

ECE521 Tutorial 2

Regression, GPs, Assignment 1

ECE521 Winter 2016

Credits to Alireza Makhzani, Alex Schwing, Rich Zemel for the slides.

Outline

- 1 Linear regression, knn
- 2 Linear classification
- 3 Overview of Gaussian Processes

Types of Learning

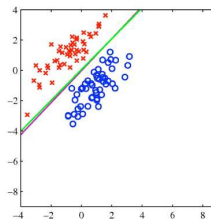
Consider observing a series of input vectors:

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{x}_4, \dots$$

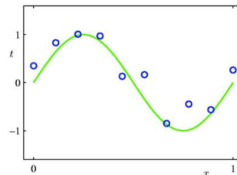
- **Supervised Learning:** We are also given **target outputs (labels, responses)**: y_1, y_2, \dots , and the goal is to predict correct output given a new input.
- **Unsupervised Learning:** The goal is to build a statistical model of \mathbf{x} , which can be used for making predictions, decisions.
- **Reinforcement Learning:** the model (agent) produces a set of actions: a_1, a_2, \dots that affect the state of the world, and received rewards r_1, r_2, \dots . The goal is to learn actions that maximize the reward (we will not cover this topic in this course).
- **Semi-supervised Learning:** We are given only a limited amount of labels, but lots of unlabeled data.

Supervised Learning

Classification: target outputs y_i are discrete class labels. The goal is to correctly classify new inputs.



Regression: target outputs y_i are continuous. The goal is to predict the output given new inputs.



Handwritten Digit Classification

0 0 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 2

2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3

3 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 5

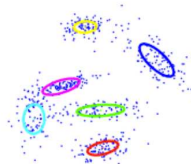
6 6 7 7 7 7 8 8 8

8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9

Unsupervised Learning

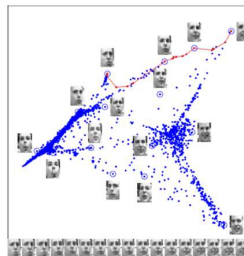
The goal is to construct statistical model that finds useful representation of data:

- Clustering
- Dimensionality reduction
- Modeling the data density
- Finding hidden causes (useful explanation) of the data



Unsupervised Learning can be used for:

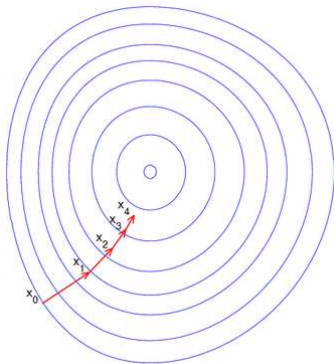
- Structure discovery
- Anomaly detection / Outlier detection
- Data compression, Data visualization
- Used to aid classification/regression tasks



Gradient Descent Algorithm

Gradient descent is based on the observation that a function decreases fastest if one goes in the direction of negative gradient.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \mu_n \nabla f(x_n)$$



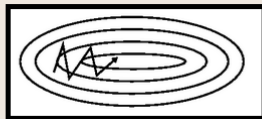
Momentum

Momentum simply adds a fraction m of the previous weight update to the current one.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_k &= m_k \mathbf{v}_{k-1} - \eta_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) \\ \mathbf{x}_{k+1} &= \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{v}_k \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$



(Fig. 2a)



(Fig. 2b)

Validation Set

If the data is plentiful, we can divide the dataset into three subsets:

- **Training Data:** used to fitting/learning the parameters of the model.
- **Validation Data:** not used for learning but for selecting the model, or choosing the amount of regularization that works best.
- **Test Data:** used to get performance of the final model.

K-nearest neighbour

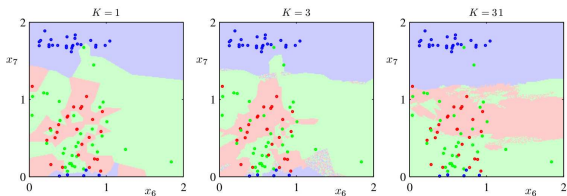
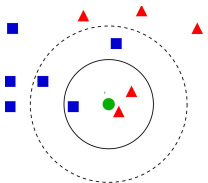


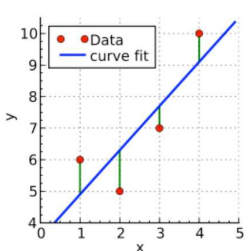
Figure 2.28 Plot of 200 data points from the oil data set showing values of x_6 plotted against x_7 , where the red, green, and blue points correspond to the 'laminar', 'annular', and 'homogeneous' classes, respectively. Also shown are the classifications of the input space given by the K -nearest-neighbour algorithm for various values of K .

