#### Lecture 3 and 4: Gaussian Processes

Machine Learning 4F13, Spring 2014

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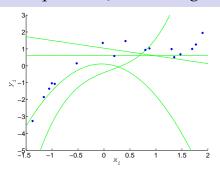
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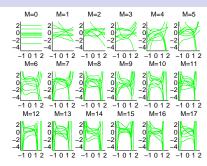
http://mlg.eng.cam.ac.uk/teaching/4f13/

### Key concepts

- Distributions over parameters and over functions
  - Motivation: representaion of multiple hypothesis
  - concepts of prior over functions and over parameters
  - priors over functions are priors over long vectors
  - GP definition
  - · joint generation and conditional generation
- Properties of Gaussian Processes
  - the predictive distribution
  - hyperparameters
  - the marginal likelihood for a GP
- Connections between linear in the parameters model and GPs
  - from finite linear models to GPs
  - · weight space and function space views
  - infinite dimensional models and why finite dimensional models are dangerous

### Old question, new marginal likelihood view





Should we choose a polynomial?

model structure we will address this soon

- What degree should we choose for the polynomial? model structure let the marginal likelihood speak
- For a given degree, how do we choose the weights? model parameters
  we consider many possible weights under the posterior
- For now, let find the single "best" polynomial: degree and weights.
   we don't do this sort of thing anymore

### Marginal likelihood (Evidence) of our polynomials

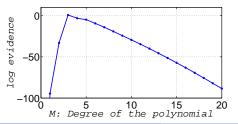
Marginal likelihood, or "evidence" of a finite linear model:

$$p(y|x,\mathcal{M}) \ = \ \int p(f|x,\mathcal{M}) p(y|f) df \ = \ \mathcal{N}(y; \ 0, \sigma_w^2 \ \Phi \ \Phi^\top + \sigma_{noise}^2 \ I)$$

For each polynomial degree, repeat the following infinitely many times:

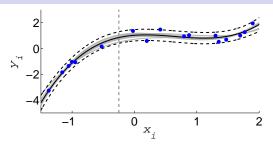
- **1** Sample a function  $f_s$  from the prior:  $p(f|x, \mathcal{M})$ .
- 2 Compute the likelihood of that function given the data:  $p(y|f_s)$ .
- 3 Keep count of the number of samples so far: S.
- **4** The marginal likelihood is the average likelihood:  $\frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^{S} p(y|f_s)$

Luckily for Gaussian noise there is a closed-form analytical solution!



- The evidence prefers M = 3, not simpler, not more complex.
- Too simple models consistently miss most data.
- Too complex models frequently miss some data.

### Multiple explanations of the data



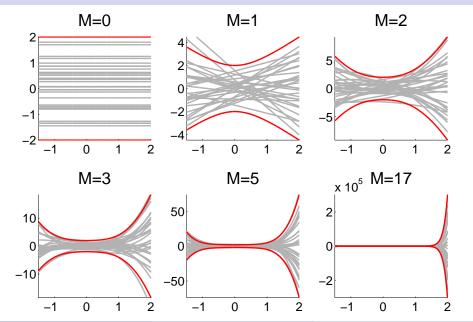
Remember that a finite linear model  $f(x_i) = \phi(x_i)^{\top} w$  with prior on the weights  $p(w) = \mathcal{N}(w; 0, \sigma_w^2)$  has a posterior distribution

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \ \boldsymbol{\mu}, \ \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} &= \left(\sigma_{\text{noise}}^{-2} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^{-2}\right)^{-1} \\ \boldsymbol{\mu} &= \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{\Phi} + \frac{\sigma_{\text{noise}}^{2}}{\sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^{2}} \, \boldsymbol{I}\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^{\top} \boldsymbol{y} \end{aligned}$$

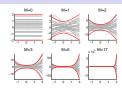
and predictive distribution

$$p(y_*|x_*, x, y, \mathcal{M}) = \mathcal{N}(y_*; \; \varphi(x_*)^{\top} \mu, \; \varphi(x_*)^{\top} \Sigma \varphi(x_*) + \sigma_{noise}^2 \mathbf{I})$$

### Are polynomials a good prior over functions?

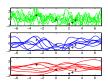


### A prior over functions view



We have learnt that linear-in-the-parameter models with priors on the weights *indirectly* specify priors over functions.

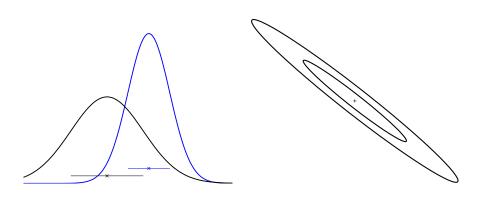
True... and those priors over functions might not be good.



