

Appendix A: The Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula

The Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula is

$$(\mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{H} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{H}^T + \mathbf{R})^{-1} \quad (3.57)$$

There are many ways to prove this, all involving matrix multiplications. Here is one possible proof. Expand the left hand side:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} &= (\mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})^{-1} [\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1}]^{-1} \\ &= [(\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1})(\mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{H}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{H})]^{-1} \\ &= [(\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{P}^{-1} + \mathbf{H})^{-1} \\ &= [(\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P}) \mathbf{P}^{-1}]^{-1} \\ &= [(\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{H}^T)(\mathbf{H}^T)^{-1} \mathbf{P}^{-1}]^{-1} \\ &= \mathbf{P} \mathbf{H}^T (\mathbf{R} + \mathbf{H} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{H}^T)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

Appendix B: Proof of some derivative formula

Verify that

$$\frac{d\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})}{d\mathbf{A}} = \mathbf{B}^T$$

Let \mathbf{A} be $n \times r$ and \mathbf{B} be $r \times n$ since $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ is symmetric. We can write the individual matrix elements as

$$(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^r a_{ik} b_{kj}.$$

Thus we can write the trace of this matrix as

$$\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})_{ii} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^r a_{ik} b_{ki}.$$

Now we can write that

$$\frac{d\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})}{d\mathbf{A}} = \frac{d}{da_{lm}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^r a_{ik} b_{ki} \right] = b_{ml} = \mathbf{B}^T.$$

Appendix C: Eigenvalues of covariance matrices

A covariance matrix is real, symmetric and positive definite. Since it is real, symmetric, its eigenvalue decomposition may be written as

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{E}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{E}^T \quad (3.58)$$

where \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix of eigenvalues and \mathbf{E} is a unitary matrix of eigenvectors. That is, $\mathbf{E}^T = \mathbf{E}^{-1}$. Now if \mathbf{A} is positive definite, then for all vectors, \mathbf{x} , we have that

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0.$$

We can substitute for \mathbf{A} using (3.58):

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{E} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{E}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{D} \mathbf{y} > 0$$

where $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{E}^T \mathbf{x}$. Expanding this we have that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i)^2 \lambda_i > 0. \quad (3.59)$$

But this must be true for all \mathbf{x} and therefore for all \mathbf{y} . The only way to ensure this is when all eigenvalues, λ_i are positive. Another way to see this is to choose a particular \mathbf{y} since (3.59) must hold for all \mathbf{y} . Choose $\mathbf{y} = (0, 0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$, i.e. the vector with all 0 elements except for the i th element (which is a 1). For this choice of \mathbf{y} , (3.59) becomes

$$\lambda_i > 0.$$

This can be repeated for all i , $1 \leq i \leq n$.

The eigenvalues of a real, symmetric, positive definite matrix are real and positive. Thus covariance matrices have real and positive eigenvalues.

An excellent reference on eigenvalue problems is Wilkinson (1965).