

An introduction to Gaussian Processes

Richard Wilkinson

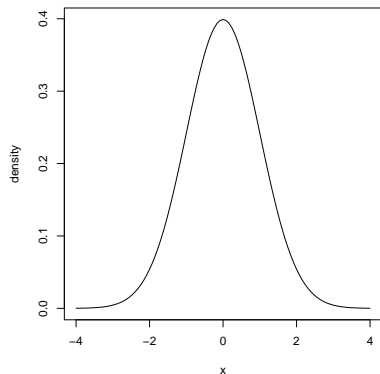
School of Maths and Statistics
University of Sheffield

GP summer school
September 2019

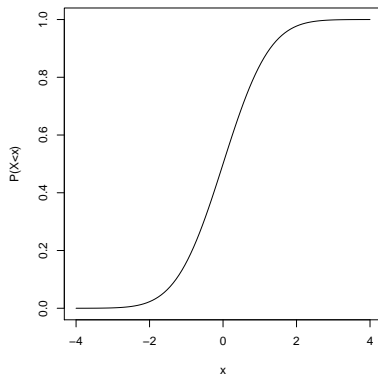
Introduction

Univariate Gaussian distributions

PDF of a $N(0,1)$ random variable



CDF of a $N(0,1)$ random variable



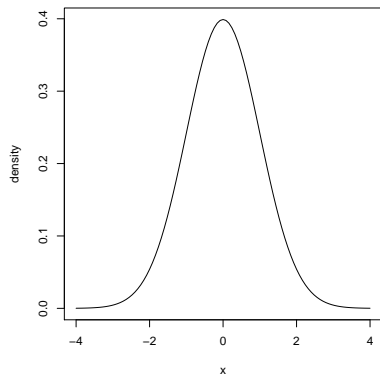
$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

PDF:
$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

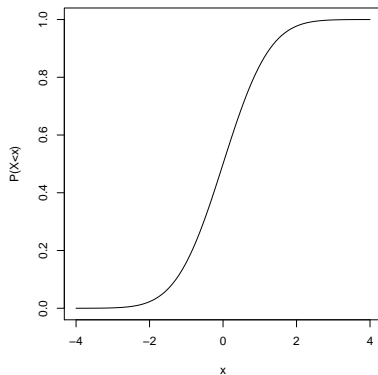
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- If normally distributed rvs X and Y are uncorrelated, then they are independent
- Square-loss functions lead to procedures that have a Gaussian probabilistic interpretation
eg Fit model $f_\beta(x)$ to data y by minimizing $\sum (y_i - f_\beta(x_i))^2$ is equivalent to maximum likelihood estimation under the assumption that $y = f_\beta(x) + \epsilon$ where $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$.

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Bivariate Gaussian: d=2

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mu = \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & \rho_{12}\sigma_1\sigma_2 \\ \rho_{21}\sigma_1\sigma_2 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\text{Var}(X_i) = \sigma_i^2 \quad \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \rho_{ij}\sigma_i\sigma_j \quad \text{Cor}(X_i, X_j) = \rho_{12} \text{ for } i \neq j$$

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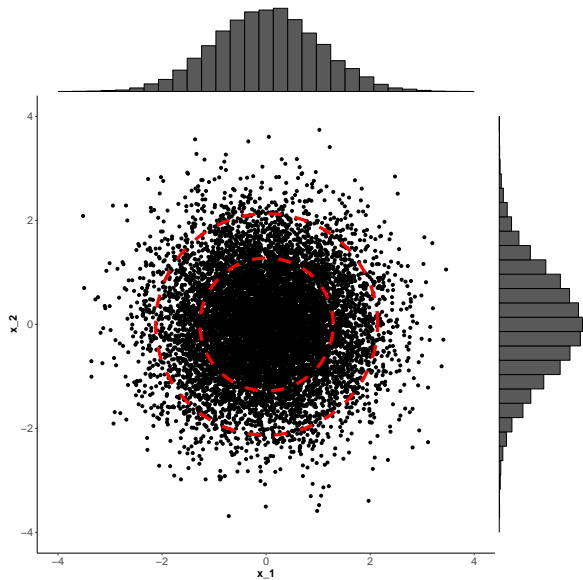
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$$\text{pdf: } f(x | \mu, \Sigma) = |\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right)$$

$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

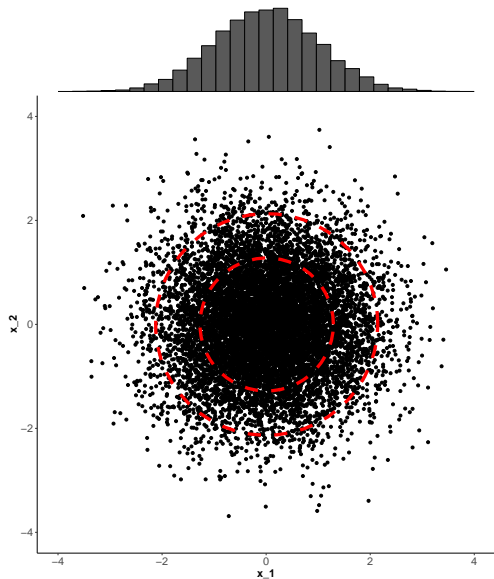
$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

