

# Lecture 3 and 4: Gaussian Processes

Machine Learning 4F13, Spring 2015

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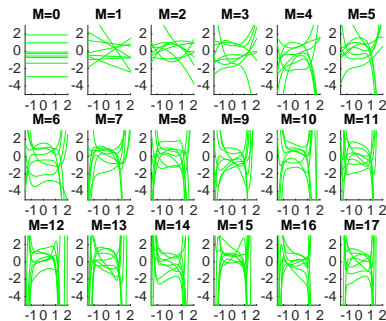
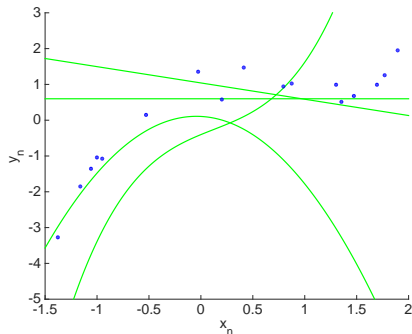
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# Key concepts

- Distributions over parameters and over functions
  - Motivation: representation 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
- What degree should we choose for the polynomial? we will address this soon
- For a given degree, how do we choose the weights? model structure
- For now, let find the single “best” polynomial: degree and weights. let the marginal likelihood speak
- For now, let find the single “best” polynomial: degree and weights. model parameters
- For now, let find the single “best” polynomial: degree and weights. 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

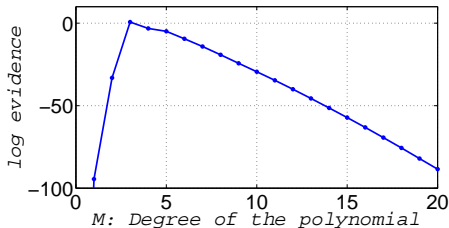
Marginal likelihood, or “evidence” of a finite linear model:

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

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

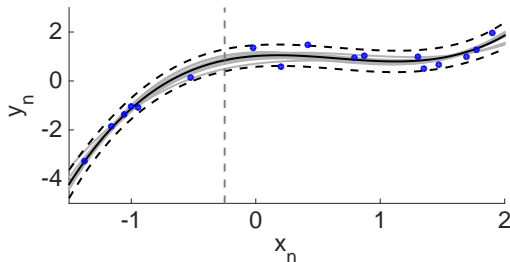
- ① Sample a function  $\mathbf{f}_s$  from the prior:  $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{x}, \mathcal{M})$ .
- ② Compute the likelihood of that function given the data:  $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}_s)$ .
- ③ Keep count of the number of samples so far:  $S$ .
- ④ The marginal likelihood is the average likelihood: 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

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



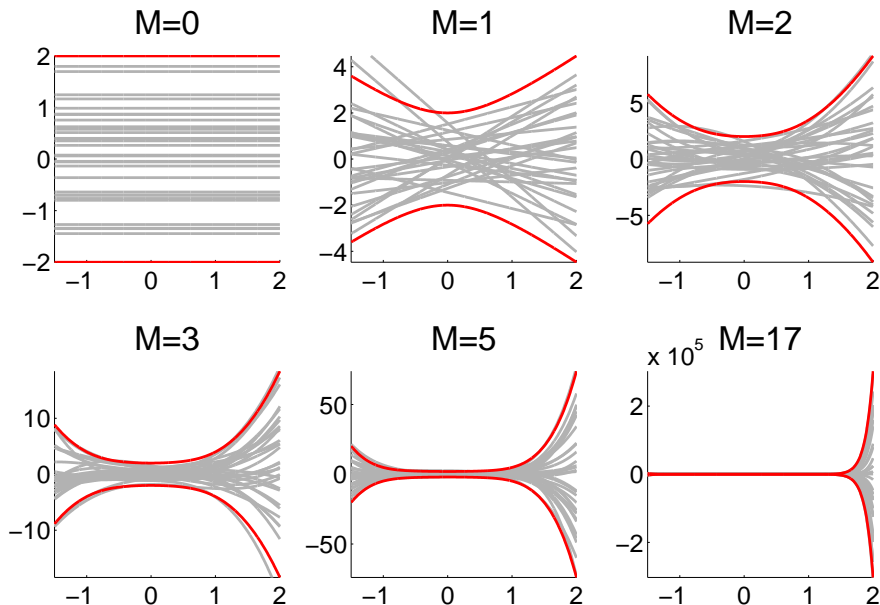
Remember that a finite linear model  $f(x_n) = \Phi(x_n)^\top \mathbf{w}$  with prior on the weights  $p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \sigma_w^2 \mathbf{I})$  has a posterior distribution

