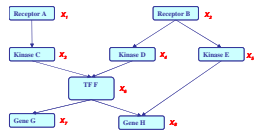


Factor Analysis and State Space Models

Probabilistic Graphical Models (10-708)

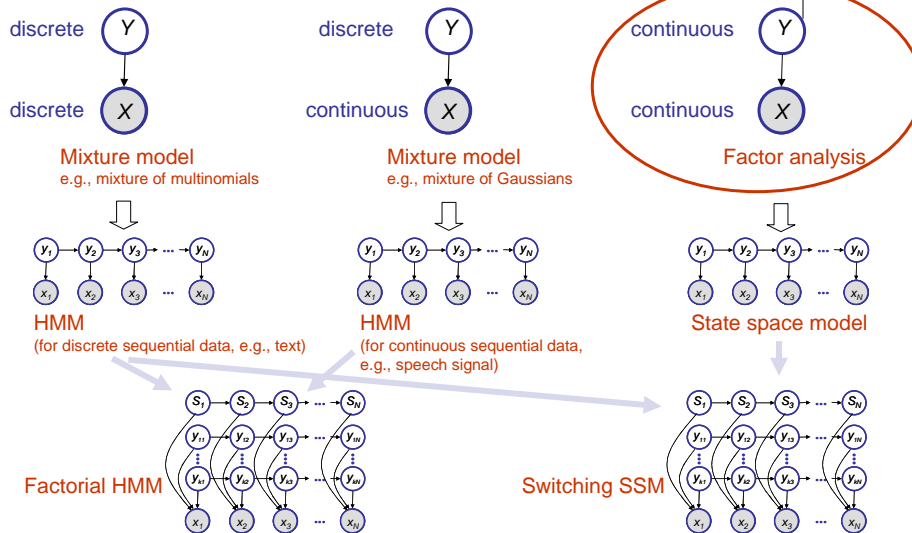
Lecture 13, Oct 31, 2007



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Reading: J-Chap. 13,14

A road map to more complex dynamic models



Review: A primer to multivariate Gaussian



- Multivariate Gaussian density:

$$p(\mathbf{x} | \mu, \Sigma) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right\}$$

- A joint Gaussian:

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} | \mu, \Sigma\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} | \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

- How to write down $p(\mathbf{x}_1)$, $p(\mathbf{x}_1|\mathbf{x}_2)$ or $p(\mathbf{x}_2|\mathbf{x}_1)$ using the block elements in μ and Σ ?

- Formulas to remember:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{m}_2^m, \mathbf{V}_2^m)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_2^m = \mu_2$$

$$\mathbf{V}_2^m = \Sigma_{22}$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_1|\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{m}_{12}, \mathbf{V}_{12})$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{12} = \mu_1 + \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mu_2)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{12} = \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}\Sigma_{21}$$

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Review: The matrix inverse lemma



- Consider a block-partitioned matrix: $M = \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix}$

- First we diagonalize M

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & -FH^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -H^{-1}G & I \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E-FH^{-1}G & 0 \\ 0 & H \end{bmatrix}$$

- Schur complement: $M/H = E-FH^{-1}G$

- Then we inverse, using this formula: $XYZ = W \Rightarrow Y^{-1} = ZW^{-1}X$

$$\begin{aligned} M^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \\ -H^{-1}G & I \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (M/H)^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & H^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I & -FH^{-1} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} (M/H)^{-1} & -(M/H)^{-1}FH^{-1} \\ -H^{-1}G(M/H)^{-1} & H^{-1} + H^{-1}G(M/H)^{-1}FH^{-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} E^{-1} + E^{-1}F(M/E)^{-1}GE^{-1} & -E^{-1}F(M/E)^{-1} \\ -(M/E)^{-1}GE^{-1} & (M/E)^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- Matrix inverse lemma

$$(E-FH^{-1}G)^{-1} = E^{-1} + E^{-1}F(H-GE^{-1}F)^{-1}GE^{-1}$$

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Review: Some matrix algebra



- Trace and derivatives $\text{tr}[A] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_i a_{ii}$
 - Cyclical permutations

$$\text{tr}[ABC] = \text{tr}[CAB] = \text{tr}[BCA]$$

- Derivatives

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial A} \text{tr}[BA] = B^T$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial A} \text{tr}[x^T Ax] = \frac{\partial}{\partial A} \text{tr}[xx^T A] = xx^T$$

- Determinants and derivatives

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial A} \log|A| = A^{-T}$$

Factor analysis



- An unsupervised linear regression model

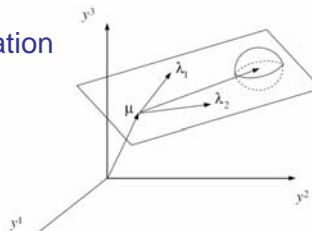


$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{0}, I)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mu + \Lambda \mathbf{x}, \Psi)$$

where Λ is called a factor loading matrix, and Ψ is diagonal.