Linear Least Squares

- Given a vector of d-dimensional inputs $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)^T$, we want to predict the target (response) using the linear model:

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_dx_d = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^d w_jx_j.$$

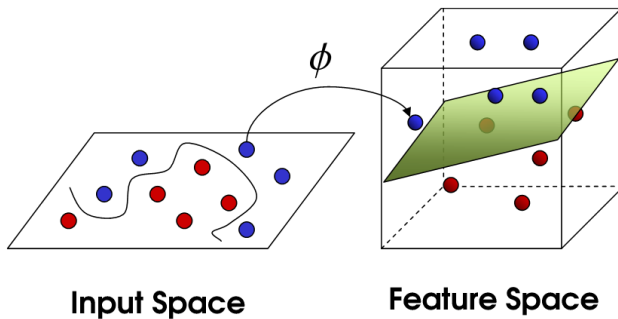
One option is to minimize **the sum of the squares of the errors** between the predictions $y(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w})$ for each data point \mathbf{x}_n and the corresponding real-valued targets t_n .



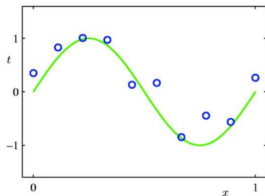
Loss function: sum-of-squared error function:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathbf{w}) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N (\mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{w} - t_n)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t})^T (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{t}). \end{aligned}$$

Nonlinearity

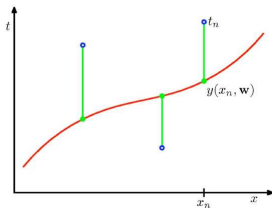


Polynomial Curve Fitting



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

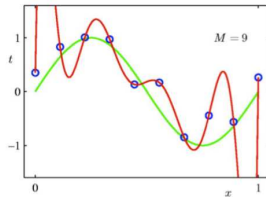
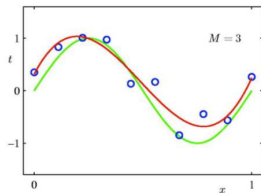
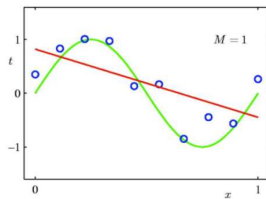
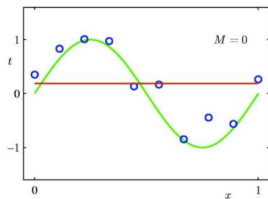
Note: the polynomial function is a nonlinear function of x , but it is a linear function of the coefficients $\mathbf{w} \rightarrow$ **Linear Models**.



Loss function: sum-of-squared error function:

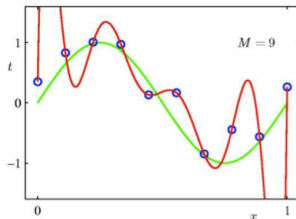
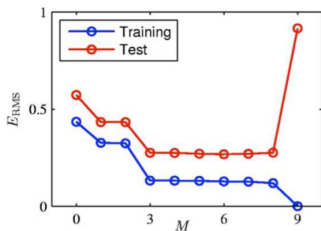
$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N (y(x_i, \mathbf{w}) - t_i)^2.$$

Some Fits to the Data



Overfitting

- Consider a separate **test set** containing 100 new data points generated using the same procedure that was used to generate the training data.

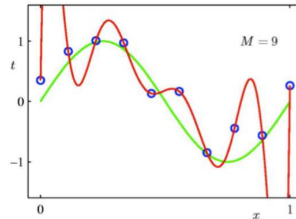


Generalization

- The goal is achieve good **generalization** by making accurate predictions for new test data that is not known during learning.
- Choosing the values of parameters that minimize the loss function on the training data may not be the best option.
- We would like to model the true regularities in the data and ignore the noise in the data:
 - It is hard to know which regularities are real and which are accidental due to the particular training examples we happen to pick.

