Dimensionality Reduction

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Outline

Gaussian Processes

Multiple Output Processes

Approximations

Dimensionality Reduction

Latent Force Models

Outline

Gaussian Processes

Multiple Output Processes

Approximations

Dimensionality Reduction

Existing Methodologies

Dual Probabilistic PCA

Nonlinear Latent Variable Models

Examples

- 3648 Dimensions
 - 64 rows by 57 columns



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MATLAB Demo

demDigitsManifold([1 2], 'all')

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MATLAB Demo

demDigitsManifold([1 2], 'sixnine')



Pure Rotation is too Simple

- In practice the data may undergo several distortions.
 - *e.g.* digits undergo 'thinning', translation and rotation.
- For data with 'structure':
 - we expect fewer distortions than dimensions;
 - we therefore expect the data to live on a lower dimensional manifold.
- Conclusion: deal with high dimensional data by looking for lower dimensional non-linear embedding.

Existing Methods

Spectral Approaches

- ► Classical Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) (Mardia et al., 1979).
 - Uses eigenvectors of similarity matrix.
 - Isomap (Tenenbaum et al., 2000) is MDS with a particular proximity measure.
 - Kernel PCA (Schölkopf et al., 1998)
 - Provides a representation and a mapping dimensional expansion.
 - Mapping is implied throught he use of a kernel function as a similarity matrix.
 - ► Locally Linear Embedding (Roweis and Saul, 2000).
 - Looks to preserve locally linear relationships in a low dimensional space.

Iterative Methods

- Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)
 - Iterative optimisation of a stress function (Kruskal, 1964).
 - Sammon Mappings (Sammon, 1969).
 - Strictly speaking not a mapping similar to iterative MDS.
- NeuroScale (Lowe and Tipping, 1997)
 - Augmentation of iterative MDS methods with a mapping.

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Difficulty for Probabilistic Approaches

 Propagate a probability distribution through a non-linear mapping.

The New Model

A Probabilistic Non-linear PCA

- PCA has a probabilistic interpretation (Tipping and Bishop, 1999; Roweis, 1998).
- It is difficult to 'non-linearise'.

Dual Probabilistic PCA

- We present a new probabilistic interpretation of PCA (Lawrence, 2005).
- This interpretation can be made non-linear.
- The result is non-linear probabilistic PCA.

q— dimension of latent/embedded space p— dimension of data space n— number of data points

centred data,
$$\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{y}_{1,:}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{n,:}]^{\top} = [\mathbf{y}_{:,1}, \dots, \mathbf{y}_{:,p}] \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times p}$$

latent variables, $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_{1,:}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{n,:}]^{\top} = [\mathbf{x}_{:,1}, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{:,q}] \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times q}$
mapping matrix, $\mathbf{W} \in \mathfrak{R}^{p \times q}$

a_{i,:} is a vector from the *i*th row of a given matrix **A a**_{:,j} is a vector from the *j*th row of a given matrix **A**

X and Y are *design matrices*

- Covariance given by $n^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}$.
- ► Inner product matrix given by **YY**^T.

Linear Dimensionality Reduction

Linear Latent Variable Model

- Represent data, Y, with a lower dimensional set of latent variables X.
- Assume a linear relationship of the form

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:},$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right).$$

Probabilistic PCA

 Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

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Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
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 - Define Gaussian prior over *latent space*, X.
 - Integrate out *latent variables*.



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$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

Computation of the Marginal Likelihood

$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})$

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 $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top}),$
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Probabilistic PCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Tipping and Bishop, 1999)



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})$$

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$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}\right) = -\frac{n}{2}\log|\mathbf{C}| - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}\right) + \mathrm{const.}$$

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$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_q \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \left(\mathbf{\Lambda}_q - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Dual Probabilistic PCA

 Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.



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Equivalence of Formulations

The Eigenvalue Problems are equivalent

Solution for Probabilistic PCA (solves for the mapping)

$$\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{U}_q = \mathbf{U}_q\mathbf{\Lambda}_q \qquad \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_q\mathbf{L}\mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Solution for Dual Probabilistic PCA (solves for the latent positions)

$$\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime} = \mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime}\mathbf{\Lambda}_{q} \qquad \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Equivalence is from

$$\mathbf{U}_q = \mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{U}_q' \mathbf{\Lambda}_q^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
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Dual Probabilistic PCA

 Inspection of the marginal likelihood shows ...



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 - The covariance matrix is a covariance function.



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 - The covariance matrix is a covariance function.
 - We recognise it as the 'linear kernel'.



 $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$

This is a product of Gaussian processes with linear kernels.

Dual Probabilistic PCA

- Inspection of the marginal likelihood shows ...
 - The covariance matrix is a covariance function.
 - We recognise it as the 'linear kernel'.
 - We call this the Gaussian Process
 Latent Variable model (GP-LVM).



K =?

Replace linear kernel with non-linear kernel for non-linear model.

Exponentiated Quadratic (EQ) Covariance

• The EQ covariance has the form $k_{i,j} = k(\mathbf{x}_{i,:}, \mathbf{x}_{j,:})$, where

$$k\left(\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\mathbf{x}_{j,:}\right) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\left\|\mathbf{x}_{i,:}-\mathbf{x}_{j,:}\right\|_{2}^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right).$$

- No longer possible to optimise wrt X via an eigenvalue problem.
- Instead find gradients with respect to X, α, ℓ and σ² and optimise using conjugate gradients.

Applications

Style Based Inverse Kinematics

 Facilitating animation through modeling human motion (Grochow et al., 2004)

Tracking

► Tracking using human motion models (Urtasun et al., 2005, 2006)

Assisted Animation

Generalizing drawings for animation (Baxter and Anjyo, 2006)

Shape Models

 Inferring shape (e.g. pose from silhouette). (Ek et al., 2008b,a; Priacuriu and Reid, 2011a,b)

Example: Latent Doodle Space

(Baxter and Anjyo, 2006)



http://vimeo.com/3235882

(Baxter and Anjyo, 2006)

Generalization with much less Data than Dimensions

- Powerful uncertainly handling of GPs leads to surprising properties.
- Non-linear models can be used where there are fewer data points than dimensions *without overfitting*.

(Urtasun and Darrell, 2007)

• We introduce a prior that is based on the Fisher criteria

$$p(\mathbf{X}) \propto \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{\sigma_d^2} \operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{S}_w^{-1}\mathbf{S}_b\right)\right\}$$

with \mathbf{S}_b the between class matrix and \mathbf{S}_w the within class matrix



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where $\mathbf{X}^{(i)} = [\mathbf{x}_1^{(i)}, \cdots, \mathbf{x}_{n_i}^{(i)}]$ are the n_i training points of class i, \mathbf{M}_i is the mean of the elements of class i, and \mathbf{M}_0 is the mean of all the training points of all classes.

