# Supplementary Material: Optimal Cooperative Inference

This supplementary material presents the additional details and proofs associated with the main paper.

# 1 Details of Remark 2.6

Suppose that  $|\mathcal{H}|$  is countably infinite. Let  $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{L}_{i,j}\mathbf{T}_{i,j})_{|\mathcal{D}|\times|\mathcal{H}|}$  be the matrix obtained from  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  by element-wise multiplication. Denote the sum of elements in the *j*-th column of  $\mathbf{A}$  by  $C_j$ . Then  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n C_j$ 

is the sum of elements in the first *n* columns of **A**. Note that  $0 \le C_j = \sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}|} \mathbf{L}_{i,j} \mathbf{T}_{i,j} \le \sum_{i=1}^{|\mathcal{D}|} \mathbf{T}_{i,j} = 1$  and so

 $0 \leq S_n \leq n$ . Therefore, for any j, n, both  $C_j$  and  $S_n$  exist, and  $\{\frac{S_n}{n}\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is a well-defined sequence whose limit is then called TI.

Regrading the existence of TI, there are two cases.

Case 1: The growth rate of  $S_n$  is strictly slower than any linear function. Thus, for any k > 0, there exists an integer N(k) > 0 (depends on k) such that  $S_n < k \cdot n$  for any n > N(k). Then for any k > 0, the following holds:

$$0 \le \mathrm{TI} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{S_n}{n} \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{k \cdot n}{n} = k.$$

Thus, TI = 0.

Case 2: If the growth rate of  $S_n$  is not strictly slower than linear functions, then TI exists if and only if the sequence  $\{C_j\}$  converges as  $j \to \infty$ . Suppose that  $\{C_j\}$  converges to k. Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an integer  $N(\epsilon)$  such that  $|C_m - k| < \epsilon$  for any  $m > N(\epsilon)$ . Therefore, for n sufficiently large,

$$|\frac{S_n}{n} - k| = |\frac{S_n - n \cdot k}{n}| = |\frac{S_N - N \cdot k}{n} + \frac{\sum_{j=N}^n C_j - k}{n-N}| \le |\frac{S_N - N \cdot k}{n}| + \epsilon \le \epsilon'.$$

Thus, TI exists. Similarly the other direction also holds.

Moreover, when TI exists, Proposition 2.4 can also be generalized.  $0 \le S_n \le n$  implies that the range of TI is [0, 1], and TI = 1 if and only if  $C_j$  converges to 1.

# 2 Proof of Theorem 4.6

For convenience, we first write the fixed-point iteration of (2) explicitly in vector form. We denote the matrix with elements  $P_L(h|D)$  by  $\mathbf{L} \in [0,1]^{|\mathcal{D}| \times |\mathcal{H}|}$ , the matrix with elements  $P_T(D|h)$  by  $\mathbf{T} \in [0,1]^{|\mathcal{D}| \times |\mathcal{H}|}$ , and the matrix with elements  $P_0(D|h)$  by  $\mathbf{M} \in [0,1]^{|\mathcal{D}| \times |\mathcal{H}|}$ . Further, denote the vectors consisting of  $P_{L_0}(h)$  and  $P_T(h)$  by  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{d} \in [0,1]^{|\mathcal{H}| \times 1}$ , vectors consisting of  $P_{T_0}(D)$  and  $P_L(D)$  by  $\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \in [0,1]^{|\mathcal{D}| \times |\mathcal{H}|}$ , respectively. Given