- Geometric interpretation

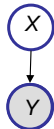


- To generate data, first generate a point within the manifold then add noise. Coordinates of point are components of latent variable.

Marginal data distribution



- A marginal Gaussian (e.g., $p(\mathbf{x})$) times a conditional Gaussian (e.g., $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x})$) is a joint Gaussian
- Any marginal (e.g., $p(\mathbf{y})$) of a joint Gaussian (e.g., $p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y})$) is also a Gaussian
 - Since the marginal is Gaussian, we can determine it by just computing its mean and variance. (Assume noise uncorrelated with data.)



$$\begin{aligned}
 E[\mathbf{Y}] &= E[\mu + \Lambda \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W}] \quad \text{where } \mathbf{W} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Psi) \\
 &= \mu + \Lambda E[\mathbf{X}] + E[\mathbf{W}] \\
 &= \mu + \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mu \\
 \text{Var}[\mathbf{Y}] &= E[(\mathbf{Y} - \mu)(\mathbf{Y} - \mu)^T] \\
 &= E[(\mu + \Lambda \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W} - \mu)(\mu + \Lambda \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W} - \mu)^T] \\
 &= E[(\Lambda \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W})(\Lambda \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W})^T] \\
 &= \Lambda E[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T] \Lambda^T + E[\mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^T] \\
 &= \Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi
 \end{aligned}$$

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FA = Constrained-Covariance Gaussian

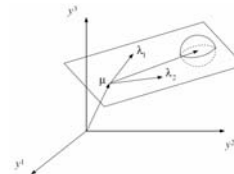


- Marginal density for factor analysis (\mathbf{y} is p -dim, \mathbf{x} is k -dim):

$$p(\mathbf{y} | \theta) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mu, \Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi)$$

- So the effective covariance is the low-rank outer product of two long skinny matrices plus a diagonal matrix:

$$\text{Cov}[\mathbf{y}] = \Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi$$



- In other words, factor analysis is just a constrained Gaussian model. (If Ψ were not diagonal then we could model any Gaussian and it would be pointless.)

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FA joint distribution

- Model

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{0}, I)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mu + \Lambda\mathbf{x}, \Psi)$$

- Covariance between \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y}

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cov}[\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}] &= E[(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{0})(\mathbf{Y} - \mu)^T] = E[\mathbf{X}(\mu + \Lambda\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{W} - \mu)^T] \\ &= E[\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T\Lambda^T + \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}^T] \\ &= \Lambda^T \end{aligned}$$

- Hence the joint distribution of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} :

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} \middle| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mu \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} I & \Lambda^T \\ \Lambda & \Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

- Assume noise is uncorrelated with data or latent variables.

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Inference in Factor Analysis

- Apply the Gaussian conditioning formulas to the joint distribution we derived above, where

$$\Sigma_{11} = I$$

$$\Sigma_{12} = \Sigma_{12}^T = \Lambda^T$$

$$\Sigma_{22} = (\Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi)$$

we can now derive the posterior of the latent variable \mathbf{x} given observation \mathbf{y} , $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{m}_{12}, \mathbf{V}_{12})$, where

$$\mathbf{m}_{12} = \mu_1 + \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu_2)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{12} = \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}\Sigma_{21}$$

$$= \Lambda^T(\Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi)^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu)$$

$$= I - \Lambda^T(\Lambda\Lambda^T + \Psi)^{-1}\Lambda$$

Applying the matrix inversion lemma $(E - FH^{-1}G)^{-1} = E^{-1} + E^{-1}F(H - GE^{-1}F)^{-1}GE^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{V}_{12} = (I + \Lambda^T\Psi^{-1}\Lambda)^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{12} = \mathbf{V}_{12}\Lambda^T\Psi^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu)$$

- Here we only need to invert a matrix of size $|\mathbf{x}| \times |\mathbf{x}|$, instead of $|\mathbf{y}| \times |\mathbf{y}|$.