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$$\mathbf{S}_{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{n_{i}}{n} (\mathbf{M}_{i} - \mathbf{M}_{0}) (\mathbf{M}_{i} - \mathbf{M}_{0})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

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$$\mathbf{S}_{b} = \sum_{i=1}^{L} \frac{n_{i}}{n} \left[\frac{1}{n_{i}} \sum_{k=1}^{n_{i}} (\mathbf{x}_{k}^{(i)} - \mathbf{M}_{i}) (\mathbf{x}_{k}^{(i)} - \mathbf{M}_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} \right]$$

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(Lu and Tang, 2014)

- First system to surpass human performance on cropped Learning Faces in Wild Data. http://tinyurl.com/nkt9a38
- Lots of feature engineering, followed by a Discriminative GP-LVM.



Figure 4: The ROC curve on LFW. Our method achieves the best performance, beating human-level performance.



Figure 5: The two rows present examples of matched and mismatched pairs respectively from LFW that were incorrectly classified by the GaussianFace model.

Conclusion and Future Work

This second second second state 1 A failed To de La second second

Continuous Character Control

(Levine et al., 2012)

 Graph diffusion prior for enforcing connectivity between motions.

$$\log p(\mathbf{X}) = w_c \sum_{i,j} \log K_{ij}^d$$

with the graph diffusion kernel \mathbf{K}^d obtain from

 $K_{ij}^d = \exp(\beta \mathbf{H})$ with $\mathbf{H} = -\mathbf{T}^{-1/2}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{T}^{-1/2}$

the graph Laplacian, and **T** is a diagonal matrix with $T_{ii} = \sum_{j} w(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$,

$$L_{ij} = \begin{cases} \sum_k w(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_k) & \text{if } i = j \\ -w(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

and $w(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j\|^{-p}$ measures similarity.
Character Control: Results

Other Topics

- Local distance preservation Details
- Dynamical models
 Details
- Hierarchical models
- Bayesian GP-LVM
 Details

Local Distance Preservation (Lawrence and Quiñonero Candela, 2006)

- Most dimensional reduction techniques preserve local distances.
- The GP-LVM does not.
- GP-LVM maps smoothly from latent to data space.
 - Points close in latent space are close in data space.
 - This does not imply points close in data space are close in latent space.
- Kernel PCA maps smoothly from data to latent space.
 - Points close in data space are close in latent space.
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Forward Mapping (demBackMapping in oxford toolbox)

Mapping from 1-D latent space to 2-D data space.

$$y_1 = x^2 - 0.5, \quad y_2 = -x^2 + 0.5$$



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Backward Mapping (demBackMapping in oxford toolbox)

Mapping from 2-D data space to 1-D latent.

$$x = 0.5\left(y_1^2 + y_2^2 + 1\right)$$



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Mapping from 2-D data space to 1-D latent.

$$x = 0.5\left(y_1^2 + y_2^2 + 1\right)$$



Backward Mapping (demBackMapping in oxford toolbox)

Mapping from 2-D data space to 1-D latent.

$$x = 0.5\left(y_1^2 + y_2^2 + 1\right)$$



Multi-Dimensional Scaling with a Mapping

 Lowe and Tipping (1997) made latent positions a function of the data.

$$x_{i,j} = f_j\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}; \mathbf{v}\right)$$

- Function was either multi-layer perceptron or a radial basis function network.
- Their motivation was different from ours:
 - They wanted to add the advantages of a true mapping to multi-dimensional scaling.

Back Constraints in the GP-LVM

Back Constraints

- We can use the same idea to force the GP-LVM to respect local distances.(Lawrence and Quiñonero Candela, 2006)
 - By constraining each x_i to be a 'smooth' mapping from y_i local distances can be respected.
- This works because in the GP-LVM we maximise wrt latent variables, we don't integrate out.
- Can use any 'smooth' function:
 - 1. Neural network.
 - 2. RBF Network.
 - 3. Kernel based mapping.

Optimising BC-GPLVM

Computing Gradients

GP-LVM normally proceeds by optimising

 $L\left(\mathbf{X}\right) = \log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right)$

with respect to **X** using $\frac{dL}{dX}$.

The back constraints are of the form

$$x_{i,j} = f_j\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:};\mathbf{v}\right)$$

where **v** are parameters.

• We can compute $\frac{dL}{dv}$ via chain rule and optimise parameters of mapping.

Motion Capture Results

demStick1 and demStick3

Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data with (*right*) and without (*left*) back constraints.

Motion Capture Results

demStick1 and demStick3



Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data with (*right*) and without (*left*) back constraints.

Stick Man Results

demStickResults



Projection into data space from four points in the latent space. The inclination of the runner changes becoming more upright.

Adding Dynamics

MAP Solutions for Dynamics Models

- Data often has a temporal ordering.
- Markov-based dynamics are often used.
- For the GP-LVM
 - Marginalising such dynamics is intractable.
 - But: MAP solutions are trivial to implement.
- Many choices: Kalman filter, Markov chains etc..
- Wang et al. (2006) suggest using a Gaussian Process.

Gaussian Process Dynamics

GP-LVM with Dynamics

 Autoregressive Gaussian process mapping in latent space between time points.



Gaussian Process Dynamics

GP-LVM with Dynamics

 Autoregressive Gaussian process mapping in latent space between time points.



Gaussian Process Dynamics

GP-LVM with Dynamics

 Autoregressive Gaussian process mapping in latent space between time points.



Motion Capture Results

demStick1 and demStick2

Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data without dynamics (*left*), with auto-regressive dynamics (*right*) based on an exponentiated quadratic kernel.

Motion Capture Results

demStick1 and demStick2



Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data without dynamics (*left*), with auto-regressive dynamics (*right*) based on an exponentiated quadratic kernel.

Inner Groove Distortion

- Autoregressive unimodal dynamics, p(x_t|x_{t-1}).
- Forces spiral visualisation.
- Poorer model due to inner groove distortion.



Direct use of Time Variable

- Instead of auto-regressive dynamics, consider regressive dynamics.
- ► Take **t** as an input, use a prior *p*(**X**|**t**).
- User a Gaussian process prior for $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{t})$.
- Also allows us to consider variable sample rate data.

Motion Capture Results

demStick1, demStick2 and demStick5

Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data without dynamics (*left*), with auto-regressive dynamics (*middle*) and with regressive dynamics (*right*) based on an exponentiated quadratic kernel.

Motion Capture Results

demStick1, demStick2 and demStick5



Figure : The latent space for the motion capture data without dynamics (*left*), with auto-regressive dynamics (*middle*) and with regressive dynamics (*right*) based on an exponentiated quadratic kernel.

(Lawrence and Moore, 2007)

Stacking Gaussian Processes

- Regressive dynamics provides a simple hierarchy.
 - The input space of the GP is governed by another GP.
- By stacking GPs we can consider more complex hierarchies.
- Ideally we should marginalise latent spaces
 - In practice we seek MAP solutions.

