of the EM algorithm.

Page 434

Equation (9.15): Although the official errata (Svensén and Bishop, 2011) states that σ_j in the right hand side should be raised to a power of D , the whole right hand side should be raised to D so that (9.15) should read

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{x}_n, \sigma_j^2 \mathbf{I}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_j^2)^{D/2}}. \quad (82)$$

Page 435

Equation (9.16): The right hand side should be a zero vector $\mathbf{0}$.

Page 465

Equations (10.6) and (10.7): The lower bound of the form (10.6) for variational Bayes will be later recognized as “a negative Kullback-Leibler divergence between $q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ and $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_j)$ ” (Page 465, Line –2). However, there is no point in taking the Kullback-Leibler divergence between two probability distributions over different sets of random variables; such a quantity is undefined. Moreover, the discussion here seems to be somewhat redundant. Without introducing an intermediate quantity like $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_j)$, we can rewrite (10.6) and (10.7) directly in terms of $q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$. Specifically, writing down the terms dependent on one of the factors $q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j)$, we obtain the lower bound $\mathcal{L}(q)$ in the form

$$\mathcal{L}(q) = \int q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j) \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{Z}_j} [\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})] d\mathbf{Z}_j - \int q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j) \ln q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j) d\mathbf{Z}_j + \text{const} \quad (83)$$

$$= -\text{KL}(q_j \| q_j^*) + \text{const} \quad (84)$$

where we have assumed that the expectation $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{Z}_j}[\cdot]$ is taken with respect to \mathbf{Z} but \mathbf{Z}_j so that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{Z}_j} [\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})] = \int \cdots \int \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) \prod_{i \neq j} q_i(\mathbf{Z}_i) d\mathbf{Z}_i \quad (85)$$

and defined a new distribution $q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ over \mathbf{Z}_j by the relation

$$\ln q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{Z}_j} [\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})] + \text{const}. \quad (86)$$

It directly follows from (84) that, since the lower bound $\mathcal{L}(q)$ is the negative Kullback-Leibler divergence between $q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ and $q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ up to some additive constant, the maximum of $\mathcal{L}(q)$ occurs when $q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j) = q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$.

Page 465

The text before (10.8): The latent variable \mathbf{z}_i should read \mathbf{Z}_i .

Page 465

Line –1: If we adopt the representation (84), the probability $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_j)$ should read $q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$.

Page 466

Line 1: Again, $\tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}_j)$ should read $q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j)$. The sentence “Thus we obtain. . .” should read, e.g., “Thus we see that we have already obtained a general expression for the optimal solution in (86).”

Page 467

The text before (10.12) and after (10.15): As [Svensén and Bishop \(2011\)](#) correct the left hand side of (10.12), we should write $q_1^*(z_1)$ instead of $q^*(z_1)$ and so on also in the text. Or, we should clarify that we simply write $q(\mathbf{z}_i)$ to denote the variational distribution over the latent variables \mathbf{z}_i in the same manner as the notation for the probability $p(\cdot)$ is “overloaded” by its argument(s).

Page 468

The text after (10.16): The constant term in (10.16) is the *negative* entropy of $p(\mathbf{Z})$.

Page 478

Equation (10.63): The additive constant +1 on the right hand side should be omitted so that (10.63) should read

$$\nu_k = \nu_0 + N_k. \quad (87)$$

A quick check for the correctness of the re-estimation equations would be to consider the limit of $N \rightarrow 0$, in which the effective number of observations N_k also goes to zero and the re-estimation equations should reduce to identities. Equation (10.63) does not reduce to $\nu_k = \nu_0$, failing the test. Note that the solution for Exercise 10.13 given by [Svensén and Bishop \(2009\)](#) correctly derives the result (87).

Page 489

Equation (10.107): The expectations $\mathbb{E}_\alpha [\ln q(\mathbf{w})]_{\mathbf{w}}$ and $\mathbb{E} [\ln q(\alpha)]$ should read $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}} [\ln q(\mathbf{w})]$ and $\mathbb{E}_\alpha [\ln q(\alpha)]$, respectively, where the expectation $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}}[\cdot]$ is taken with respect to $q(\mathbf{Z})$.

Page 489

Equations (10.108) through (10.112): The expectations are notationally inconsistent with (1.36); they should be of the forms shown in (10.107) or the ones corrected as above.

Page 490

The third paragraph, Line 2: A comma (,) should be inserted after the ellipsis (...).

Page 496

Equation (10.140): The differential operator d should be upright d . Moreover, the derivative of x with respect to x^2 should be written with parentheses as $\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}(x^2)}$, instead of $\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}x^2}$, to avoid ambiguity.

Pages 500 and 501

Equations (10.156) and (10.160): It is not very clear why the variational posterior is obtained in the form (10.156) and the variational parameters can be optimized by maximizing (10.160). This EM-like algorithm is not the same as *the* EM algorithm we have seen in Chapter 9; it can be derived by maximizing the lower bound (10.3) as follows. Note that the discussion here is similar to, but more general than, that of Section 10.6.3.

In a more general setting, we consider a local variational approximation to the joint distribution of the form

$$p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) \geq \tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}; \xi) \quad (88)$$

where ξ denotes the set of variational parameters, assuming that we can bound the likelihood $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z}) \geq \tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Z}; \xi)$ or the prior $p(\mathbf{Z}) \geq \tilde{p}(\mathbf{Z}; \xi)$, or both. Then, we can again bound the lower bound (10.3) as

$$\mathcal{L}(q) \geq \tilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \xi) \equiv \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}} [\ln \tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}; \xi)] - \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}} [\ln q(\mathbf{Z})] \quad (89)$$

where the expectation $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}}[\cdot]$ is taken with respect to the variational distribution $q(\mathbf{Z})$. With much the same discussion as the derivation of the optimal solution (86) for the standard variational Bayesian method where we assume some appropriate factorization (10.5) for $q(\mathbf{Z})$, the optimal solution for the factor $q_j(\mathbf{Z}_j)$ that maximizes the lower bound $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \xi)$ can be obtained by the relation

$$\ln q_j^*(\mathbf{Z}_j) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{Z}_j} [\ln \tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}; \xi)] + \text{const} \quad (90)$$

which leads to the variational approximation to the posterior given by (10.156).