**a**, **b**, and **M**, the fixed-point iteration of the cooperative inference equations can be expressed as:

$$P_{L_1}(h|D) = \frac{P_0(D|h) P_{L_0}(h)}{P_{L_1}(D)} \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{L}^{(1)} = \mathrm{Diag}\left(\frac{1}{\mathbf{M}\,\mathbf{a}}\right) \mathbf{M}\,\mathrm{Diag}(\mathbf{a}) \tag{1a}$$

$$P_{T_{k+1}}(D|h) = \frac{P_{L_{k+1}}(h|D) P_{T_0}(D)}{P_{T_{k+1}}(h)} \quad \iff \quad \mathbf{T}^{(k+1)} = \operatorname{Diag}(\mathbf{b}) \mathbf{L}^{(k+1)} \operatorname{Diag}\left(\frac{1}{\mathbf{d}^{(k+1)}}\right) \tag{1b}$$

$$P_{T_{k+1}}(h) = \sum_{D \in \mathcal{D}} P_{L_k}(h|D) P_{T_0}(D) \iff \mathbf{d}^{(k+1)} = (\mathbf{L}^{(k+1)})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}$$
(1c)

$$P_{L_{k+1}}(h|D) = \frac{P_{T_k}(D|h) P_{L_0}(h)}{P_{L_{k+1}}(D)} \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{L}^{(k+1)} = \mathrm{Diag}\left(\frac{1}{\mathbf{c}^{(k+1)}}\right) \mathbf{T}^{(k)}\mathrm{Diag}(\mathbf{a}) \tag{1d}$$

$$P_{L_{k+1}}(D) = \sum_{h \in \mathcal{H}} P_{T_k}(D|h) P_{L_0}(h) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{c}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{T}^{(k)} \mathbf{a}, \tag{1e}$$

where k denotes the iteration step;  $Diag(\mathbf{z})$  denotes the diagonal matrix with elements of the vector  $\mathbf{z}$  on its

diagonal; and  $\frac{1}{\mathbf{z}}$  denotes element-wise inverse of vector  $\mathbf{z}$ . Note that (1b) and (1c) are the operations to column normalize  $\text{Diag}(\mathbf{b}) \mathbf{L}^{(k)}$ , and (1d) and (1e) are the operations to row normalize  $\mathbf{T}^{(k)}$  $\text{Diag}(\mathbf{a})$ . Zero rows in  $\mathbf{L}^{(k)}$  and zero columns in  $\mathbf{T}^{(k)}$  are fixed throughout the iteration of (1) if they exist. This is equivalent to removing the zero rows and zero columns of M for (1)and inserting them back at convergence or when the iteration is stopped.

Now we provide a version of the proof using the notations introduced in the paper. The original proof can be found in [2]. Remember that  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  are assumed to be uniform.

*Proof.* Let  $\sigma$  be a permutation of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  that makes  $\{\mathbf{M}_{i,\sigma(i)}\}_{i=1}^n$  a positive diagonal. Define

$$e^{(k)} := \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{L}_{i,\sigma(i)}^{(k)}; \quad f^{(k)} := \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{T}_{i,\sigma(i)}^{(k)}.$$

Applying (1a),  $\mathbf{L}^{(1)}$  is a row-stochastic matrix, and  $\{\mathbf{L}_{i,\sigma(i)}^{(1)}\}_{i=1}^{n}$  is a positive diagonal, hence  $e^{(1)}$  is positive. Also, by applying (1b),

$$f^{(1)} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{T}_{i,\sigma(i)}^{(1)} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \left( \mathbf{b}_{i} \frac{\mathbf{L}_{i,\sigma(i)}^{(1)}}{\mathbf{d}_{\sigma(i)}^{(1)}} \right) = \frac{e^{(1)}}{n^{n} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{\sigma(i)}^{(1)}} = \frac{e^{(1)}}{n^{n} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{i}^{(1)}}.$$
 (2)

By the inequality of arithmetic and geometric means,  $\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{i}^{(1)}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{i}^{(1)}$ . Also,  $\mathbf{L}^{(1)}$  is a rowstochastic matrix and we assumed uniform prior on data set space, and hence, by (1c)

$$n^{n} \prod_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{j}^{(1)} \leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{d}_{j}^{(1)}\right)^{n} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{b}_{j} \mathbf{L}_{i,j}^{(1)}\right)^{n} = \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbf{L}_{i,j}^{(1)}\right)^{n} = 1.$$
(3)