Two Correlated Subjects

(Lawrence and Moore, 2007)



Figure : Hierarchical model of a 'high five'.

Within Subject Hierarchy

(Lawrence and Moore, 2007)

Decomposition of Body



Figure : Decomposition of a subject.

Single Subject Run/Walk

(Lawrence and Moore, 2007)



Figure : Hierarchical model of a walk and a run.



- GP-LVM Provides probabilistic non-linear dimensionality reduction.
- How to select the dimensionality?
- Need to estimate marginal likelihood.
- ► In standard GP-LVM it increases with increasing *q*.

Bayesian GP-LVM

• Start with a standard GP-LVM.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}\right)$$

Bayesian GP-LVM

- Start with a standard GP-LVM.
- Apply standard latent variable approach:
 - Define Gaussian prior over *latent space*, X.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$$

Bayesian GP-LVM

- Start with a standard GP-LVM.
- Apply standard latent variable approach:
 - Define Gaussian prior over *latent space*, X.
 - Integrate out *latent variables*.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{q} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{:,j} | \mathbf{0}, \alpha_i^{-2} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Bayesian GP-LVM

- Start with a standard GP-LVM.
- Apply standard latent variable approach:
 - Define Gaussian prior over *latent space*, X.
 - Integrate out *latent* variables.
 - Unfortunately integration is intractable.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}\right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{q} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \alpha_{i}^{-2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = ??$$

Standard Variational Approach Fails

Standard variational bound has the form:

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\langle \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})} + \mathrm{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{X}) \parallel p(\mathbf{X})\right)$$

Standard Variational Approach Fails

Standard variational bound has the form:

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\langle \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})} + \mathrm{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{X}) \parallel p(\mathbf{X})\right)$$

► Requires expectation of log *p*(**y**|**X**) under *q*(**X**).

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^{\top} \left(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \log \left|\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right| - \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi$$
Standard variational bound has the form:

$$\mathcal{L} = \left\langle \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})} + \mathrm{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{X}) \| p(\mathbf{X})\right)$$

► Requires expectation of log *p*(**y**|**X**) under *q*(**X**).

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^{\top} \left(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \log \left|\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right| - \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi$$

 Extremely difficult to compute because K_{f,f} is dependent on X and appears in the inverse.

$$p(\mathbf{y}) \ge \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \int \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) p(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \int \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right) p(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X} \geq \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right) p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X}p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}$$

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X} \geq \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right) p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X}p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}$$

Apply variational lower bound to the inner integral.

Variational Bayesian GP-LVM

Consider collapsed variational bound,

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X} \geq \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right) p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X}p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}$$

• Apply variational lower bound to the inner integral.

$$\int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X})}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} \right) p(\mathbf{X}) d\mathbf{X}$$

$$\geq \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log c_{i} \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

$$+ \left\langle \log \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X})}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} \right) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

$$+ \operatorname{KL} \left(q(\mathbf{X}) || p(\mathbf{X}) \right)$$

Variational Bayesian GP-LVM

Consider collapsed variational bound,

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X} \geq \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right) p(\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{X}p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u}$$

• Apply variational lower bound to the inner integral.

$$\int \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} \right) p(\mathbf{X}) d\mathbf{X}$$

$$\geq \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log c_{i} \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

$$+ \left\langle \log \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X})}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} \right) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

$$+ \operatorname{KL} \left(q(\mathbf{X}) \parallel p(\mathbf{X}) \right)$$

Which is analytically tractable for Gaussian q(X) and some covariance functions.

Required Expectations

► Need expectations under *q*(**X**) of:

$$\log c_i = \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left[k_{i,i} - \mathbf{k}_{i,\mathbf{u}}^\top \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{k}_{i,\mathbf{u}} \right]$$

and

$$\log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f} | \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{Y})}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}\right) = -\frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi \sigma^{2} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \left(y_{i} - \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{u}\right)^{2}$$

This requires the expectations

$$\left\langle \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\right\rangle _{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

and

$$\left\langle \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f}}\right\rangle _{q(\mathbf{X})}$$

which can be computed analytically for some covariance functions.

Titsias and Lawrence (2010)

- Variational marginalization of X allows us to learn parameters of *p*(X).
- Standard GP-LVM where X learnt by MAP, this is not possible (see e.g. Wang et al., 2008).
- ► First example: learn the dimensionality of latent space.











$$\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I}) \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$
$$y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$$



 $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}) \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I})$ $y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$



 $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}) \quad x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha_i)$ $y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$



$$w_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha_i) \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$$

 $y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2)$

Non-linear $f(\mathbf{x})$

• In linear case equivalence because $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$

 $p(w_i) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha_i)$

- ► In non linear case, need to scale columns of X in prior for *f*(**x**).
- ► This implies scaling columns of **X** in covariance function

$$k(\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\mathbf{x}_{j,:}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_{:,i} - \mathbf{x}_{:,j})^{\top}\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}_{:,i} - \mathbf{x}_{:,j})\right)$$

A is diagonal with elements α_i^2 . Now keep prior spherical

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{q} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{:,j} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\right)$$

 Covariance functions of this type are known as ARD (see e.g. Neal, 1996; MacKay, 2003; Rasmussen and Williams, 2006).

Automatic dimensionality detection

• Achieved by employing an *Automatic Relevance Determination* (*ARD*) covariance function for the prior on the GP mapping

•
$$f \sim GP(\mathbf{0}, k_f)$$
 with
 $k_f(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{q=1}^Q w_q \left(x_{i,q} - x_{j,q}\right)^2\right)$

Example



Gaussian Process Dynamical Systems

(Damianou et al., 2011)



- ► Assume a GP prior for *p*(**X**).
- ► Input to the process is time, *p*(**X**|*t*).

Interpolation of HD Video

Modeling Multiple 'Views'

- Single space to model correlations between two different data sources, e.g., images & text, image & pose.
- Shared latent spaces: (Shon et al., 2006; Navaratnam et al., 2007; Ek et al., 2008b)



- Effective when the 'views' are correlated.
- But not all information is shared between both 'views'.
- ▶ PCA applied to concatenated data vs CCA applied to data.

Shared-Private Factorization

- In real scenarios, the 'views' are neither fully independent, nor fully correlated.
- Shared models
 - either allow information relevant to a single view to be mixed in the shared signal,
 - or are unable to model such private information.
- Solution: Model shared and private information (Virtanen et al., 2011; Ek et al., 2008a; Leen and Fyfe, 2006; Klami and Kaski, 2007, 2008; Tucker, 1958)



 Probabilistic CCA is case when dimensionality of Z matches Y⁽ⁱ⁾ (cf Inter Battery Factor Analysis (Tucker, 1958)).

Manifold Relevance Determination



Damianou et al. (2012)



Shared GP-LVM



Separate ARD parameters for mappings to $\mathbf{Y}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{Y}^{(2)}$.