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

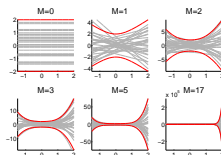
and predictive distribution

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

# Are polynomials a good prior over functions?

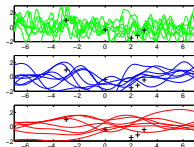


# A prior over functions view



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

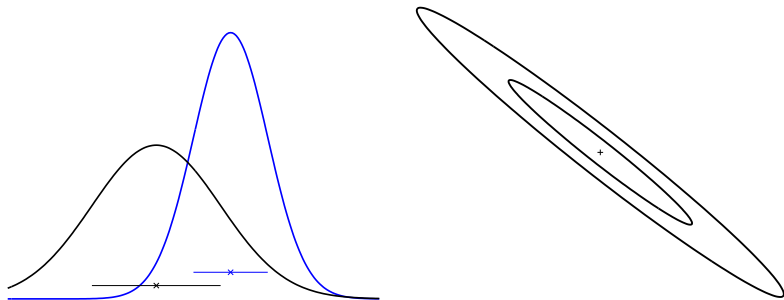
True... and those priors over functions might not be good.



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

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

# The Gaussian Distribution



The univariate Gaussian distribution is given by

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

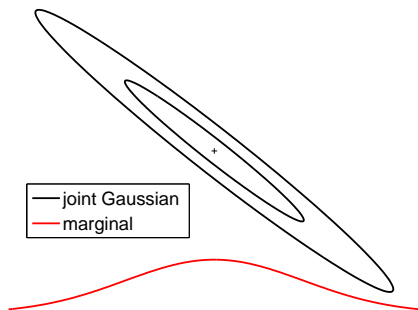
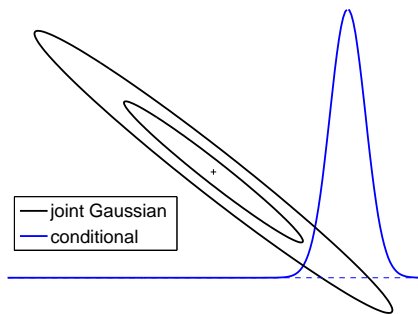
The multivariate Gaussian distribution for D-dimensional vectors is given by

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

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  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are jointly Gaussian

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

we get the marginal distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $p(\mathbf{x})$  by

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

and the conditional distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  given  $\mathbf{y}$  by

$$p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{C} \end{bmatrix}\right) \implies p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{b}), \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^\top),$$

where  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  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.  $\square$

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

$$\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_N)^\top \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma), \quad \text{indexes } n = 1, \dots, N$$

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

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

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

# 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:

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

# Random functions from a Gaussian Process

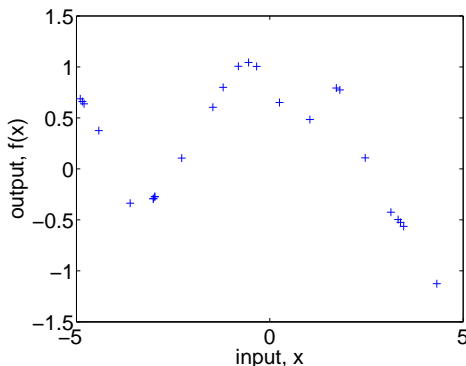
Example one dimensional Gaussian process:

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

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

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

Then plot the coordinates of  $\mathbf{f}$  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  $\mathbf{m}$ : (in octave or matlab)

```
z = randn(D,1);  
y = chol(K)'*z + m;
```

where `chol` is the Cholesky factor  $R$  such that  $R^T R = K$ .