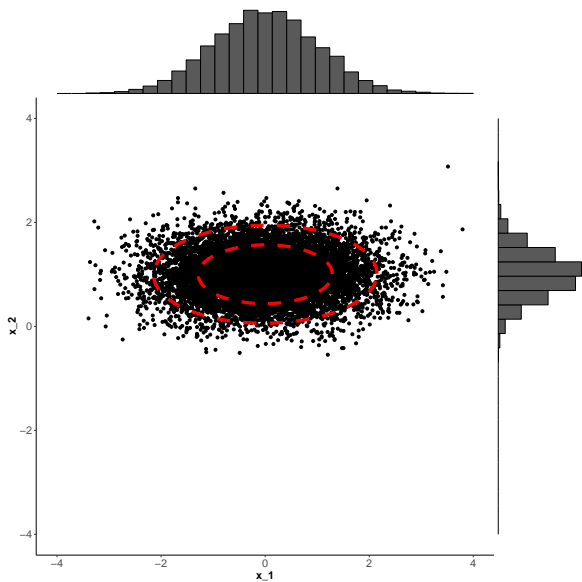


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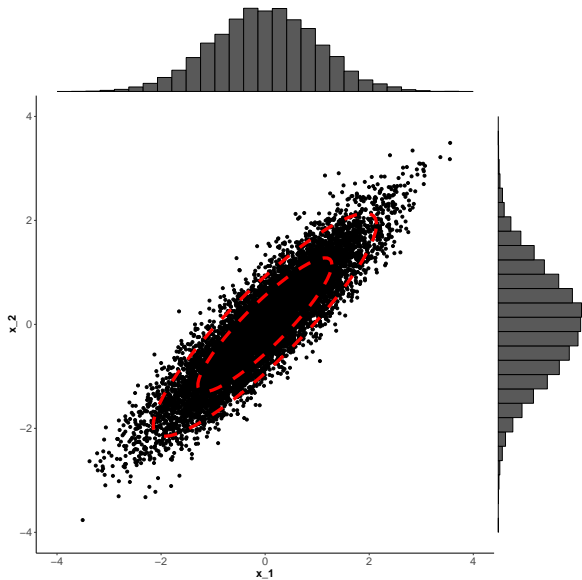
So
 $Cor(X_1, X_2) = 0$
hence X_1
independent of X_2





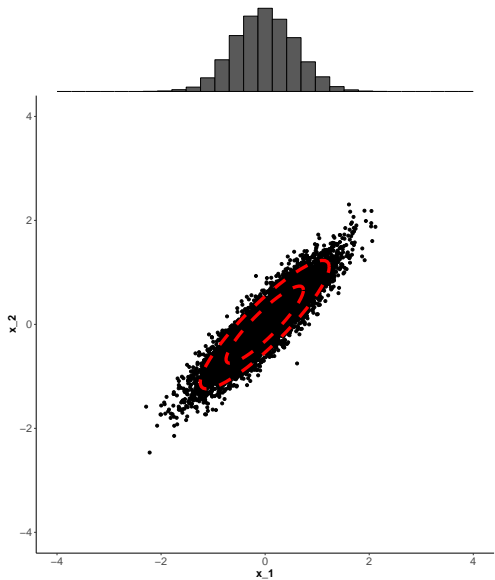
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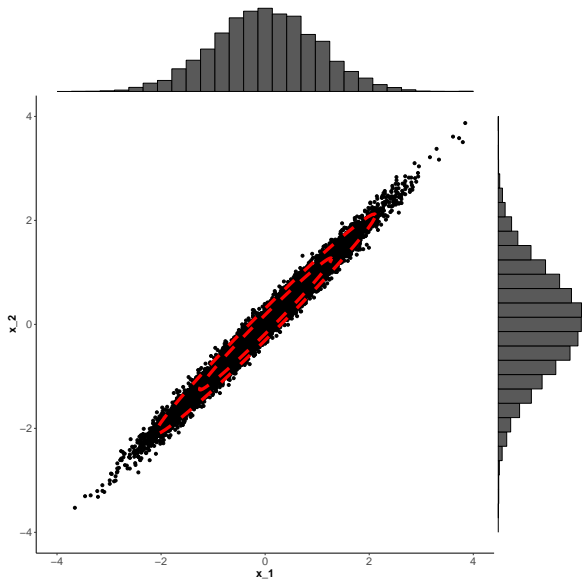
$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9 \\ 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9 \\ 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