... why not try to specify priors over functions directly?

What? What does a probability density over functions even look like?

### The Gaussian Distribution

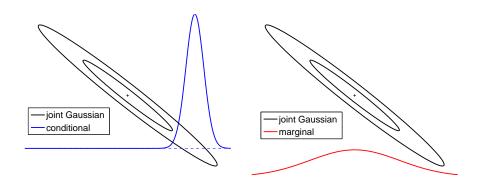


The Gaussian distribution is given by

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \; = \; \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu},\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \; = \; (2\pi)^{-D/2}|\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-1/2} \exp\big(-\tfrac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\big)$$

where  $\mu$  is the mean vector and  $\Sigma$  the covariance matrix.

### Conditionals and Marginals of a Gaussian, pictorial



Both the conditionals and the marginals of a joint Gaussian are again Gaussian.

### Conditionals and Marginals of a Gaussian, algebra

If x and y are jointly Gaussian

$$p(x,y) \ = \ p\big( \left[ \begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array} \right] \big) \ = \ \mathcal{N}\big( \left[ \begin{array}{cc} a \\ b \end{array} \right], \ \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ B^\top & C \end{array} \right] \big),$$

we get the marginal distribution of x, p(x) by

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B^{\top} & C \end{bmatrix}) \implies p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}, A),$$

and the conditional distribution of x given y by

$$p(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\big( \left[ \begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{array} \right], \ \left[ \begin{array}{cc} A & B \\ B^\top & C \end{array} \right] \big) \implies p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a} + BC^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}), \ A - BC^{-1}B^\top),$$

where x and y can be scalars or vectors.

#### What is a Gaussian Process?

A *Gaussian process* is a generalization of a multivariate Gaussian distribution to infinitely many variables.

Informally: infinitely long vector  $\simeq$  function

**Definition:** a Gaussian process is a collection of random variables, any finite number of which have (consistent) Gaussian distributions.

A Gaussian distribution is fully specified by a mean vector,  $\mu$ , and covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ :

$$\mathbf{f} \ = \ (f_1, \dots, f_n)^\top \ \sim \ \mathfrak{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}), \quad \text{indexes } \boldsymbol{i} = 1, \dots, n$$

A Gaussian process is fully specified by a mean function m(x) and covariance function k(x, x'):

$$f \sim \mathcal{GP}(m, k)$$
, indexes:  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ 

here f and m are functions on X, and k is a function on  $X \times X$ 

### The marginalization property

Thinking of a GP as a Gaussian distribution with an infinitely long mean vector and an infinite by infinite covariance matrix may seem impractical...

...luckily we are saved by the *marginalization property*:

Recall:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \int p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y}.$$

For Gaussians:

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B^{\top} & C \end{bmatrix}) \implies p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a}, A)$$

### Random functions from a Gaussian Process

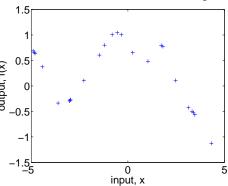
Example one dimensional Gaussian process:

$$p(f(x)) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m k)$$
, where  $m(x) = 0$ , and  $k(x, x') = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x - x')^2)$ .

To get an indication of what this distribution over functions looks like, focus on a finite subset of function values  $\mathbf{f} = (f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n))^{\top}$ , for which

$$f \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$$
, where  $\Sigma_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$ .

Then plot the coordinates of f as a function of the corresponding x values.



### Joint Generation

To generate a random sample from a D dimensional joint Gaussian with covariance matrix K and mean vector **m**: (in octave or matlab)

where cho1 is the Cholesky factor R such that  $R^TR = K$ .

Thus, the covariance of y is:

$$\mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{m})^{\top}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{R}^{\top} \mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}^{\top} \mathbf{R}] = \mathbf{R}^{\top} \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{z} \mathbf{z}^{\top}] \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{R}^{\top} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{K}.$$

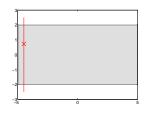
### Sequential Generation

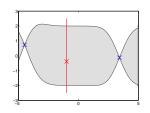
Factorize the joint distribution

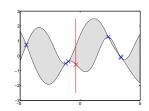
$$p(f_1,...,f_n|x_1,...x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(f_i|f_{i-1},...,f_1,x_i,...,x_1),$$

and generate function values sequentially. For Gaussians:

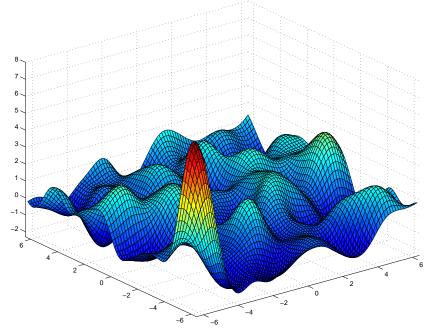
$$p(f_{\mathfrak{i}},f_{<\mathfrak{i}}) = \mathcal{N}\big( \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B^\top & C \end{bmatrix} \big) \Longrightarrow p(f_{\mathfrak{i}}|f_{<\mathfrak{i}}) = \mathcal{N}(a + BC^{-1}(f_{<\mathfrak{i}} - b), \ A - BC^{-1}B^\top).$$







### Function drawn at random from a Gaussian Process with Gaussian covariance



### Non-parametric Gaussian process models

In our non-parametric model, the "parameters" are the function itself!

Gaussian likelihood, with noise variance  $\sigma_{\text{noise}}^2$ 

$$p(y|x, f(x), \mathcal{M}_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(f, \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 I),$$

Gaussian process prior with zero mean and covariance function k

$$p(f(x)|\mathcal{M}_i) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m \equiv 0, k),$$

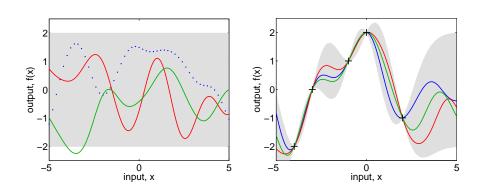
Leads to a Gaussian process posterior

$$\begin{split} p(f(x)|\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y},\mathcal{M}_i) \; \sim \; & \mathcal{GP}(m_{post},\; k_{post}), \\ where \left\{ \begin{array}{l} m_{post}(x) = k(x,\mathbf{x})[K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}\mathbf{y}, \\ k_{post}(x,x') = k(x,x') - k(x,\mathbf{x})[K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}k(\mathbf{x},x'), \end{array} \right. \end{split}$$

And a Gaussian predictive distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_*|x_*, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathcal{M}_i) &\sim \mathcal{N}\big(\mathbf{k}(x_*, \mathbf{x})^\top [\mathsf{K} + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \\ &\quad k(x_*, x_*) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 - \mathbf{k}(x_*, \mathbf{x})^\top [\mathsf{K} + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{k}(x_*, \mathbf{x})\big). \end{aligned}$$

#### Prior and Posterior



#### Predictive distribution:

$$\begin{split} p(y_*|x_*, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \; \sim \; & \mathcal{N}\big(\boldsymbol{k}(x_*, \boldsymbol{x})^\top[K + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}, \\ & \quad k(x_*, x_*) + \sigma_{noise}^2 - \boldsymbol{k}(x_*, \boldsymbol{x})^\top[K + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}\boldsymbol{k}(x_*, \boldsymbol{x})\big) \end{split}$$

### Some interpretation

Recall our main result:

$$\begin{split} f_*|x_*, x, y &\sim \mathcal{N}\big(K(x_*, x)[K(x, x) + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}y, \\ &\quad K(x_*, x_*) - K(x_*, x)[K(x, x) + \sigma_{noise}^2 I]^{-1}K(x, x_*)\big). \end{split}$$

The mean is linear in two ways:

$$\mu(x_*) = k(x_*, \mathbf{x})[K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 I]^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(x_*, x_i).$$

The last form is most commonly encountered in the kernel literature.

The variance is the difference between two terms:

$$V(x_*) = k(x_*, x_*) - k(x_*, x)[K(x, x) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 I]^{-1}k(x, x_*),$$

the first term is the *prior variance*, from which we subtract a (positive) term, telling how much the data **x** has explained.

Note, that the variance is independent of the observed outputs y.

### The marginal likelihood

Log marginal likelihood:

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{M}_{\mathfrak{i}}) \ = \ -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^{\top}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2}\log |\mathbf{K}| - \frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi)$$

is the combination of a data fit term and complexity penalty. Occam's Razor is automatic.

Learning in Gaussian process models involves finding

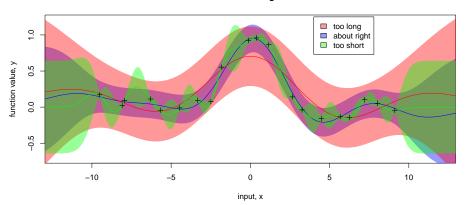
- the form of the covariance function, and
- any unknown (hyper-) parameters  $\theta$ .