The optimization of the variational parameters ξ can be done by maximizing the first term of the lower bound $\tilde{\mathcal{L}}(q, \xi)$, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{Q}(\xi) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}} [\ln \tilde{p}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}; \xi)] \quad (91)$$

which leads to the \mathcal{Q} function given by (10.160).

Page 501

The text after (10.162): We have that the variational parameter $\lambda(\xi)$ is a monotonic function of ξ for $\xi \geq 0$, but not that its derivative $\lambda'(\xi)$ is.

Page 503

The text after (10.168): A period (.) should be appended at the end of the sentence that follows (10.168).

Page 504

Line 1: Here, we should use the general result (90) for the optimal solution for local variational Bayes. Note that the result (90) is slightly different from the general result (86), or (10.9), for standard variational Bayes.

Page 512

Equation (10.222): The factor $(2\pi v_n)^{D/2}$ in the denominator of the right hand side should be omitted because it has been already included in the Gaussian in (10.213).

Page 513

Equations (10.223) and (10.224): The quantities v^{new} and \mathbf{m}^{new} in (10.223) and (10.224) are different from those in (10.217) and (10.218).⁵ Thus, we should introduce different notations, say, v and \mathbf{m} , with appropriate definitions. Specifically, one can rewrite the approximation to the model evidence in the form

$$p(\mathcal{D}) \simeq (2\pi v)^{D/2} \exp(B/2) \prod_{n=1}^N \left\{ s_n (2\pi v_n)^{-D/2} \right\} \quad (92)$$

⁵See Svensén and Bishop (2011) for the errata for (10.217) and (10.218).

where

$$B = \frac{\mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{m}}{v} - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{\mathbf{m}_n^T \mathbf{m}_n}{v_n} \quad (93)$$

$$v^{-1} = \sum_{n=1}^N v_n^{-1} \quad (94)$$

$$v^{-1} \mathbf{m} = \sum_{n=1}^N v_n^{-1} \mathbf{m}_n. \quad (95)$$

Page 515

Equations (10.228) and (10.229): Although [Svensén and Bishop \(2011\)](#) correct (10.228) so that $q^{\setminus b}(\mathbf{x})$ is a normalized distribution, we do not need the normalization of $q^{\setminus b}(\mathbf{x})$ here and, even with this normalization, we cannot ensure that $\hat{p}(\mathbf{x})$ given by (10.229) is normalized. Similarly to (10.195), we can proceed with the unnormalized $q^{\setminus b}(\mathbf{x})$ given by the original (10.228) and, rather than correcting (10.228), we should correct (10.229) so that

$$\hat{p}(\mathbf{x}) \propto q^{\setminus b}(\mathbf{x}) f_b(x_2, x_3) = \dots \quad (96)$$

implying that $\hat{p}(\mathbf{x})$ is a normalized distribution.

Page 515

The text after (10.229): The new distribution $q^{\text{new}}(\mathbf{z})$ should read $q^{\text{new}}(\mathbf{x})$.

Page 516

Equation (10.240): The subscript k of the product $\prod_k \dots$ should read $k \neq j$ because we have already removed the term $\tilde{f}_j(\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$.

Page 554

Equation (11.72), Line –2: The expectation in the last line but one of (11.72) is taken with respect to the probability $p_G(\mathbf{z})$. This is probably better expressed in words, rather than the unclear notation like $\mathbb{E}_{G(\mathbf{z})}[\cdot]$. Specifically, the expectation should read

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}} [\exp(-E(\mathbf{z}) + G(\mathbf{z}))] \quad (97)$$

where we have written the argument \mathbf{z} for $E(\mathbf{z})$ and $G(\mathbf{z})$ for clarity; and the text following (11.72) should read “where $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{z}}[\cdot]$ is taken with respect to $p_G(\mathbf{z})$ and $\{\mathbf{z}^{(l)}\}$ are samples drawn from the distribution defined by $p_G(\mathbf{z})$.”

Page 556

Exercise 11.7: The interval should be $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ instead of $[0, 1]$.

Page 557

Exercise 11.14, Line 2: The variance should be σ_i^2 instead of σ_i .

Page 564

The text after (12.12): The derivative we consider here is that with respect to b_j (*not* that with respect to b_i).

Page 564

The text after (12.15): The zero should be a zero vector so that we have $\mathbf{u}_j = \mathbf{0}$.

Page 575

The third paragraph, Line 5: The zero vector should be a row vector instead of a column vector so that we have $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{U} = \mathbf{0}^T$. Or, the both sides are transposed to give $\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$.

Page 578

Equation (12.53): As stated in the text preceding (12.53), we should substitute $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \bar{\mathbf{x}}$ into (12.53).

Page 578

The text before (12.56): For the maximization with respect to \mathbf{W} , we use (C.25) and (C.27) instead of (C.24).

Page 579

Line 5: The eigendecomposition requires $O(D^3)$ computations (in the plural form).

Page 599

Exercise 12.1, Line -1: The quantity λ_{M+1} is an eigenvalue (not an eigenvector).

Page 602

Exercise 12.25, Line 2: The latent space distribution should read $p(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$.

Page 610

The first paragraph, Line -5: The text “our predictions for \mathbf{x}_{n+1} depends on. . .” should read: “our predictions for \mathbf{x}_{n+1} depend on. . .” (Remove s from the verb).

Page 620

The second paragraph and the following (unlabeled) equation: The last sentence before the equation and the equation should each terminate with a period (.).

Page 621

Figures 13.12 and 13.13: It should be clarified that, similarly to $\alpha(z_{nk})$ and $\beta(z_{nk})$, the notation $p(\mathbf{x}_n|z_{nk})$ is used to denote the value of $p(\mathbf{x}_n|\mathbf{z}_n)$ when $z_{nk} = 1$.

Page 622

The second paragraph, Line -1: “we see” should be omitted.

Page 622

Equation (13.40): The summations should read $\sum_{n=1}^N$.

Page 623

The first paragraph, Line -2: z_{nk} should read $z_{n-1,k}$.

Page 631

Equation (13.73): The equation should read

$$\sum_{r=1}^R \ln \left\{ \frac{p(\mathbf{X}_r | \boldsymbol{\theta}_{m_r}) p(m_r)}{\sum_{l=1}^M p(\mathbf{X}_r | \boldsymbol{\theta}_l) p(l)} \right\}. \quad (98)$$

Page 637

Equations (13.81), (13.82), and (13.83): The distribution (13.81) over \mathbf{w} should read

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{0}, \Gamma) \quad (99)$$

and so on.