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Geometric interpretation: inference is linear projection

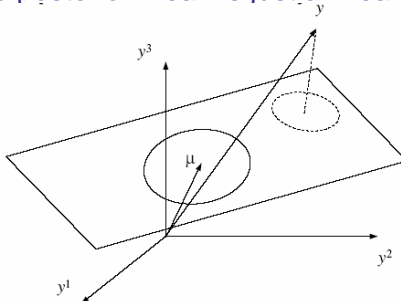


- The posterior is:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{m}_{12}, \mathbf{V}_{12})$$

$$\mathbf{V}_{12} = (\mathbf{I} + \Lambda^T \Psi^{-1} \Lambda)^{-1} \quad \mathbf{m}_{12} = \mathbf{V}_{12} \Lambda^T \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mu)$$

- Posterior covariance does not depend on observed data \mathbf{y} !
- Computing the posterior mean is just a linear operation:



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EM for Factor Analysis



- Incomplete data log likelihood function (marginal density of \mathbf{y})

$$\begin{aligned} \ell(\theta, \mathcal{D}) &= -\frac{N}{2} \log |\Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n - \mu)^T (\Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi)^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_n - \mu) \\ &= -\frac{N}{2} \log |\Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} [(\Lambda \Lambda^T + \Psi)^{-1} \mathbf{S}], \quad \text{where } \mathbf{S} = \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n - \mu)(\mathbf{y}_n - \mu)^T \end{aligned}$$

- Estimating \mathbf{m} is trivial: $\hat{\mu}^{ML} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n \mathbf{y}_n$
- Parameters Λ and Ψ are coupled nonlinearly in log-likelihood
- Complete log likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_c(\theta, \mathcal{D}) &= \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{y}_n) = \sum_n \log p(\mathbf{x}_n) + \log p(\mathbf{y}_n | \mathbf{x}_n) \\ &= -\frac{N}{2} \log |I| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n - \frac{N}{2} \log |\Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n - \Lambda \mathbf{x}_n)^T \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_n - \Lambda \mathbf{x}_n) \\ &= -\frac{N}{2} \log |\Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \text{tr} [\mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T] - \frac{N}{2} \text{tr} [\mathbf{S} \Psi^{-1}], \quad \text{where } \mathbf{S} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n - \Lambda \mathbf{x}_n)(\mathbf{y}_n - \Lambda \mathbf{x}_n)^T \end{aligned}$$

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E-step for Factor Analysis



- Compute $\langle \ell_c(\theta, \mathcal{D}) \rangle_{p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y})}$

$$\langle \ell_c(\theta, \mathcal{D}) \rangle = -\frac{N}{2} \log |\Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle] - \frac{N}{2} \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \Psi^{-1}]$$

$$\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{y}_n^T - \mathbf{y}_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \Lambda^T - \Lambda \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \mathbf{y}_n^T + \Lambda \langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \Lambda^T)$$

$$\langle \mathbf{X}_n \rangle = E[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{y}_n]$$

$$\langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle = \text{Var}[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{y}_n] + E[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{y}_n] E[\mathbf{X}_n | \mathbf{y}_n]^T$$

- Recall that we have derived:

$$\mathbf{V}_{1|2} = (\mathbf{I} + \Lambda^T \Psi^{-1} \Lambda)^{-1} \quad \mathbf{m}_{1|2} = \mathbf{V}_{1|2} \Lambda^T \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{X}_n \rangle = \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{y}_n} = \mathbf{V}_{1|2} \Lambda^T \Psi^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \quad \text{and} \quad \langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle = \mathbf{V}_{1|2} + \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{y}_n} \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{x}_n | \mathbf{y}_n}^T$$

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M-step for Factor Analysis



- Take the derivatives of the expected complete log likelihood wrt. parameters.
 - Using the trace and determinant derivative rules:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Psi^{-1}} \langle \ell_c \rangle &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \Psi^{-1}} \left(-\frac{N}{2} \log |\Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle] - \frac{N}{2} \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \Psi^{-1}] \right) \\ &= \frac{N}{2} \Psi - \frac{N}{2} \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Psi^{t+1} = \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} \langle \ell_c \rangle &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} \left(-\frac{N}{2} \log |\Psi| - \frac{1}{2} \sum_n \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle] - \frac{N}{2} \text{tr}[\langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \Psi^{-1}] \right) = -\frac{N}{2} \Psi^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} \langle \mathbf{S} \rangle \\ &= -\frac{N}{2} \Psi^{-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_n (\mathbf{y}_n \mathbf{y}_n^T - \mathbf{y}_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \Lambda^T - \Lambda \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \mathbf{y}_n^T + \Lambda \langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \Lambda^T) \right) \\ &= \Psi^{-1} \sum_n \mathbf{y}_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle - \Psi^{-1} \Lambda \sum_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Lambda^{t+1} = \left(\sum_n \mathbf{y}_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \right) \left(\sum_n \langle \mathbf{X}_n \mathbf{X}_n^T \rangle \right)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

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Model Invariance and Identifiability