This can be done by optimizing the marginal likelihood:

$$\frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathcal{M}_i)}{\partial \theta_j} \; = \; \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \theta_j} \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{trace}(\mathbf{K}^{-1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}}{\partial \theta_j})$$

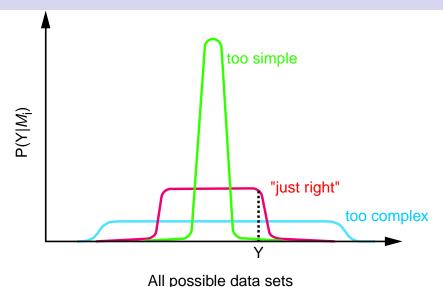
### Example: Fitting the length scale parameter

Parameterized covariance function: 
$$k(x,x') = \nu^2 \exp\big(-\frac{(x-x')^2}{2\ell^2}\big) + \sigma_{noise}^2 \delta_{xx'}.$$
 Characteristic Lengthscales



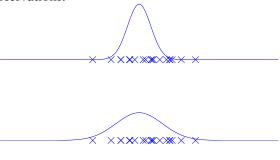
The mean posterior predictive function is plotted for 3 different length scales (the green curve corresponds to optimizing the marginal likelihood). Notice, that an almost exact fit to the data can be achieved by reducing the length scale – but the marginal likelihood does not favour this!

# Why, in principle, does Bayesian Inference work? Occam's Razor



### An illustrative analogous example

Imagine the simple task of fitting the variance,  $\sigma^2$ , of a zero-mean Gaussian to a set of n scalar observations.



The log likelihood is  $\log p(y|\mu,\sigma^2) = -\frac{1}{2}y^\top Iy/\sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2}\log |I\sigma^2| - \frac{n}{2}\log(2\pi)$ 

### From finite linear models to Gaussian processes (1)

Finite linear model with Gaussian priors on the weights:

$$f(x_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{M} w_k \, \varphi_k(x_i) \qquad \qquad p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \, \mathbf{0}, A)$$

The joint distribution of any  $\mathbf{f} = [f(x_1), \dots, f(x_N)]^{\top}$  is a multivariate Gaussian – this looks like a Gaussian Process!

The prior p(f) is fully characterized by the *mean* and *covariance* functions.

$$\mathbf{m}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{E}_{\mathbf{w}}(\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i)) = \int \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} w_k \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)\right) p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \int w_k p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w}$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{M} \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \int w_k p(\mathbf{w}_k) d\mathbf{w}_k = 0$$

The mean function is zero.

### From finite linear models to Gaussian processes (2)

Covariance function of a finite linear model

$$\begin{split} f(x_i) &= \sum_{k=1}^M w_k \, \varphi_k(x_i) = \mathbf{w}^\top \boldsymbol{\varphi}(x_i) \\ p(\mathbf{w}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \, \mathbf{0}, A) \end{split} \qquad \boldsymbol{\varphi}(x_i) = [\varphi_1(x_i), \dots, \varphi_M(x_i)]^\top_{(N \times 1)} \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} & \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j}) = \mathbf{Cov_{\mathbf{w}}} \big( \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{i}), \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \big) = \mathbf{E_{\mathbf{w}}} \big( \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \big) - \underbrace{\mathbf{E_{\mathbf{w}}} \big( \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \big) \mathbf{E_{\mathbf{w}}} \big( \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \big)}_{0} \\ & = \int \dots \int \Big( \sum_{k=1}^{M} \sum_{l=1}^{M} w_{k} w_{l} \varphi_{k}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \varphi_{l}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \Big) \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{w}) \, d\mathbf{w} \\ & = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \sum_{l=1}^{M} \varphi_{k}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \varphi_{l}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \underbrace{\iint w_{k} w_{l} \mathbf{p}(w_{k}, w_{l}) dw_{k} dw_{l}}_{A_{kl}} = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \sum_{l=1}^{M} A_{kl} \varphi_{k}(\mathbf{x}_{i}) \varphi_{l}(\mathbf{x}_{j}) \end{split}$$

$$\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j}) = \mathbf{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{i})^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{j})$$

Note: If  $A = \sigma_w^2 I$  then  $k(x_i, x_j) = \sigma_w^2 \sum_{k=1}^M \varphi_k(x_i) \varphi_k(x_j) = \sigma_w^2 \varphi(x_i)^\top \varphi(x_j)$ 

# Equiv. between GPs and Linear in the parameters models

We've seen that a Linear in the parameters model, with a Gaussian prior on the weights is also a GP.

