COMPUTATIONAL STATISTICS GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

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### **OUTLINE**

**1 RANDOM FUNCTIONS AND BAYESIAN REGRESSION** 

2 GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

**KERNEL FUNCTIONS** 

**HYPERPARAMETERS** 



## FROM LOGISTIC REGRESSION TO GP CLASSIFICATION

- The idea behind GP classification is to extend logistic (or probit) regression, by assuming the following model for the class conditionals: **DON'T PROPIE**  $\pi(\mathbf{x}) = \pmb{\rho}(C_1|\mathbf{x}) = \tilde{\sigma}(f(\mathbf{x}))$  where  $f \sim GP(\mu, k)$
- *f* is often call latent function. Note that  $\pi$  is a random function, as *f* is. 40 Classification



Figure 3.2: Panel (a) shows a sample latent function  $f(x)$  drawn from a Gaussian process as a function of  $x$ . Panel (b) shows the result of squashing this sample function through the logistic logit function,  $\lambda(z) = (1 + \exp(-z))^{-1}$  to obtain the class probability  $\pi(x) = \lambda(f(x))$ .

#### GP CLASSIFICATION nuisance function The latent function *f* plays the rˆole of a *nuisance function*: we do not

- f is often call latent or nuisance function. It is not observed directly. We only observe at a point x the realisation of a Bernoulli random variable with probability  $\pi(\mathbf{x})$ .  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H} \times \mathbf{H}$  this can expect the latent noise to t ten call latent or nuisance function.
	- Inference at a test point **x**\* is done, as usual in a Bayesian  $S$ etting, in two steps:  $\overline{S}$  $f(x)$ , in two otopo. nce at a test point  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is done, as usual in a bayesian
		- **D** Compute the posterior  $f^*$  of  $f$  at the prediction point  $\mathbf{x}^*$ .  $\delta$  and probe the process and probe  $f^*$  of  $f$  of the probe distinct probe Inference is naturally divided into two steps: first computing the distribution

$$
(\mathbf{r}^{p\mathbf{B}\mathbf{S}\mathbf{A}^{\prime}})^{M^{p+1}\mathbf{B}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{A}^{p\mathbf{A}}^{p\mathbf{A
$$

# LAPLACE APPROXIMATION

- As in Bayesian logistic regression, the computation of the posterior  $p(f|X, y)$  cannot be carried out analytically.
- endo<br>However, we can do a Laplace approximation of the posterior around the MAP  $\hat{t}$ . The unnormalised log posterior is: wever, we can do a Laplace approximation of the posterior and introducing expression eq. (2.29) for the GP prior gives  $\mathcal{L}$  $\sim$   $\sim$

$$
\Psi(\mathbf{f}) \triangleq \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) + \log p(\mathbf{f}|X) \n= \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{f}^\top K^{-1}\mathbf{f} - \frac{1}{2}\log|K| - \frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi.
$$
\n(3.12)

Differentiating eq. (3.12) w.r.t. **f** we obtain

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\n
$$
\nabla \Psi(\mathbf{f}) = \left[ \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} \mathbf{f}, \right]
$$
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$$
\nabla \nabla \Psi(\mathbf{f}) = \left[ \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \right] - K^{-1} = \left[ \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \right] \tag{3.13}
$$
\n
$$
\nabla \nabla \Psi(\mathbf{f}) = \left[ \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \right] - K^{-1} = \left[ \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \right] \tag{3.14}
$$

where *W* log *p*(y*|*f) is diagonal, since the likelihood factorizes over where  $W$  is diagonal, as observations are i.i.d. It can be optimised with a Newton-Rapson scheme:  $\sqrt{ }$ has a unique maximum (see section A.9 for further details).  $f^{new} = f - (\nabla \nabla \Psi)^{-1} \nabla \Psi = f + (K^{-1} + W)^{-1} (\nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} \mathbf{f})$  $=(K^{-1} + W)^{-1}(Wf + \nabla \log p(y|f)).$   $\sim$  (3.18)  $N_{\text{eff}}$  method, with the interaction  $\nu$ 

log likelihoods used likelihoods used the logistic, and the cumulative Gaussian, see  $G$ aussian, see  $G$ aussi



## EXPECTATION PROPAGATION



- A (better) alternative to Laplace approximation is to use a variational method, typically for the probit activation function.
- A first option is to approximate the posterior distribution by a Gaussian *q*, minimising the (reversed) KL divergence *KL*(*q*(**f**|*X*, **y**), *p*(**f**|*X*, **y**)) (the minimisation of the KL divergence
- $KL(p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}), \overline{q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y})})$  is intractable).
- $\bullet$  Alternatively, one can use the Expectation Propagation algorithm, which constructs iteratively (over obs *i*, until convergence) a Gaussian approximation of the posterior by
	- **1** taking the current Gaussian approximation and factoring out the term for the *i*-th likelihood  $p(y_i | f_i)$ , obtaining a distribution for all observations but the *i*-th one.
	- <sup>2</sup> multiplying the cavity by the exact likelihood of the *i*-th observation, and finding a Gaussian approximation by moment matching of such a (non-Gaussian) distribution.
- EP is more accurate than Laplace approximation, and provides also an approximation of the Marginal likelihood.

## PITFALLS OF GP PREDICTION

- Addition of a new observation *always* reduces uncertainty at all points  $\rightarrow$  vulnerable to outliers
- Optimisation of hyperparameters often tricky: works well if  $\sigma^2$  is known, otherwise it can be seriously multimodal
- **MAIN PROBLEM: GP prediction relies on a matrix inversion which scales cubically with the number of points!**
- Sparsification methods have been proposed but in high dimension GP regression is likely to be tricky nevertheless