Page 638

The first paragraph, Line 2: “conditional on” should read “conditioned on.”

Page 641

Equation (13.104) and the preceding text: The form of the Gaussian is unclear. Since a multivariate Gaussian is usually defined over a column vector, we should construct a column vector from the concerned random variables to clearly define the mean and the covariance. Specifically, (13.104) and the preceding text should read, e.g., . . . we see that $\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n)$ is a Gaussian of the form

$$\xi(\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n) = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{z}_{n-1} \\ \mathbf{z}_n \end{pmatrix} \middle| \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_{n-1} \\ \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_n \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{V}}_{n-1} & \hat{\mathbf{V}}_{n-1,n} \\ \hat{\mathbf{V}}_{n-1,n}^T & \hat{\mathbf{V}}_n \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad (100)$$

where the mean $\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}_n$ and the covariance $\hat{\mathbf{V}}_n$ of \mathbf{z}_n are given by (13.100) and (13.101), respectively; and the covariance $\hat{\mathbf{V}}_{n-1,n}$ between \mathbf{z}_{n-1} and \mathbf{z}_n is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{V}}_{n-1,n} = \text{COV}[\mathbf{z}_{n-1}, \mathbf{z}_n] = \mathbf{J}_{n-1} \hat{\mathbf{V}}_n. \quad (101)$$

Pages 642 and 643

Equation (13.109) and the following equations: If we follow the notation in Chapter 9, the typeface of the Q function should be \mathcal{Q} .

Page 642

Equation (13.109): If we follow the notation for a conditional expectation given by (1.37), (13.109) should read

$$\mathcal{Q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}} [\ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}] \quad (102)$$

$$= \int d\mathbf{Z} p(\mathbf{Z} | \mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}) \ln p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) \quad (103)$$

which corresponds to (9.30).

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Equation (13.111): $\mathbf{V}_0^{\text{new}}$ should read $\mathbf{P}_0^{\text{new}}$. Svensén and Bishop (2011) have failed to mention (13.111).

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Equation (13.114): The size of the opening curly brace “{” should match that of the closing curly brace “}.”

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Figure 13.23, Line −1: $p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}|\mathbf{z}_{n+1}^{(l)})$ should read $p(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}|z_{n+1}^{(l)})$.

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Exercise 13.14, Line 1: (8.67) should be (8.64).

Page 658

The equation at the bottom of Figure 14.1: The subscript of the summation in the right hand side should read $m = 1$.

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Equation (14.37): The arguments of the probability are notationally inconsistent with those of (14.34), (14.35), and (14.36). Specifically, the conditioning on ϕ_n should read that on t_n and the probability $p(k|\dots)$ be the value of $p(z_n|\dots)$ when $z_{nk} = 1$, which we write $p(z_{nk} = 1|\dots)$. Moreover, strictly speaking, the old parameters $\pi_k, \mathbf{w}_k, \beta$ should read $\pi_k^{\text{old}}, \mathbf{w}_k^{\text{old}}, \beta^{\text{old}} \in \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}$. In order to solve these problems, we should rewrite (14.37) as, for example,

$$\gamma_{nk} = \mathbb{E} [z_{nk} | t_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}] \quad (104)$$

where we have written the conditioning in the expectation explicitly and the expectation is given by

$$\mathbb{E} [z_{nk} | t_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}] = p(z_{nk} = 1 | t_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\pi_k \mathcal{N}(t_n | \mathbf{w}_k^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_n, \beta^{-1})}{\sum_j \pi_j \mathcal{N}(t_n | \mathbf{w}_j^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_n, \beta^{-1})}. \quad (105)$$

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The unlabeled equation between (14.37) and (14.38): If we write the implicit conditioning in the expectation explicitly (similarly to the above equations), the unlabeled equation should read

$$\mathcal{Q}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{Z}} [\ln p(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{Z} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) | \mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\text{old}}] \quad (106)$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \gamma_{nk} \left\{ \ln \pi_k + \ln \mathcal{N}(t_n | \mathbf{w}_k^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_n, \beta^{-1}) \right\}. \quad (107)$$

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Equations (14.40) and (14.41): The left hand sides should both read a zero vector $\mathbf{0}$.

Page 669

Equation (14.41): Φ is undefined. The text following (14.41) should read for example: where $\mathbf{R}_k = \text{diag}(\gamma_{nk})$ is a diagonal matrix of size $N \times N$ and $\Phi = (\phi_1, \dots, \phi_N)^T$ is an $N \times M$ matrix. Here, N is the size of the data set and M is the dimensionality of the feature vectors ϕ_n .

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Equation (14.43): “+const” should be added to the right hand side.

Page 671

The text after (14.46): The text should read: “where we have omitted the dependence on $\{\phi_n\}$ and defined $y_{nk} = \dots$ ” Or, ϕ should have been omitted from the left hand side of (14.45) in the first place.

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Equation (14.48): The notation should be corrected similarly to (104) and (105).

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Equation (14.49): The notation should be corrected similarly to (106).

Page 672

Equation (14.52): The negation should be removed so that the Hessian is given by $\mathbf{H}_k \equiv \nabla_k \nabla_k \mathcal{Q}$ where

$$\nabla_k \nabla_k \mathcal{Q} = - \sum_{n=1}^N \gamma_{nk} y_{nk} (1 - y_{nk}) \phi_n \phi_n^T. \quad (108)$$

Page 674

Exercise 14.1, Line 1: “of” should be inserted after “set.”

Page 686

Line -3: The comma in the first inline math should be removed so that the product should read: $m \times (m - 1) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1$.

Page 687

Equation (B.25): The differential operator d should be upright d.

Page 688

Line 1: “Gamma” should read “gamma” (without capitalization).

Page 689

Line 1: “positive-definite” should read “positive definite” (without hyphenation).

Page 689

Equation (B.49): \mathbf{x} in the right hand side should read \mathbf{x}_a .