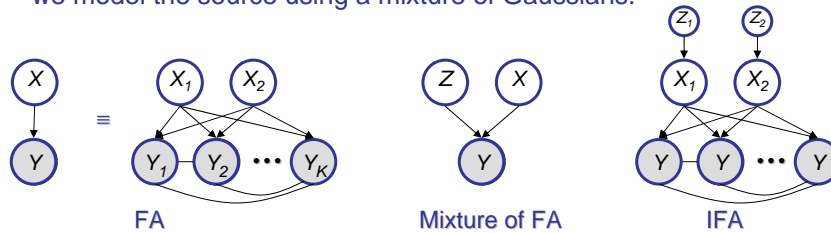


- There is *degeneracy* in the FA model.
- Since Λ only appears as outer product $\Lambda\Lambda^T$, the model is invariant to rotation and axis flips of the latent space.
- We can replace Λ with ΛQ for any orthonormal matrix Q and the model remains the same: $(\Lambda Q)(\Lambda Q)^T = \Lambda(QQ^T)\Lambda^T = \Lambda\Lambda^T$.
- This means that there is no “one best” setting of the parameters. An infinite number of parameters all give the ML score!
- Such models are called *un-identifiable* since two people both fitting ML parameters to the identical data will not be guaranteed to identify the same parameters.

Independent Components Analysis (ICA)



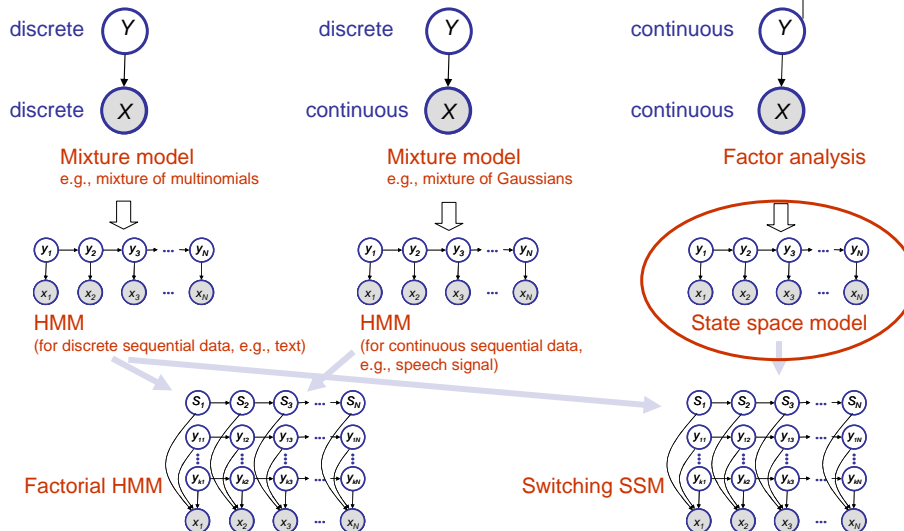
- ICA is similar to FA, except it assumes the latent source has non-Gaussian density.
- Hence ICA can extract higher order moments (not just second order).
- It is commonly used to solve blind source separation (cocktail party problem).
- Independent Factor Analysis (IFA) is an approximation to ICA where we model the source using a mixture of Gaussians.



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A road map to more complex dynamic models



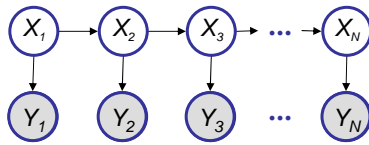
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State space models (SSM)



- A sequential FA or a continuous state HMM



$$\mathbf{x}_t = A\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + G\mathbf{w}_t$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = C\mathbf{x}_{t-1} + V_t$$

$$\mathbf{w}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}; Q), \quad v_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}; R)$$

$$\mathbf{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}; \Sigma_0),$$

This is a linear dynamic system.

- In general,

$$\mathbf{x}_t = f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) + G\mathbf{w}_t$$

$$\mathbf{y}_t = g(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) + V_t$$

where f is an (arbitrary) dynamic model, and g is an (arbitrary) observation model

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The inference problem



- Filtering \rightarrow given $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t$, estimate x_t
 - The Kalman filter is a way to perform exact online inference (sequential Bayesian updating) in an LDS. It is the Gaussian analog of the forwards algorithm for HMMs:

$$p(X_t = i | \mathbf{y}_{1:t}) = \alpha_t^i \propto p(y_t | X_t = i) \sum_j p(X_t = i | X_{t-1} = j) \alpha_{t-1}^j$$