The equality in (3) is achieved if and only if  $\mathbf{d} = (\frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n})$ , or equivalently,  $\mathbf{L}^{(1)}$  being a doubly stochastic matrix. Because  $f^{(1)}$  is the product of n values between 0 and 1,

$$0 < e^{(1)} \leq f^{(1)} \leq f^{(1)} \leq 1, \tag{4}$$

with equality in (a) if and only if  $\mathbf{L}^{(1)}$  is a doubly stochastic matrix, and equality in (b) if and only if  $\mathbf{L}^{(1)}$  is a permutation matrix. Applying the same logic to equations (1d) and (1e), we have

$$0 < f^{(1)} \leq e^{(2)} \leq \frac{1}{(d)} = 0$$

with equality in (c) if and only if  $\mathbf{T}^{(1)}$  is a doubly stochastic matrix, and equality in (d) if and only if  $\mathbf{T}^{(1)}$  is a permutation matrix. Repeating this argument, we get the increasing sequence

$$0 < e^{(1)} \le f^{(1)} \le e^{(2)} \le f^{(2)} \le \dots \le 1.$$

Monotone convergence theorem of real numbers guarantees that this sequence converges to its supremum

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} e^{(k)} = \lim_{k \to \infty} f^{(k)} = \sup\{\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{f}\}.$$

Asymptotically,  $e^{(k)} = f^{(k)} = e^{(k+1)}$ ; therefore,  $\mathbf{L}^{(k)}$  and  $\mathbf{T}^{(k)}$  are both doubly stochastic matrices. Because doubly stochastic matrices are stable under row and column normalization,  $\mathbf{L}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  converge to the same doubly stochastic matrix,

$$\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)} := \lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbf{L}^{(k)} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbf{T}^{(k)}.$$

# 3 Proof of Theorem 4.10

Proof. (1) (a)  $\iff$  (b): We first prove that (a) CI(**M**) = 1, and (b) **M** has exactly one positive diagonal, are equivalent. Since **M** is an  $n \times n$  nonnegative matrix with at least one positive diagonal, Theorem 4.6 guarantees that the iteration of equation set (1) converges to a doubly stochastic matrix,  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$ . According to Birkhoff-von Neumann theorem [1, 3], there exist  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k \in (0, 1]$  with  $\sum_i \theta_i = 1$  and distinct permutation matrices  $P_1, \ldots, P_k$  such that  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)} = \theta_1 P_1 + \cdots + \theta_k P_k$ . To simplify, we adopt the *inner product* notation between matrices:  $A \cdot B = \sum_{i,j} A_{i,j} B_{i,j}$ , for any two  $n \times n$  square matrices A and B. Then the following holds:

$$CI = TI(\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}, \mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}) = \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{M}^{(\infty)} \cdot \mathbf{M}^{(\infty)} = \frac{1}{n} (\sum_{i} \theta_{i} P_{i}) \cdot (\sum_{j} \theta_{j} P_{j}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,j} \theta_{i} \theta_{j} P_{i} \cdot P_{j}.$$

Equality (I) comes from rewriting TI in the inner product notation. Equality (II) comes from substituting  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$  by its Birkhoff-von Neumann decomposition. Equality (III) comes from distribution.

Further, as permutation matrices,  $P_i \cdot P_j \leq n$ , and the equality holds if and only if  $P_i = P_j$ . So we have

$$\operatorname{CI}(\mathbf{M}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,j} \theta_i \theta_j P_i \cdot P_j \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i,j} \theta_i \theta_j n = \sum_{i,j} \theta_i \theta_j = (\sum_i \theta_i) \times (\sum_j \theta_j) = 1.$$

The equality in (IV) holds if and only if  $P_i = P_j$  for any i, j. Note that  $P_1, \ldots, P_k$  are distinct, i.e.,  $P_i \neq P_j$  when  $i \neq j$ . So the equality in (IV) is achieved precisely when k = 1 and  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)} = P_1$ . Hence, CI(**M**) is maximized if and only if  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$  is a permutation matrix.