Equation (B.54): The discrete distribution of the form (B.54) or (2.26) is usually called the *categorical* distribution. It is a generalization of the Bernoulli distribution (B.1) to an K -dimensional binary variable $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_K)^T$ where $x_k \in \{0, 1\}$ such that $\sum_k x_k = 1$, i.e., \mathbf{x} represents the one-of- K coding, and also a special case of the multinomial distribution (B.59) with a single observation, i.e., $N = 1$. Since we often make use of this distribution, we should introduce some notation for the right hand side of (B.54). For example, we could write

$$\text{Mult}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \prod_{k=1}^K \mu_k^{x_k} = \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K x_k \ln \mu_k \right\} \quad (109)$$

where $0 \leq \mu_k \leq 1$ and $\sum_k \mu_k = 1$.

When we identify the functional form of a categorical distribution, e.g., in the posterior distribution (80) for the Gaussian mixture model (81) of Section 9.2, it is good to know that the distribution (109) can also be expressed in terms of unnormalized probabilities $\tilde{\mu}_k \geq 0$, i.e.,

$$\text{Mult}(\mathbf{x}|\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) = C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \prod_{k=1}^K \tilde{\mu}_k^{x_k} = \exp \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^K x_k \ln \tilde{\mu}_k + \ln C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}}) \right\} \quad (110)$$

where the normalization constant is given by $C(\tilde{\boldsymbol{\mu}})^{-1} = \sum_k \tilde{\mu}_k$ so that the normalized probabilities can be found

$$\mu_k = p(x_k = 1) = \frac{\tilde{\mu}_k}{\sum_j \tilde{\mu}_j}. \quad (111)$$

Equation (B.68): This form of multivariate Student's t-distribution is derived in Section 2.3.7 by marginalizing over the gamma distributed (scalar) variable η in (2.161), but *not* by marginalizing over the $D \times D$ precision matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ that is governed by the Wishart distribution $\mathcal{W}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathbf{W}, \nu)$ where $\mathbf{W} \succ 0$ and $\nu > D - 1$, which results in a marginal distribution of the form

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{W}, \nu) = \int \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}) \mathcal{W}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathbf{W}, \nu) d\boldsymbol{\Lambda}. \quad (112)$$

The above marginal distribution (112) is indeed equivalent to (B.68) with some reparameterization. However, this result is not so obvious that I would like to show it here. Note that such marginalization is also required to derive a mixture of Student's t-distributions given by (10.81) in Exercise 10.19. The key idea is that the integrand in the right hand side of (112) can be identified as an unnormalized Wishart distribution and the marginalization can be done in a symbolic manner. More specifically, we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{W}, \nu) &= \int d\boldsymbol{\Lambda} \frac{|\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{1/2}}{(2\pi)^{D/2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right\} \\ &\quad \times B(\mathbf{W}, \nu) |\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{(\nu-D-1)/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{W}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (113)$$

$$= \frac{2^{(\nu+1)D/2} \Gamma_D\left(\frac{\nu+1}{2}\right) |\mathbf{W}^{-1} + (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T|^{-(\nu+1)/2}}{(2\pi)^{D/2} 2^{\nu D/2} \Gamma_D\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) |\mathbf{W}|^{\nu/2}} \quad (114)$$

where we have used the multivariate gamma function (Olver et al., 2016) given by⁶

$$\Gamma_D \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) = \pi^{D(D-1)/4} \prod_{i=1}^D \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu+1-i}{2} \right) \quad (116)$$

so that we can write the normalization constant (B.79) as

$$B(\mathbf{W}, \nu)^{-1} = 2^{\nu D/2} |\mathbf{W}|^{\nu/2} \Gamma_D \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right). \quad (117)$$

Finally, we obtain

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{W}, \nu) = \frac{\Gamma \left(\frac{\nu+1}{2} \right)}{\Gamma \left(\frac{\nu+1-D}{2} \right)} \frac{|\mathbf{W}|^{1/2}}{\pi^{D/2}} \left[1 + (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{W} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right]^{-(\nu+1)/2} \quad (118)$$

where we have used (116) and (C.15). Thus, we see that the marginal distribution of the form (112) is equivalent to the multivariate Student's t-distribution of the form (B.68) or (2.162); they are related by

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{W}, \nu) = \text{St}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, (\nu+1-D)\mathbf{W}, \nu+1-D). \quad (119)$$

If the scale matrix is isotropic so that $\mathbf{W} = \widetilde{W}\mathbf{I}$ where $\widetilde{W} > 0$, which is common in practice, the resulting multivariate Student's t-distribution (119) is again isotropic. The same marginal distribution can also be obtained by marginalizing with respect to a univariate Wishart (gamma) prior so that

$$\int \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \widetilde{\lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{I}) \mathcal{W}(\widetilde{\lambda}|\widetilde{W}, \widetilde{\nu}) d\widetilde{\lambda} = \text{St}(\mathbf{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \widetilde{\nu}\widetilde{W}\mathbf{I}, \widetilde{\nu}) \quad (120)$$

where $\widetilde{\nu} = \nu+1-D > 0$. Note that the ‘‘covariance’’ parameter (29) of the corresponding multivariate Wishart prior $\mathcal{W}(\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|\mathbf{W}, \nu)$ for which we obtain the same marginal (120) is however *not* equal to $\widetilde{\sigma}^2\mathbf{I}$ where $\widetilde{\sigma}^2 = (\widetilde{\nu}\widetilde{W})^{-1}$ is the ‘‘covariance’’ parameter of the univariate Wishart prior $\mathcal{W}(\widetilde{\lambda}|\widetilde{W}, \widetilde{\nu})$, but is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\nu\mathbf{W})^{-1} = \frac{\widetilde{\nu}}{\widetilde{\nu}-1+D} \widetilde{\sigma}^2\mathbf{I}. \quad (121)$$

So far, we have observed that a marginal distribution of the form (112) where the marginalization is taken over a matrix-valued random variable $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ is equivalent to a marginal distribution of the form (2.161) or, if the scale matrix is isotropic, of the form (120) where the marginalization is over a scalar random variable η or $\widetilde{\lambda}$, respectively. Given that those marginals reduce to the identical multivariate Student's t-distribution, we now have a natural question: Which form of marginal is better than the other? I would argue that a marginal with fewer latent variables, i.e., (2.161) or (120), is always better than a marginal with more latent variables, i.e., (112), because fewer latent variables imply less computational space and complexity as well as a tighter bound on the (marginal) likelihood and thus faster convergence when we infer a model involving such marginals with the EM algorithm (see Chapter 9) or variational methods (Chapter 10).