Example: Yale faces



- Dataset Y: 3 persons under all illumination conditions
- Dataset Z: As above for 3 different persons
- Align datapoints \mathbf{x}_n and \mathbf{z}_n only based on the lighting direction

Results

- Latent space X initialised with 14 dimensions
- Weights define a segmentation of X
- Video / demo...



Potential applications..?





Manifold Relevance Determination

Latent Force Models

Neil D. Lawrence

GPRS 25th–27th February 2015



Outline

Gaussian Processes

Multiple Output Processes

Approximations

Dimensionality Reduction

Latent Force Models

Outline

Gaussian Processes

Multiple Output Processes

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Dimensionality Reduction

Latent Force Models

Second Order ODE

Motion Capture Example

ODE Model of Transporting tion of Departmention

Linear Dimensionality Reduction

- Find a lower dimensional plane embedded in a higher dimensional space.
- The plane is described by the matrix $\mathbf{W} \in \mathfrak{R}^{p \times q}$.



 Linear relationship between the data, X, and a reduced dimensional representation, F.

 $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{W} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon},$

 $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0,\Sigma
ight)$

Problem is we don't know what F should be!

Marionette Analogy


Marionette Analogy



- Define a *probability distribution* for **F**.
- ► Marginalize out **F** (integrate over).
- Optimize with respect to **W**.
- For Gaussian distribution, $\mathbf{F} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I})$
 - and $\Sigma = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}$ we have probabilistic PCA (Tipping and Bishop, 1999; Roweis, 1998).
 - and Σ constrained to be diagonal, we have factor analysis.

Dimensionality Reduction: Temporal Data



Figure : PCA: Pure sampling from a Gaussian does not retain temporal effects.

Dimensionality Reduction: Temporal Data



Figure : Kalman filter (Rauch-Tung-Striebel smoother) is Markov-Gaussian (non smooth).

Dimensionality Reduction: Temporal Data



Figure : General Gaussian processes allow for priors over *smooth* functions.

Mechanical Analogy

Back to Mechanistic Models!

- These models rely on the latent variables to provide the dynamic information.
- We now introduce a further dynamical system with a *mechanistic* inspiration.
- Physical Interpretation:
 - the latent functions, $f_i(t)$ are q forces.
 - We observe the displacement of *p* springs to the forces.,
 - Interpret system as the force balance equation, $XD = FS + \epsilon$.
 - Forces act, e.g. through levers a matrix of sensitivities,
 S ∈ ℜ^{q×p}.
 - Diagonal matrix of spring constants, $\mathbf{D} \in \mathfrak{R}^{p \times p}$.
 - Original System: $W = SD^{-1}$.

• Add a damper and give the system mass.

$$\mathbf{FS} = \ddot{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{M} + \dot{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{C} + \mathbf{X}\mathbf{D} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}.$$

- Now have a second order mechanical system.
- It will exhibit inertia and resonance.
- There are many systems that can also be represented by differential equations.
 - ► When being forced by latent function(s), {f_i(t)}^q_{i=1}, we call this a *latent force model*.

Physical Analogy



Gaussian Process priors and Latent Force Models

Driven Harmonic Oscillator

- For Gaussian process we can compute the covariance matrices for the output displacements.
- For one displacement the model is

$$m_k \ddot{x}_k(t) + c_k \dot{x}_k(t) + d_k x_k(t) = b_k + \sum_{i=0}^q s_{ik} f_i(t),$$
(4)

where, m_k is the *k*th diagonal element from **M** and similarly for c_k and d_k . s_{ik} is the *i*, *k*th element of **S**.

 Model the latent forces as *q* independent, GPs with exponentiated quadratic covariances

$$k_{f_if_l}(t,t') = \exp\left(-\frac{(t-t')^2}{2\ell_i^2}\right)\delta_{il}.$$

Covariance for ODE Model

• Exponentiated Quadratic Covariance function for f(t)

$$x_j(t) = \frac{1}{m_j \omega_j} \sum_{i=1}^q s_{ji} \exp(-\alpha_j t) \int_0^t f_i(\tau) \exp(\alpha_j \tau) \sin(\omega_j (t-\tau)) d\tau$$

► Joint distribution for $x_1(t)$, $x_2(t)$, $x_3(t)$ and f(t). Damping ratios: $\boxed{\zeta_1 \quad \zeta_2 \quad \zeta_3}$ $0.125 \quad 2 \quad 1$



Covariance for ODE Model

Analogy

$$x = \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{f}_{i} \quad \mathbf{f}_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_{i}) \rightarrow x \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} \Sigma_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}\right)$$

► Joint distribution for $x_1(t)$, $x_2(t)$, $x_3(t)$ and f(t). Damping ratios: $\boxed{\zeta_1 \quad \zeta_2 \quad \zeta_3}$ $0.125 \quad 2 \quad 1$



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► Joint distribution for $x_1(t)$, $x_2(t)$, $x_3(t)$ and f(t). Damping ratios: $\boxed{\zeta_1 \quad \zeta_2 \quad \zeta_3}$ $0.125 \quad 2 \quad 1$





Figure : Joint samples from the ODE covariance, *black*: f(t), *red*: $x_1(t)$ (underdamped), *green*: $x_2(t)$ (overdamped), and *blue*: $x_3(t)$ (critically damped).



Figure : Joint samples from the ODE covariance, *black*: f(t), *red*: $x_1(t)$ (underdamped), *green*: $x_2(t)$ (overdamped), and *blue*: $x_3(t)$ (critically damped).



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Covariance for ODE

• Exponentiated Quadratic Covariance function for f(t)

$$x_j(t) = \frac{1}{m_j \omega_j} \sum_{i=1}^q s_{ji} \exp(-\alpha_j t) \int_0^t f_i(\tau) \exp(\alpha_j \tau) \sin(\omega_j (t-\tau)) d\tau$$

- ► Joint distribution for x₁(t), x₂(t), x₃(t) and f(t).
- $\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline Damping ratios: & \hline & \zeta_1 & \zeta_2 & \zeta_3 \\ \hline & 0.125 & 2 & 1 \\ \hline \end{tabular}$



Mauricio Alvarez and David Luengo (Álvarez et al., 2009, 2013)

Motion capture data: used for animating human motion.

- Multivariate time series of angles representing joint positions.
- Objective: generalize from training data to realistic motions.
- Use 2nd Order Latent Force Model with mass/spring/damper (resistor inductor capacitor) at each joint.

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Prediction of Test Motion

- Model left arm only.
- ▶ 3 balancing motions (18, 19, 20) from subject 49.
- 18 and 19 are similar, 20 contains more dramatic movements.
- Train on 18 and 19 and testing on 20
- Data was down-sampled by 32 (from 120 fps).
- Reconstruct motion of left arm for 20 given other movements.
- Compare with GP that predicts left arm angles given other body angles.

Table : Root mean squared (RMS) angle error for prediction of the left arm's configuration in the motion capture data. Prediction with the latent force model outperforms the prediction with regression for all apart from the radius's angle.