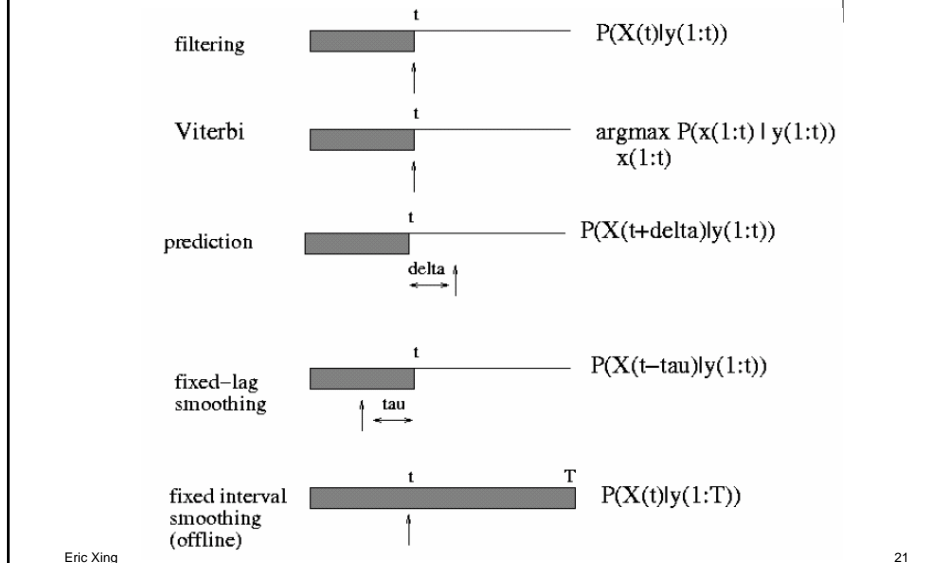
- Smoothing \rightarrow given $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_T$, estimate x_t ($t < T$)
 - The Rauch-Tung-Strievel smoother is a way to perform exact off-line inference in an LDS. It is the Gaussian analog of the forwards-backwards algorithm:

$$p(X_t = i | \mathbf{y}_{1:T}) \propto \alpha_t^i \beta_t^i$$

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Online vs offline inference



LDS for 2D tracking



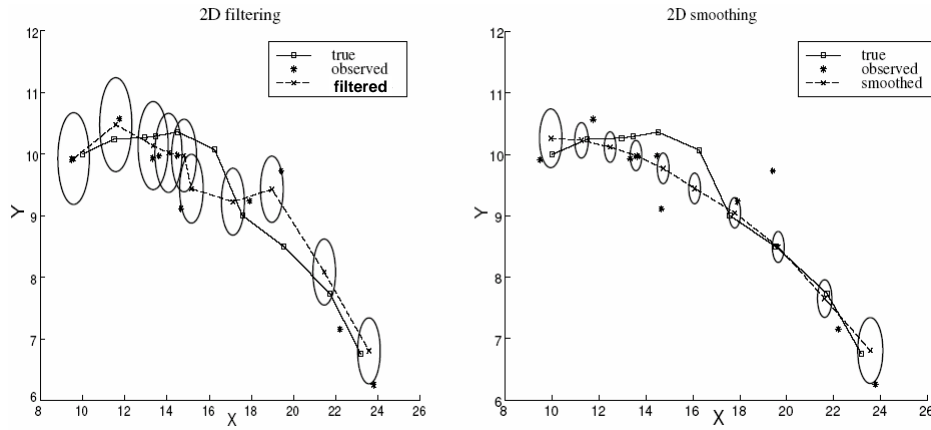
- Dynamics: new position = old position + $\Delta \times$ velocity + noise (constant velocity model, Gaussian noise)

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_t^1 \\ x_t^2 \\ \dot{x}_t^1 \\ \dot{x}_t^2 \end{pmatrix} = \Delta \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_{t-1}^1 \\ x_{t-1}^2 \\ \dot{x}_{t-1}^1 \\ \dot{x}_{t-1}^2 \end{pmatrix} + \text{noise}$$

- Observation: project out first two components (we observe Cartesian position of object - linear!)

$$\begin{pmatrix} y_t^1 \\ y_t^2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_t^1 \\ x_t^2 \\ \dot{x}_t^1 \\ \dot{x}_t^2 \end{pmatrix} + \text{noise}$$

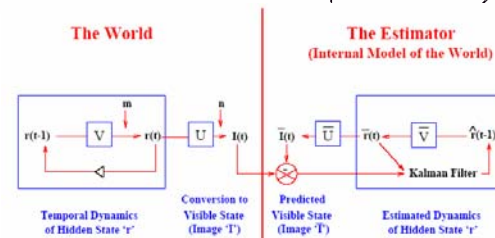
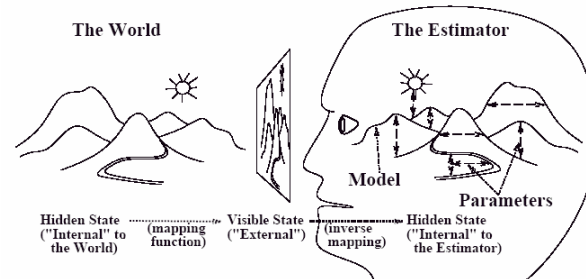
2D tracking



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Kalman filtering in the brain?