Note the different computational complexity: GP:  $O(n^3)$ , linear model  $O(nm^2)$  where m is the number of basis functions and n the number of training cases.

So, which representation is most efficient?

Might it also be the case that every GP corresponds to a Linear in the parameters model? (Mercer's theorem.)

### From infinite linear models to Gaussian processes

Consider the class of functions (sums of squared exponentials):

$$\begin{split} f(x) &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \gamma_i \exp(-(x-i/n)^2), \text{ where } \gamma_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \ \forall i \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(u) \exp(-(x-u)^2) du, \text{ where } \gamma(u) \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \ \forall u. \end{split}$$

The mean function is:

$$\mu(x) = E[f(x)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-(x-u)^2) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma p(\gamma) d\gamma du = 0,$$

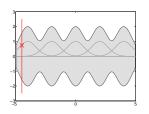
and the covariance function:

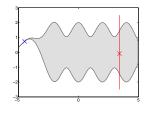
$$\begin{split} & E[f(x)f(x')] \ = \ \int \exp\left(-\,(x-u)^2 - (x'-u)^2\right) du \\ & = \int \exp\left(-\,2(u - \frac{x+x'}{2})^2 + \frac{(x+x')^2}{2} - x^2 - x'^2\right) du \ \propto \ \exp\left(-\,\frac{(x-x')^2}{2}\right). \end{split}$$

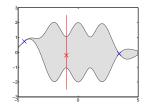
Thus, the squared exponential covariance function is equivalent to regression using infinitely many Gaussian shaped basis functions placed everywhere, not just at your training points!

## Using finitely many basis functions may be dangerous!(1)

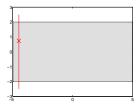
Finite linear model with 5 localized basis functions)

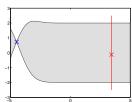


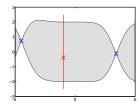




Gaussian process with infinitely many localized basis functions

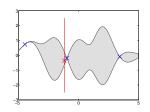


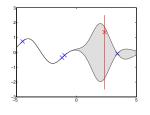


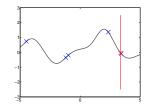


## Using finitely many basis functions may be dangerous!(2)

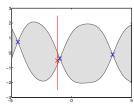
#### Finite linear model with 5 localized basis functions)

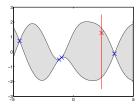


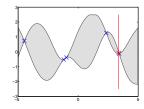




### Gaussian process with infinitely many localized basis functions

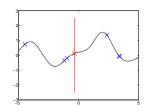


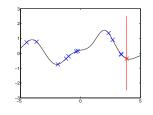


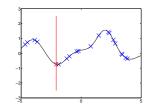


# Using finitely many basis functions may be dangerous!(3)

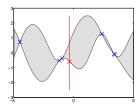
Finite linear model with 5 localized basis functions)

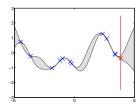


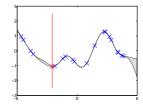




Gaussian process with infinitely many localized basis functions







### Matrix and Gaussian identities cheat sheet

#### Matrix identities

Matrix inversion lemma (Woodbury, Sherman & Morrison formula)

$$(Z + UWV^{\top})^{-1} = Z^{-1} - Z^{-1}U(W^{-1} + V^{\top}Z^{-1}U)^{-1}V^{\top}Z^{-1}$$

• A similar equation exists for determinants

$$|Z + UWV^{\top}| = |Z| |W| |W^{-1} + V^{\top}Z^{-1}U|$$

The product of two Gaussian density functions

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}) \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{P} \, \mathbf{x}|\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{B}) = z_{\mathbf{c}} \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{C})$$

• is proportional to a Gaussian density function with covariance and mean

$$C = (A^{-1} + P B^{-1} P^{\top})^{-1}$$
  $c = C (A^{-1}a + P B^{-1}b)$ 

• and has a normalizing constant  $z_c$  that is Gaussian both in **a** and in **b** 

$$z_{\rm c} = (2\,\pi)^{-\frac{\rm m}{2}} |{\bf B} + {\bf P}^{\top}{\bf A}\,{\bf P}|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\big(-\frac{1}{2}({\bf b} - {\bf P}\,{\bf a})^{\top}\,\big({\bf B} + {\bf P}^{\top}{\bf A}\,{\bf P}\big)^{-1}\,({\bf b} - {\bf P}\,{\bf a})\big)$$