Full Solution Manual for "Probabilistic Machine Learning: An Introduction"

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November 21, 2021

Part I Foundations

2.1 Conditional independence

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1. Bayes' rule gives

$$P(H|E_1, E_2) = \frac{P(E_1, E_2|H)P(H)}{P(E_1, E_2)} \tag{1}$$

Thus the information in (ii) is sufficient. In fact, we don't need $P(E_1, E_2)$ because it is equal to the normalization constant (to enforce the sum to one constraint). (i) and (iii) are insufficient.

2. Now the equation simplifies to

$$P(H|E_1, E_2) = \frac{P(E_1|H)P(E_2|H)P(H)}{P(E_1, E_2)}$$
(2)

so (i) and (ii) are obviously sufficient. (iii) is also sufficient, because we can compute $P(E_1, E_2)$ using normalization.

2.2 Pairwise independence does not imply mutual independence

We provide two counter examples.

Let X_1 and X_2 be independent binary random variables, and $X_3 = X_1 \oplus X_2$, where \oplus is the XOR operator. We have $p(X_3|X_1,X_2) \neq p(X_3)$, since X_3 can be deterministically calculated from X_1 and X_2 . So the variables $\{X_1,X_2,X_3\}$ are not mutually independent. However, we also have $p(X_3|X_1) = p(X_3)$, since without X_2 , no information can be provided to X_3 . So $X_1 \perp X_3$ and similarly $X_2 \perp X_3$. Hence $\{X_1,X_2,X_3\}$ are pairwise independent.

Here is a different example. Let there be four balls in a bag, numbered 1 to 4. Suppose we draw one at random. Define 3 events as follows:

- X_1 : ball 1 or 2 is drawn.
- X_2 : ball 2 or 3 is drawn.
- X_3 : ball 1 or 3 is drawn.

We have $p(X_1) = p(X_2) = p(X_3) = 0.5$. Also, $p(X_1, X_2) = p(X_2, X_3) = p(X_1, X_3) = 0.25$. Hence $p(X_1, X_2) = p(X_1)p(X_2)$, and similarly for the other pairs. Hence the events are pairwise independent. However, $p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = 0 \neq 1/8 = p(X_1)p(X_2)p(X_3)$.

2.3 Conditional independence iff joint factorizes

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Independency \Rightarrow Factorization. Let q(x,z) = p(x|z) and h(y,z) = p(y|z). If $X \perp Y|Z$ then

$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z) = g(x, z)h(y, z)$$
 (3)

Factorization \Rightarrow Independency. If p(x,y|z) = g(x,z)h(y,z) then

$$1 = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y|z) = \sum_{x,y} g(x,z)h(y,z) = \sum_{x} g(x,z)\sum_{y} h(y,z)$$
 (4)

$$p(x|z) = \sum_{y} p(x, y|z) = \sum_{y} g(x, z)h(y, z) = g(x, z)\sum_{y} h(y, z)$$
 (5)

$$p(y|z) = \sum_{x} p(x, y|z) = \sum_{x} g(x, z)h(y, z) = h(y, z) \sum_{x} g(x, z)$$
 (6)

$$p(x|z)p(y|z) = g(x,z)h(y,z)\sum_{x}g(x,z)\sum_{y}g(y,z) \tag{7}$$

$$= g(x,z)h(y,z) = p(x,y|z)$$
(8)

2.4 Convolution of two Gaussians is a Gaussian

We follow the derivation of [Jay03, p221]. Define

$$\phi(x - \mu | \sigma) = \mathcal{N}(x | \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma} \phi(\frac{x - \mu}{\sigma})$$
(9)

where $\phi(z)$ is the pdf of the standard normal. We have

$$p(y) = \mathcal{N}(x_1|\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) \otimes \mathcal{N}(x_2|\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$$

$$\tag{10}$$

$$= \int dx_1 \phi(x_1 - \mu_1 | \sigma_1) \phi(y - (x_1 - \mu_2) | \sigma_2)$$
(11)

Now the product inside the integral can be written as follows

$$\phi(x_1 - \mu_1 | \sigma_1)\phi(y - (x_1 - \mu_2) | \sigma_2) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{x_1 - \mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y - x_1 - \mu_2}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 \right] \right\}$$
(12)

We can bring out the dependency on x_1 by rearranging the quadratic form inside the exponent as follows

$$\left(\frac{x-\mu_1}{\sigma_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{y-(x_1-\mu_2)}{\sigma_2}\right)^2 = (w_1+w_2)(x_1-\hat{x}) + \frac{w_1w_2}{w_1+w_2}(y-(\mu_1-\mu_2))^2 \tag{13}$$

where we have defined the precision or weighting terms $w_1 = 1/\sigma_1^2$, $w_2 = 1/\sigma_2^2$, and the term

$$\hat{x} = \frac{w_1 \mu_1 + w_2 y - w_2 \mu_2}{w_1 + w_2} \tag{14}$$

Note that

$$\frac{w_1 w_2}{w_1 + w_2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2} \frac{\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2} = \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}$$
(15)

Hence

$$p(y) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2} \int \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(w_1 + w_2)(x_1 - \hat{x})^2 - \frac{1}{2}\frac{w_1w_2}{w_1 + w_2}(y - (\mu_1 - \mu_2))^2\right] dx_1$$
 (16)

The integral over x_1 becomes one over the normalization constant for the Gaussian:

$$\int \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(w_1 + w_2)(x_1 - \hat{x})^2\right] dx_1 = (2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{\sigma_2^2 \sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
(17)

Hence

$$p(y) = (2\pi)^{-1} (\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{\sigma_2^2 \sigma_2^2}{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)} (y - \mu_1 - \mu_2)^2\right]$$
(18)

$$= (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)} (y - \mu_1 - \mu_2)^2\right]$$
(19)

$$= \mathcal{N}(y|\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2) \tag{20}$$

2.5 Expected value of the minimum of two rv's

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Let $Z = \min(X, Y)$. We have $P(Z > z) = P(X > z, Y > z) = P(X > z)p(Y > z) = (1 - z)^2 = 1 + z^2 - 2z$. Hence the cdf of the minimum is $P(Z \le z) = 2z - z^2$ and the pdf is p(z) = 2 - 2z. Hence the expected value is

$$\mathbb{E}[Z] = \int_0^1 z(2-2z) = 1/3 \tag{21}$$

2.6 Variance of a sum

We have

$$V[X+Y] = E[(X+Y)^2] - (E[X] + E[Y])^2$$
(22)

$$= E[X^{2} + Y^{2} + 2XY] - (E[X]^{2} + E[Y]^{2} + 2E[X]E[Y])$$
(23)

$$= E[X^{2}] - E[X]^{2} + E[Y^{2}] - E[Y]^{2} + 2E[XY] - 2E[X]E[Y]$$
(24)

$$= \mathbb{V}[X] + \mathbb{V}[Y] + 2\operatorname{Cov}[X, Y] \tag{25}$$

If X and Y are independent, then Cov[X, Y] = 0, so V[X + Y] = V[X] + V[Y].

2.7 Deriving the inverse gamma density

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We have

$$p_y(y) = p_x(x) \left| \frac{dx}{dy} \right| \tag{26}$$

where

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{1}{y^2} = -x^2\tag{27}$$

So

$$p_y(y) = x^2 \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} x^{a-1} e^{-xb}$$
 (28)

$$=\frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)}x^{a+1}e^{-xb} \tag{29}$$

$$= \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} y^{-(a+1)} e^{-b/y} = IG(y|a,b)$$
 (30)

2.8 Mean, mode, variance for the beta distribution

For the mode we can use simple calculus, as follows. Let f(x) = Beta(x|a,b). We have

$$0 = \frac{df}{dx} \tag{31}$$

$$= (a-1)x^{a-2}(1-x)^{b-1} - (b-1)x^{a-1}(1-x)^{b-2}$$
(32)

$$= (a-1)(1-x) - (b-1)x \tag{33}$$

$$x = \frac{a-1}{a+b-2} \tag{34}$$

For the mean we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\theta|\mathcal{D}\right] = \int_0^1 \theta p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) d\theta \tag{35}$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \int \theta^{(a+1)-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1} d\theta \tag{36}$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \frac{\Gamma(a+1)\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a+1+b)} = \frac{a}{a+b}$$
(37)

where we used the definition of the Gamma function and the fact that $\Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$.

We can find the variance in the same way, by first showing that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\theta^{2}\right] = \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\Gamma(a+2+b)}{\Gamma(a+2)\Gamma(b)} \theta^{(a+2)-1} (1-\theta)^{b-1} d\theta \tag{38}$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(a+b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \frac{\Gamma(a+2+b)}{\Gamma(a+2)\Gamma(b)} = \frac{a}{a+b} \frac{a+1}{a+1+b}$$
(39)

Now we use $\mathbb{V}[\theta] = \mathbb{E}[\theta^2] - \mathbb{E}[\theta]^2$ and $\mathbb{E}[\theta] = a/(a+b)$ to get the variance.

2.9 Bayes rule for medical diagnosis

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Let T=1 represent a positive test outcome, T=0 represent a negative test outcome, D=1 mean you have the disease, and D=0 mean you don't have the disease. We are told

$$P(T=1|D=1) = 0.99 \tag{40}$$

$$P(T=0|D=0) = 0.99 (41)$$

$$P(D=1) = 0.0001 \tag{42}$$

We are asked to compute P(D=1|T=1), which we can do using Bayes' rule:

$$P(D=1|T=1) = \frac{P(T=1|D=1)P(D=1)}{P(T=1|D=1)P(D=1) + P(T=1|D=0)P(D=0)}$$
(43)

$$= \frac{0.99 \times 0.0001}{0.99 \times 0.0001 + 0.01 \times 0.9999}$$
(44)

$$= 0.009804 \tag{45}$$

So although you are much more likely to have the disease (given that you have tested positive) than a random member of the population, you are still unlikely to have it.

2.10 Legal reasoning

Let E be the evidence (the observed blood type), and I be the event that the defendant is innocent, and $G = \neg I$ be the event that the defendant is guilty.

1. The prosecutor is confusing p(E|I) with p(I|E). We are told that p(E|I) = 0.01 but the relevant quantity is p(I|E). By Bayes rule, this is

$$p(I|E) = \frac{p(E|I)p(I)}{p(E|I)p(I) + p(E|G)p(G)} = \frac{0.01p(I)}{0.01p(I) + (1 - p(I))}$$
(46)

since p(E|G) = 1 and p(G) = 1 - p(I). So we cannot determine p(I|E) without knowing the prior probability p(I). So p(E|I) = p(I|E) only if p(G) = p(I) = 0.5, which is hardly a presumption of innocence.

To understand this more intuitively, consider the following isomorphic problem (from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prosecutor's_fallacy):

A big bowl is filled with a large but unknown number of balls. Some of the balls are made of wood, and some of them are made of plastic. Of the wooden balls, 100 are white; out of the plastic balls, 99 are red and only 1 are white. A ball is pulled out at random, and observed to be white.

Without knowledge of the relative proportions of wooden and plastic balls, we cannot tell how likely it is that the ball is wooden. If the number of plastic balls is far larger than the number of wooden balls, for instance, then a white ball pulled from the bowl at random is far more likely to be a white plastic ball than a white wooden ball — even though white plastic balls are a minority of the whole set of plastic balls.

2. The defender is quoting p(G|E) while ignoring p(G). The prior odds are

$$\frac{p(G)}{p(I)} = \frac{1}{799,999} \tag{47}$$

The posterior odds are

$$\frac{p(G|E)}{p(I|E)} = \frac{1}{7999} \tag{48}$$

So the evidence has increased the odds of guilt by a factor of 1000. This is clearly relevant, although perhaps still not enough to find the suspect guilty.

2.11 Probabilities are sensitive to the form of the question that was used to generate the answer

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1. The event space is shown below, where X is one child and Y the other.