We then prove that  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$  is a permutation matrix if and only if  $\mathbf{M}$  has exactly one positive diagonal. This follows from this claim, **Claim** (1): elements of  $\mathbf{M}$  that lie in a positive diagonal do not tend to zero during the cooperative inference iteration [2] (i.e., if  $\mathbf{M}_{i,j} \neq 0$  lies in a positive diagonal, then  $\mathbf{M}_{i,j}^{(\infty)} \neq 0$ ). Claim (1) implies that  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$  and  $\mathbf{M}$  have the same number of positive diagonals. Further, note that a doubly stochastic matrix has exactly one diagonal if and only it is a permutation matrix. So as a doubly stochastic matrix,  $\mathbf{M}^{(\infty)}$  is a permutation matrix if and only if  $\mathbf{M}$  has exactly one positive diagonal. Thus, CI is maximized if and only if  $\mathbf{M}$  has exactly one positive diagonal.

To complete the proof for  $(a) \iff (b)$ , we only need to justify Claim (1). Note that the product of any positive diagonal converges to a positive number  $\sup\{\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{f}\}$  (shown in the proof for Theorem 4.6) and all elements on the positive diagonal is upper-bounded by 1 and lower-bounded by  $\sup\{\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{f}\}$ ., elements on a diagonal of  $\mathbf{M}$  cannot converge to 0.

(2)  $(b) \iff (c)$ : This follows immediately from a slightly more general claim below, where positive diagonals are generalized to non-zero diagonals (can have negative values).

Claim (2): Let A be an  $n \times n$ -square matrix (elements can be any real number). Then A has exactly one non-zero diagonal (i.e., a diagonal with no zero element) if and only if A is a permutation of an upper-triangular matrix.

We now prove Claim (2). The if direction is clear since an upper-triangular matrix always has exactly one non-zero diagonal, which is its main diagonal. The only if direction is proved by induction on the dimension n of A.

**Step 1—Induction basis:** When n = 2, it is easy to check that any  $2 \times 2$  matrix with exactly one diagonal is either of the form  $\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & c \end{pmatrix}$  or  $\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ b & c \end{pmatrix}$ , where  $a, c \neq 0$ . So it is a permutation of an upper-triangular matrix.

Step 2—Inductive step: Suppose that the claim—an  $n \times n$ -square matrix A has exactly one non-zero diagonal if and only if it is a permutation of an upper-triangular matrix—holds for any n < N. We need to show that the claim also holds when n = N.

The following notation will be used. Let A be an  $n \times n$ -square matrix.  $A_{i,j}$  denotes the element of A at row i and column j.  $\widetilde{A}_{i,j}$  denotes the  $(n-1) \times (n-1)$  sub-matrix obtained from A by crossing out row i and column j.

First, we will prove three handy observations.

**Observation 1**: If A has exactly one non-zero diagonal and  $A_{i,j} \neq 0$ , then  $A_{i,j}$  has at most one non-zero diagonal. In particular, if  $A_{i,j}$  is on that non-zero diagonal, then  $\widetilde{A}_{i,j}$  has exactly one non-zero diagonal.

Proof of Observation 1: Suppose that  $A_{i,j}$  has more than one diagonal. Then these diagonals for  $A_{i,j}$  along with  $A_{i,j}$  form different diagonals for A, which is a contradiction.

**Observation 2**: If A has exactly one non-zero diagonal and A has a row or a column with exactly one non-zero element, then A is a permutation of an upper-triangular matrix.

Proof of Observation 2: Suppose that A has a column with exactly one non-zero element. Then by permutation, we may assume that it is the first column of A and the only non-zero element in column 1 is  $A_{1,1}$ .  $A_{1,1}$  must be on the non-zero diagonal of A. Hence, according to observation 1,  $\tilde{A}_{1,1}$  is a  $(N-1\times N-1)$ -square matrix with exactly one non-zero diagonal. Then by the inductive assumption, we may permute  $\tilde{A}_{1,1}$  into an upper-triangular matrix. Note that each permutation of  $\tilde{A}_{1,1}$  induces a permutation of A. So there exist permutations that convert A into A' such that  $A'_{i,j} = 0$  when j > 1 and i > j. Moreover, permutations that convert A to A' never switch column 1 (row 1) of A with any other columns (rows). So  $A'_{i,1} = 0$  for  $i \neq 1$ , as  $A_{1,1}$  is the only non-zero element in the first column of A. Thus, we have  $A'_{i,j} = 0$  when i > j, which implies that A' is an upper-triangular matrix.