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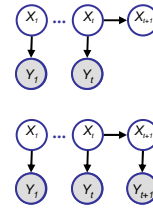
Kalman filtering derivation



- Since all CPDs are linear Gaussian, the system defines a large multivariate Gaussian.
 - Hence all marginals are Gaussian.
 - Hence we can represent the belief state $p(\mathbf{X}_t | \mathbf{y}_{1:t})$ as a Gaussian with mean $\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|t} \equiv E(\mathbf{X}_t | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t)$ and covariance $P_{t|t} \equiv E(\mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t^T | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t)$.
 - It is common to work with the inverse covariance (precision) matrix $P_{t|t}^{-1}$; this is called information form.

- Kalman filtering is a recursive procedure to update the belief state:

- Predict step: compute $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t})$ from prior belief $p(\mathbf{X}_t | \mathbf{y}_{1:t})$ and dynamical model $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} | \mathbf{X}_t)$ --- **time update**
- Update step: compute new belief $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t+1})$ from prediction $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t})$, observation \mathbf{y}_{t+1} and observation model $p(\mathbf{y}_{t+1} | \mathbf{X}_{t+1})$ --- **measurement update**



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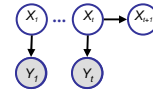
Predict step



- Dynamical Model: $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = A\mathbf{x}_t + G\mathbf{w}_t$, $\mathbf{w}_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0; Q)$

- One step ahead prediction of state:

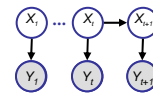
$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t} &= E(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t) = A\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|t} \\ P_{t+1|t} &= E(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})^T | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t \\ &= E(A\mathbf{X}_t + G\mathbf{w}_t - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})(A\mathbf{X}_t + G\mathbf{w}_t - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})^T | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t \\ &= AP_{t|t}A + GQG^T \end{aligned}$$



- Observation model: $\mathbf{y}_t = C\mathbf{x}_t + v_t$, $v_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0; R)$

- One step ahead prediction of observation:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mathbf{Y}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t) &= E(C\mathbf{X}_{t+1} + v_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t) = C\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t} \\ E(\mathbf{Y}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+1|t})(\mathbf{Y}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+1|t})^T | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t &= CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R \\ E(\mathbf{Y}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{t+1|t})(\mathbf{X}_{t+1} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})^T | \mathbf{y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{y}_t &= CP_{t+1|t} \end{aligned}$$



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Update step



- Summarizing results from previous slide, we have $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1}, \mathbf{Y}_{t+1} | \mathbf{y}_{1:t}) \sim \mathcal{N}(m_{t+1}, V_{t+1})$, where

$$m_{t+1} = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{x}_{t+1|t} \\ C\hat{x}_{t+1|t} \end{pmatrix}, \quad V_{t+1} = \begin{pmatrix} P_{t+1|t} & P_{t+1|t}C^T \\ CP_{t+1|t} & CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R \end{pmatrix}$$

- Remember the formulas for conditional Gaussian distributions:

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \mu, \Sigma\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \mid \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_2 \mid \mathbf{m}_2^m, \mathbf{V}_2^m) \quad p(\mathbf{x}_1 \mid \mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_1 \mid \mathbf{m}_{1|2}, \mathbf{V}_{1|2})$$

$$\mathbf{m}_2^m = \mu_2 \quad \mathbf{m}_{1|2} = \mu_1 + \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_2 - \mu_2)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_2^m = \Sigma_{22} \quad \mathbf{V}_{1|2} = \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12}\Sigma_{22}^{-1}\Sigma_{21}$$

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Kalman Filter



- Measurement updates:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t+1} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t} + K_{t+1}(y_{t+1} - C\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})$$

$$P_{t+1|t+1} = P_{t+1|t} - K_{t+1}C P_{t+1|t}$$

- where K_{t+1} is the *Kalman gain matrix*

$$K_{t+1} = P_{t+1|t}C^T(CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R)^{-1}$$

- Time updates:

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t} = A\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|t}$$

$$P_{t+1|t} = AP_{t|t}A + GQG^T$$

- K_t can be pre-computed (since it is independent of the data).