Thus, the covariance of  $\mathbf{y}$  is:

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

# Sequential Generation

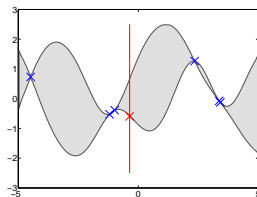
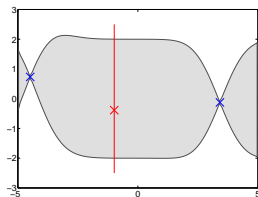
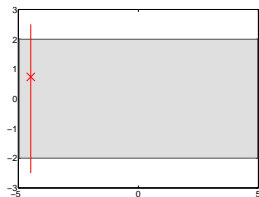
Factorize the joint distribution

$$p(f_1, \dots, f_N | x_1, \dots, x_N) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(f_n | f_{n-1}, \dots, f_1, x_n, \dots, x_1),$$

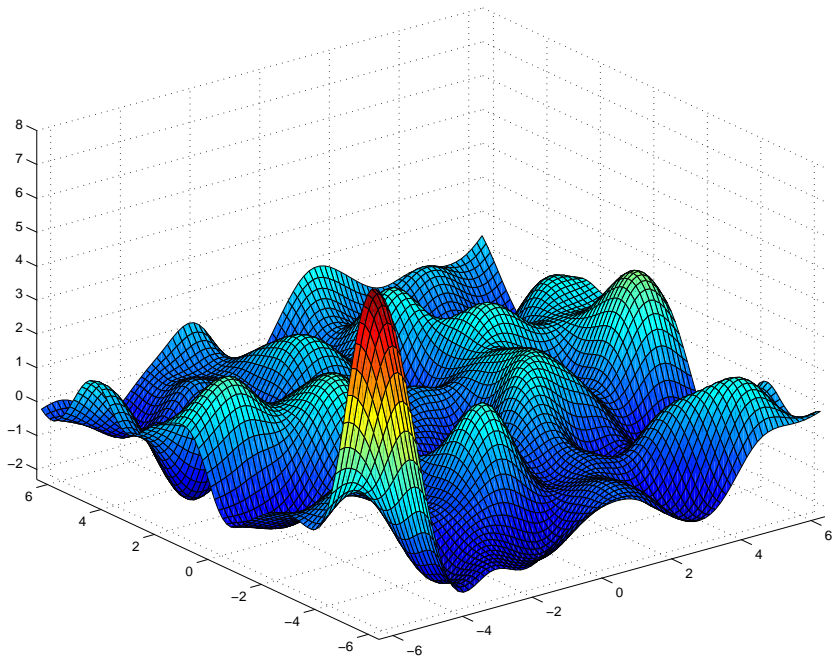
and generate function values sequentially. For Gaussians:

$$p(f_n, f_{<n}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B^\top & C \end{bmatrix}\right) \Rightarrow$$

$$p(f_n | f_{<n}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{a} + BC^{-1}(f_{<n} - \mathbf{b}), A - BC^{-1}B^\top).$$



# 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  $\sigma_{\text{noise}}^2$

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

Gaussian process prior with zero mean and covariance function  $k$

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

Leads to a Gaussian process posterior

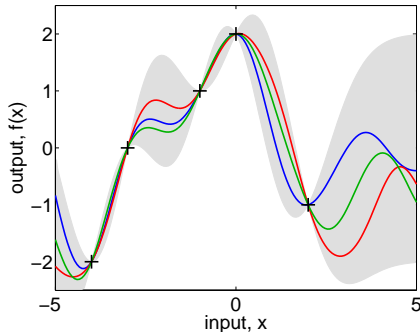
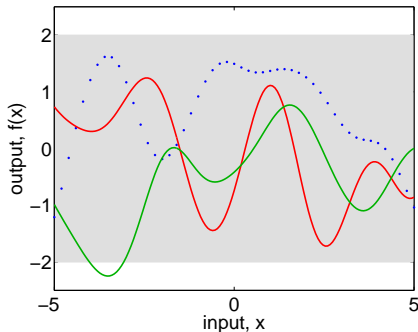
$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathcal{M}_i) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mathbf{m}_{\text{post}}, k_{\text{post}}),$$

$$\text{where } \begin{cases} \mathbf{m}_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})[\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \\ k_{\text{post}}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') - \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})[\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'), \end{cases}$$