Let N_g be the number of girls and N_b the number of boys. We have the constraint (side information) that $N_b + N_g = 2$ and $0 \le N_b, N_g \le 2$. We are told $N_b \ge 1$ and are asked to compute the probability of the event $N_g = 1$ (i.e., one child is a girl). By Bayes rule we have

$$p(N_g = 1|N_b \ge 1) = \frac{p(N_b \ge 1|N_g = 1)p(N_g = 1)}{p(N_b \ge 1)}$$
(49)

$$=\frac{1\times1/2}{3/4}=2/3\tag{50}$$

2. Let Y be the identity of the observed child and X be the identity of the other child. We want p(X = g|Y = b). By Bayes rule we have

$$p(X = g|y = b) = \frac{p(Y = b|X = g)p(X = g)}{p(Y = b)}$$
(51)

$$=\frac{(1/2)\times(1/2)}{1/2}=1/2\tag{52}$$

Tom Minka [Min98] has written the following about these results:

This seems like a paradox because it seems that in both cases we could condition on the fact that "at least one child is a boy." But that is not correct; you must condition on the event actually observed, not its logical implications. In the first case, the event was "He said yes to my question." In the second case, the event was "One child appeared in front of me." The generating distribution is different for the two events. Probabilities reflect the number of possible ways an event can happen, like the number of roads to a town. Logical implications are further down the road and may be reached in more ways, through different towns. The different number of ways changes the probability.

2.12 Normalization constant for a 1D Gaussian

Following the first hint we have

$$Z^{2} = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} r \exp\left(-\frac{r^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right) dr d\theta \tag{53}$$

$$= \left[\int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \right] \left[\int_0^\infty r \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dr \right] \tag{54}$$

$$= (2\pi)I \tag{55}$$

where I is the inner integral

$$I = \int_0^\infty r \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \tag{56}$$

Following the second hint we have

$$I = -\sigma^2 \int -\frac{r}{\sigma^2} e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2} dr$$
 (57)

$$= -\sigma^2 \left[e^{-r^2/2\sigma^2} \right]_0^{\infty} \tag{58}$$

$$= -\sigma^2[0-1] = \sigma^2 \tag{59}$$

Hence

$$Z^2 = 2\pi\sigma^2 \tag{60}$$

$$Z = \sigma\sqrt{2\pi} \tag{61}$$

3.1 Uncorrelated does not imply independent

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We have

$$E[X] = 0 (62)$$

$$V[X] = (1 - -1)^2 / 12 = 1/3 \tag{63}$$

$$E[Y] = E[X^2] = V[X] + (E[X])^2 = 1/3 + 0$$
(64)

$$E[XY] = \int p(x)x^3 dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[-\left(\int_{-1}^0 x^3 dx \right) + \left(\int_0^1 x^3 dx \right) \right]$$
 (65)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{-1}{4} [x^4]_{-1}^0 + \frac{1}{4} [x^4]_0^1 \right] = \frac{1}{8} [-1+1] = 0$$
 (66)

where we have split the integral into two pieces, since x^3 changes sign in the interval [-1,1]. Hence

$$\rho = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}[X,Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} \frac{E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = \frac{0}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y} = 0$$
(67)

3.2 Correlation coefficient is between -1 and +1

We have

$$0 \le \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X} + \frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right] \tag{68}$$

$$= \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X}\right] + \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right] + 2\operatorname{Cov}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X}, \frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right] \tag{69}$$

$$= \frac{\mathbb{V}[X]}{\sigma_X^2} + \frac{\mathbb{V}[Y]}{\sigma_Y^2} + 2\operatorname{Cov}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X}, \frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right]$$
 (70)

$$= 1 + 1 + 2\rho = 2(1+\rho) \tag{71}$$

Hence $\rho \geq -1$. Similarly,

$$0 \le \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{X}{\sigma_X} - \frac{Y}{\sigma_Y}\right] = 2(1 - \rho) \tag{72}$$

so $\rho \leq 1$.

3.3 Correlation coefficient for linearly related variables is ± 1

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Let $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{V}[X] = \sigma^2$, and assume a > 0. Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[aX + b] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b = a\mu + b \tag{73}$$

$$\mathbb{V}[Y] = \mathbb{V}[aX + b] = a^2 \mathbb{V}[X] = a^2 \sigma^2 \tag{74}$$

$$\mathbb{E}\left[XY\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[X(aX+b)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[aX^2 + bX\right] = a\mathbb{E}\left[X^2\right] + b\mathbb{E}\left[X\right] = a(\mu^2 + \sigma^2) + b\mu \tag{75}$$

$$Cov[X,Y] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y] = a(\mu^2 + \sigma^2) + b\mu - \mu(a\mu + b) = a\sigma^2$$
(76)

$$\rho = \frac{\operatorname{Cov}\left[X,Y\right]}{\sqrt{\mathbb{V}\left[X\right]\mathbb{V}\left[Y\right]}} = \frac{a\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\sigma^2}\sqrt{a^2\sigma^2}} = 1 \tag{77}$$

If Y = aX + b, where a < 0, we find $\rho = -1$, since $a/\sqrt{a^2} = -a/|a| = -1$.

3.4 Linear combinations of random variables

1. Let y = Ax. Then

$$Cov [y] = \mathbb{E} [(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbb{E} [\boldsymbol{y}])(\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbb{E} [\boldsymbol{y}])^{T}]$$
(78)

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[(\mathbf{A}x - \mathbf{A}m)(\mathbf{A}x - \mathbf{A}m)^T \right] \tag{79}$$

$$= \mathbf{A} \mathbb{E} \left[(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{m}) (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{m})^T \right] \mathbf{A}^T$$
(80)

$$= \mathbf{A} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{A}^T \tag{81}$$

- 2. $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ has entries $c_{ij} = \sum_k a_{ik} b_{kj}$. The diagonal elements of C (when i = j) are given by $\sum_k a_{ik} b_{ki}$. So the sum of the diagonal elements is $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}) = \sum_{ik} a_{ik} b_{ki}$ which is symmetric in \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} .
- 3. We have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x}\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x})\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^{T})\right]$$
(82)

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{x}\boldsymbol{x}^{T}\right]) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma} + \boldsymbol{m}\boldsymbol{m}^{T}))$$
(83)

$$= \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) + \boldsymbol{m}^T \mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{m} \tag{84}$$

3.5 Gaussian vs jointly Gaussian

1. For the mean, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[WX] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[X] = 0 \tag{85}$$

For the variance, we have

$$\mathbb{V}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{V}[Y|W]] + \mathbb{V}[\mathbb{E}[Y|W]] \tag{86}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[W[\mathbb{V}[X]]W\right] + \mathbb{V}\left[W\mathbb{E}[X]\right] \tag{87}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[W^2\right] + 0 = 1 \tag{88}$$

To show it's Gaussian, we note that Y is a linear combination of Gaussian rv's.

2. To show that Cov[X,Y] = 0, we use the rule of iterated expectation. First we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[XY\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[XY|W\right]\right] \tag{89}$$

$$= \sum_{w \in \{-1,1\}} p(w) \mathbb{E}\left[XY|w\right] \tag{90}$$

$$= -1 \cdot 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[X \cdot -X\right] + 1 \cdot 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[X \cdot X\right] \tag{91}$$

$$==0 (92)$$

Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}[Y] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[Y|W]] \tag{93}$$

$$= \sum_{w \in \{-1,1\}} p(w) \mathbb{E}[Y|w]$$
 (94)

$$= 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[-X\right] + 0.5 \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[X\right] \tag{95}$$

$$=0 (96)$$

Hence

$$Cov [X, Y] = \mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X] \mathbb{E}[Y] = 0$$
(97)

So X and Y are uncorrelated even though they are dependent.

3.6 Normalization constant for a multidimensional Gaussian

Let $\Sigma = \mathbf{U}\Lambda\mathbf{U}^T$, so

$$\Sigma^{-1} = \mathbf{U}^{-T} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{U}^{-1} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1} \mathbf{U} = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^T$$
(98)

Hence

$$(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \left(\sum_{i=1}^p \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{u}_i^T \right) (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$
(99)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{1}{\lambda_i} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{u}_i \boldsymbol{u}_i^T (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \frac{y_i^2}{\lambda_i}$$
(100)

where $y_i \triangleq \boldsymbol{u}_i^T(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$. The \boldsymbol{y} variables define a new coordinate system that is shifted (by $\boldsymbol{\mu}$) and rotated (by \boldsymbol{U}) with respect to the original x coordinates: $\boldsymbol{y} = \boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$. Hence $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{U}^T \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{\mu}$.

The Jacobian of this transformation, from y to x, is a matrix with elements

$$J_{ij} = \frac{\partial x_i}{\partial y_j} = U_{ji} \tag{101}$$

so $\mathbf{J} = \mathbf{U}^T$ and $|\mathbf{J}| = 1$.

$$\int \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x} - \mu)^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})) d\boldsymbol{x} = \int \prod_i \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{y_i^2}{\lambda_i}) dy_i |\mathbf{J}|$$
(102)

$$= \prod_{i} \sqrt{2\pi\lambda_i} = |2\pi\Sigma| \tag{103}$$

3.7 Sensor fusion with known variances in 1d

Define the sufficient statistics as

$$\overline{y}_1 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} y_i^{(1)}, \ \overline{y}_2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} y_i^{(2)},$$
 (104)

Define the prior as

$$\mu_{\mu} = 0, \Sigma_{\mu} = \infty \tag{105}$$

Define the likelihood as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\mu}_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_y = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{v_1}{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{v_2}{n_2} \end{pmatrix}$$
 (106)

Now we just apply the equations. The posterior precision is a sum of the precisions of each sensor:

$$\Sigma_{\mu|y}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{\Sigma}_y^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{v_1}{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{v_2}{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{n_1}{v_1} + \frac{n_2}{v_2}$$
(107)

The posterior mean is a weighted sum of the observed values from each sensor:

$$\mu_{\mu|y} = \Sigma_{\mu|y}^{-1} \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{v_1}{n_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{v_2}{n_2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \overline{y}_1 \\ \overline{y}_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \Sigma_{\mu|y}^{-1} \left(\frac{n_1 \overline{y}_1}{v_1} + \frac{n_2 \overline{y}_2}{v_2} \right)$$
(108)

3.8 Show that the Student distribution can be written as a Gaussian scale mixture

$$p(w|\mu, a, b) = \int_0^\infty \mathcal{N}(w|\mu, \alpha^{-1}) \operatorname{Ga}(\alpha|a, b) d\alpha$$
 (109)

$$= \int_0^\infty \frac{b^a e^{-b\alpha} \alpha^{a-1}}{\Gamma(a)} \left(\frac{\alpha}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha}{2} (w-\mu)^2\right) d\alpha \tag{110}$$

$$= \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^\infty \alpha^{a-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left[-\alpha \left(b + \frac{1}{2}(w - \mu)^2\right)\right] d\alpha \tag{111}$$

Let us define $\Delta = b + (w - \mu)^2/2$ and $z = \alpha \Delta$. Then, using $dz = \Delta d\alpha$, and the definition of the Gamma function, $\int_0^\infty u^{x-1} e^{-u} du = \Gamma(x)$, the integral becomes

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{z}{\Delta}\right)^{a+\frac{1}{2}-1} e^{-z} \Delta^{-1} dz = \Delta^{-a-\frac{1}{2}} \Gamma(a+\frac{1}{2})$$
 (112)

so we have

$$p(w|\mu, a, b) = \frac{\Gamma(a+1/2)}{\Gamma(a)} b^a \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \Delta^{-a-\frac{1}{2}}$$
(113)

Let us define $a = \nu/2$ and $b = \nu/(2\lambda)$. Then we have

$$p(w|\mu, a, b) = \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(\frac{\nu}{2\lambda}\right)^{\nu/2} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{\nu}{2\lambda} + \frac{(w-\mu)^2}{2}\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2}$$
(114)

$$= \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(\frac{\nu}{2\lambda}\right)^{\nu/2} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\frac{\nu}{2\lambda} \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{\nu} (w - \mu)^2\right]\right)^{-(\nu+1)/2}$$
(115)

$$= \frac{\Gamma((\nu+1)/2)}{\Gamma(\nu/2)} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\nu\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[1 + \frac{\lambda}{\nu}(w-\mu)^2\right]^{-(\nu+1)/2}$$
(116)

$$= \mathcal{T}_{\nu}(w|\mu, \lambda^{-1}) \tag{117}$$

4.1 MLE for the univariate Gaussian

PRIVATE

Starting with the mean, we have

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = \frac{2}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i} (x_i - \mu) = 0 \tag{118}$$

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i = \overline{x} \tag{119}$$

We can derive $\hat{\sigma}^2$ as follows.