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Equations (B.78) through (B.82): Some appropriate citation is needed for the Wishart distribution because it has been introduced in Section 2.3.6 without any proof for the normalization constant as well as other statistics.

⁶The multivariate gamma function $\Gamma_D(\cdot)$ is defined by

$$\Gamma_D(a) \equiv \int_{\mathbf{X} \succ 0} |\mathbf{X}|^{a-(D+1)/2} \exp(-\text{Tr}(\mathbf{X})) d\mathbf{X} \quad (115)$$

where the integration is taken over the space of symmetric positive-definite matrices (Olver et al., 2016). One can see that, when $D = 1$, the multivariate gamma function $\Gamma_D(\cdot)$ reduces to the (univariate) gamma function $\Gamma(\cdot)$ defined by (1.141).

Line -1: $b = 1/2W$ should read $b = 1/(2W)$ for clarity.

Equation (C.5): Replacing \mathbf{B}^T with \mathbf{A} , we obtain a more general identity

$$\left(\mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R})^{-1} \quad (122)$$

which is necessary to show the *push-through identity* (C.6) and also the determinant identity (C.14). As suggested in the text, the above identity (122) can be directly verified by right multiplying both sides by $(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{P}\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{R})$. However, I would prefer to prove the general push-through identity (122) together with the Woodbury identity (C.7) in terms of the inverse of a partitioned matrix, which we have already seen in Section 2.3.1. To this end, we first introduce a square matrix \mathbf{M} that is partitioned into four submatrices so that

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \quad (123)$$

where \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{D} are square (but not necessarily the same dimension) and then note that \mathbf{M} can be block diagonalized as

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{O} \\ -\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A} \end{pmatrix} \quad (124)$$

or

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{O} \\ -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix} \quad (125)$$

if \mathbf{A} or \mathbf{D} is nonsingular, respectively, where we have written the Schur complement of \mathbf{M} with respect to \mathbf{A} or \mathbf{D} as

$$\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{D} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \quad (126)$$

or

$$\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D} \equiv \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} \quad (127)$$

respectively.⁷ The above block diagonalization identities (124) and (125) yield two versions of the inverse partitioned matrix \mathbf{M}^{-1} , i.e.,

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & (\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{O} \\ -\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \quad (130)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & -\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1} \\ -(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} & (\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (131)$$

and

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{O} \\ -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{D}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \quad (132)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} (\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1} & -(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1} & \mathbf{D}^{-1} + \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \end{pmatrix} \quad (133)$$

⁷ Note that the notation for the Schur complement is chosen to suggest that it has a flavor of division (Minka, 2000). In fact, taking the determinant on both sides of (124) and (125), we have from the definition of the determinant (C.10) that

$$\det(\mathbf{M}) = \det(\mathbf{A}) \det(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A}) \quad (128)$$

and

$$\det(\mathbf{M}) = \det(\mathbf{D}) \det(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D}) \quad (129)$$

respectively.

respectively. Equating the right hand sides, we have, e.g.,

$$(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \quad (134)$$

and

$$-(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{M}/\mathbf{D})^{-1}. \quad (135)$$

Substituting (126) and (127) into both sides and replacing \mathbf{D} with $-\mathbf{D}$, we finally have

$$(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} - \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} \quad (136)$$

and

$$(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1} \quad (137)$$

which are equivalent to (C.7) and (122), respectively.

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Equation (C.17): It is clear that the definition (C.17) of the derivative of a scalar with respect to a vector and that (C.18) of the derivative of a vector with respect to a vector contradict each other. The vector derivative of the form (C.17) is usually called the *gradient* whereas (C.18) is called the *Jacobian* (Minka, 2000). Note that (C.16) is a special case of (C.18) and thus the Jacobian. We should use a different notation, say, ∇ for the gradient to avoid ambiguity. More specifically, given a vector function $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = (y_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, y_M(\mathbf{x}))^T$ where $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_D)^T$, we write the gradient of $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to \mathbf{x} as

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_M}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x_D} & \cdots & \frac{\partial y_M}{\partial x_D} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (138)$$

As a special case, we see that the gradient of a scalar function $y(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to a column vector \mathbf{x} is again a column vector of the same dimension, corresponding to the right hand side of (C.17), i.e.,

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}y = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_D} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (139)$$

Note also that the right hand side of the definition of the gradient (138) is identical to the transpose of the Jacobian matrix $\partial\mathbf{y}/\partial\mathbf{x} = (\partial y_i/\partial x_j)$ so that $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y} = (\partial\mathbf{y}/\partial\mathbf{x})^T$, as a consequence of which the chain rule for the gradient is such that the intermediate gradients are built up “towards the left,” i.e.,

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{z}(\mathbf{y}) = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)^T = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y}\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\mathbf{z}. \quad (140)$$

Since the chain rule (140) is handy when we compute the gradients of composite functions (see below), I would suggest that it should also be pointed out in the “(Vector and) Matrix Derivatives” section of Appendix C. At this point, one might wonder why we use the two different forms of vector derivative that are identical up to the transposed layout, i.e., the gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{y}$ and the Jacobian $\partial\mathbf{y}/\partial\mathbf{x}$. As Minka (2000) points out, Jacobians are useful in calculus while gradients are useful in optimization. For instance, we can write down the Taylor series expansion (up to the second order) of a scalar function $f(\mathbf{x})$ compactly in terms of the gradients as

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \Delta\mathbf{x}) \simeq f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{g}^T\Delta\mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}\Delta\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{H}\Delta\mathbf{x} \quad (141)$$

where \mathbf{g} and \mathbf{H} are the gradient vector and the Hessian matrix of $f(\mathbf{x})$, respectively, so that

$$\mathbf{g} \equiv \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_D} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{H} \equiv \nabla \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_D} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_D \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_D \partial x_D} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (142)$$

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Equation (C.19): Following the gradient notation (138), (C.19) should read

$$\nabla \{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a}\} = \nabla \{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}\} = \mathbf{a} \quad (143)$$

where we have omitted the subscript \mathbf{x} in what should be $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}$. Some other useful identities I would suggest to include are

$$\nabla \{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}\} = \nabla \text{Tr}(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}) = (\mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{x} \quad (144)$$

$$\nabla \{\mathbf{B} \mathbf{x}\} = \mathbf{B}^T \quad (145)$$

$$\nabla \{\varphi \mathbf{y}\} = \nabla \varphi \mathbf{y}^T + \varphi \nabla \mathbf{y} \quad (146)$$

where matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are constants. Note that $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ in (144) is a quadratic form and thus the square matrix \mathbf{A} is usually taken to be symmetric so that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$, in which case we have

$$\nabla \{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}\} = 2\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}. \quad (147)$$