	Latent Force	Regression
Angle	Error	Error
Radius	4.11	4.02
Wrist	6.55	6.65
Hand X rotation	1.82	3.21
Hand Z rotation	2.76	6.14
Thumb X rotation	1.77	3.10
Thumb Z rotation	2.73	6.09

Mocap Results II



Figure : Predictions from LFM (solid line, grey error bars) and direct regression (crosses with stick error bars).

Motion Capture Experiments

- Data set is from the CMU motion capture data base¹.
- Two different types of movements: golf-swing and walking.
- Train on a subset of motions for each movement and test on a different subset.
- This assesses the model's ability to extrapolate.
- For testing: condition on three angles associated to the root nodes and first five and last five frames of the motion.
- Golf-swing use leave one out cross validation on four motions.
- For the walking train on 4 motions and validate on 8 motions.

Table : RMSE and R² (explained variance) for golf swing and walking

Movement	Method	RMSE	R ² (%)
Golf swing	IND GP	21.55 ± 2.35	30.99 ± 9.67
	MTGP	21.19 ± 2.18	45.59 ± 7.86
	SLFM	21.52 ± 1.93	49.32 ± 3.03
	LFM	18.09 ± 1.30	72.25 ± 3.08
Walking	IND GP	8.03 ± 2.55	30.55 ± 10.64
	MTGP	7.75 ± 2.05	37.77 ± 4.53
	SLFM	7.81 ± 2.00	36.84 ± 4.26
	LFM	7.23 ± 2.18	48.15 ± 5.66

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_{j}\left(t\right)}{\mathrm{d}t} = b_{j} + s_{j}p\left(t\right) - d_{j}m_{j}\left(t\right)$$

- Can be used as a model of gene transcription: Barenco et al., 2006; Gao et al., 2008.
- $m_j(t)$ concentration of gene *j*'s mRNA
- p(t) concentration of active transcription factor
- ▶ Model parameters: baseline *b*_{*j*}, sensitivity *s*_{*j*} and decay *d*_{*j*}
- Application: identifying co-regulated genes (targets)
- Problem: how do we fit the model when p(t) is not observed?

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Covariance for Transcription Model

RBF covariance function for p(t)

$$m_i(t) = \frac{b_i}{d_i} + s_i \exp\left(-d_i t\right) \int_0^t p(u) \exp\left(d_i u\right) \mathrm{d}u.$$

- ▶ Joint distribution for m₁(t), m₂(t), m₃(t), and p(t).
- Here:

d_1	s_1	<i>d</i> ₂	<i>s</i> ₂	<i>d</i> ₃	<i>s</i> 3	
5	5	1	1	0.5	0.5	$m_{\rm c}$

$$p(t) = p(t) = p(t) = p(t) = p(t) = p(t) = m_1(t) = m_2(t) = m_3(t)$$

Covariance for Transcription Model

RBF covariance function for p(t)

$$m = b/d + \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{p} \quad \mathbf{p} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_{i}) \rightarrow m \sim \mathcal{N}\left(b/d, \sum_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}^{\top} \Sigma_{i} \mathbf{e}_{i}\right)$$

- ▶ Joint distribution for *m*₁(*t*), *m*₂(*t*), *m*₃(*t*), and *p*(*t*).
- Here:

<i>d</i> ₁	s_1	<i>d</i> ₂	s2	d ₃	<i>s</i> ₃	
5	5	1	1	0.5	0.5	m_3

Covariance for Transcription Model

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Figure : Joint samples from the ODE covariance, *black*: p(t), *red*: $m_1(t)$ (high decay/sensitivity), *green*: $m_2(t)$ (medium decay/sensitivity) and *blue*: $m_3(t)$ (low decay/sensitivity).



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Radiation Damage in the Cell

- Radiation can damages molecules including DNA.
- Most DNA damage is quickly repaired—single strand breaks, backbone break.
- Double strand breaks are more serious—a complete disconnect along the chromosome.
- Cell cycle stages:
 - G₁: Cell is not dividing.
 - G₂: Cell is preparing for meitosis, chromosomes have divided.
 - S: Cell is undergoing meitosis (DNA synthesis).
- Main problem is in G₁. In G₂ there are two copies of the chromosome. In G₁ only one copy.

- Responsible for Repairing DNA damage
- Activates DNA Repair proteins
- Pauses the Cell Cycle (prevents replication of damage DNA)
- Initiates *apoptosis* (cell death) in the case where damage can't be repaired.
- ► Large scale feeback loop with NF-*κ*B.

p53 DNA Damage Repair



Figure : p53. *Left* unbound, *Right* bound to DNA. Images by David S. Goodsell from http://www.rcsb.org/ (see the "Molecule of the Month" feature).



Figure : Repair of DNA damage by p53. Image from Goodsell (1999).

DDB2 DNA Damage Specific DNA Binding Protein 2. (also governed by C/ EBP-beta, E2F1, E2F3,...).

*p*21 Cycline-dependent kinase inhibitor 1A (CDKN1A). A regulator of cell cycle progression. (also governed by SREBP-1a, Sp1, Sp3,...).

hPA26/SESN1 sestrin 1 Cell Cycle arrest.

BIK BCL2-interacting killer. Induces cell death (apoptosis)

TNFRSF10b tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 10b. A transducer of apoptosis signals.

Modelling Assumption

 Assume p53 affects targets as a single input module network motif (SIM).



Figure : p53 SIM network motif as modelled by Barenco et al. 2006.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_{j}\left(t\right)}{\mathrm{d}t} = b_{j} + s_{j}p\left(t\right) - d_{j}m_{j}\left(t\right)$$

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First Order Differential Equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_{j}\left(t\right)}{\mathrm{d}t} = b_{j} + s_{j}p\left(t\right) - d_{j}m_{j}\left(t\right)$$

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Gaussian process modelling of latent chemical species: applications to inferring transcription factor activities

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ABSTRACT

Motivation: Inference of *latent chemical species* in biochemical interaction networks is a key problem in estimation of the structure

A challenging problem for parameter estimation in ODE models occurs where one or more chemical species influencing the dynamics are controlled outside of the sub-system being modelled. For

p53 Results with GP

(Gao et al., 2008)



Ranking with ERK Signalling

- Target Ranking for Elk-1.
- Elk-1 is phosphorylated by ERK from the EGF signalling pathway.
- Predict concentration of Elk-1 from known targets.
- Rank other targets of Elk-1.