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma^2} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{-4} \sum_i (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2 - \frac{n}{2\sigma^2} = 0 \tag{120}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \hat{\mu})^2 \tag{121}$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i} x_i^2 + \sum_{i} \hat{\mu}^2 - 2 \sum_{i} x_i \hat{\mu} \right] = \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{i} x_i^2 + N \hat{\mu}^2 - 2N \hat{\mu}^2 \right]$$
(122)

$$= \left(\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}x_i^2\right) - (\overline{x})^2 \tag{123}$$

4.2 MAP estimation for 1D Gaussians

PRIVATE

1. Since the mean and mode of a Gaussian are the same, we can just write down the MAP estimate using the standard equations for the posterior mean of a Gaussian, which is

$$E[\mu|D] = \left(\frac{ns^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2}\right)\overline{x} + \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2}\right)m \tag{124}$$

However, we can also derive the MAP estimate explicitly, as follows. The prior distribution over the mean is

$$p(\mu) = (2\pi s^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{(\mu - m)^2}{2s^2}\right]$$
 (125)

Since the samples x_i are taken to be independent, we have:

$$p(D|\theta) = e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}$$
(126)

And combining them:

$$\log p(\mu)p(D|\mu) = -\frac{1}{2}\log(2\pi s^2) - \frac{(\mu - m)^2}{2s^2} - \frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2$$
 (127)

Taking the derivative with respect to μ :

$$\frac{\partial \log(p(\mu)p(D|\mu))}{\partial \mu} = 0 - \frac{2(\mu - m)(1)}{2s^2} - 0 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (2)(x_i - \mu)(-1)$$
 (128)

$$= -\frac{\mu - m}{s^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)$$
 (129)

$$= -\frac{\mu}{s^2} + \frac{m}{s^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \frac{n\mu}{\sigma^2}$$
 (130)

Setting this derivative to zero in order to find the maximum:

$$0 = -\frac{\hat{\mu}_{MAP}}{s^2} + \frac{m}{s^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \frac{n\hat{\mu}_{MAP}}{\sigma^2}$$
 (131)

$$\hat{\mu}_{MAP}(\frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{s^2}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \frac{m}{s^2}$$
(132)

$$\hat{\mu}_{MAP} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \frac{m}{s^2}}{\frac{n}{\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{s^2}} = \frac{s^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + m\sigma^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2}$$
(133)

$$= \left(\frac{ns^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2}\right) \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{n} + \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2}\right) m \tag{134}$$

- 2. Notice that as n increases, while s,m and σ remain constant, we have $\frac{\sigma^2}{ns^2+\sigma^2} \to 0$ while $\frac{ns^2}{ns^2+\sigma^2} \to 1$, yielding $\hat{\mu}_{MAP} \to \frac{\sum_i x_i}{n} = \hat{\mu}_{MLE}$. That is, when there are many samples, the prior knowledge becomes less and less relevant, and all MAP estimators (for any prior) converge to the maximum likelihood estimator $\hat{\mu}_{MLE}$. This is not surprising: as we have more data, it outweighs our prior speculations.
- 3. As the prior variance s^2 increases, even for a small number of samples n, we have $\frac{\sigma^2}{ns^2+\sigma^2} \to 0$ while $\frac{ns^2}{ns^2+\sigma^2} \to 1$, again yielding $\hat{\mu}_{MAP} \to \frac{\sum_i x_i}{n} = \hat{\mu}_{MLE}$. That is, when we have an uninformative, almost uniform, prior, we are left only with our data to base out estimation on.
- 4. On the other hand, if the prior variance is very small, $s^2 \to 0$, then we have $\frac{\sigma^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2} \to 1$ while $\frac{ns^2}{ns^2 + \sigma^2} \to 0$, yielding $\hat{\mu}_{MAP} \to m$. That is, if our prior is very concentrated, we essentially already know the answer, and can ignore the data.

4.3 Gaussian posterior credible interval

We want an interval that satisfies

$$p(\ell \le \mu_n \le u|D) \ge 0.95 \tag{135}$$

where

$$\ell = \mu_n + \Phi^{-1}(0.025)\sigma_n = \mu_n - 1.96\sigma_n \tag{136}$$

$$u = \mu_n + \Phi^{-1}(0.9755)\sigma_n = \mu_n + 1.96\sigma_n \tag{137}$$

where Φ is the cumulative distribution function for the standard normal $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ distribution, and $\Phi^{-1}(0.025)$ is the value below which 2.5% of the probability mass lies (in Matlab, norminv(0.025)=-1.96). and $\Phi^{-1}(0.975)$ is the value below which 97.5% of the probability mass lies (in Matlab, norminv(0.975)=1.96). We want to find n such that

$$u - \ell = 1 \tag{138}$$

Hence we solve

$$2(1.96)\sigma_n = 1 \tag{139}$$

$$\sigma_n^2 = \frac{1}{4(1.96)^2} \tag{140}$$

where

$$\sigma_n^2 = \frac{\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2} \tag{141}$$

Hence

$$n\sigma_0^2 + \sigma^2 = (\sigma^2 \sigma_0^2) 4(1.96)^2 \tag{142}$$

$$n = \frac{\sigma^2(\sigma_0^2 4(1.96)^2 - 1)}{\sigma_0^2} \tag{143}$$

$$=\frac{4(9\times(1.96)^2-1)}{9}=61.0212\tag{144}$$

Hence we need at least $n \ge 62$ samples.

4.4 BIC for Gaussians

PRIVATE

1. Using the fact that $\hat{\Sigma}_{ML} = \mathbf{S}$, we have

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}|\hat{\theta}_{ML}) = -\frac{N}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}^{-1}\mathbf{S}\right) - \frac{N}{2} \log(|\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}|)$$
(145)

$$= -\frac{N}{2} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{I}_D) - \frac{N}{2} \log(|\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}|)$$
 (146)

$$= -\frac{N}{2} \left(D + \log |\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}| \right) \tag{147}$$

There are D free parameters for the mean and D(D+1)/2 for the covariance, so the BIC score is

$$BIC = -\frac{N}{2} \left(D + \log |\hat{\Sigma}| \right) - \frac{d}{2} \log N \tag{148}$$

where d = D + D(D + 1)/2.

2. Let $\mathbf{S}_{diag} = \operatorname{diag}(\operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{S})) = \hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}_{diag}$. Then

$$\operatorname{tr}(\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_{diag}^{-1}\mathbf{S}) = \operatorname{tr}(\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}_{diag}^{-1}\mathbf{S}_{diag}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{I}_D) = D$$

because the off-diagonal elements of the matrix product get ignored. Hence

$$BIC = -\frac{N}{2} \left(D + \log |\hat{\mathbf{\Sigma}}| \right) - \frac{d}{2} \log N \tag{149}$$

where d = D + D parameters (for the mean and diagonal).

4.5 BIC for a 2d discrete distribution

1. The joint distribution is $p(x,y|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(x|\theta_1)p(y|x,\theta_2)$:

2. The log likelihood is

$$\log p(\mathcal{D}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i} \log p(x_i|\theta_1) + \sum_{i} \log p(y_i|x_i,\theta_2)$$
(150)

Hence we can optimize each term separately. For θ_1 , we have

$$\hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{\sum_i I(x_i = 1)}{n} = \frac{N(x = 1)}{N} = \frac{4}{7} = 0.5714 \tag{151}$$

For θ_2 , we have

$$\hat{\theta}_2 = \frac{\sum_i I(x_i = y_i)}{n} = \frac{N(x = y)}{N} = \frac{4}{7}$$
 (152)

The likelihood is

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, M_2) = (\frac{4}{7})^{N(x=1)} (\frac{3}{7})^{N(x=0)} (\frac{4}{7})^{N(x=y)} (\frac{3}{7})^{N(x\neq y)}$$
(153)

$$= \left(\frac{4}{7}\right)^4 \left(\frac{3}{7}\right)^3 \left(\frac{4}{7}\right)^4 \left(\frac{3}{7}\right)^3 \tag{154}$$

$$= \left(\frac{4}{7}\right)^8 \left(\frac{3}{7}\right)^6 \approx 7.04 \times 10^{-5} \tag{155}$$

3. The table of joint counts is

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} & y = 0 & y = 1 \\ \hline x = 0 & 2 & 1 \\ x = 1 & 2 & 2 \end{array}$$

We can think of this as a multinomial distribution with 4 states. Normalizing the counts gives the MLE:

$$\begin{array}{c|cc} & y = 0 & y = 1 \\ \hline x = 0 & 2/7 & 1/7 \\ x = 1 & 2/7 & 2/7 \end{array}$$

The likelihood is

$$p(\mathcal{D}|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, M_4) = \theta_{00}^{N(x=0, y=0)} \theta_{01}^{N(x=0, y=1)} \theta_{10}^{N(x=1, y=0)} \theta_{11}^{N(x=1, y=1)} = (\frac{2}{7})^2 (\frac{1}{7})^1 (\frac{2}{7})^2 (\frac{2}{7})^2$$
(156)

$$= \left(\frac{2}{7}\right)^6 \left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^1 \approx 7.77 \times 10^{-5} \tag{157}$$

Thus is higher than the previous likelihood, because the model has more parameters.

- 4. For M_4 , when we omit case 7, we will have $\hat{\theta}_{01} = 0$, so $p(x_7, y_7 | m_4, \hat{\theta}) = 0$, so $L(m_4) = -\infty$. However, $L(m_2)$ will be finite, since all counts remain non zero when we leave out a single case. Hence CV will prefer M_2 , since M_4 is overfitting.
- 5. The BIC score is

$$BIC(m) = \log p(\mathcal{D}|\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, m) - \frac{\operatorname{dof}(m)}{2} \log n$$
(158)

where n = 7. For M_2 , we have dof = 2, so

$$BIC(m_2) = 8\log(\frac{4}{7}) + 6\log(\frac{3}{7}) - \frac{2}{2}\log 7 = -11.5066$$
 (159)

For M_4 , we have dof = 3 because of the sum-to-one constraint, so

$$BIC(m_4) = 6\log(\frac{2}{7}) + 1\log(\frac{1}{7}) - \frac{3}{2}\log 7 = -12.3814$$
 (160)

So BIC also prefers m_2 .

A mixture of conjugate priors is conjugate

PRIVATE

We now show that, if the prior is a mixture, so is the posterior:

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$
(161)

$$= \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta) \sum_{k} p(Z=k) p(\theta|Z=k)}{\int p(\mathcal{D}|\theta') \sum_{k'} p(Z=k') p(\theta'|Z=k') d\theta'}$$
(162)

$$= \frac{\sum_{k} p(Z=k)p(\mathcal{D}, \theta|Z=k)}{\sum_{k'} p(Z=k') \int p(\mathcal{D}, \theta'|Z=k')d\theta'}$$
(163)

$$= \frac{\sum_{k} p(Z=k)p(\mathcal{D}, \theta|Z=k)}{\sum_{k'} p(Z=k') \int p(\mathcal{D}, \theta'|Z=k') d\theta'}$$

$$= \frac{\sum_{k} p(Z=k)p(\theta|\mathcal{D}, Z=k)p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k)}{\sum_{k'} p(Z=k')p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k')}$$
(163)

$$= \sum_{k} \left[\frac{p(Z=k)p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k)}{\sum_{k'} p(Z=k')p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k')} \right] p(\theta|\mathcal{D}, Z=k)$$
(165)

$$= \sum_{k} p(Z = k|\mathcal{D})p(\theta|\mathcal{D}, Z = k)$$
(166)

where $p(Z = k) = \pi_k$ are the prior mixing weights, and $p(Z = k | \mathcal{D})$ are the posterior mixing weights given by

$$p(Z=k|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(Z=k)p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k)}{\sum_{k'} p(Z=k')p(\mathcal{D}|Z=k')}$$
(167)

ML estimator σ_{mle}^2 is biased

Because the variance of any random variable R is given by $var(R) = E[R^2] - (E[R])^2$, the expected value of the square of a Gaussian random variable X_i with mean μ and variance σ^2 is $E[X_i^2] = var(X_i) + (E[X_i])^2 = \sigma^2 + \mu^2$.

$$E_{X_1,\dots,X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)}[\sigma^2(X_1,\dots,X_n)] = E\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j}{n})^2\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}nE\left[(X_i - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j}{n})^2\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}nE\left[(X_i - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j}{n})(X_i - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^n X_j}{n})\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}nE\left[X_i^2 - \frac{2}{n}X_i\sum_{j=1}^n X_j + \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j=1}^n\sum_{k=1}^n X_jX_k\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}nE\left[X_i^2\right] - \frac{2}{n^2}\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n E\left[X_iX_j\right] + \frac{1}{n^3}\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n\sum_{k=1}^n \left[X_jX_k\right]$$

Consider the two summations $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} E[X_i X_j]$ and $\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} [X_j X_k]$. Of the n^2 terms in each of these summations, n of them satisfy i=j or j=k, so these terms are of the form $E[X_i^2]$. By linearity of expectation, these terms contribute $nE[X_i^2]$ to the sum. The remaining n^2-n terms are of the form $E[X_i X_j]$ or $E[X_j X_k]$ for $i \neq j$ or $j \neq k$. Because the X_i are independent samples, it follows from linearity of expectation that these terms contribute $(n^2-n)E[X_i]E[X_j]$ to the summation.