Overfitting

	$M = 0$	$M = 1$	$M = 3$	$M = 9$
w_0^*	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1^*		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2^*			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3^*			17.37	48568.31
w_4^*				-231639.30
w_5^*				640042.26
w_6^*				-1061800.52
w_7^*				1042400.18
w_8^*				-557682.99
w_9^*				125201.43



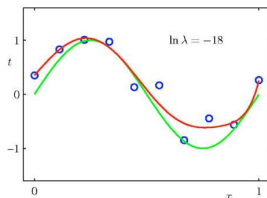
- As M increases, the magnitude of coefficients gets larger.
- For $M=9$, the coefficients have become finely tuned to the data.
- Between data points, the function exhibits large oscillations.

More flexible polynomials with larger M tune to the random noise on the target values.

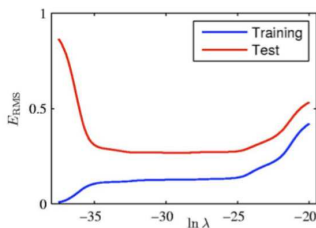
Preventing Overfitting

penalized error function target value regularization parameter

$$\tilde{E}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N \{y(x_n, \mathbf{w}) - t_n\}^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$



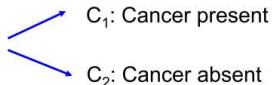
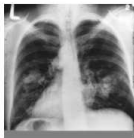
Regularization



	$\ln \lambda = -\infty$	$\ln \lambda = -18$	$\ln \lambda = 0$
w_0^*	0.35	0.35	0.13
w_1^*	232.37	4.74	-0.05
w_2^*	-5321.83	-0.77	-0.06
w_3^*	48568.31	-31.97	-0.05
w_4^*	-231639.30	-3.89	-0.03
w_5^*	640042.26	55.28	-0.02
w_6^*	-1061800.52	41.32	-0.01
w_7^*	1042400.18	-45.95	-0.00
w_8^*	-557682.99	-91.53	0.00
w_9^*	125201.43	72.68	0.01

Classification

- The goal of classification is to assign an input \mathbf{x} into one of K discrete classes C_k , where $k=1,\dots,K$.
- Typically, each input is assigned only to one class.
- **Example:** The input vector \mathbf{x} is the set of pixel intensities, and the output variable t will represent the presence of cancer, class C_1 , or absence of cancer, class C_2 .



\mathbf{x} -- set of pixel intensities

K-nearest neighbour

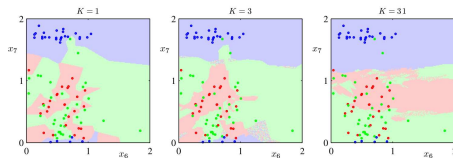
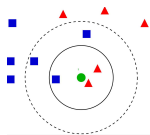


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$$P(C_k) = \frac{K_k}{K}$$

Linear Classification

- The goal of classification is to assign an input \mathbf{x} into one of K discrete classes C_k , where $k=1,\dots,K$.
- The input space is divided into decision regions whose boundaries are called **decision boundaries** or **decision surfaces**.
- We will consider linear models for classification. Remember, in the simplest linear regression case, **the model is linear in parameters**:

$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + w_0.$$

adaptive parameters



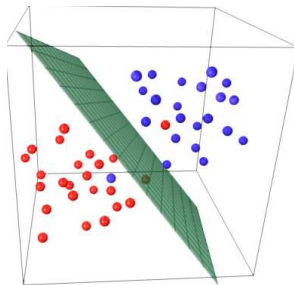
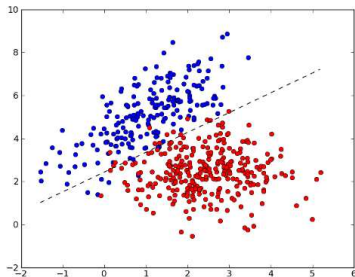
$$y(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = f(\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + w_0).$$

fixed nonlinear function:
activation function



- For classification, we need to predict discrete class labels, or posterior probabilities that lie in the range of $(0,1)$, so we use a nonlinear function.