Substituting $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$ gives

$$\nabla \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = 2\mathbf{x} \quad (148)$$

where $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$ is the norm of \mathbf{x} . We make use of the above identity (148) when, e.g., we take the gradient of a sum-of-squares error function of the form (3.12), which can be expressed in terms of the design matrix Φ given by (3.16) as

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{t} - \Phi \mathbf{w}\|^2. \quad (149)$$

Taking the gradient of (149) with respect to \mathbf{w} , we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} E(\mathbf{w}) = -\Phi^T (\mathbf{t} - \Phi \mathbf{w}) \quad (150)$$

where we have used the identity (148) together with the chain rule (140) and the identity (145). The same result can also be obtained by first expanding the square norm in (149) and then differentiating it using the gradient identities given above. We use (146) when, e.g., we evaluate the Hessian (5.83) of a nonlinear sum-of-squares error function such as (5.82), which takes the form

$$J = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \varepsilon_n^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}\|^2 \quad (151)$$

where we have written $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} = (\varepsilon_1, \dots, \varepsilon_N)^T$. The gradient and the Hessian of J are evaluated as

$$\nabla J = \sum_n \varepsilon_n \nabla \varepsilon_n = (\nabla \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad (152)$$

$$\nabla \nabla J = \sum_n \nabla \varepsilon_n (\nabla \varepsilon_n)^T + \sum_n \varepsilon_n \nabla \nabla \varepsilon_n \quad (153)$$

$$= \nabla \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} (\nabla \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})^T + \sum_n \varepsilon_n \nabla \nabla \varepsilon_n \quad (154)$$

respectively. The second form of the Hessian, which, however, does not necessarily result in efficient implementation (neither does that of the gradient), can be directly obtained by using the identity

$$\nabla \{\mathbf{R}\boldsymbol{\varphi}\} = \nabla \boldsymbol{\varphi} \mathbf{R}^T + \sum_{m=1}^M \varphi_m \nabla \mathbf{r}_m \quad (155)$$

where $\mathbf{R} = (\mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_M)$ and $\boldsymbol{\varphi} = (\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_M)^T$. One can see that (145) and (146) are special cases of (155).

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Equation (C.20): Although the Jacobian of a vector with respect to a vector is defined in (C.18), the Jacobian of a matrix with respect to a scalar has not been defined. The Jacobian $\partial \mathbf{A} / \partial x$ of a matrix $\mathbf{A} = (A_{ij})$ with respect to a scalar x can be defined as a matrix with the same dimensionality as \mathbf{A} so that

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial A_{ij}}{\partial x} \right) \quad (156)$$

which is analogous to (C.18) in that the partial derivatives are laid out according to the numerator, i.e., \mathbf{A} . On the other hand, the gradient (138) is such that the derivatives are laid out according to the denominator. In a similar analogy, we can define the gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} y$ of a scalar y with respect to a matrix \mathbf{A} as

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} y \equiv \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial A_{ij}} \right). \quad (157)$$

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Equation (C.22): For this identity to be well-defined, it is necessary that we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) > 0$. We should make this assumption clear. Or, if we adopt the notation (8) for $|\mathbf{A}|$, which I would recommend, we see that (C.22) holds for any nonsingular \mathbf{A} such that $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$. The section named ‘‘Eigenvector Equation’’ of Appendix C gives us a hint for a proof of (C.22) where \mathbf{A} is assumed to be symmetric positive definite so that $\mathbf{A} \succ 0$. Although the restricted proof outlined in PRML is indeed highly instructive, we need a more general proof because we make use of this identity, e.g., in Exercise 2.34 without the assumptions required by the restricted proof. To this end, we first show the following identity for any square matrix \mathbf{A}

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \det(\mathbf{A}) = \text{Tr} \left(\mathbf{A}^\dagger \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \right) \quad (158)$$

where \mathbf{A}^\dagger is the adjugate matrix of \mathbf{A} . The (ij) -th element A_{ij}^\dagger of the adjugate matrix \mathbf{A}^\dagger is given by

$$A_{ij}^\dagger = (-1)^{i+j} \det(\mathbf{A}^{(ji)}) \quad (159)$$

where $\mathbf{A}^{(ij)}$ is a matrix obtained by removing the i -th row and the j -th column of \mathbf{A} . From the identity

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^\dagger = \mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{A} = \det(\mathbf{A}) \mathbf{I} \quad (160)$$

we can write the inverse matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} in terms of the adjugate matrix \mathbf{A}^\dagger so that

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \frac{\mathbf{A}^\dagger}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \quad (161)$$

if \mathbf{A} is nonsingular so that $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$. Note also that the above identity (160) implies

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_k A_{ik} A_{ki}^\dagger = \sum_k A_{jk}^\dagger A_{kj} \quad (162)$$

for any i and j . Substituting this identity (162) into the left hand side of (158) and noting that, from the definition (159) of the adjugate matrix, A_{ji}^\dagger is independent of A_{ik} nor A_{kj} for any k , we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{ij} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial A_{ij}} \sum_k A_{ik} A_{ki}^\dagger \right\} \frac{\partial A_{ij}}{\partial x} = \sum_{ij} \left\{ \frac{\partial}{\partial A_{ij}} \sum_k A_{jk}^\dagger A_{kj} \right\} \frac{\partial A_{ij}}{\partial x} \quad (163)$$

$$= \sum_{ij} A_{ji}^\dagger \frac{\partial A_{ij}}{\partial x} \quad (164)$$

$$= \text{Tr} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \mathbf{A}^\dagger \right) = \text{Tr} \left(\mathbf{A}^\dagger \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \right) \quad (165)$$

which proves the identity (158). Making use of (158) together with (161), we can now evaluate the right hand side of (C.22) as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \ln |\mathbf{A}| = \frac{1}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \det(\mathbf{A}) \quad (166)$$

$$= \text{Tr} \left(\mathbf{A}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial x} \right) \quad (167)$$

if \mathbf{A} is nonsingular so that $\det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$ where we have used the notation (8) for $|\mathbf{A}|$.