Elk-1 (MLP covariance)

Jennifer Withers


Elk-1 target selection

Fitted model used to rank potential targets of Elk-1



Cascaded Differential Equations

Model-based method for transcription factor target identification with limited data

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Edited by David Baker, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, and approved March 3, 2010 (received for review December 10, 2009)

We present a computational method for identifying potential targets of a transcription factor (TF) using wild-type gene expression time series data. For each putative target gene we fit a simple differential equation model of transcriptional regulation, and the used for genome-wide scoring of putative target genis required to apply our method is wild-type time serilected over a period where TF activity is changing. Ou allows for complementary evidence from expression

Cascaded Differential Equations

(Honkela et al., 2010)

- Transcription factor protein also has governing mRNA.
- This mRNA can be measured.
- In signalling systems this measurement can be misleading because it is activated (phosphorylated) transcription factor that counts.
- In development phosphorylation plays less of a role.
- Build a simple cascaded differential equation to model this.

Covariance for Translation/Transcription Model

RBF covariance function for f(t)

$$p(t) = \sigma \exp(-\delta t) \int_0^t f(u) \exp(\delta u) du$$
$$m_i(t) = \frac{b_i}{d_i} + s_i \exp(-d_i t) \int_0^t p(u) \exp(d_i u) du.$$

 Joint distribution for $m_1(t), m_2(t), m_2(t)$, p(t) and f(t).

► Here:

δ	d_1	s_1	<i>d</i> ₂	<i>s</i> ₂
1	5	5	0.5	0.5

$$f(t)$$

 $p(t)$



C (....

- Use mRNA of Twist as driving input.
- For each gene build a cascade model that forces Twist to be the only TF.
- Compare fit of this model to a baseline (*e.g.* similar model but sensitivity zero).
- Rank according to the likelihood above the baseline.
- Compare with correlation, knockouts and time series network identification (TSNI) (Della Gatta et al., 2008).



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0002526.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0003486.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0011206.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn00309055.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0031907.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0035257.



Figure : Model for flybase gene identity FBgn0039286.

- Evaluate the ranking methods by taking a number of top-ranked targets and record the number of "positives" (Zinzen et al., 2009):
 - targets with ChIP-chip binding sites within 2 kb of gene
 - (targets differentially expressed in TF knock-outs)
- Compare against
 - Ranking by correlation of expression profiles
 - Ranking by *q*-value of differential expression in knock-outs
- Optionally focus on genes with annotated expression in tissues of interest

Results



'***': p < 0.001, '**': p < 0.01, '*': p < 0.05



- Cascade models allow genomewide analysis of potential targets given only expression data.
- Once a set of potential candidate targets have been identified, they can be modelled in a more complex manner.
- We don't have ground truth, but evidence indicates that the approach *can* perform as well as knockouts.

Partial Differential Equations and Latent Forces

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- Can extend the concept to latent functions in PDEs.
- Jura data: concentrations of heavy metal pollutants from the Swiss Jura.
- Consider a latent function that represents how the pollutants were originally laid down (initial condition).
- Assume pollutants diffuse at different rates resulting in the concentrations observed in the data set.

$$\frac{\partial x_q(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{j=1}^d \kappa_q \frac{\partial^2 x_q(\mathbf{x},t)}{\partial x_j^2},$$

 Latent function *f_r*(**x**) represents the concentration of pollutants at time zero (i.e. the system's initial condition).

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► The solution to the system (Polyanin, 2002) is then given by

$$x_q(\mathbf{x},t) = \sum_{r=1}^R S_{rq} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f_r(\mathbf{x}') G_q(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}',t) d\mathbf{x}'$$

where $G_q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', t)$ is the Green's function given as

$$G_q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', t) = \frac{1}{2^d \pi^{d/2} T_q^{d/2}} \exp\left[-\sum_{j=1}^d \frac{(x_j - x'_j)^2}{4T_q}\right],$$

with
$$T_q = \kappa_q t$$
.

Covariance Function

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 For latent function given by a GP with the RBF covariance function this is tractable.

$$k_{x_p x_q}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', t) = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{S_{rp} S_{rq} |\mathbf{L}_r|^{1/2}}{|\mathbf{L}_{rp} + \mathbf{L}_{rq} + \mathbf{L}_r|^{1/2}} \\ \times \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')^{\top} (\mathbf{L}_{rp} + \mathbf{L}_{rq} + \mathbf{L}_r)^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}')\right],$$

where \mathbf{L}_{rp} , \mathbf{L}_{rq} and \mathbf{L}_r are diagonal isotropic matrices with entries $2\kappa_p t$, $2\kappa_q t$ and $1/\ell_r^2$ respectively. The covariance function between the output and latent functions is given by

$$k_{x_q f_r}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}', t) = \frac{S_{rq} |\mathbf{L}_r|^{1/2}}{|\mathbf{L}_{rq} + \mathbf{L}_r|^{1/2}}$$

Prediction of Metal Concentrations

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- ▶ Replicate experiments in (Goovaerts, 1997, pp. 248,249):
 - Primary variable (Cd, Cu, Pb, Co) predicted in conjunction with secondary variables (Ni and Zn for Cd; Pb, Ni, and Zn for Cu; Cu, Ni, and Zn for Pb; Ni and Zn for Co).²
- Condition on the secondary variables to improve prediction for primary variables.
- Compare results for the diffusion kernel with independent GPs and "ordinary co-kriging" (Goovaerts, 1997, pp. 248,249).

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Table : Mean absolute error and standard deviation for ten repetitions of the experiment for the Jura dataset. IGPs stands for independent GPs, GPDK stands for GP diffusion kernel, OCK for ordinary co-kriging. For the Gaussian process with diffusion kernel, we learn the diffusion coefficients and the length-scale of the covariance of the latent function.

Metals	IGPs	GPDK	OCK
Cd	0.5823±0.0133	0.4505 ± 0.0126	0.5
Cu	15.9357±0.0907	7.1677±0.2266	7.8
Pb	22.9141±0.6076	10.1097 ± 0.2842	10.7
Со	2.0735 ± 0.1070	1.7546 ± 0.0895	1.5

Convolutions and Computational Complexity

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 Solutions to these differential equations is normally as a convolution.

$$x_{i}(t) = \int f(u) k_{i}(u-t) du + h_{i}(t)$$
$$x_{i}(t) = \int_{0}^{t} f(u) g_{i}(u) du + h_{i}(t)$$

- Convolution Processes (Higdon, 2002; Boyle and Frean, 2005).
- Convolutions lead to $N \times d$ size covariance matrices $O(N^3 d^3)$ complexity, $O(N^2 d^2)$ storage.
- Model is conditionally independent over {x_i(t)}^d_{i=1} given f(t).

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- Can assume conditional independence given given $\{f(t_i)\}_{i=1}^k$. (Álvarez and Lawrence, 2009)
 - Result is very similar to PITC approximation (Quiñonero Candela and Rasmussen, 2005).
 - Reduces to $O(N^3 dk^2)$ complexity, $O(N^2 dk)$ storage.
 - Can also do a FITC style approximation (Snelson and Ghahramani, 2006).
 - Reduces to $O(Ndk^2)$ complexity, O(Ndk) storage.