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} E[X_i X_j] &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} E[X_j X_k] \\ &= n E[X_i^2] + (n^2 - n) E[X_i][X_j] \\ &= n (\sigma^2 + \mu^2) + (n^2 - n) \mu \mu = n \sigma^2 + n \mu^2 + n^2 \mu^2 - n \mu^2 \\ &= n \sigma^2 + n^2 \mu^2 \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} E_{X_1,\dots,X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)}[\sigma^2(X_1,\dots,X_n)] &= \\ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} &= 1^n (\sigma^2 + \mu^2) - \frac{2}{n^2} (n\sigma^2 + n^2\mu^2) + \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n (n\sigma^2 + n^2\mu^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} (n\sigma^2 + n\mu^2) - 2\frac{\sigma^2}{n} - 2\mu^2 + \frac{1}{n^3} (n^2\sigma^2 + N^3\mu^2) \\ &= \sigma^2 + \mu^2 - 2\frac{\sigma^2}{n} - 2\mu^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{n} + \mu^2 \\ &= \sigma^2 - \frac{\sigma^2}{n} = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2 \end{split}$$

Since the expected value of $\sigma^2(X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ is not equal to the actual variance σ^2 , σ^2 is not an unbiased estimator. In fact, the maximum likelihood estimator tends to underestimate the variance. This is not surprising: consider the case of only a single sample: we will never detect any variance. If there are multiple samples, we will detect variance, but since our estimate for the mean will tend to be shifted from the true mean in the direction of our samples, we will tend to underestimate the variance.

4.8 Estimation of σ^2 when μ is known

PRIVATE

We can re-do the derivation of $\hat{\sigma}_{MLE}^2$, but instead of taking the maximum over μ , we just use the known μ . We get:

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2$$

In calculating the expected value of the estimator, note that we get exactly the definition of a variance of a

random variable:

$$E_{X_1,\dots,X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)}[\hat{\sigma}^2(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n E_{X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)}[(X_i - \mu)^2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n Var[\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma^2$$

$$= \sigma^2$$

So the estimator is unbiased.

4.9 Variance and MSE of the unbiased estimator for Gaussian variance

PRIVATE

We have

$$\mathbb{V}\left[\frac{N-1}{\sigma^2}\sigma_{\rm unb}^2\right] = 2(N-1) \tag{168}$$

$$\frac{(N-1)^2}{\sigma^4} \mathbb{V}\left[\sigma_{\text{unb}}^2\right] = 2(N-1) \tag{169}$$

$$\mathbb{V}\left[\sigma_{\mathrm{unb}}^2\right] = \frac{2\sigma^4}{N-1} \tag{170}$$

Hence the variance of the ML estimator is

$$\mathbb{V}\left[\hat{\sigma}_{ML}^{2}\right] = \mathbb{V}\left[\frac{N-1}{N}\hat{\sigma}_{N-1}^{2}\right] = \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right)^{2}\frac{2\sigma^{4}}{N-1} = \frac{2(N-1)}{N^{2}}\sigma^{4} \tag{171}$$

Finally, we have

$$MSE(\sigma_{mle}^2) = bias(\sigma_{mle}^2)^2 + V \left[\sigma_{mle}^2\right]$$
(172)

$$= \left(\frac{-\sigma^2}{N}\right)^2 + \frac{2(N-1)}{N^2}\sigma^4 \tag{173}$$

$$=\frac{2N-1}{N^2}\sigma^4$$
 (174)

and

$$MSE(\sigma_{unb}^2) = bias(\sigma_{unb}^2)^2 + \mathbb{V}\left[\sigma_{unb}^2\right]$$
(175)

$$= 0 + \frac{2\sigma^4}{N - 1} \tag{176}$$

5.1 Reject option in classifiers

1. We have to choose between rejecting, with risk λ_r , and choosing the most probable class, $j_{max} = \arg \max_i p(Y = j|\mathbf{x})$, which has risk

$$\lambda_s \sum_{j \neq j_{max}} p(Y = j | \boldsymbol{x}) = \lambda_s (1 - p(Y = j_{max} | \boldsymbol{x}))$$
(177)

Hence we should pick j_{max} if

$$\lambda_r \ge \lambda_s (1 - p(Y = j_{max} | \boldsymbol{x})) \tag{178}$$

$$\frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_s} \ge (1 - p(Y = j_{max}|\boldsymbol{x})) \tag{179}$$

$$p(Y = j_{max}|\boldsymbol{x}) \ge 1 - \frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_s} \tag{180}$$

otherwise we should reject.

For completeness, we should prove that when we decide to choose a class (and not reject), we always pick the most probable one. If we choose a non-maximal category $k \neq j_{max}$, the risk is

$$\lambda_s \sum_{j \neq k} p(Y = j | \boldsymbol{x}) = \lambda_s (1 - p(Y = k | \boldsymbol{x})) \ge \lambda_s (1 - p(Y = j_{max} | \boldsymbol{x}))$$
(181)

which is always bigger than picking j_{max} .

2. If $\lambda_r/\lambda_s = 0$, there is no cost to rejecting, so we always reject. As $\lambda_r/\lambda_s \to 1$, the cost of rejecting increases. We find $p(Y = j_{max}|x) \ge 1 - \frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_s}$ is always satisfied, so we always accept the most probable class.

5.2 Newsvendor problem

PRIVATE

$$E\pi(Q) = \int_{Q}^{\infty} (P - C)Qf(D)dD + \int_{0}^{Q} (P - C)Df(D) - \int_{0}^{Q} C(Q - D)f(D)dD$$
 (182)

$$= (P - C)Q(1 - F(Q)) + P \int_{0}^{Q} Df(D) - CQ \int_{0}^{Q} f(D)dD$$
 (183)

$$= (P - C)Q(1 - F(Q)) + P \int_{0}^{Q} Df(D) - CQF(Q)$$
(184)

Hence

$$\frac{d}{dQ}E\pi(Q) = (P - C)(1 - F(Q)) - (P - C)Qf(Q) + PQf(Q) - CF(Q) - CQf(Q)$$
(185)

$$= (P-C) - PF(Q) \tag{186}$$

$$=0 (187)$$

So

$$F(Q) = \frac{P - C}{P} \tag{188}$$

5.3 Bayes factors and ROC curves

PRIVATE

 $p(H_1|D)$ is a monotonically increasing function of B, and therefore cannot affect the shape of the ROC curve. This makes sense intuitively, since, in the two class case, it should not matter whether we threshold the ratio $p(H_1|D)/p(H_0|D)$, or the posterior, $p(H_1|D)$, since they contain the same information, just measured on different scales.

5.4 Posterior median is optimal estimate under L1 loss

To prove this, we expand the posterior expected loss as follows:

$$\rho(a|\mathbf{x}) = E_{\theta|x}|\theta - a| = \int_{\theta > a} (\theta - a)p(\theta|x)d\theta + \int_{\theta < a} (a - \theta)p(\theta|x)d\theta$$
(189)

$$= \int_{a}^{\infty} (\theta - a)p(\theta|x)d\theta + \int_{-\infty}^{a} (a - \theta)p(\theta|x)d\theta$$
 (190)

Now recall the rule to differentiate under the integral sign:

$$\frac{d}{da} \int_{A(a)}^{B(a)} \phi(a,\theta) d\theta = \int_{A(a)}^{B(a)} \phi'(a,\theta) d\theta + \phi(a,B(a))B'(a) + \phi(a,A(a))A'(a)$$
(191)

where $\phi'(a,\theta) = \frac{d}{da}\phi(a,\theta)$. Applying this to the first integral in Equation 190, with A(a) = a, $B(a) = \infty$, $\phi(a,\theta) = (\theta-a)p(\theta|x)dy$, we have

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} (\theta - a)p(\theta|x)d\theta = \int_{a}^{\infty} -p(\theta|x)d\theta + 0 + 0$$
(192)

Analogously, one can show

$$\int_{-\infty}^{a} (a-\theta)p(\theta|x)d\theta = \int_{-\infty}^{a} p(\theta|x)d\theta \tag{193}$$

Hence

$$\rho'(a|\mathbf{x}) = -\int_{a}^{\infty} p(\theta|x)d\theta + \int_{-\infty}^{a} p(\theta|x)d\theta \tag{194}$$

$$= -P(\theta \ge a|x) + P(\theta \le a|x) = 0 \tag{195}$$

So the value of a that makes $\rho'(a|\mathbf{x}) = 0$ satisfies

$$P(\theta \ge a|\mathbf{x}) = P(\theta \le a|\mathbf{x}) \tag{196}$$

Hence the optimal a is the posterior median.

6.1 Expressing mutual information in terms of entropies

PRIVATE

$$I(X,Y) = \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log \frac{p(x,y)}{p(x)p(y)}$$
(197)

$$=\sum_{x,y}p(x,y)\log\frac{p(x|y)}{p(x)}\tag{198}$$

$$= -\sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log p(x) + \sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log p(x|y)$$
 (199)

$$= -\sum_{x} p(x) \log p(x) - \left(-\sum_{x,y} p(x,y) \log p(x|y) \right)$$
 (200)

$$= -\sum_{x} p(x) \log p(x) - \left(-\sum_{y} p(y) \sum_{x} p(x|y) \log p(x|y) \right)$$
 (201)

$$=H(X) - H(X|Y) \tag{202}$$

We can show I(X,Y) = H(Y) - H(Y|X) by symmetry.