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Equations (C.24), (C.25), (C.26), (C.27), and (C.28): Since these derivatives are gradients of a scalar with respect to a matrix \mathbf{A} , the operator $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{A}}$ should read $\nabla_{\mathbf{A}}$ if we adopt the notation (157). For example, (C.28) should read

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \ln |\mathbf{A}| = \mathbf{A}^{-\text{T}} \quad (168)$$

where we have used (C.4) and defined

$$\mathbf{A}^{-\text{T}} \equiv (\mathbf{A}^{\text{T}})^{-1} = (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{\text{T}}. \quad (169)$$

In addition to the above mentioned identities, I would suggest to include the following

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A}^{\text{T}} \mathbf{C}) = \mathbf{C}^{\text{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B}^{\text{T}} + \mathbf{C} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} \quad (170)$$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{B}) = -\mathbf{A}^{-\text{T}} \mathbf{B}^{\text{T}} \mathbf{A}^{-\text{T}}. \quad (171)$$

We use the identities (170) and (171), e.g., when we show (13.113) in Exercise 13.33 and (2.122) in Exercise 2.34, respectively. It should also be noted that (C.27) is a special case of (170).

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The second paragraph, Line -1: The determinant of the orthogonal matrix \mathbf{U} can be either positive or negative so that we should write $\det(\mathbf{U}) = \pm 1$, which is equivalent to $|\mathbf{U}| = 1$ if we adopt the notation (8). Although it is possible to take \mathbf{U} such that $\det(\mathbf{U}) = 1$ (one can flip the sign of $\det(\mathbf{U})$ by, say, flipping the sign of any one of the eigenvectors $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}$), there is no point in doing so in practice theoretically nor numerically. In fact, most software implementations of eigenvalue decomposition only guarantee that \mathbf{U} is orthogonal, i.e., $\det(\mathbf{U}) = \pm 1$. In a special case of \mathbf{A} being symmetric positive (semi)definite or $\mathbf{A} \succeq 0$, we can identify the eigenvalue decomposition (C.43) with the *singular value decomposition* or SVD (Press et al., 1992; Golub and Van Loan, 2013)

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\text{T}} \quad (172)$$

where we have $\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{V}$ and thus identify the eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}$ with the singular values $\{\sigma_i\}$ so that we can use an SVD routine for eigenvalue decomposition. Note also that the singular values are usually arranged in descending order in the diagonal matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \text{diag}(\sigma_i)$ so that $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$.

The text following (C.41): The multiplication by \mathbf{U} can be interpreted as a rotation, a reflection, or a combination of the two.

Equation (D.8): It would be helpful if we make it clear that the left hand side of (D.8) corresponds to the functional derivative so that we should modify (D.8) as

$$\frac{\delta F}{\delta y(x)} \equiv \frac{\partial G}{\partial y} - \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial y'} \right) = 0. \quad (173)$$

The last paragraph: Despite the statement, it is not that straightforward to extend the results obtained here to higher dimensions. Although such an extension is not required in PRML, it is useful when we analyze a particular type of constrained optimization problem commonly found in computer vision applications such as *optical flow* (Horn and Schunck, 1981). Here, I would like to consider an extension of the calculus of variations to a system of D -dimensional Cartesian coordinates $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_D)^T \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and find the form of the functional derivative as well as a more general boundary condition for such a derivative to be well-defined. To this end, we first review some identities concerning the *divergence* (Feynman et al., 1964). The divergence of a vector field $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{x}) = (p_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, p_D(\mathbf{x}))^T \in \mathbb{R}^D$ is a scalar field of the form

$$\text{div } \mathbf{p} = \sum_i \frac{\partial p_i}{\partial x_i} \equiv \nabla \cdot \mathbf{p} \quad (174)$$

where we have omitted the coordinates \mathbf{x} in the function arguments to keep the notation uncluttered. For a differentiable vector field $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{x})$ defined on some volume $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^D$, the *divergence theorem* (Feynman et al., 1964) states that

$$\int_{\Omega} \text{div } \mathbf{p} \, dV = \oint_{\partial\Omega} \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS \quad (175)$$

where the left hand side is the volume integral over the volume Ω ; the right hand side is the surface integral over its boundary $\partial\Omega$; and $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})$ is the outward unit normal vector of $\partial\Omega$. Assuming that the coordinates $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_D)^T$ are Cartesian, we can write the volume element as $dV = dx_1 \cdots dx_D \equiv d\mathbf{x}$ and the inner product as $\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{n}$. Making use of the divergence theorem (175) together with the following identity

$$\text{div} (\varphi \mathbf{p}) = \nabla \varphi^T \mathbf{p} + \varphi \text{div } \mathbf{p} \quad (176)$$

we obtain a multidimensional version of the “integration by parts” formula

$$\int_{\Omega} \nabla \varphi^T \mathbf{p} \, d\mathbf{x} = \oint_{\partial\Omega} \varphi \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{n} \, dS - \int_{\Omega} \varphi \text{div } \mathbf{p} \, d\mathbf{x}. \quad (177)$$

Let us now consider a functional of the form

$$E[u(\mathbf{x})] = \int_{\Omega} L(\mathbf{x}, u(\mathbf{x}), \nabla u(\mathbf{x})) \, d\mathbf{x} \quad (178)$$

where $u(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$ is a function (scalar field) defined over some volume $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^D$ and $L(\mathbf{x}, f, \mathbf{g}) \in \mathbb{R}$ is a function of $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$, $f \in \mathbb{R}$, and $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^D$. Thus, the functional $E[u(\mathbf{x})] \in \mathbb{R}$ maps $u(\mathbf{x})$ to a real number. As in the ordinary calculus, we can define the derivative of a functional according to the *calculus of variations* (Feynman et al., 1964; Bishop, 2006). In order to find the form of the functional derivative, we consider how $E[u(\mathbf{x})]$ varies upon a small change $\epsilon \eta(\mathbf{x})$ in $u(\mathbf{x})$ where $\eta(\mathbf{x})$ is the “direction” of

the change and ϵ is some small constant. The first-order variation of $E[u(\mathbf{x})]$ in the direction of $\eta(\mathbf{x})$ can be evaluated as

$$\delta E[u; \eta] \equiv \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \{E[u + \epsilon \eta] - E[u]\} \quad (179)$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_{\Omega} \{L(\mathbf{x}, u + \epsilon \eta, \nabla(u + \epsilon \eta)) - L(\mathbf{x}, u, \nabla u)\} d\mathbf{x} \quad (180)$$

$$= \int_{\Omega} \left\{ \eta \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} + \nabla \eta^T \nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L \right\} d\mathbf{x} \quad (181)$$

where we have assumed that $L(\mathbf{x}, f, \mathbf{g})$ is differentiable with respect to both f and \mathbf{g} ; and we have written

