

COMPUTATIONAL STATISTICS

GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

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Trieste, Winter Semester 2015/2016

OUTLINE

- 1 RANDOM FUNCTIONS AND BAYESIAN REGRESSION
- 2 GAUSSIAN PROCESSES
- 3 KERNEL FUNCTIONS
- 4 HYPERPARAMETERS
- 5 GP CLASSIFICATION

BAYESIAN LINEAR REGRESSION REVISITED

$l, x \rightarrow \omega_0 + \omega_1 x$, $\omega_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

Fix $x \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$

ω_0, ω_1 are samples

- Bayesian linear regression places a (Gaussian) prior over the weights vector, and computes the (Gaussian) posterior distribution over weights.
- What does this mean? Consider linear basis functions. In this case, the regression line is a *random line*, with the property that the output prediction at any point is a Gaussian random variable
- This concept can be generalised: taking linear combinations of basis functions with (Gaussian) random coefficients leads to a (Gaussian) random function

$$\phi(x)$$

$$\vec{\omega} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$\omega^T \phi(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2) \quad \forall x \text{ Fix } x \rightarrow$$

RANDOM FUNCTIONS TERMINOLOGY

$$\underbrace{F_x}_{\downarrow} := \omega^T \phi(x) \quad \{F_x \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \quad \begin{array}{l} \omega \sim \mathcal{W} \\ F_x \sim \mathcal{W} \end{array}$$

- A random function is an infinite collection of random variables indexed by the argument of the function
- A popular alternative name is a stochastic process *Random field*
- When considering the random function evaluated at a (finite) set of points, we get a random vector
- The distribution of this random vector is called finite dimensional marginal *FINITE DIMENSIONAL DISTRIBUTION*

$$\underbrace{\{F_x \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}}_{\text{Random function}} \quad x_1, \dots, x_N \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \underbrace{(F_{x_1}, \dots, F_{x_N})}_{\text{RANDOM VECTOR}} \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

Bayesian regression FDM are Gaussians

IMPORTANT EXERCISE

Let $\phi_0(x), \dots, \phi_{M-1}(x)$ be a fixed set of functions, and let

$f(x) = \sum w_i \phi_i(x)$. If $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$, compute:

- 1 The single-point marginal distribution of $f(x)$
- 2 The two-point marginal distribution of $f(x_1), f(x_2)$

$$f(x) = \sum_i w_i \phi_i(x), \quad \tilde{\mathbf{w}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

$$\text{Fisso } x \rightarrow f(x) = F_x; \quad E[F_x] = \sum_i E[w_i] \phi_i(x) = 0$$

$$\text{VAR}[F_x] = \sum_i \underbrace{\text{VAR}[w_i]}_{=1} \cdot \phi_i^2(x) = \sum_i \phi_i^2(x) = \Phi^T(x) \Phi(x)$$

$$x_1, x_2. \quad f(x) = \sum_i \omega_i \phi_i(x) \quad \omega_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{x_1} \\ F_{x_2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \omega^T \cdot \phi(x_1) \\ \omega^T \cdot \phi(x_2) \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{les jointes de } F_{x_1}, F_{x_2} \\ \text{sont gaussiennes} \end{array}$$

$$E[F_{x_1}] = \sum [E[\omega_i] \cdot \phi_i(x_1)] = 0$$

$$\text{cov}[F_{x_1}, F_{x_2}] = \text{cov}\left[\sum_i \omega_i \phi_i(x_1), \sum_j \omega_j \phi_j(x_2)\right] =$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} \phi_i(x_1) \phi_j(x_2) \cdot \overbrace{\text{cov}[\omega_i, \omega_j]}^{\delta_{ij}} = \sum_i \phi_i(x_1) \phi_i(x_2)$$

$$= \Phi^T(x_1) \cdot \Phi(x_2)$$

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$$x_1, \dots, x_N \quad, \quad \omega \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$$

$$F = (F_{x_1}, \dots, F_{x_N}) \quad E[F] = 0$$

$$\text{cov}[F] = \Phi^T \Phi \quad \Phi = \begin{pmatrix} \phi(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(x_N) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$K(x, x') = \phi^T(x) \cdot \phi(x') \quad \leadsto \text{cov}[F] = K, \quad \begin{array}{l} N \times N \\ \text{matrix} \end{array}$$

$$K_{ij} = K(x_i, x_j) \quad i, j = 1, \dots, N$$

THE GRAM MATRIX

- Generalising the exercise to more than two points, we get that **any finite dimensional marginal of this process is multivariate Gaussian**
- The covariance matrix of this function is given by evaluating a function of two variables at all possible pairs]
- The function is defined by the set of basis functions

$$K \quad k(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i)^T \phi(x_j) \quad \text{A}$$

- The covariance matrix is often called **Gram matrix** and is (necessarily) **symmetric** and **positive definite**
- Bayesian prediction in regression then is essentially the same as computing conditionals for Gaussians (more later)]

A

FUNCTION SPACE VIEW

- In order to construct such priors, one possibility would be to construct a countable sequence of basis functions. We can partition the full \mathbb{R}^n in compact sets, and define a finite number of basis functions supported in each compact set so that the variance in each point of the state space is a constant (partition of unity).
- This approach, called the *weights space view*, is unpractical, but it demonstrates the existence of truly infinite dimensional Gaussian Processes.
- In general, it is more useful to take the dual point of view, and work with kernels rather than with basis functions.