For the second. Using H(Y|X) = H(X,Y) - H(X) we have

$$I(X;Y) = H(X) + H(Y) - H(X,Y)$$
(203)

Hence adding and subtracting H(Y) we have

$$H(X,Y) = H(X,Y) + H(X,Y) - H(X,Y)$$
(204)

$$= (H(X,Y) - H(Y)) + H(X,Y) + (H(Y) - H(X,Y))$$
(205)

Now adding and subtracting H(X) we have

$$H(X,Y) = (H(X,Y) - H(Y)) + (H(X,Y) - H(X)) + (H(Y) + H(X) - H(X,Y))$$
(206)

Simplifying yields

$$H(X,Y) = H(X|Y) + H(Y|X) + I(X,Y)$$
(207)

6.2 Relationship between D(p||q) and χ^2 statistic

We have

$$D(p||q) = \sum_{x} p(x) \log \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$
(208)

$$= \sum_{x} (Q(x) + \Delta(x)) \log \left(1 + \frac{\Delta(x)}{q(x)}\right)$$
 (209)

$$= \sum_{x} (Q(x) + \Delta(x)) \left(\frac{\Delta(x)}{q(x)} - \frac{\Delta(x)^2}{2q(x)} + \cdots \right)$$
 (210)

$$= \sum_{x} \Delta(x) + \frac{\Delta(x)^2}{q(x)} - \frac{\Delta(x)^2}{2q(x)} + \cdots$$
 (211)

$$= 0 + \sum_{x} \frac{\Delta(x)^2}{2q(x)} + \cdots$$
 (212)

since

$$\sum_{x} \Delta(x) = \sum_{x} p(x) - q(x) = 0$$
 (213)

6.3 Fun with entropies

PRIVATE

Here is p(x, y) and the marginals p(x) and p(y) written in the margins (hence the name).

			x			p(y)
		1	2	3	4	
	1	1/8	1/16	1/32	1/32	1/4
y	2	1/16	1/8	1/32	1/32	1/4
	3	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/4
	4	1/4	0	0	0	1/4
p(x)		1/2	1/4	1/8	1/8	

Here is p(x|y) and H(X|y)

- 1. H(X,Y) = 27/8 = 3.375
- 2. H(X) = 7/4 = 1.75, H(Y) = 2.0.
- 3. H(X|y) = 1.75, 1.75, 2.0, 0.0. Note that H(X|Y = 4) = 0 < H(X), so observing Y = 4 decreases our entropy, but H(X|Y = 3) = 2.0 > H(X), so observing Y = 3 increases our entropy. Also, H(X|Y = 1) = H(X|Y = 2) = H(X), so observing Y = 1 or Y = 2 does not change our entropy (but does change our posterior distribution!).
- 4. H(X|Y) = 11/8 = 1.375 < H(X), so on average, we are less uncertain after seeing Y.
- 5. I(X,Y) = H(X) HX|Y = 3/8 = 0.375

6.4 Forwards vs reverse KL divergence

1. We have

$$\mathbb{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{xy} p(x,y) [\log p(x,y) - \log q(x) - \log q(y)]$$
 (214)

$$= \sum_{xy}^{-3} p(x,y) \log p(x,y) - \sum_{x} p(x) \log q(x) - \sum_{y} p(y) \log q(y)$$
 (215)

We can optimize wrt q(x) and q(y) separately. Imposing a Lagrange multiplier to enforce the constraint that $\sum_{x} q(x) = 1$ we have the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(q,\lambda) = \sum_{x} p(x) \log q(x) + \lambda (1 - \sum_{x} q(x))$$
 (216)

Taking derivatives wrt q(x) (thinking of the function as a finite length vector, for simplicity), we have

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial q(x)} = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} - \lambda = 0 \tag{217}$$

$$q(x) = \frac{p(x)}{\lambda} \tag{218}$$

Summing both sides over x we get $\lambda = 1$ and hence

$$q(x) = p(x) \tag{219}$$

Analogously, q(y) = p(y).

2. We require q(x,y) = 0 whenever p(x,y) = 0, otherwise $\log q(x,y)/p(x,y) = \infty$. Since $q(x,y) = q_x(x)q_y(y)$, it must be that $q_x(x) = q_y(y)$ whenever x = y, and hence $q_x = q_y$ are the same distribution. There are only 3 possible distributions that put 0s in the right places and yet sum to 1. The first is:

			X			
		1	2	3	4	q(y)
	1	0	0	0	0	0
У	2	0	0	0	0	0
	3	0	0	1	0	1
	4	0	0	0	0	0
	q(x)	0	0	1	0	

The second one is

For both of these, we have $\mathbb{KL}(q||p) = 1 \times \log \frac{1}{1/4} = \log 4$. Furthermore, any slight perturbation of these probabilities away from the designated values will cause the KL to blow up, meaning these are local minima.

The final local optimum is

			X			
		1	2	3	4	q(y)
	1	$\begin{array}{c} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \end{array}$	1/4	0	0	$\begin{array}{c c} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{array}$
У	2	1/4	1/4	0	0	1/2
	3	0	0	0	0	0
	4	0	0	0	0	0
	q(x)	1/2	1/2	0	0	

 $\mathbf{q}(\mathbf{x}) \ \big| \ 1/2 \quad 1/2 \quad 0 \quad 0 \ \big|$ This has $\mathbb{KL}(q\|p) = 4(\frac{1}{4}\log\frac{1/4}{1/8}) = \log 2$, so this is actually the global optimum.

To see that there are no other solutions, one can do a case analysis, and see that any other distribution will not put 0s in the right places. For example, consider this:

			X			
			2	3	4	q(y)
	1	1/4	0	$\begin{array}{c} 1/4 \\ 0 \\ 1/4 \\ 0 \end{array}$	0	1/2
У	2	0	0	0	0	0
	3	1/4	0	1/4	0	1/2
	4	0	0	0	0	0
	q(x)	1/2	0	1/2	0	

Obviously if we set q(x,y) = p(x)p(y) = 1/16, we get $\mathbb{KL}(q||p) = \infty$.

Orthogonal matrices

1. Let $c = \cos(\alpha)$ and $s = \sin(\alpha)$. Using the fact that $c^2 + s^2 = 1$, we have

$$\mathbf{R}^{T}\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} c & s & 0 \\ -s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & -s & 0 \\ s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} c^{2} + s^{2} + 0 & -cs + sc + 0 & 0 \\ -sc + sc + 0 & c^{2} + s^{2} + 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(220)

2. The z-axis v = (0,0,1) is not affected by a rotation around z. We can easily check that (0,0,1) is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1 as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} c & s & 0 \\ -s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{221}$$

Of course, (0,0,-1) is also a valid solution. We can check this using the symbolic math toolbox in Matlab:

```
syms c s x y z
S=solve('c*x-s*y=x','s*x+c*y=y','x^2+y^2+z^2=1')
ans =
0
 0
>> S.y
ans =
0
0
>> S.z
ans =
  1
 -1
```

If we ignore the unit norm constraint, we find that (0,0,z) is a solution for any $z \in \mathbb{R}$. We can see this as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} c & s & 0 \\ -s & c & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \tag{222}$$

becomes

$$cx - sy = x \tag{223}$$

$$sx + cy = y (224)$$

$$z = z \tag{225}$$

Solving gives

$$y = \frac{x(c-1)}{s} \tag{226}$$

$$sx + cy = sx + \frac{cx(x-1)}{s}$$

$$y = \frac{x(c-1)}{s}$$
(227)

$$y = \frac{x(c-1)}{s} \tag{228}$$

and hence x = y = 0. We can check this in Matlab:

7.2 Eigenvectors by hand

PRIVATE

In matlab, we find

so $\lambda_1 = 2$, $\lambda_2 = 3$, $\boldsymbol{v}_1 = (1,0)^T$, $\boldsymbol{v}_2 = (0,1)^T$. Let us check this by hand. We want to solve

$$A\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i \tag{229}$$

$$(A - \lambda_i I) \mathbf{v}_i = 0 \tag{230}$$

The characteristic equation is

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0 \tag{231}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 2 - \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 - \lambda_2 \end{vmatrix} = 0 \tag{232}$$

$$(2 - \lambda_1)(3 - \lambda_2) = 0 (233)$$

so we see $\lambda_1 = 2, \lambda_2 = 3$. Solving for the eigenvectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{i1} \\ v_{i2} \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_i \begin{pmatrix} v_{i1} \\ v_{i2} \end{pmatrix} \tag{234}$$

yields

$$2v_{11} = 2(v_{11} + v_{12}) (235)$$

$$3v_{22} = 3(v_{21} + v_{22}) (236)$$

so $v_{11} = 1, v_{12} = 0, v_{21} = 0, v_{22} = 1.$

8.1 Subderivative of the hinge loss function

PRIVATE

At x = 0 and x = 2 the function is differentiable and $\partial f(0) = \{-1\}$ and $\partial f(2) = \{0\}$. At x = 1 there is a kink, and $\partial f(1) = [-1, 0]$.

8.2 EM for the Student distribution

At first blush, it might not be apparent why EM can be used, since there is no missing data. The key idea is to introduce an "artificial" hidden or auxiliary variable in order to simplify the algorithm. In particular, we will exploit the fact that a Student distribution can be written as a **Gaussian scale mixture** [AM74; Wes87] as follows:

$$\mathcal{T}(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma},\nu) = \int \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_n|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}/z_n) \operatorname{Ga}(z_n|\frac{\nu}{2},\frac{\nu}{2}) dz_n$$
 (237)

This can be thought of as an "infinite" mixture of Gaussians, each one with a slightly different covariance matrix.

Treating the z_n as missing data, we can write the complete data log likelihood as

$$\ell_c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[\log \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}/z_n) + \log \operatorname{Ga}(z_n | \nu/2, \nu/2) \right]$$
(238)

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[-\frac{D}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{\Sigma}| - \frac{z_n}{2} \delta_n + \frac{\nu}{2} \log \frac{\nu}{2} - \log \Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2}) \right]$$
 (239)

$$+\frac{\nu}{2}(\log z_n - z_n) + (\frac{D}{2} - 1)\log z_n$$
 (240)

where we have defined the Mahalanobis distance to be

$$\delta_n = (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$
 (241)

We can partition this into two terms, one involving μ and Σ , and the other involving ν . We have, dropping irrelevant constants,

$$\ell_c(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = L_N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) + L_G(\nu) \tag{242}$$

$$L_N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \triangleq -\frac{1}{2} N \log |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} z_n \delta_n$$
 (243)

$$L_G(\nu) \triangleq -N \log \Gamma(\nu/2) + \frac{1}{2} N \nu \log(\nu/2) + \frac{1}{2} \nu \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\log z_n - z_n)$$
 (244)

Let us first derive the algorithm with ν assumed known, for simplicity. In this case, we can ignore the L_G term, so we only need to figure out how to compute $\mathbb{E}[z_n]$ wrt the old parameters.

One can show that

$$p(z_n|\boldsymbol{x}_n,\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \operatorname{Ga}(z_n|\frac{\nu+D}{2}, \frac{\nu+\delta_n}{2})$$
(245)

Now if $z_n \sim \text{Ga}(a, b)$, then $\mathbb{E}[z_n] = a/b$. Hence the E step at iteration t is

$$\overline{z}_n^{(t)} \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[z_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}\right] = \frac{\nu^{(t)} + D}{\nu^{(t)} + \delta_n^{(t)}}$$
(246)

The M step is obtained by maximizing $\mathbb{E}[L_N(\mu, \Sigma)]$ to yield

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{(t+1)} = \frac{\sum_{n} \overline{z}_{n}^{(t)} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}}{\sum_{n} \overline{z}_{n}^{(t)}}$$
(247)

$$\hat{\Sigma}^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n} \overline{z}_{n}^{(t)} (\boldsymbol{x}_{n} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{(t+1)}) (\boldsymbol{x}_{n} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{(t+1)})^{\mathsf{T}}$$
(248)

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left[\sum_{n} \overline{z}_{n}^{(t)} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n}^{\mathsf{T}} - \left(\sum_{n=1}^{N} \overline{z}_{n}^{(t)} \right) \hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{(t+1)} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\mu}}^{(t+1)})^{\mathsf{T}} \right]$$
(249)

These results are quite intuitive: the quantity \bar{z}_n is the precision of measurement n, so if it is small, the corresponding data point is down-weighted when estimating the mean and covariance. This is how the Student achieves robustness to outliers.

To compute the MLE for the degrees of freedom, we first need to compute the expectation of $L_G(\nu)$, which involves z_n and $\log z_n$. Now if $z_n \sim \operatorname{Ga}(a,b)$, then one can show that

$$\bar{\ell}_n^{(t)} \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[\log z_n | \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}\right] = \psi(a) - \log b \tag{250}$$

where $\psi(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \log \Gamma(x)$ is the digamma function. Hence, from Equation (245), we have

$$\bar{\ell}_n^{(t)} = \Psi(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + D}{2}) - \log(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + \delta_n^{(t)}}{2})$$
(251)

$$= \log(\overline{z}_n^{(t)}) + \Psi(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + D}{2}) - \log(\frac{\nu^{(t)} + D}{2})$$
 (252)

Substituting into Equation (244), we have

$$\mathbb{E}[L_G(\nu)] = -N\log\Gamma(\nu/2) + \frac{N\nu}{2}\log(\nu/2) + \frac{\nu}{2}\sum_{n}(\bar{\ell}_n^{(t)} - \bar{z}_n^{(t)})$$
 (253)

The gradient of this expression is equal to

$$\frac{d}{d\nu}\mathbb{E}\left[L_G(\nu)\right] = -\frac{N}{2}\Psi(\nu/2) + \frac{N}{2}\log(\nu/2) + \frac{N}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_n(\overline{\ell}_n^{(t)} - \overline{z}_n^{(t)})$$
(254)

This has a unique solution in the interval $(0, +\infty]$ which can be found using a 1d constrained optimizer. Performing a gradient-based optimization in the M step, rather than a closed-form update, is an example of what is known as the **generalized EM** algorithm.