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial f} \equiv \frac{\partial}{\partial f} L(\mathbf{x}, u, \nabla u), \quad \nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L \equiv \nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L(\mathbf{x}, u, \nabla u). \quad (182)$$

By making use of the multidimensional integration by parts (177), we can integrate the second term in the right hand side of (181), giving

$$\delta E[u; \eta] = \int_{\Omega} \eta \left\{ \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} - \operatorname{div}(\nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L) \right\} d\mathbf{x} + \oint_{\partial\Omega} \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L^T \mathbf{n} dS. \quad (183)$$

In order for the functional derivative to be well-defined, we assume the surface integral term in the variation (183) to vanish so that we have the following boundary condition

$$\oint_{\partial\Omega} \eta \nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L^T \mathbf{n} dS = 0. \quad (184)$$

The boundary condition (184) holds if

$$\eta(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \quad (185)$$

or

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L^T \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \quad (186)$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$. The first condition (185) holds if we assume the *Dirichlet boundary condition* for $u(\mathbf{x})$

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = u_0(\mathbf{x}) \quad (187)$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$, i.e., $u(\mathbf{x})$ is assumed to be fixed to some value $u_0(\mathbf{x})$ at the boundary $\partial\Omega$ and so is $u(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon \eta(\mathbf{x})$ in (179), implying (185). Another common boundary condition for $u(\mathbf{x})$ is the *Neumann boundary condition*

$$\nabla u(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \quad (188)$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$. The Neumann boundary condition (188) is implied by the second condition (186) for the optical-flow energy functional as we shall see shortly. Having assumed that the boundary condition (184) holds, we can write the first order variation (183) in the form

$$\delta E[u; \eta] = \int_{\Omega} \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial u(\mathbf{x})} d\mathbf{x} \quad (189)$$

where we have written

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial u(\mathbf{x})} \equiv \frac{\partial L}{\partial f} - \operatorname{div}(\nabla_{\mathbf{g}} L). \quad (190)$$

The volume integral in the right hand side of (189) can be seen as the inner product between $\eta(\mathbf{x})$ and $\partial E / \partial u(\mathbf{x})$, from which we conclude that the quantity $\partial E / \partial u(\mathbf{x})$ is what should be called the functional derivative.⁸ A stationary point of a functional $E[u(\mathbf{x})]$ is a function $u(\mathbf{x})$ such that the

⁸Here we use a notation for the functional derivative that is different from the one used in PRML. The notation $\partial E / \partial u(\mathbf{x})$ employed here is more like an ordinary derivative and can be extended to the case of a vector field $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$ analogously to the gradient as we shall see in (196).

variation $\delta E[u; \eta]$ vanishes in any direction $\eta(\mathbf{x})$ and thus satisfies the *Euler-Lagrange equation* given by

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial u(\mathbf{x})} = 0. \quad (191)$$

Finally, we present an application of the multidimensional calculus of variations to a dense motion analysis technique called optical flow in the following. Suppose that, given a pair of (grayscale) images $I_0(\mathbf{x})$ and $I_1(\mathbf{x})$ where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ that are taken at some discrete time steps $t = 0$ and $t = 1$, respectively, we wish to find a motion vector field from $I_0(\mathbf{x})$ to $I_1(\mathbf{x})$

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} u(\mathbf{x}) \\ v(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} \quad (192)$$

defined over $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. [Horn and Schunck \(1981\)](#) sought for $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$ that minimizes an energy functional that takes essentially the same form as

$$J[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})] = J_{\text{data}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})] + \alpha J_{\text{smooth}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})] \quad (193)$$

where

$$J_{\text{data}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (I_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})) - I_0(\mathbf{x}))^2 d\mathbf{x} \quad (194)$$

$$J_{\text{smooth}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Omega} (\|\nabla u(\mathbf{x})\|^2 + \|\nabla v(\mathbf{x})\|^2) d\mathbf{x}. \quad (195)$$

Here, the domain Ω is assumed to be continuous and is typically rectangular. We call the first term $J_{\text{data}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})]$ in (193) the data-fidelity term; the second term $J_{\text{smooth}}[\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})]$ the smoothness (regularization) term; and the coefficient α the regularization parameter. According to the multidimensional calculus of variations, a stationary point of the optical-flow energy functional (193) satisfies Euler-Lagrange equations of the form

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})} J \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \partial J / \partial u(\mathbf{x}) \\ \partial J / \partial v(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} = \nabla_{\mathbf{u}} \left\{ \frac{\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x}))^2}{2} \right\} - \alpha \begin{pmatrix} \text{div}(\nabla u(\mathbf{x})) \\ \text{div}(\nabla v(\mathbf{x})) \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{0} \quad (196)$$

where we have written

$$\varepsilon(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = I_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{u}) - I_0(\mathbf{x}). \quad (197)$$

For the functional derivatives $\partial J / \partial u(\mathbf{x})$ and $\partial J / \partial v(\mathbf{x})$ to be well-defined, let us assume the boundary condition given by (186) for each functional derivative, which implies the Neumann boundary condition for $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$, i.e.,

$$\nabla u(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \quad \nabla v(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \quad (198)$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in \partial\Omega$ where $\partial\Omega$ is the boundary of Ω and $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{x})$ is the outward unit normal vector of $\partial\Omega$. Thus, solving the above Euler-Lagrange equations (196) with the Neumann boundary condition (198), we obtain the desired motion vector field $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$. The Euler-Lagrange equations given by (196) are *elliptic partial differential equations* (elliptic PDEs) and can be solved numerically by a type of relaxation method such as the Gauss-Seidel method or the (weighted) Jacobi method or by a more efficient *multigrid* technique ([Press et al., 1992](#); [Briggs et al., 2000](#)).

Column 2, Entry 7: “John Hopkins University Press” should read “The Johns Hopkins University Press.”

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