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Example of KF in 1D

- Consider noisy observations of a 1D particle doing a random walk:

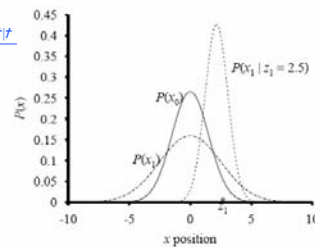
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + w, \quad w \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_x) \quad z_t = x_t + v, \quad v \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_z)$$

- KF equations: $P_{t+1|t} = AP_tA + GQG^T = \sigma_t + \sigma_x$, $\hat{x}_{t+1|t} = A\hat{x}_{t|t} = \hat{x}_{t|t}$

$$K_{t+1} = P_{t+1|t}C^T(CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R)^{-1} = (\sigma_t + \sigma_x)(\sigma_t + \sigma_x + \sigma_z)$$

$$\hat{x}_{t+1|t+1} = \hat{x}_{t+1|t} + K_{t+1}(z_{t+1} - C\hat{x}_{t+1|t}) = \frac{(\sigma_t + \sigma_x)z_{t+1} + \sigma_z\hat{x}_{t|t}}{\sigma_t + \sigma_x + \sigma_z}$$

$$P_{t+1|t+1} = P_{t+1|t} - K_{t+1}C^T = \frac{(\sigma_t + \sigma_x)\sigma_z}{\sigma_t + \sigma_x + \sigma_z}$$



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KF intuition

- The KF update of the mean is

$$\hat{x}_{t+1|t+1} = \hat{x}_{t+1|t} + K_{t+1}(z_{t+1} - C\hat{x}_{t+1|t}) = \frac{(\sigma_t + \sigma_x)z_{t+1} + \sigma_z\hat{x}_{t|t}}{\sigma_t + \sigma_x + \sigma_z}$$

- the term $(z_{t+1} - C\hat{x}_{t+1|t})$ is called the *innovation*
- New belief is convex combination of updates from prior and observation, weighted by Kalman Gain matrix:

$$K_{t+1} = P_{t+1|t}C^T(CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R)^{-1}$$

- If the observation is unreliable, σ_z (i.e., R) is large so K_{t+1} is small, so we pay more attention to the prediction.
- If the old prior is unreliable (large σ_t) or the process is very unpredictable (large σ_x), we pay more attention to the observation.

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KF, RLS and LMS



- The KF update of the mean is

$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t+1} = A\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|t} + K_{t+1}(y_{t+1} - C\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})$$

- Consider the special case where the hidden state is a constant, $\mathbf{x}_t = \theta$, but the “observation matrix” C is a time-varying vector, $C = \mathbf{x}_t^T$.
 - Hence the observation model at each time slide, $y_t = \mathbf{x}_t^T \theta + v_t$, is a linear regression

- We can estimate θ recursively using the Kalman filter:

$$\hat{\theta}_{t+1} = \hat{\theta}_t + P_{t+1}R^{-1}(y_{t+1} - \mathbf{x}_t^T \hat{\theta}_t)\mathbf{x}_t$$

This is called the recursive least squares (RLS) algorithm.

- We can approximate $P_{t+1}R^{-1} \approx \eta_{t+1}$ by a scalar constant. This is called the least mean squares (LMS) algorithm.
- We can adapt η_t online using stochastic approximation theory.

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Complexity of one KF step



- Let $\mathbf{x}_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_x}$ and $y_t \in \mathbb{R}^{N_y}$,
- Computing $P_{t+1|t} = AP_{t|t}A + GG^T$ takes $O(N_x^2)$ time, assuming dense P and dense A .
- Computing $K_{t+1} = P_{t+1|t}C^T(CP_{t+1|t}C^T + R)^{-1}$ takes $O(N_y^3)$ time.
- So overall time is, in general, $\max\{N_x^2, N_y^3\}$

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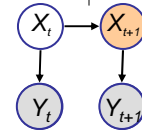
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Rauch-Tung-Strievel smoother



$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|T} = \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t|t} + L_t (\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|T} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{t+1|t})$$

$$P_{t|T} = P_{t|t} + L_t (P_{t+1|T} - P_{t+1|t}) L_t^T \quad L_t = P_{t|t} A^T P_{t+1|t}^{-1}$$



- General structure: KF results + the difference of the "smoothed" and predicted results of the next step
- Backward computation: Pretend to know things at t+1 — such conditioning makes things simple and we can remove this condition finally

- The difficulty: $X_t | y_1, \dots, y_T$

- The trick: $E[X | Z] = E[E[X | Y, Z] | Z]$ (Hw!)

$$\text{Var}[X | Z] = \text{Var}[E[X | Y, Z] | Z] + E[\text{Var}[X | Y, Z] | Z]$$

$$\hat{x}_{t|T} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E[X_t | y_1, \dots, y_T] = E[E[X_t | X_{t+1}, y_1, \dots, y_T] | y_1, \dots, y_T]$$

$$= E[E[X_t | X_{t+1}, y_1, \dots, y_t] | y_1, \dots, y_t]$$

$$= E[X_t | X_{t+1}, y_1, \dots, y_t]$$

Same for $P_{t|T}$

RTS derivation



- Following the results from previous slide, we need to derive $p(\mathbf{X}_{t+1}, \mathbf{X}_t | y_{1:t}) \sim \mathcal{N}(m, V)$, where

$$m = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{x}_{t|T} \\ \hat{x}_{t+1|T} \end{pmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{pmatrix} P_{t|T} & P_{t|T} A^T \\ A P_{t|T} & P_{t+1|T} \end{pmatrix}$$