Part II Linear models

9.1 Derivation of Fisher's linear discriminant

We have

$$f = \boldsymbol{w}^T \mathbf{S}_B \boldsymbol{w} \tag{255}$$

$$f' = 2\mathbf{S}_B \boldsymbol{w} \tag{256}$$

$$g = \boldsymbol{w}^T \mathbf{S}_W \boldsymbol{w} \tag{257}$$

$$g' = 2\mathbf{S}_W \boldsymbol{w} \tag{258}$$

$$\frac{dJ(\boldsymbol{w})}{d\boldsymbol{w}} = \frac{(2\boldsymbol{s}_B\boldsymbol{w})(\boldsymbol{w}^T\mathbf{S}_W\boldsymbol{w}) - (\boldsymbol{w}^T\mathbf{S}_B\boldsymbol{w})(2\mathbf{S}_W\boldsymbol{w})}{(\boldsymbol{w}^T\mathbf{S}_W\boldsymbol{w})^T(\boldsymbol{w}^T\mathbf{S}_W\boldsymbol{w})} = 0$$
(259)

Hence

$$(\mathbf{s}_{B}\mathbf{w})\underbrace{(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{S}_{W}\mathbf{w})}_{a} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{w}^{T}\mathbf{S}_{B}\mathbf{w})}_{b}(\mathbf{S}_{W}\mathbf{w})$$
(260)

$$a\mathbf{S}_B \boldsymbol{w} = b\mathbf{S}_W \boldsymbol{w} \tag{261}$$

$$\mathbf{S}_B \boldsymbol{w} = \frac{b}{a} \mathbf{S}_W \boldsymbol{w} \tag{262}$$

10.1 Gradient and Hessian of log-likelihood for multinomial logistic regression

1. Let us drop the i subscript for simplicity. Let $S = \sum_{k} e^{\eta_k}$ be the denominator of the softmax.

$$\frac{\partial \mu_k}{\partial \eta_j} = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_j} e^{\eta_k} \right] S^{-1} + e^{\eta_k} \cdot \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta_j} S \right] \cdot - S^{-2}$$
 (263)

$$= (\delta_{ij}e^{\eta_k})S^{-1} - e^{\eta_k}e^{\eta_j}S^{-2} \tag{264}$$

$$=\frac{e^{\eta_k}}{S}\left(\delta_{ij} - \frac{e^{\eta_j}}{S}\right) \tag{265}$$

$$=\mu_k(\delta_{kj}-\mu_j)\tag{266}$$

2. We have

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}_{j}} \ell = \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu_{ik}} \frac{\partial \mu_{ik}}{\partial \eta_{ij}} \frac{\partial \eta_{ij}}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}_{j}} = \sum_{i} \sum_{k} \frac{y_{ik}}{\mu_{ik}} \mu_{ik} (\delta_{jk} - \mu_{ij}) \boldsymbol{x}_{i}$$
 (267)

$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{k} y_{ik} (\delta_{jk} - \mu_{ij}) \boldsymbol{x}_{i} = \sum_{i} y_{ij} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \sum_{i} (\sum_{k} y_{ik}) \mu_{ij} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}$$
(268)

$$=\sum_{i}(y_{ij}-\mu_{ij})\boldsymbol{x}_{i} \tag{269}$$

3. We consider a single term x_i in the log likelihood; we can sum over i at the end. Using the Jacobian expression from above, we have

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}_{c'}}(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}_{c}}\ell)^{T} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}_{c'}}((y_{ic} - \mu_{ic})\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T}) \tag{270}$$

$$= -(\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}_{c'}}\mu_{ic})\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \tag{271}$$

$$= -(\mu_{ic}(\delta_{c,c'} - \mu_{i,c'})\boldsymbol{x}_i)\boldsymbol{x}_i^T$$
(272)

10.2 Regularizing separate terms in 2d logistic regression

PRIVATE

- 1. Unregularized solution: see Figure 1(a). There is a unique ML decision boundary which makes 0 errors, but there are several possible decision boundaries which all makes **0 errors**.
- 2. Heavily regularizing w_0 sets $w_0 = 0$, so the line must go through the origin. There are several possible lines with different slopes, but all will make **1 error**. see Figure **1**(b).
- 3. Regularizing w_1 makes the line horizontal since x_1 is ignored. This incurs **2 errors**. see Figure 1(c).
- 4. Regularizing w_2 makes the line vertical, since x_2 is ignored. This incurs **0 errors**. see Figure 1(d).

10.3 Logistic regression vs LDA/QDA

PRIVATE

1. GaussI \leq LinLog. Both have logistic (sigmoid) posteriors $p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x})$, but LinLog is the logistic model which is trained to maximize $p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$. (GaussI may have high joint $p(y, \mathbf{x})$, but this does not necessarily mean $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ is high; LinLog can achieve the maximum of $p(y|\mathbf{x})$, so will necessarily do at least as well as GaussI.)

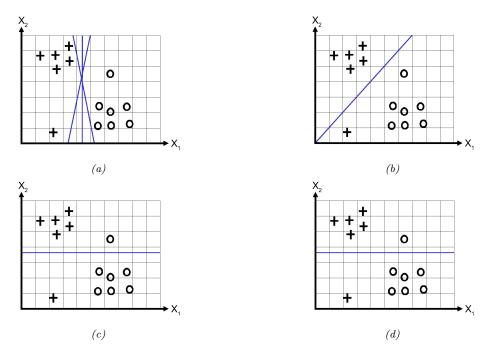


Figure 1: (a) Unregularized. (b) Regularizing w_0 . (c) Regularizing w_1 . (d) Regularizing w_2 .

- 2. Gauss $X \leq QuadLog$. Both have logistic posteriors with quadratic features, but QuadLog is the model of this class maximizing the average log probabilities.
- 3. LinLog ≤ QuadLog. Logistic regression models with linear features are a subclass of logistic regression models with quadratic functions. The maximum from the superclass is at least as high as the maximum from the subclass.
- 4. GaussI < QuadLog. Follows from above inequalities.
- 5. Although one might expect that higher log likelihood results in better classification performance, in general, having higher average log p(y|x) does not necessarily translate to higher or lower classification error. For example, consider linearly separable data. We have L(linLog) > L(GaussI), since maximum likelihood logistic regression will set the weights to infinity, to maximize the probability of the correct labels (hence $p(y_i|x_i, \hat{w}) = 1$ for all i). However, we have R(linLog) = R(gaussI), since the data is linearly separable. (The GaussI model may or may not set σ very small, resulting in possibly very large class conditional pdfs; however, the posterior over y is a discrete pmf, and can never exceed 1.)

As another example, suppose the true label is always 1 (as opposed to 0), but model M always predicts $p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x},M)=0.49$. It will always misclassify, but it is at least close to the decision boundary. By contrast, there might be another model M' that predicts $p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x},M')=1$ on even-numbered inputs, and $p(y=1|\boldsymbol{x},M')=0$ on odd-numbered inputs. Clearly R(M')=0.5 < R(M)=1, but $L(M')=-\infty < L(M)=\log(0.49)$.

11.1 Multi-output linear regression

PRIVATE

We have

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{Y} \tag{273}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{274}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \tag{275}$$

$$\mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -2 \\ -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{276}$$

$$\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 & -4 \\ 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \tag{277}$$

$$(\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1} = (1/3)\mathbf{I}_2 \tag{278}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1} \mathbf{\Phi}^T \mathbf{Y} = \begin{pmatrix} -4/3 & -4/3 \\ 4/3 & 4/3 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (279)

11.2 Centering and ridge regression

Suppose **X** is centered, so $\overline{x} = 0$. Then

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}, w_0) = (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{w} - w_0 \mathbf{1})^T (\boldsymbol{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{w} - w_0 \mathbf{1}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{w}$$
(280)

$$= \boldsymbol{y}^{T} \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{w}^{T} (\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X}) \boldsymbol{w} - 2 \boldsymbol{y}^{T} (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda \boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{w} + (-2w_{0} \mathbf{1}^{T} \boldsymbol{y} + 2w_{0} \mathbf{1}^{T} \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w} + w_{0} \mathbf{1}^{T} \mathbf{1} w_{0})$$
(281)

Consider the terms in brackets:

$$w_0 \mathbf{1}^T \boldsymbol{y} = w_0 n \overline{y} \tag{282}$$

$$w_0 \mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w} = w_0 \sum_i \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{w} = n \overline{\boldsymbol{x}}^T \boldsymbol{w} = 0$$
(283)

$$w_0 \mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{1} w_0 = n w_0^2 \tag{284}$$

Optimizing wrt w_0 we find

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_0} J(\boldsymbol{w}, w_0) = -2n\overline{y} + 2nw_0 = 0 \tag{285}$$

$$\hat{w}_0 = \overline{y} \tag{286}$$

Optimizing wrt \boldsymbol{w} we find

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} J(\boldsymbol{w}, \hat{w}_0) = [2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{y}] + 2\lambda \boldsymbol{w} = 0$$
(287)

$$\boldsymbol{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} + \lambda \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} \tag{288}$$

11.3 Partial derivative of the RSS

PRIVATE

1. We have

$$RSS(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{i} (r_i - w_k x_{ik})(r_i - w_k x_{ik})$$
(289)

$$= \sum_{i} [r_i^2 - w_k^2 x_{ik}^2 - 2w_k x_{ik} r_i]$$
 (290)

So

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_k} RSS(\boldsymbol{w}) = \sum_{i} [-2w_k x_{ik}^2 - 2x_{ik} r_i]$$
(291)

Let us check this matches the standard expression

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} = 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w} - 2\mathbf{X}^T \boldsymbol{y} \tag{292}$$

Recall that $[\mathbf{X}^T\mathbf{X}]_{jk} = \sum_i x_{ij}x_{ik}$. For simplicity, suppose there are two features. Then

$$[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}}]_1 = 2\left[\sum_{i} x_{i1}^2, \sum_{i} x_{i1} x_{i2}\right]^T \boldsymbol{w} - 2\left[\sum_{i} x_{i1} y_i\right] = 2w_1 \sum_{i} x_{i1}^2 + 2\sum_{i} x_{i1} (w_2 x_{i2} - y_i) = a_1 w_1 - c_1 \quad (293)$$

2. Setting the derivative to zero, we have

$$w_k(\sum_{i} x_{ik}^2) = \sum_{i} (x_{ik} r_i)$$
 (294)

so

$$w_k = \frac{\boldsymbol{x}_{:,k}^T \boldsymbol{r}}{\boldsymbol{x}_{:,k}^T \boldsymbol{x}_{:,k}} \tag{295}$$

11.4 Reducing elastic net to lasso

We have

$$J_1(\boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{y} + (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w})^T (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) - 2 \boldsymbol{y}^T (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda_2 \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{w} + \lambda_1 |\boldsymbol{w}|_1$$
(296)

and

$$J_2(\boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{y}^T \boldsymbol{y} + c^2 (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w})^T (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) - 2c^2 \boldsymbol{y}^T (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{w}) + \lambda_2 c^2 \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{w} + c\lambda_1 |\boldsymbol{w}|_1 = J_1(c\boldsymbol{w})$$
(297)

11.5 Shrinkage in linear regression

PRIVATE

- 1. From the book, we have that $\hat{w}_k^{OLS} = \boldsymbol{x}_k^T \boldsymbol{y} = c_k/2$. Hence the solid line (1) is OLS and has slope 1/2. Also, $\hat{w}_k^{ridge} = \hat{w}_k^{OLS}/(1+\lambda_2) = \frac{c_k}{2(1+\lambda_2)}$. Hence the dotted line (2) is ridge and has slope 1/4. Finally, lasso must be the dashed line (3), since it sets coefficients to zero if $-\lambda_1 \leq c_k \leq \lambda_1$.
- 2. $\lambda_1 = 1$
- 3. $\lambda_2 = 1$

11.6 EM for mixture of linear regression experts

In the E step, we compute the conditional responsibilities

$$r_{nk} = p(z_n = k | \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{y}_n) = \frac{p(\boldsymbol{y}_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n, z_n = k) p(z_n = k | \boldsymbol{x}_n)}{p(\boldsymbol{y}_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n)}$$
(298)

In the M step, we update the parameters of the gating funtion by maximizing the weighted likelihood

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}_g) = \sum_{n} \sum_{k} r_{nk} \log p(z_n = k | \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}_g)$$
(299)

and the parameters of the k'th expert by maximizing the weighted likelihood

$$\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k) = \sum_{n} r_{nk} \log p(\boldsymbol{y}_n | \boldsymbol{x}_n, z_n = k, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)$$
(300)

If the gating function and experts are linear models, these M steps correspond to convex subproblems that can be solved efficiently.