Linear Classification



$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w} + w_0 = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2$$

Linear regression for classification

Least Squares for Classification

- Consider a general classification problem with K classes using 1-of- K encoding scheme for the target vector \mathbf{t} .
- Remember: **Least Squares approximates the conditional expectation** $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{t}|\mathbf{x}]$.
- Each class is described by its own linear model:

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}_k + w_{k0}, \text{ where } k = 1, \dots, K.$$

- Using vector notation, we can write:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{\mathbf{W}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}}$$

$(D+1) \times K$ matrix whose k^{th} column comprises of $D+1$ dimensional vector:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{w}}_k = (w_{k0}, \mathbf{w}_k^T)^T.$$

corresponding augmented input vector:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (1, \mathbf{x}^T)^T.$$

Linear regression for classification

Least Squares for Classification

- Consider observing a dataset $\{\mathbf{x}_n, t_n\}$, where $n=1, \dots, N$.
- We have already seen how to do least squares. Using some matrix algebra, we obtain the **optimal weights**:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{W}} = (\tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{X}})^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}^T \mathbf{T}$$

Optimal weights

$N \times (D+1)$ input matrix whose n^{th} row is $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}_n^T$.

$N \times K$ target matrix whose n^{th} row is t_n^T .

- A new input \mathbf{x} is assigned to a class for which $y_k = \tilde{\mathbf{x}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{w}}_k$ is largest.
- There are however several problems when using least squares for classification.

Methods for Regression

We are given n data points \mathbf{x} and corresponding regression targets y :

$$\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$$

Two approaches

- 1 Restrict the class of functions (e.g., only linear)
- 2 Assign a probability to every possible function

1. Restrict the class of functions (e.g., only linear)

- Use data to learn the parameters \mathbf{w} of a parametric model $p(y \mid \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w})$
- Use parameters and test data \mathbf{x}_* to obtain prediction $y_* = \arg \max_y p(y \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w})$

Examples:

- Logistic regression
- Support vector machine
- Neural networks

Problem: How to find the right model?

2. Assign a probability to every possible function

- Use data to design a posterior $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})$
- Use posterior and test data \mathbf{x}_* to obtain predictive distribution (average over all models)

$$p(y_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \int p(y_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{w}$$

Note difference to non-Bayesian approach: single parameter vs. averaging

Problem: How to assign a value to every possible function?

Solution: Gaussian Processes

Weight-space view: Bayesian treatment of linear model

Dataset:

$$\mathcal{D} = \left\{ \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y_i \right\}_{i=1}^N \quad \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^D, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \left[\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(N)} \right], \quad \mathbf{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_N]^\top$$

Given \mathcal{D} we now

- Compute posterior $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})$
- Compute predictive distribution $p(\mathbf{y}_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$

Posterior for standard linear model

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon \quad f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{w} \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$$

Likelihood:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) &= \prod_i p(y_i \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{w}) \\ &= \prod_i \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_n^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_n^2}(y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma_n^2)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_n^2}\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{w}\|_2^2\right) \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I}) \end{aligned}$$

Prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_p)$$

Posterior for standard linear model

Likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I})$$

Prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_p)$$

Expression for posterior:

$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})}{p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X})}$$

Expression for marginal likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}) = \int p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})d\mathbf{w}$$

Posterior for standard linear model

Recall: Bayes' Theorem for multivariate Gaussian

$$\text{Given } p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$

$$p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1})$$

$$\text{We obtain } p(\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^\top)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}), \boldsymbol{\Gamma})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Gamma} = (\boldsymbol{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{L} \mathbf{A})^{-1}$$

In our case:

$$p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_p)$$

Posterior:

$$p(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}\right) \quad \boldsymbol{\Gamma} = \left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_p^{-1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top\right)^{-1}$$

Posterior for standard linear model

$$p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\Gamma}\right) \quad \mathbf{\Gamma} = \left(\mathbf{\Sigma}_p^{-1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top\right)^{-1}$$

For Gaussian distributions: mean = mode (MAP estimate)

Note similarity to Ridge regression

Given \mathcal{D} we managed to

- Compute posterior $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X})$

We still need to

- Compute predictive distribution

$$p(\mathbf{y}_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{w}$$

Predictive distribution

Recall: Bayes' Theorem for multivariate Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Given} \quad p(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}) \\ p(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{x}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{Ax} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{We obtain} \quad p(\mathbf{y}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}\boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{A}^\top) \\ p(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y}) &= \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\Gamma}(\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{L}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}) + \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\boldsymbol{\mu}), \boldsymbol{\Gamma}) \\ \boldsymbol{\Gamma} &= (\boldsymbol{\Lambda} + \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{L} \mathbf{A})^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