- all the quantities here are available after a forward KF pass
- Remember the formulas for conditional Gaussian distributions:

$$p \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} | \mu, \Sigma = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \mathbf{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} \middle| \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \Sigma_{11} & \Sigma_{12} \\ \Sigma_{21} & \Sigma_{22} \end{bmatrix} \right),$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_2 | \mathbf{m}_2^m, \mathbf{V}_2^m) \quad p(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{x}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_1 | \mathbf{m}_{12}, \mathbf{V}_{12})$$

$$\mathbf{m}_2^m = \mu_2 \quad \mathbf{m}_{12} = \mu_1 + \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_2 - \mu_2)$$

$$\mathbf{V}_2^m = \Sigma_{22} \quad \mathbf{V}_{12} = \Sigma_{11} - \Sigma_{12} \Sigma_{22}^{-1} \Sigma_{21}$$

- The RTS smoother

$$\hat{x}_{t|T} = E[X_t | X_{t+1}, y_1, \dots, y_t]$$

$$= \hat{x}_{t|t} + L_t (\hat{x}_{t+1|T} - \hat{x}_{t+1|t})$$

$$P_{t|T} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{Var}[\hat{x}_{t|T} | y_{1:T}] + E[\text{Var}[X_t | X_{t+1}, y_{1:t}] | y_{1:T}]$$

$$= P_{t|t} + L_t (P_{t+1|T} - P_{t+1|t}) L_t^T$$

Learning SSMs



- Complete log likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} \ell_c(\theta, D) &= \sum_n \log p(x_n, y_n) = \sum_n \log p(x_1) + \sum_n \sum_t \log p(x_{n,t} | x_{n,t-1}) + \sum_n \sum_t \log p(y_{n,t} | x_{n,t}) \\ &= f_1(x_1; \Sigma_0) + f_2(\{x_t, x_{t-1}^T, x_t x_t^T, x_t; \forall t\}; A, Q, G) + f_3(\{x_t, x_t^T, x_t; \forall t\}; C, R) \end{aligned}$$

- EM

- E-step: compute $\langle x_t, x_{t-1}^T \rangle, \langle x_t, x_t^T \rangle, \langle x_t \rangle | y_1, \dots, y_T$

these quantities can be inferred via KF and RTS filters, etc.,

$$e, g, \langle x_t, x_t^T \rangle \equiv \text{var}(x_t, x_t^T) + E(x_t)^2 = P_{t|T} + \hat{x}_{t|T}^2$$

- M-step: MLE using

$$\langle \ell_c(\theta, D) \rangle = f_1(\langle x_1 \rangle; \Sigma_0) + f_2(\langle \{x_t, x_{t-1}^T\}, \langle x_t, x_t^T \rangle, \langle x_t \rangle; \forall t \}; A, Q, G) + f_3(\langle \{x_t, x_t^T\}, \langle x_t \rangle; \forall t \}; C, R)$$

c.f., M-step in factor analysis

Nonlinear systems



- In robotics and other problems, the motion model and the observation model are often nonlinear:

$$x_t = f(x_{t-1}) + w_t, \quad y_t = g(x_t) + v_t$$

- An optimal closed form solution to the filtering problem is no longer possible.
- The nonlinear functions f and g are sometimes represented by neural networks (multi-layer perceptrons or radial basis function networks).
- The parameters of f and g may be learned offline using EM, where we do gradient descent (back propagation) in the M step, c.f. learning a MRF/CRF with hidden nodes.
- Or we may learn the parameters online by adding them to the state space: $x_t' = (x_t, \theta)$. This makes the problem even more nonlinear.

Extended Kalman Filter (EKF)



- The basic idea of the EKF is to linearize f and g using a second order Taylor expansion, and then apply the standard KF.
- i.e., we approximate a stationary nonlinear system with a non-stationary linear system.

$$x_t = f(\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}) + A_{\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}}(x_{t-1} - \hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}) + w_t$$

$$y_t = g(\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}) + C_{\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}}(x_t - \hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}) + v_t$$

$$\text{where } \hat{x}_{t-1|t-1} = f(\hat{x}_{t-1|t-1}) \text{ and } A_{\hat{x}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{\hat{x}} \text{ and } C_{\hat{x}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right|_{\hat{x}}$$

- The noise covariance (Q and R) is not changed, i.e., the additional error due to linearization is not modeled.