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- Network of tide height sensors in the solent tide heights are correlated.
- Data kindly provided by Alex Rogers (see Osborne et al., 2008).
- d = 3 and N = 1000 of the 4320 for the training set.
- Simulate sensor failure by knocking out onse sensor for a given time.
- ► For the other two sensors we used all 1000 training observations.
- Take k = 100.

Tide Height Results

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(a) Bramblemet Inde- (b) Bramblemet PITC pendent



(c) Cambermet Inde- (d) Cambermet PITC pendent

Mauricio Alvarez

- Jura dataset concentrations of several heavy metals (Atteia et al., 1994).
- Prediction 259 data, validation 100 data points.
- Predict *primary variables* (cadmium and copper) at prediction locations in conjunction with some *secondary variables* (nickel and zinc for cadmium; lead, nickel and zinc for copper) (Goovaerts, 1997, p. 248,249).

Swiss Jura Results

Mauricio Alvarez



Figure : Mean absolute error. IGP stands for independent GP, P(*M*) stands for PITC with *M* inducing values, FGP stands for full GP and CK stands for ordinary co-kriging.

Laplace's method: approximate posterior mode as Gaussian

$$p(\mathbf{p} \mid m) = N(\hat{\mathbf{p}}, \mathbf{A}^{-1}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{p} - \hat{\mathbf{p}})^{\top} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{p} - \hat{\mathbf{p}})\right)$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{p}} = \operatorname{argmax}_p(\mathbf{p} \mid \mathbf{m})$ and $\mathbf{A} = -\nabla \nabla \log p(\mathbf{p} \mid \mathbf{m}) \mid_{\mathbf{p} = \hat{\mathbf{p}}}$ is the Hessian of the negative posterior at that point. To obtain $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$ and

A, we define the following function ψ (**p**) as:

 $\log p(\mathbf{p}|\mathbf{m}) \propto \psi(\mathbf{p}) = \log p(\mathbf{m} \mid \mathbf{p}) + \log p(\mathbf{p})$

Assigning a GP prior distribution to p(t), it then follows that

$$\log p(\mathbf{p}) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{p} - \frac{1}{2}\log|\mathbf{K}| - \frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi$$

where **K** is the covariance matrix of p(t). Hence,

$$\nabla \psi(\mathbf{p}) = \nabla \log p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}) - \mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{p}$$
$$\nabla \nabla \psi(\mathbf{p}) = \nabla \nabla \log p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}) - \mathbf{K}^{-1} = -\mathbf{W} - \mathbf{K}^{-1}$$

Estimation of $\psi(\mathbf{p})$

Newton's method is applied to find the maximum of $\psi(\mathbf{p})$ as

$$\mathbf{p}^{new} = \mathbf{p} - (\nabla \nabla \psi(\mathbf{p}))^{-1} \nabla \psi(\mathbf{p})$$
$$= (\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{K}^{-1})^{-1} (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{p} - \nabla \log p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}))$$

In addition, $\mathbf{A} = -\nabla \nabla \psi(\hat{p}) = \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{K}^{-1}$ where \mathbf{W} is the negative Hessian matrix. Hence, the Laplace approximation to the posterior is a Gaussian with mean $\hat{\mathbf{p}}$ and covariance matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} as

$$p(\mathbf{p} \mid \mathbf{m}) \simeq N(\mathbf{\hat{p}}, \mathbf{A}^{-1}) = N(\mathbf{\hat{p}}, (\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{K}^{-1})^{-1})$$

Model Parameter Estimation

The marginal likelihood is useful for estimating the model parameters θ and covariance parameters ℓ

$$p(\mathbf{m}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \int p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\mathbf{p}|\boldsymbol{\phi}) dp = \int \exp(\psi(\mathbf{p})) dp$$

Using Taylor expansion of $\psi(\mathbf{p})$,

$$\log p(\mathbf{m}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \log p(\mathbf{m}|\hat{\mathbf{p}}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\phi}) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{p} - \frac{1}{2}\log|\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}\mathbf{W}|$$

The parameters $\eta = \{\theta, \phi\}$ can be then estimated by using

$$\frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{m}|\boldsymbol{\eta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\eta}} = \frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{m}|\boldsymbol{\eta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\eta}} |_{\text{explicit}} + \frac{\partial \log p(\mathbf{m}|\boldsymbol{\eta})}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{p}}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{p}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\eta}}$$

SOS Response

- DNA damage in bacteria may occur as a result of activity of antibiotics.
- LexA is bound to the genome preventing transcription of the SOS genes.
- RecA protein is stimulated by single stranded DNA, inactivates the LexA repessor.
- This allows several of the LexA targets to transcribe.
- The SOS pathway may be essential in antibiotic resistance Cirz et al. (2005).
- ► Aim is to target these proteins to produce drugs to increase efficacy of antibiotics Lee et al. (2005).

LexA Experimental Description

- ► Data from Courcelle et al. (2001)
- UV irradiation of *E. coli*. in both wild-type cells and lexA1 mutants, which are unable to induce genes under LexA control.
- Response measured with two color hybridization to cDNA arrays.

Khanin et al. Model

Given measurements of gene expression at N time points $(t_0, t_1, ..., t_{N-1})$, the temporal profile of a gene *i*, $m_i(t)$, that solves the ODE in Eq. 1 can be approximated by

$$m_{i}(t) = m_{i}^{0}e^{-d_{i}t} + \frac{b_{i}}{d_{i}} + s_{i}e^{-d_{i}t}\int_{0}^{t}F(p(u))e^{d_{i}u}du.$$

$$m_{i}(t) = m_{i}^{0}e^{-d_{i}t} + \frac{b_{i}}{d_{i}} + s_{i}e^{-d_{i}t}\frac{1}{t_{j+1} - t_{j}}\sum_{j=0}^{N-2}F(\bar{p}_{j})\left(e^{d_{i}t_{j+1}} - e^{d_{i}t_{j}}\right)$$

where $\bar{p}_j = \frac{(p(t_j)+p(t_{j+1}))}{2}$ on each subinterval $(t_j, t_j + 1), j = 0, ..., N - 2$. This is under the simplifying assumption that p(t) is a piece-wise constant function on each subinterval $(t_j, t_j + 1)$. Repression model: $F(p(t)) = \frac{1}{\gamma + e^{p(t)}}$.

Khanin et al. Results



Figure : Fig. 2 from Khanin et al. (2006): Reconstructed activity level of master repressor LexA, following a UV dose of 40 J/m2.

Khanin et al. Results



Figure : Fig. 3 from Khanin et al. (2006): Reconstructed profiles for four genes in the LexA SIM.

Pei Gao

• We can use the same model of repression,

$$F_{j}(p(t)) = \frac{1}{\gamma_{j} + e^{p(t)}}$$

In the case of repression we have to include the transient term,

$$m_{j}(t) = \alpha_{j}e^{-d_{j}t} + \frac{b_{j}}{d_{j}} + s_{j}\int_{0}^{t} e^{-d_{j}(t-u)}F_{j}(p(u))du$$
Results for the repressor LexA

Pei Gao



Figure : Our results using an MLP kernel. From Gao et al. (2008).