Prediction: average over all parameter values, weighted by posterior

$$\begin{aligned}p(y_* | \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) &= \int p(y_* | \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \int \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_*^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2) \mathcal{N}(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\Gamma}) d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \mathcal{N}(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{x}_*^\top \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \sigma_n^2 + \mathbf{x}_*^\top \boldsymbol{\Gamma} \mathbf{x}_*)\end{aligned}$$

Summary:

- Prior: $p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}_p)$
- Likelihood: $p(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I})$
- Posterior: $p(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{\Gamma})$ with

$$\mathbf{\Gamma} = \left(\mathbf{\Sigma}_p^{-1} + \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top \right)^{-1}$$

- Predictive distribution:

$$p(y_* \mid \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{x}_*^\top \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}, \sigma_n^2 + \mathbf{x}_*^\top \mathbf{\Gamma} \mathbf{x}_*\right)$$

Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

$$\begin{aligned} p(x_1, \dots, x_n \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) &= p(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det(\boldsymbol{\Lambda})^{-1}}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Lambda} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \right) \\ &= p(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1}) \end{aligned}$$

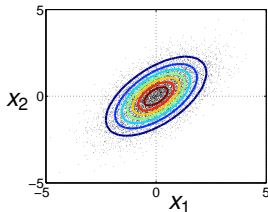
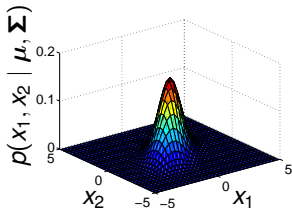
\mathbf{x} $\in \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ $\in \mathbb{R}^n$: mean vector
 $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ $\in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: covariance matrix
 $\boldsymbol{\Lambda} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}$ $\in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$: precision matrix

Short hand:

$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1})$$

Samples:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{1/2} \cdot \text{randn}(2, 10000) + \boldsymbol{\mu}$$



How do the plots look like if x_1 and x_2 are independent random variables? What are the entries of the covariance matrix?

Tools to deal with Gaussian distributions

Completing the square:

$$-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^\top \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu} + \text{const}$$

- express a given quadratic form as shown on the right hand side
- read off $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}$ and $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

Example to practice completing the square:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right)$$

Suppose \mathbf{x}_b given, what is $p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b)$?

$$\begin{aligned} & -\frac{1}{2} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix} \right)^\top \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix} \right) = \\ & -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}_a^\top \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} \mathbf{x}_a + \mathbf{x}_a^\top (\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} (\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b)) + \text{const} \end{aligned}$$

- Covariance: $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1}$
- Mean: $\boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} (\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b)$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} (\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b), \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1})$$

Express $p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b), \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1})$ in terms of covariance matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix identity:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{M} & -\mathbf{M}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{M} & \mathbf{D}^{-1} + \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

with

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

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba})^{-1}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} = -(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_a + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba})$$

Conditioning of Multivariate Gaussian

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_a \\ \mathbf{x}_b \end{bmatrix} &\sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{bb} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \right) \\ &\sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_a \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_b \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \\ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba} & \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb} \end{bmatrix} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Conditional:

$$\begin{aligned}p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b) &= \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_a - \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{ab}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b), \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_{aa}^{-1}) \\ p(\mathbf{x}_a | \mathbf{x}_b) &= \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_a + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_b - \boldsymbol{\mu}_b), \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{aa} - \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ab} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{bb}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{ba})\end{aligned}$$

- `tf.argmax(input, axis=None, name=None, dimension=None)`, `tf.argmin(input, axis=None, name=None, dimension=None)` can find the indices of the biggest/smallest elements in the tensor.
- `tf.nn.embedding_lookup(params, ids, partition_strategy='mod', name=None, validate_indices=True, max_norm=None)` can look up ids in a list of tensors.
- `matplotlib` is a package for generating plots similar to Matlab. `Pyplot` is a useful subpackage under `matplotlib`.