If A has a row with exactly one non-zero element, then up to permutation, we may assume it is the last row of A and the only non-zero element is  $A_{N,N}$ . Following similar argument as above, we may show that  $\widetilde{A}_{N,N}$  can be arranged into an upper-triangular matrix by permutations. The corresponding permutations of A will also convert A into an upper triangular matrix. So observation 2 holds.

**Observation 3**: If the main diagonal of A is the only non-zero diagonal of A, then  $A_{t_1,t_2}A_{t_2,t_3}\cdots A_{t_{k-1},t_k}A_{t_k,t_1} = 0$  for any distinct  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k$ .

Proof of Observation 3: Suppose that  $A_{t_1,t_2}A_{t_2,t_3}\cdots A_{t_{k-1},t_k}A_{t_k,t_1} \neq 0$ . Then a different non-zero diagonal for A other than the main diagonal is form by  $\{A_{i,i}|i \neq t_1,\ldots,t_k\}$  and  $A_{t_1,t_2}, A_{t_2,t_3}, \cdots, A_{t_{k-1},t_k}, A_{t_k,t_1}$ .

Now back to the inductive step. Suppose that A is an  $N \times N$ -square matrix with exactly one non-zero diagonal. By permutation, we may assume that the main diagonal of A is the only non-zero diagonal. In particular,  $A_{1,1} \neq 0$ . According to Observation 1,  $\tilde{A}_{1,1}$  has exactly one non-zero diagonal and so can be arranged into an upper-triangular matrix by permutations. The corresponding permutations convert A into a new form, denoted by  $A^1$ , with the property that  $A_{i,j}^1 = 0$  when j > 1 and i > j. In particular,  $A_{N,j}^1 = 0$  when  $j \neq 1$  and  $j \neq N$ .  $\tilde{A}_{1,1}^1$  is an upper-triangular matrix implies that  $A_{N,N}^1 \neq 0$ . If  $A_{N,1}^1 = 0$ , then the last row of  $A^1$  contains only one non-zero element  $A_{N,N}^1$ . So by Observation 2, we are done.

Otherwise, according to Observation 1,  $A_{N,N}^1$  can be arranged into an upper-triangular matrix by permutation. Hence, after the corresponding permutations, we may convert  $A^1$  into a new form, denoted by  $A^2$  with the property that  $A_{i,j}^2 = 0$  when i > j and  $i \neq N$ . Moreover, permutations that convert  $A^1$  to  $A^2$  never switch row N (column N) of  $A^1$  with any other rows (columns). So only one of  $\{A_{N,j}^2 | j \neq N\}$  is not zero. If  $A_{N,1}^2 = 0$ , along with  $A_{i,1}^2 = 0$  for N > i > 1, we have that the first column of  $A^2$  contains exactly one non-zero element,  $A_{1,1}^2$ . So by Observation 2, we are done.

Otherwise,  $A_{N,1}^2 \neq 0$ . According to Observation 3,  $A_{N,1}^2 A_{1,k}^2 A_{k,N}^2 = 0$ , for k = 2, ..., N - 1. So we have that  $A_{1,k}^2 A_{k,N}^2 = 0$ , for k = 2, ..., N - 1. We will proceed by analyzing cases from k = 2 to k = N - 1.

When k = 2, if  $A_{1,2}^2 = 0$ , then column 2 of  $A^2$  contains only one non-zero element  $A_{2,2}^2$ , and we are done by Observation 2. Otherwise, we may assume that  $A_{1,2}^2 \neq 0$  and  $A_{2,N}^2 = 0$ .