Use Samples to Represent Posterior

Michalis Titsias

Sample in Gaussian processes

 $p(\mathbf{p}|\mathbf{m}) \propto p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p})p(\mathbf{p})$

Likelihood relates GP to data through

$$m_{j}(t) = \alpha_{j}e^{-d_{j}t} + \frac{b_{j}}{d_{j}} + s_{j}\int_{0}^{t} e^{-d_{j}(t-u)}F_{j}(p(u))du$$

• We use *control points* for fast sampling.

MCMC for Non Linear Response

The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

- ► Initialize **p**⁽⁰⁾
- ► Form a Markov chain. Use a proposal distribution Q(p^(t+1)|p^(t)) and accept with the M-H step

$$\min\left(1, \frac{p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}^{(t+1)})p(\mathbf{p}^{(t+1)})}{p(\mathbf{m}|\mathbf{p}^{(t)})p(\mathbf{p}^{(t)})} \frac{Q(\mathbf{p}^{(t)}|\mathbf{p}^{(t+1)})}{Q(\mathbf{p}^{(t+1)}|\mathbf{p}^{(t)})}\right)$$

- **p** can be very *high dimensional* (hundreds of points)
- How do we choose the proposal $Q(\mathbf{p}^{(t+1)}|\mathbf{p}^{(t)})$?
 - ► Can we use the GP prior *p*(**p**) as the proposal?

p53 System Again

 One transcription factor (p53) that acts as an activator. We consider the Michaelis-Menten kinetic equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_j(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = b_j + s_j \frac{\exp(p(t))}{\exp(p(t)) + \gamma_j} - d_j m_j(t)$$

- We have 5 genes
- Gene expressions are available for T = 7 times and there are 3 replicas of the time series data
- ► TF (**p**) is discretized using 121 points
- MCMC details:
 - 7 control points are used (placed in a equally spaced grid)
 - Running time 4/5 hours for 2 million sampling iterations plus burn in
 - ► Acceptance rate for **p** after burn in was between 15% 25%

Data used by Barenco et al. (2006): Predicted gene expressions for the 1st replica



Data used by Barenco et al. (2006): Protein concentrations



Linear model (Barenco et al. predictions are shown as crosses)



p53 Data Kinetic parameters



Our results (grey) compared with Barenco et al. (2006) (black). Note that Barenco et al. use a linear model

Results on SOS System

Again consider the Michaelis-Menten kinetic equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_j(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = b_j + s_j \frac{1}{\exp(p(t)) + \gamma_j} - d_j m_j(t)$$

- We have 14 genes (5 kinetic parameters each)
- Gene expressions are available for T = 6 time slots
- ► TF (**p**) is discretized using 121 points
- MCMC details:
 - 6 control points are used (placed in a equally spaced grid)
 - Running time was 5 hours for 2 million sampling iterations plus burn in
 - ► Acceptance rate for **p** after burn in was between 15% 25%

Results in E.coli data: Predicted gene expressions



Results in E.coli data: Predicted gene expressions



Results in E.coli data: Predicted gene expressions



Results in E.coli data: Protein concentration



Results in E.coli data: Kinetic parameters



Results in E.coli data: Genes with low sensitivity value





Results in E.coli data: Confidence intervals for the kinetic parameters



Multiple Transcription Factors

BMC Systems Biology



This Provisional PDF corresponds to the article as it appeared upon acceptance. Fully formatted PDF and full text (HTML) versions will be made available soon.

Identifying targets of multiple co-regulating transcription factors from expression time-series by Bayesian model comparison

BMC Systems Biology 2012, 6:53 doi:10.1186/1752-0509-6-53

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ISSN 1752-0509

Article type Methodology article

- ► Stage 1: Sub-network training (~100 targets):
 - ▶ Fit regulation model on sub-network of known structure
 - Infer TF protein concentration functions
- Stage 2: Genome-wide scanning:
 - Fit alternative regulation models to all potential targets
 - Score models and identify well supported TF-target links
- Challenges:
 - Fitting and scoring >10000 models
 - Not all regulation is modelled: an open system

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Training stage: Parameter estimation on known network

(a): Training phase



Scanning stage: Bayesian evidence model scoring for

Training stage: Parameter estimation on known network

(a): Training phase



Scanning stage: Bayesian evidence model scoring for

Training stage with post-translational modification



 Scanning stage: Bayesian evidence model scoring for target inference



Model of transcriptional regulation

Transcription

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}m_j(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = F\left(p_1(t), \ldots, p_K(t); \boldsymbol{\theta}_j\right) - d_j m_j(t)$$

 $m_j(t)$ – target gene *j* mRNA concentration function $p_i(t)$ – transcription factor *i* protein concentration function $F(\mathbf{p}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ – regulation model, d_j – mRNA decay rate

Translation (optional)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}p_i(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = f_i(t) - \delta_i p_i(t)$$

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- Transcription factors considered inputs to the system
- Modelled as samples from a Gaussian process prior distribution
- Equations linear in *m*(*t*) can be solved as a function of *p*(*t*) so no need for numerical ODE solver to compute likelihood
- Useful way to close an open system
- Can ignore TF mRNA data and treat p(t) as latent function
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Artificial data: one experimental condition



Inferred TF concentrations after training stage



Artificial data: two experimental conditions



Inferred TF concentrations for condition 1



Artificial data: two experimental conditions



Inferred TF concentrations for condition 2



Artificial data: scanning performance for each TF



Artificial data: scanning performance for all TFs



Drosophila training

- Sub-network of 96 genes targeted by 5 TFs during Drosophila mesoderm development (Zinzen et al., 2009).
- Data: wild-type times series, 3 replicates (Tomancak et al., 2002).



Drosophila scanning: model ranking

- Rank target gene regulation models by their posterior probability across all 2⁵ = 32 possible models
- Validate predicted links by enrichment for genes within 2kb of ChIP-chip TF binding predictions from Zinzen et al. (2009).


Coregulated Target Example



A highly ranked putative joint target of BAP amd MEF2. The candidate gene is confirmed as a joint target by independent ChIP-chip studies Zinzen et al. (2009).

Drosophila scanning: link ranking

- TF-target link and link-pair ranking according to posterior probability of particular single TF or double TF regulations
- Validate predicted links by enrichment for genes within 2kb of ChIP-chip TF binding predictions from Zinzen et al. (2009).



Summary and Conclusion

 Middle-out approach: sub-network training followed by genome-wide scanning

- Training: Bayesian inference of regulation model parameters and TF protein concentration functions
- Scanning: Bayesian model scoring for inferring TF-target link probabilities
- ▶ More informative conditions → better performance
- Robust to existence of some unknown regulating TFs
- Significant enrichment of inferred TF-target links for nearby ChIP-chip binding in drosophila development example

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