For example, consider a mixture of linear regression experts using logistic regression gating functions. In the M step, we need to maximize $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old})$ wrt \boldsymbol{w}_k , σ_k^2 and \mathbf{V} . For the regression parameters for model k, the objective has the form

$$Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} r_{nk} \left\{ -\frac{1}{\sigma_k^2} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) \right\}$$
(301)

We recognize this as a weighted least squares problem, which makes intuitive sense: if r_{nk} is small, then data point n will be downweighted when estimating model k's parameters. From the weighted least square section, we can immediately write down the MLE as

$$\boldsymbol{w}_k = (\mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{R}_k \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{R}_k \boldsymbol{y} \tag{302}$$

where $\mathbf{R}_k = \operatorname{diag}(r_{:,k})$. The MLE for the variance is given by

$$\sigma_k^2 = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk} (y_n - \boldsymbol{w}_k^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}_n)^2}{\sum_{n=1}^N r_{nk}}$$
(303)

We replace the estimate of the unconditional mixing weights π with the estimate of the gating parameters, V. The objective has the form

$$\ell(\mathbf{V}) = \sum_{n} \sum_{k} r_{nk} \log \pi_{n,k} \tag{304}$$

We recognize this as equivalent to the log-likelihood for multinomial logistic regression, except we replace the "hard" 1-of-C encoding y_i with the "soft" 1-of-K encoding r_i . Thus we can estimate \mathbf{V} by fitting a logistic regression model to soft target labels.

Part III Deep neural networks

13.1 Backpropagation for a 1 layer MLP

To compute δ_1 , let $\mathcal{L} = \text{CrossEntropyWithLogits}(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{a})$. Then

$$\boldsymbol{\delta}_1 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}} = (\boldsymbol{p} - \boldsymbol{y})^\mathsf{T} \tag{305}$$

where p = S(a).

To compute δ_2 , we have

$$\delta_2 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a} \frac{\partial a}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial z} = \delta_1 \frac{\partial a}{\partial h} \frac{\partial h}{\partial z}$$
(306)

$$= \delta_1 \mathbf{U} \frac{\partial \mathbf{h}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \text{ since } \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}_2$$
 (307)

$$= \delta_1 \mathbf{U} \circ \text{ReLU}'(z) \text{ since } \boldsymbol{h} = \text{ReLU}(z)$$
(308)

$$= \delta_1 \mathbf{U} \circ H(\mathbf{h}) \tag{309}$$

Now we compute the gradients wrt the parameters:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{H}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{a}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{H}} = \delta_1 \mathbf{h}^{\mathsf{T}} \tag{310}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{U}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{a}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{U}} = \mathbf{\delta}_1 \mathbf{h}^{\mathsf{T}}
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{b}_2} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{a}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{b}_2} = \mathbf{\delta}_1$$
(310)

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \boldsymbol{\delta}_2 \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T}$$
 (312)

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \boldsymbol{\delta}_2 \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{b}_1} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{b}_1} = \boldsymbol{\delta}_2$$
(312)

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \delta_2 \mathbf{W}$$
 (314)

Part IV Nonparametric models

17.1 Fitting an SVM classifier by hand

PRIVATE

- 1. The perpendicular to the decision boundary is a line through $\phi(x_1)$ to $\phi(x_2)$, and hence is parallel to $\phi(x_2) \phi(x_1) = (1, 2, 2) (1, 0, 0) = (0, 2, 2)$. Of course, any scalar multiple of this is acceptable, e.g., (0, 1, 1).
- 2. There are 2 support vectors, namely the two data points. The decision boundary will be half way between them. This midpoint is $m = \frac{(1,2,2)+(1,0,0)}{2} = (1,1,1)$. The distance of each of the training points to this midpoint is

$$||\phi(x_1) - m|| = ||\phi(x_2) - m|| = ||(0, 1, 1)|| = \sqrt{0^2 + 1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$$
 (315)

Hence the margin is $\sqrt{2}$.

- 3. We have $\mathbf{w} = (0, 1/2, 1/2)$, which is parallel to (0, 2, 2) and has $||\mathbf{w}|| = \sqrt{(1/2)^2 + (1/2)^2} = 1/\sqrt{2}$ as required.
- 4. Using the equations we have

$$-1([1,0,0]^T \boldsymbol{w} + w_0) = 1 \tag{316}$$

$$+1([1,2,2]^T \boldsymbol{w} + w_0) = 1 \tag{317}$$

Hence $w_0 = -1$.

5. We have

$$w_0 + \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(x) = -1 + (0, 1/2, 1/2)^T (1, \sqrt{2}x, x^2) = -1 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$$
(318)

Part V Beyond supervised learning

19.1 Information gain equations

To see this, let us define $p_n \triangleq p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D})$ as the current belief state, and $p_{n+1} \triangleq p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{x}, y)$ as the belief state after observing (\boldsymbol{x}, y) . Then

$$\mathbb{KL}(p_{n+1}||p_n) = \int p_{n+1} \log \frac{p_{n+1}}{p_n} d\theta$$
(319)

$$= \int p_{n+1} \log p_{n+1} d\theta - \int p_{n+1} \log p_n d\theta \tag{320}$$

$$= -\mathbb{H} p_{n+1} - \int p_{n+1} \log p_n d\boldsymbol{\theta} \tag{321}$$

Next we need to take expectations wrt $p(y|x,\mathcal{D})$. We will use the following identity:

$$\sum_{y} p(y|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{D}) \int p_{n+1} \log p_n d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
 (322)

$$= \sum_{y} p(y|\boldsymbol{x}, \mathcal{D}) \int p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}, \boldsymbol{x}, y) \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
(323)

$$= \int \sum_{y} p(y, \boldsymbol{\theta} | \boldsymbol{x}, \mathcal{D}) \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathcal{D}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
 (324)

$$= \int p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \log p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
 (325)

Using this, we have

$$U'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{p(y|\mathbf{x},\mathcal{D})} \left[-\mathbb{H} p_{n+1} \right] - \int p_n \log p_n d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
(326)

$$= \mathbb{E}_{p(y|\boldsymbol{x},\mathcal{D})} \left[- \mathbb{H} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{x}, y, \mathcal{D}) + \mathbb{H} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) \right] = U(\boldsymbol{x})$$
(327)

20.1 EM for FA

In the E step, we can compute the posterior for z_n as follows:

$$p(\mathbf{z}_n|\mathbf{x}_n,\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_n|\mathbf{m}_n, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_n)$$
(328)

$$\Sigma_n \triangleq (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Psi}^{-1} \mathbf{W})^{-1} \tag{329}$$

$$\boldsymbol{m}_n \triangleq \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_n(\mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\Psi}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu})) \tag{330}$$

We now discuss the M step. We initially assume $\mu = 0$. Using the trace trick we have

$$\sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} - \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}_{i})^{T} \mathbf{\Psi}^{-1} (\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} - \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}_{i}) \right] = \sum_{i} \left[\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{\Psi}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} + \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{W}^{T} \mathbf{\Psi}^{-1} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{z}_{i} \right] - 2 \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{\Psi}^{-1} \mathbf{W} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \right] \right]$$
(331)

$$= \sum_{i} \left[\operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T}) + \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Psi}^{-1} \mathbf{W} \mathbb{E} \left[\boldsymbol{z}_{i} \boldsymbol{z}_{i}^{T} \right] \mathbf{W}^{T}) \right]$$
(332)

$$-\operatorname{tr}(2\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}\mathbf{W}\mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i}\right]\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T})\Big] \tag{333}$$

$$\triangleq \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{W})) \tag{334}$$

Hence the expected complete data log likelihood is given by

$$Q = \frac{N}{2} \log |\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}| - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{W}))$$
(335)

Using the chain rule and the facts that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{W}} \text{tr}(\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{W}} \mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{W} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^T) \mathbf{W}$ we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}}Q(\mathbf{W}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}\nabla_{\mathbf{W}}G(\mathbf{W}) = 0$$
(336)

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}} G(\mathbf{W}) = 2\mathbf{W} \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \mathbf{z}_{i}^{T}\right] - 2\left(\sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[\mathbf{z}_{i}\right] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T}\right)^{T}$$
(337)

$$\mathbf{W}_{mle} = \left[\sum_{i} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{z}_{i}\right]^{T}\right] \left[\sum_{i} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \mathbf{z}_{i}^{T}\right]\right]^{-1}$$
(338)

Using the facts that $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} \log |\mathbf{X}| = \mathbf{X}^{-T}$ and $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}^{T}$ we have

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{\Psi}^{-1}}Q = \frac{N}{2}\mathbf{\Psi} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{W}_{mle}) = 0$$
(339)

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{N} \operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{W}_{mle})) \tag{340}$$

We can simplify this as follows, by plugging in the MLE (this simplification no longer holds if we use MAP estimation). First note that

$$\sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[z_{i} z_{i}^{T}\right] \mathbf{W}_{mle}^{T} = \sum_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[z_{i}\right] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T}$$
(341)

so

$$\mathbf{\Psi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \left(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} + \mathbf{W}_{mle} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \right] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} - 2 \mathbf{W}_{mle} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \right] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} \right)$$
(342)

$$= \frac{1}{N} \left(\sum_{i} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i} \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} - \mathbf{W}_{mle} \sum_{i} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbf{z}_{i} \right] \tilde{\mathbf{x}}_{i}^{T} \right)$$
(343)

To estimate μ and W at the same time, we can define $\tilde{\mathbf{W}} = (\mathbf{W}, \mu)$ and $\tilde{z} = (z, 1)$. Also, define

$$\boldsymbol{b}_n \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{\mathbf{z}}|\boldsymbol{x}_n\right] = [\boldsymbol{m}_n; 1] \tag{344}$$

$$\Omega_{n} \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{\mathbf{z}}\tilde{\mathbf{z}}^{\mathsf{T}}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right] = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}\boldsymbol{z}^{\mathsf{T}}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right] & \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right] \\ \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}\right]^{\mathsf{T}} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(345)

Then the M step is as follows:

$$\hat{\tilde{\mathbf{W}}} = \left[\sum_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \boldsymbol{b}_{n}^{\mathsf{T}}\right] \left[\sum_{n} \boldsymbol{\Omega}_{n}\right]^{-1} \tag{346}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{\Psi}} = \frac{1}{N} \operatorname{diag} \left\{ \sum_{n} \left(\mathbf{x}_{n} - \hat{\mathbf{W}} \mathbf{b}_{n} \right) \mathbf{x}_{n}^{\mathsf{T}} \right\}$$
(347)

It is interesting to apply the above equations to the PPCA case in the limit where $\sigma^2 \to 0$. This provides an alternative way to fit PCA models, as shown by [Row97]. Let $\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}$ be a $L \times N$ matrix storing the posterior means (low-dimensional representations) along its columns. Similarly, let $\tilde{\mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{X}^\mathsf{T}$ be an $D \times N$ matrix storing the original data along its columns. From the PPCA posterior, when $\sigma^2 = 0$, we have

$$\tilde{\mathbf{Z}} = (\mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{W})^{-1}\mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T}\tilde{\mathbf{X}} \tag{348}$$

This constitutes the E step. Notice that this is just an orthogonal projection of the data.