And a Gaussian predictive distribution:

$$p(y_* | \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathcal{M}_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})^\top [\mathbf{K} + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \\ k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 - \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})^\top [\mathbf{K} + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})).$$

# Prior and Posterior



Predictive distribution:

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

# Some interpretation

Recall our main result:

$$\mathbf{f}_* | \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})[\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \\ \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})[\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_*)).$$

The mean is linear in two ways:

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}_*) = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x})[\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma_{\text{noise}}^2 \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{n=1}^N \beta_n \mathbf{y}_n = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_n).$$

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

The variance is the difference between two terms:

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

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

Note, that the variance is independent of the observed outputs  $\mathbf{y}$ .

# The marginal likelihood

Log marginal likelihood:

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

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  $\theta$ .

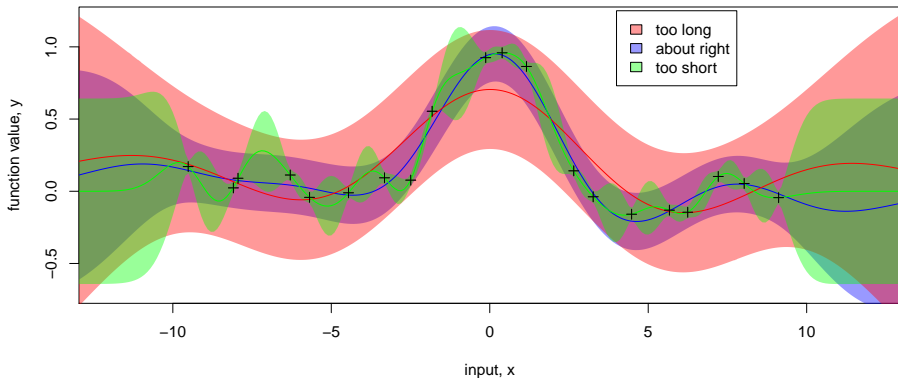
This can be done by optimizing the marginal likelihood:

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

# Example: Fitting the length scale parameter

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

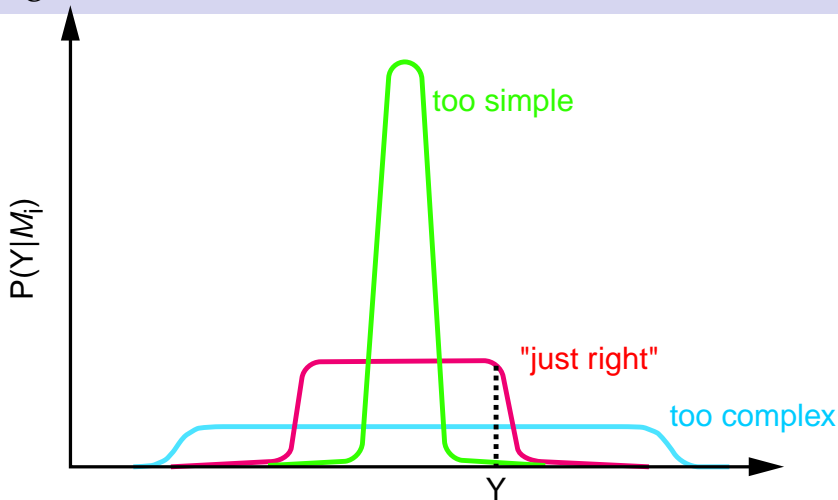
Characteristic Lengthscales



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!**

# How can Bayes rule help find the right model complexity?

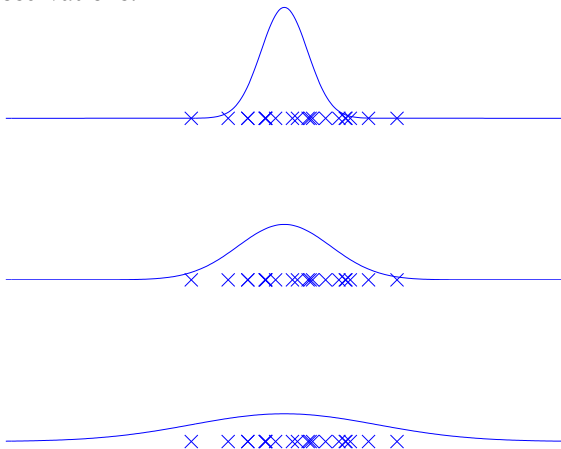
## Marginal likelihoods and Occam's Razor



All possible data sets

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

# From finite linear models to Gaussian processes (1)

Finite linear model with Gaussian priors on the weights:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) \quad p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, A)$$

The joint distribution of any  $\mathbf{f} = [f(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}_N)]^\top$  is a multivariate Gaussian – this looks like a Gaussian Process!

The prior  $p(\mathbf{f})$  is fully characterized by the *mean* and *covariance* functions.

$$\begin{aligned} m(\mathbf{x}) = E_{\mathbf{w}}(f(\mathbf{x})) &= \int \left( \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) \right) p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} = \sum_{m=1}^M \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) \int w_m p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} \\ &= \sum_{m=1}^M \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) \int w_m p(w_m) dw_m = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The *mean function* is zero.



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

**Covariance function** of a finite linear model

$$\begin{aligned}f(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \phi_m(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^\top \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}) & \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}) &= [\phi_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \phi_M(\mathbf{x})]^\top_{(M \times 1)} \\p(\mathbf{w}) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{A})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) &= \text{Cov}_{\mathbf{w}}(f(\mathbf{x}_i), f(\mathbf{x}_j)) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}}(f(\mathbf{x}_i)f(\mathbf{x}_j)) - \underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}}(f(\mathbf{x}_i))\mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{w}}(f(\mathbf{x}_j))}_0 \\&= \int \dots \int \left( \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{l=1}^M w_k w_l \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi_l(\mathbf{x}_j) \right) p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w} \\&= \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{l=1}^M \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi_l(\mathbf{x}_j) \underbrace{\iint w_k w_l p(w_k, w_l) dw_k dw_l}_{A_{kl}} = \sum_{k=1}^M \sum_{l=1}^M A_{kl} \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi_l(\mathbf{x}_j)\end{aligned}$$

$$k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \mathbf{A} \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

**Note:** If  $\mathbf{A} = \sigma_w^2 \mathbf{I}$  then  $k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sigma_w^2 \sum_{k=1}^M \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_j) = \sigma_w^2 \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}_i)^\top \boldsymbol{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}_j)$

# GPs and Linear in the parameters models are equivalent

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:  $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ , linear model  $\mathcal{O}(NM^2)$  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):

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma_n \exp(-(x - \frac{n}{N})^2), \text{ where } \gamma_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \forall n \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \gamma(u) \exp(-(x - u)^2) du, \text{ where } \gamma(u) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \forall u. \end{aligned}$$

The mean function is:

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

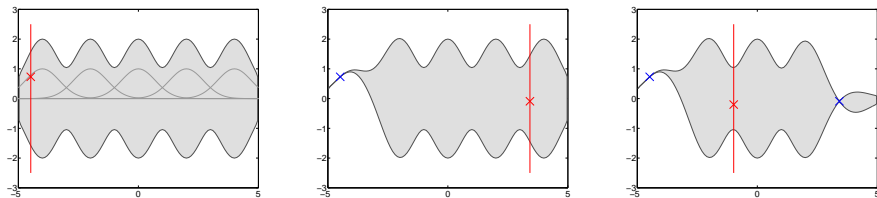
and the covariance function:

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

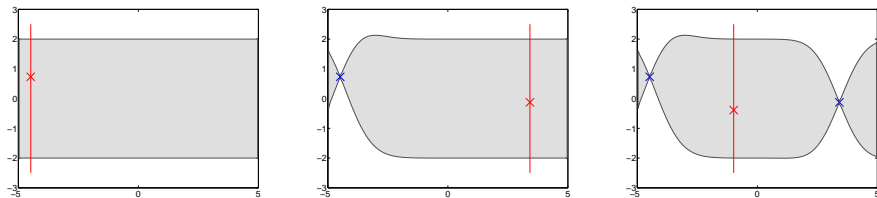
Thus, the squared exponential covariance function is equivalent to regression using infinitely many Gaussian shaped basis functions placed everywhere, **not just at your training points!**

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

Finite linear model with 5 localized basis functions)

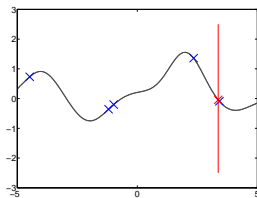
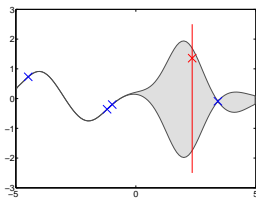
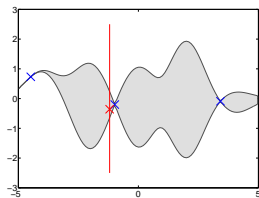


Gaussian process with infinitely many localized basis functions

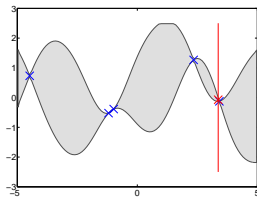
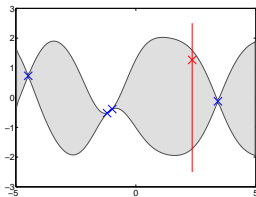
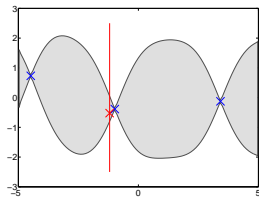


# Using finitely many basis functions may be dangerous!(2)

Finite linear model with 5 localized basis functions)

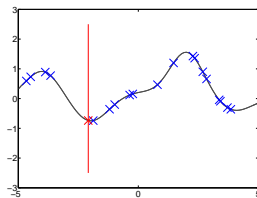
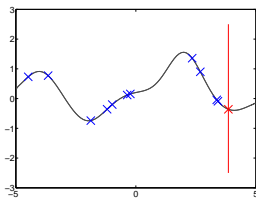
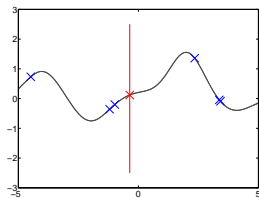


Gaussian process with infinitely many localized basis functions

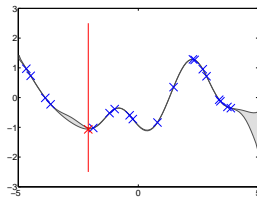
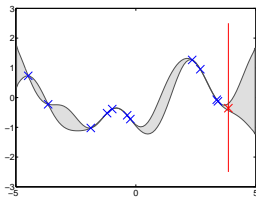
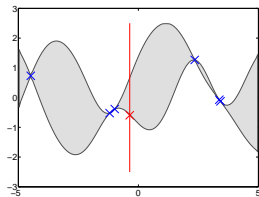


# Using finitely many basis functions may be dangerous!(3)

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)

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

- A similar equation exists for determinants

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

## The product of two Gaussian density functions

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

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

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

- and has a normalizing constant  $z_c$  that is Gaussian both in  $\mathbf{a}$  and in  $\mathbf{b}$

$$z_c = (2\pi)^{-\frac{m}{2}} |B + P^T A P|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{b} - P\mathbf{a})^T (B + P^T A P)^{-1} (\mathbf{b} - P\mathbf{a})\right)$$