When k = 3, if  $A_{3,N}^2 \neq 0$ , then  $A_{1,3}^2 = 0$ . According to Observation 3,  $A_{N,1}^2 A_{1,2}^2 A_{2,3}^2 A_{3,N}^2 = 0$ , and this implies that  $A_{2,3}^2 = 0$ . Hence, column 3 of  $A^2$  contains only one non-zero element,  $A_{3,3}^2$ , and again we are done by Observation 2. Otherwise, we may assume that  $A_{3,N}^2 = 0$ , and one of  $\{A_{1,3}^2, A_{2,3}^2\}$  is not zero.

When k = k, if  $A_{4,N}^2 \neq 0$ , then  $A_{1,4}^2 = 0$ . Similarly, as in the case where k = 3 (by Observation 3),  $A_{N,1}^2 A_{1,2}^2 A_{2,4}^2 A_{3,N}^2 = 0$ , and this implies that  $A_{2,4}^2 = 0$ . One of  $\{A_{1,3}^2, A_{2,3}^2\}$  is not zero  $\Longrightarrow$  either  $A_{N,1}^2 A_{1,3}^2 A_{3,4}^2 A_{3,N}^2 = 0$  or  $A_{N,1}^2 A_{1,2}^2 A_{2,3}^2 A_{3,4}^2 A_{3,N}^2 = 0 \Longrightarrow A_{3,4}^2 = 0$ . Hence, column 4 of  $A^2$  contains only one non-zero element,  $A_{4,4}^2$ , and again we are done by Observation 2. Otherwise, we may assume that  $A_{4,N}^2 = 0$ , and at least one of  $\{A_{1,4}^2, A_{2,4}^2, A_{3,4}^2\}$  is not zero.

Inductively, either one of column k's of  $A^2$  contains only one non-zero element, or  $A_{k,N}^2 = 0$  for all k = 2, ..., N - 1. Note that the latter case implies that column N of  $A^2$  contains only one non-zero element,  $A_{N,N}^2$ , as  $A_{N,1}^2 \neq 0 \Longrightarrow A_{1,N}^2 = 0$ . Either way, the proof is then completed by Observation 2.

#### 4 Details to Example 4.11

To construct  $\mathbf{M}$ , first notice that if maximum likelihood is achieved,  $\mathbf{M}_{1,1} = \mathbf{M}_{1,2}$  under all settings of  $\Delta$ , a, and q. This is because a first- and second-order polynomial give the same fit to  $D_1$ .

For  $\mathbf{M}_{2,1}$ , by symmetry arguments we know that the maximum-likelihood fit of a first-order polynomial to  $D_2$  is a horizontal line (f(x) = b). We can find this value of b through a grid search. Given this b,

$$\mathbf{M}_{2,1} = N_q(a;b)^2 N_q(-a;b)^2 N_q(\Delta + a;b) N_q(\Delta - a;b)$$

where

$$N_q(z;b) = \frac{\sqrt{\beta}}{C_q} e_q(-\beta(x_i - \mu)^2).$$

Here,  $\beta = \frac{1}{5-3q}$  so that the variance is 1;  $e_q(x)$  is the q-exponential function defined by  $[1 + (1-q)x]^{\frac{1}{1-q}}$  when  $q \neq 1$ , and  $\exp(x)$  when q = 1. The normalizing constant  $C_q$  is given by:

$$C_q = \begin{cases} \frac{2\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(\frac{1}{1-q})}{(3-q)\sqrt{1-q}\Gamma(\frac{3-q}{2(1-q)})} & \text{for } -\infty < q < 1\\ \sqrt{\pi} & \text{for } q = 1\\ \frac{\sqrt{\pi}\Gamma(\frac{3-q}{2(q-1)})}{\sqrt{q-1}\Gamma\frac{1}{q-1}} & \text{for } 1 < q < 3. \end{cases}$$

For  $\mathbf{M}_{2,2}$ , again by symmetry arguments we know that the maximum-likelihood fit of a second order polynomial to  $D_2$  is a parabola that passes through the middle of each of the three pairs of data points. Thus,  $\mathbf{M}_{2,2} = N_q(a;0)^6$ .

# References

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