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GP DEFINITION

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$

- A Gaussian Process (GP) is a stochastic process indexed by a continuous variable x s.t. all finite dimensional marginals are multivariate Gaussian $\forall x_1, \dots, x_N, (F_{x_1}, \dots, F_{x_N}) \sim \mathcal{N}$
- A GP is uniquely defined by its mean and covariance functions, denoted by $\mu(x)$ and $k(x, x')$:

$$\mu: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

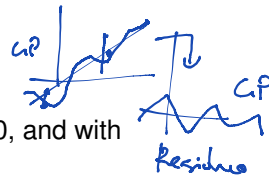
kernel function

$$f \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu, k) \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{f} = (f(x_1), \dots, f(x_N)) \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{K}),$$

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu(x_1), \dots, \mu(x_N)), \quad \mathbf{K} = (k(x_i, x_j))_{i,j} \text{ or symmetric positive definite}$$

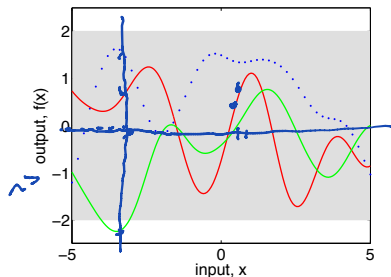
- The covariance function must satisfy some conditions (Mercer's theorem), essentially it needs to evaluate to a symmetric positive definite function for all sets of input points

AN EXAMPLE



Consider a 1-dimensional GP with mean function $\mu(x) \equiv 0$, and with Gaussian covariance function:

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}|x - x'|^2\right] \quad \sim e^{-x^2}$$



The variance at each point x is $k(x, x) = 1$. If we consider a test set $X^* = x_1, \dots, x_n$, then the joint distribution of $\mathbf{f}^* = (f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ is

$$\mathbf{f}^* \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, K(X^*, X^*))$$

where $K(X^*, X^*)$ is the Gram matrix, $K_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$, which is symmetric and positive definite.

NOISE-FREE PREDICTION

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ B^T & C \end{pmatrix} \sim y|x \sim (\mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{f}(x); C - \mathbf{1}^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{B})$$

Gaussian conditional

- Suppose now to observe the exact value of the GP at N different points, $X = x_1, \dots, x_N$, with observations $\mathbf{f} = f(x_1), \dots, f(x_N)$.
- Consider also the test points $X^* = x_1, \dots, x_n$, with function values $\mathbf{f}^* = (f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n))$ (unobserved, to be estimated).
- The **joint prior distribution** of f on inputs X and test points X^* is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}^* \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \begin{bmatrix} K(X, X) & K(X, X^*) \\ K(X^*, X) & K(X^*, X^*) \end{bmatrix}\right). \quad (2.18)$$

- If we observe the values at X , then we need to **condition** on these values. Hence the conditional $\mathbf{f}^* | \mathbf{f}$ is

$$\mathbf{f}^* | X^*, X, \mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{K(X^*, X) K(X, X)^{-1} \mathbf{f}}{K(X^*, X^*) - K(X^*, X) K(X, X)^{-1} K(X, X^*)}\right). \quad (2.19)$$

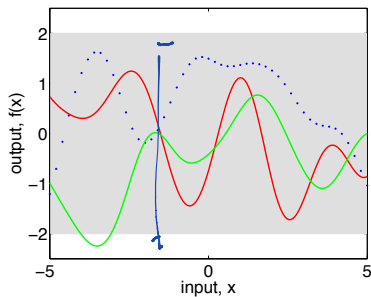
$P(X^* | \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{f})$

which is obtained by the standard formula for the conditional of a Gaussian.

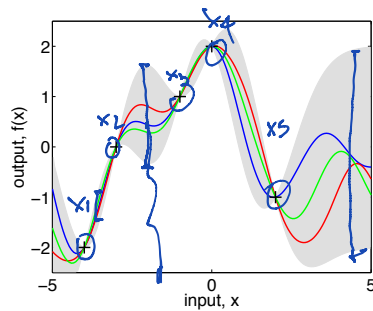
AN EXAMPLE

Consider again the 1-dimensional GP with mean function $\mu(x) \equiv 0$, and with Gaussian covariance function:

$$k(x, x') = \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}|x - x'|^2\right]$$



(a), prior



(b), posterior

NOISY PREDICTIONS

- Suppose we cannot observe the values \mathbf{f} of a GP at points X , but a perturbed version of them:

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon,$$

where $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

- The the covariance of observations is $\text{cov}(\mathbf{y}) = K(X, X) + \sigma^2 I$
- The prior between observations X and test points X^* is then

$$\text{ms } \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{f}_* \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{0}, \begin{bmatrix} K(X, X) + \sigma_n^2 I & K(X, X_*) \\ K(X_*, X) & K(X_*, X_*) \end{bmatrix} \right). \quad (2.21)$$

- Conditioning on observations \mathbf{y} , we get

$$\mathbf{f}_* | X, \mathbf{y}, X_* \sim \mathcal{N}(\bar{\mathbf{f}}_*, \text{cov}(\mathbf{f}_*)), \text{ where} \quad (2.22)$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{f}}_* \triangleq \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{f}_* | X, \mathbf{y}, X_*] = K(X_*, X) [K(X, X) + \sigma_n^2 I]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \quad (2.23)$$

$$\text{cov}(\mathbf{f}_*) = K(X_*, X_*) - K(X_*, X) [K(X, X) + \sigma_n^2 I]^{-1} K(X, X_*). \quad (2.24)$$

$\lambda_i \geq \sigma^2$

COMMENTS: LINEAR PREDICTOR

- For a single point \mathbf{x}^* , the predictive distribution reads

$$\bar{f}_* = \mathbf{k}_*^\top (K + \sigma_n^2 I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \quad (2.25)$$

$$\mathbb{V}[f_*] = k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (K + \sigma_n^2 I)^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*. \quad (2.26)$$

where $\mathbf{k}_* = (k(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{x}_1), \dots, k(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{x}_N))$

- It can be seen that the average prediction is a linear combination of the kernels evaluated on the input points:

$$\bar{f}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i k(\mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{x}_i)$$

where $\alpha = (K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$

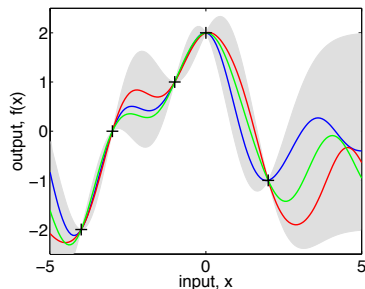
COMMENTS: POSTERIOR GP

- It is easy to see that the posterior process $f|\mathbf{y}$ is again a Gaussian process, with mean

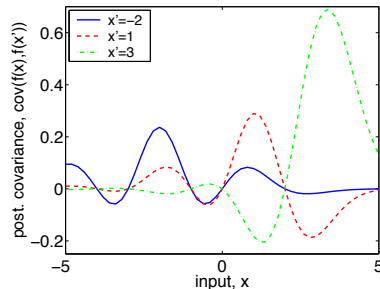
$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})|\mathbf{y}] = K(\mathbf{x}, X)(K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

and covariance

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') - K(\mathbf{x}, X)(K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} K(X, \mathbf{x}')$$



(a), posterior



(b), posterior covariance

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KERNELS

- The notion of kernel comes from the theory of integral operators on a space X with measure μ . A real kernel $k : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defines an integral operator T_k (applied to integrable f) as:

$$T_k: L^2 \rightarrow L^2 \quad (T_k f)(\mathbf{x}) = \int_X k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) f(\mathbf{y}) d\mu(\mathbf{y})$$

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- A kernel is positive semidefinite if, for all $f \in L_2(X, \mu)$:

$$\int_{X \times X} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) f(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{y}) d\mu(\mathbf{x}) d\mu(\mathbf{y}) \geq 0$$

- Equivalently, a kernel is positive (semi)definite if for any collection of n points $\{\mathbf{x}_i \mid i = 1, \dots, n\}$, the Gram matrix K , $K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ is positive (semi)definite (Mercer's theorem).
- The Gram matrix of a symmetric kernel, $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = k(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$, is symmetric.

EIGENFUNCTIONS

- An eigenfunction ϕ with eigenvalue λ of k satisfies

$$\int k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\phi(\mathbf{x})d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda\phi(\mathbf{y})$$

- There can be an infinite number of eigenfunctions, which can be ordered w.r.t. decreasing eigenvalues, and they can be chosen orthogonal, i.e. such that $\int \phi_i(\mathbf{x})\phi_j(\mathbf{x})d\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \delta_{ij}$
- A kernel can be decomposed using eigenfunctions:

Theorem 4.2 (Mercer's theorem). Let (\mathcal{X}, μ) be a finite measure space and $k \in L_\infty(\mathcal{X}^2, \mu^2)$ be a kernel such that $T_k : L_2(\mathcal{X}, \mu) \rightarrow L_2(\mathcal{X}, \mu)$ is positive definite (see eq. (4.2)). Let $\phi_i \in L_2(\mathcal{X}, \mu)$ be the normalized eigenfunctions of T_k associated with the eigenvalues $\lambda_i > 0$. Then:

1. the eigenvalues $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^\infty$ are absolutely summable

2.

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i \phi_i(\mathbf{x})\phi_i^*(\mathbf{x}'), \quad (4.37)$$

holds μ^2 almost everywhere, where the series converges absolutely and uniformly μ^2 almost everywhere. \square