From Equation (346), the M step is given by

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}} = \left[\sum_{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{n} \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}_{n}\right]^{\mathsf{T}}\right] \left[\sum_{n} \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}_{n}\right] \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}_{n}\right]^{\mathsf{T}}\right]^{-1}$$
(349)

where we exploited the fact that $\Sigma = \text{Cov}[z_n|x_n,\theta] = 0$ I when $\sigma^2 = 0$. It is worth comparing this expression to the MLE for multi-output linear regression, which has the form $\mathbf{W} = (\sum_n \mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{x}_n^\mathsf{T})(\sum_n \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{x}_n^\mathsf{T})^{-1}$. Thus we see that the M step is like linear regression where we replace the observed inputs by the expected values of the latent variables.

In summary, here is the entire algorithm:

- E step: $\tilde{\mathbf{Z}} = (\mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{W})^{-1} \mathbf{W}^\mathsf{T} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}$
- M step: $\mathbf{W} = \tilde{\mathbf{X}}\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathsf{T}}(\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}\tilde{\mathbf{Z}}^{\mathsf{T}})^{-1}$

[TB99] showed that the only stable fixed point of the EM algorithm is the globally optimal solution. That is, the EM algorithm converges to a solution where W spans the same linear subspace as that defined by the first L eigenvectors. However, if we want \mathbf{W} to be orthogonal, and to contain the eigenvectors in descending order of eigenvalue, we have to orthogonalize the resulting matrix (which can be done quite cheaply). Alternatively, we can modify EM to give the principal basis directly [AO03].

20.2 EM for mixFA

PRIVATE

We state the results below without proof (the derivation can be found in [GH96]).

In the E step, we compute the posterior responsibility of cluster c for data point n using

$$r_{nc} \triangleq p(s_n = c | \boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto \pi_c \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_n | \boldsymbol{\mu}_c, \mathbf{W}_c \mathbf{W}_c^\mathsf{T} + \boldsymbol{\Psi})$$
(350)

The conditional posterior for z_n is given by

$$p(\boldsymbol{z}_n|\boldsymbol{x}_n, s_n = c, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{z}_n|\boldsymbol{m}_{nc}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{nc})$$
(351)

$$\Sigma_{nc} \triangleq (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{W}_c^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Psi}_c^{-1} \mathbf{W}_c)^{-1} \tag{352}$$

$$\boldsymbol{m}_{nc} \triangleq \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{nc}(\mathbf{W}_c^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\Psi}_c^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}_c))$$
 (353)

For the M step, we define $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_c = (\mathbf{W}_c, \boldsymbol{\mu}_c)$, and $\tilde{\boldsymbol{z}} = (\boldsymbol{z}, 1)$. Also, define

$$\boldsymbol{b}_{nc} \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{\mathbf{z}}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, c_{n} = c\right] = \left[\boldsymbol{m}_{nc}; 1\right] \tag{354}$$

$$\mathbf{\Omega}_{nc} \triangleq \mathbb{E}\left[\tilde{\mathbf{z}}\tilde{\mathbf{z}}^{\mathsf{T}}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, c_{n} = c\right] = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}\boldsymbol{z}^{\mathsf{T}}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, c_{n} = c\right] & \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, c_{n} = c\right] \\ \mathbb{E}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{x}_{n}, c_{n} = c\right]^{\mathsf{T}} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(355)

Then the M step is as follows:

$$\hat{\tilde{\mathbf{W}}}_c = \left[\sum_n r_{nc} \mathbf{x}_n \mathbf{b}_c^{\mathsf{T}}\right] \left[\sum_n r_{nc} \mathbf{\Omega}_{nc}\right]^{-1}$$
(356)

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\Psi}} = \frac{1}{N} \operatorname{diag} \left\{ \sum_{nc} r_{nc} \left(\boldsymbol{x}_n - \hat{\tilde{\mathbf{W}}}_c \boldsymbol{b}_{nc} \right) \boldsymbol{x}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \right\}$$
(357)

$$\hat{\pi}_c = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{r} r_{nc} \tag{358}$$

20.3 Deriving the second principal component

1. Dropping terms that no not involve z_2 we have

$$J = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-2z_{i2} \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} (\mathbf{x}_{i} - z_{i1} \mathbf{v}_{1}) + z_{i2}^{2} \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{2} \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-2z_{i2} \mathbf{v}_{2}^{T} \mathbf{x}_{i} + z_{i2}^{2} \right]$$
(359)

since $\boldsymbol{v}_2^T \boldsymbol{v}_2 = 1$ and $\boldsymbol{v}_1^T \boldsymbol{v}_2 = 0$. Hence

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial z_{i2}} = -2\boldsymbol{v}_2^T \boldsymbol{x}_i + 2z_{i2} = 0 \tag{360}$$

so

$$z_{i2} = \boldsymbol{v}_2^T \boldsymbol{x}_i \tag{361}$$

2. We have

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{J}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_2} = -2\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 + 2\lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \lambda_{12}\mathbf{v}_1 = 0 \tag{362}$$

Premultiplying by v_1^T yields

$$0 = -2\boldsymbol{v}_1^T \mathbf{C} \boldsymbol{v}_2 + 2\lambda_2 \boldsymbol{v}_1^T \boldsymbol{v}_2 + \lambda_{12} \boldsymbol{v}_1^T \boldsymbol{v}_1$$
(363)

Now $v_1^T \mathbf{C} v_2 = v_1^T (\lambda_1 v_2) = 0$, and $v_1^T v_2 = 0$, and $v_1^T v_1 = 1$, so $\lambda_{12} = 0$. Hence

$$0 = -2\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 + 2\lambda_2\mathbf{v}_2 \tag{364}$$

$$\mathbf{C}\mathbf{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \mathbf{v}_2 \tag{365}$$

So v_2 is an eigenvector of \mathbf{C} . Since we want to maximize the variance, we want to pick the eigenvector with the largest eigenvalue, but the first one is already taken. Hence v_2 is the evector with the second largest evalue.

20.4 Deriving the residual error for PCA

PRIVATE

1. From the previous exercise we have

$$(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} - z_{i1}\boldsymbol{v}_{1} - z_{i2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2})^{T}(\boldsymbol{x}_{i} - z_{i1}\boldsymbol{v}_{1} - z_{i2}\boldsymbol{v}_{2}) = \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T}\boldsymbol{x}_{i} - 2z_{i1}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{1} - 2z_{i2}\boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T}\boldsymbol{v}_{2} + z_{i1}^{2} + z_{i2}^{2}$$
(366)

$$= \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i - z_{i1}^2 - z_{i2}^2 \tag{367}$$

$$= \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{v}_1^T \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{v}_1 - \boldsymbol{v}_2^T \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{v}_2$$
 (368)

This generalizes to K > 2 in the obvious way.

2. Hence

$$J_K = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{x}_i - \sum_{j=1}^K \boldsymbol{v}_j^T \boldsymbol{x}_i \boldsymbol{x}_i^T \boldsymbol{v}_j \right)$$
(369)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \sum_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}^{T} (\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T}) \boldsymbol{v}_{j}$$
(370)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \sum_{j} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{C} \boldsymbol{v}_{j}$$

$$(371)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{K} \lambda_{j}$$

$$(372)$$

3. If K = d there is no truncation and $J_d = 0$. Hence

$$0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_{i}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}_{i} - \sum_{j=1}^{K} \lambda_{j} - \sum_{j=K+1}^{d} \lambda_{j} = J_{K} - \sum_{j=K+1}^{d} \lambda_{j}$$
(373)

Hence the residual error arising from only using K < d terms is

$$J_K = \sum_{j=K+1}^d \lambda_j \tag{374}$$

20.5 PCA via successive deflation

1. We have

$$\tilde{\mathbf{C}} = \frac{1}{n} \left[(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) \right]$$
(375)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[(\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) \right]$$
(376)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{v}_1 (\mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}) - (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1^T + \mathbf{v}_1 (\mathbf{v}_1^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1^T \right]$$
(377)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{v}_1 (n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T) - (n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1^T + \mathbf{v}_1 (\mathbf{v}_1^T n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1) \mathbf{v}_1^T \right]$$
(378)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left[\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T - n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T + n\lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T \right]$$
(379)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} - \lambda_1 \mathbf{v}_1 \mathbf{v}_1^T \tag{380}$$

- 2. Since $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}$ lives in the d-1 subspace orthogonal to \mathbf{v}_1 , the vector \mathbf{u} must be orthogonal to \mathbf{v}_1 . Hence $\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{v}_1=0$ and $\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{u}=1$, so $\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{v}_2$.
- 3. We have

```
function [V, lambda] = simplePCA(C, K, f)
d = length(C);
V = zeros(d,K);
for j=1:K
   [lambda(j), V(:,j) = f(C);
   C = C - lambda(j)*V(:,j)*V(:,j)'; % deflation
end
```

20.6 PPCA variance terms

Define $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{\Lambda}_K - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{\frac{1}{2}}$.

1. We have

$$v^{T}Cv = v^{T}(UARR^{T}A^{T}U^{T} + \sigma^{2}I)v = v^{T}\sigma^{2}Iv = \sigma^{2}$$
(381)

2. We have

$$\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_i^T (\mathbf{U} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{U}^T + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{u}_i$$
 (382)

$$= \boldsymbol{u}_i^T \mathbf{U} (\boldsymbol{\Lambda} - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{U}^T \boldsymbol{u}_i + \sigma^2$$
(383)

$$= \mathbf{e}_i^T (\mathbf{\Lambda} - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{e}_i + \sigma^2 = \lambda_i - \sigma^2 + \sigma^2$$
(384)

20.7 Posterior inference in PPCA

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Using Bayes rule for Gaussians with the substitutions $\Lambda = I$, $L^{-1} = \sigma^2 I$, A = W, $b = \mu$, $\mu = 0$, we have

$$\operatorname{Cov}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{y}\right] = (\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{W}^{T} \frac{1}{\sigma^{2}} \boldsymbol{w})^{-1} = \left[\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}} (\sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{W}^{T} \mathbf{W})\right]^{-1} = \sigma^{2} \mathbf{M}^{-1}$$
(385)

and

$$\mathbb{E}[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{y}] = \operatorname{Cov}\left[\boldsymbol{z}|\boldsymbol{y}\right] \left(\mathbf{W}^{T} \sigma^{-2} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right) = \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{W}^{T} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$
(386)

20.8 Imputation in a FA model

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Letting $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^T + \mathbf{\Psi}$, we have

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}_h|\boldsymbol{x}_v,\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_h|\boldsymbol{\mu}_h + \mathbf{C}_{hv}\mathbf{C}_{vv}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}_v - \boldsymbol{\mu}_v), \mathbf{C}_{hh} - \mathbf{C}_{hv}\mathbf{C}_{vv}^{-1}\mathbf{C}_{vh})$$
(387)

20.9 Efficiently evaluating the PPCA density

Since C is not full rank, we can use matrix inversion lemma to invert it efficiently:

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{W} \left(\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{W} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \right) \mathbf{W}^T \right]$$
 (388)

Plugging in the MLE we find

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_K (\mathbf{\Lambda}_K - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{\frac{1}{2}} \tag{389}$$

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{U}_K (\mathbf{\Lambda}_K - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \mathbf{\Lambda}_K^{-1} \mathbf{U}_K^T \right]$$
 (390)

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \left[\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{U}_K \mathbf{J} \mathbf{U}_K^T \right]$$

$$\mathbf{J} = \operatorname{diag}(1 - \sigma^2 / \lambda_j)$$
(391)

$$\mathbf{J} = \operatorname{diag}(1 - \sigma^2/\lambda_j) \tag{392}$$

Similarly it can be shown that

$$\log |\mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^T + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}| = (d - K)\log \sigma^2 + \sum_{i=1}^K \log \lambda_i$$
(393)