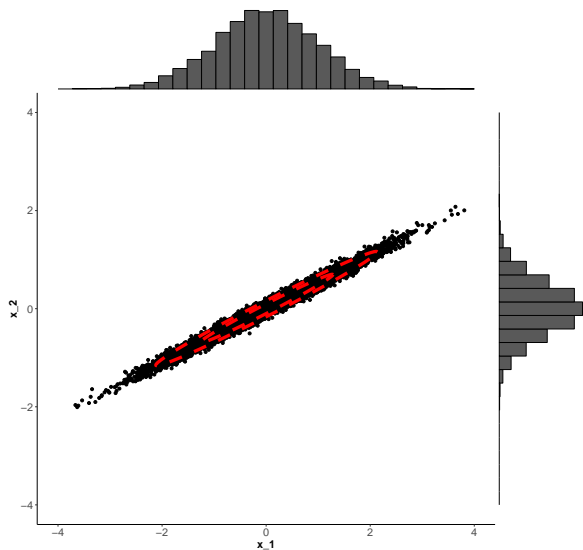
$$\mu = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.99 \\ 0.99 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.54 \\ 0.54 & 0.3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cor}(X_1, X_2) &= \\ 0.54 / \sqrt{0.3} &= \\ 0.99 & \end{aligned}$$



More pictures

Consider $d = 5$ with

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 & 0.6 \\ 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 \\ 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 \\ 0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 \\ 0.6 & 0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

It's hard to visualise in dimensions > 3 , so let's stack points next to each other.

More pictures

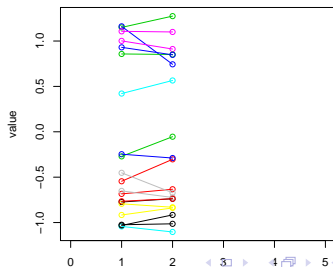
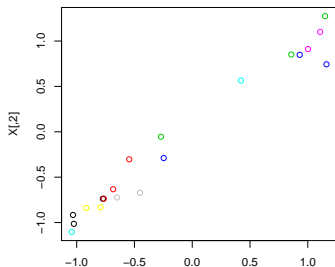
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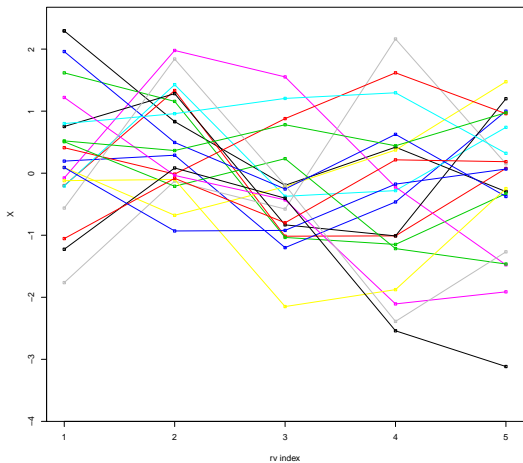
So for 2d instead of

we have



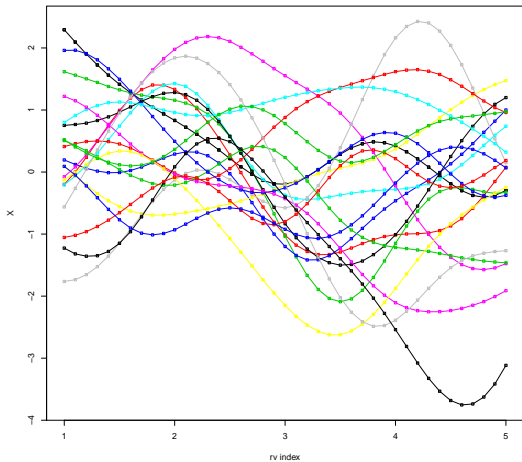
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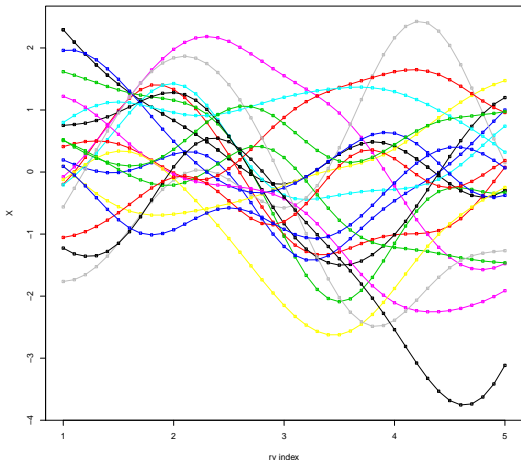
d=50

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.99 & 0.98 & 0.97 & 0.96 & \dots \\ 0.99 & 1 & 0.99 & 0.98 & 0.97 & \dots \\ 0.98 & 0.99 & 1 & 0.99 & 0.98 & \dots \\ 0.97 & 0.98 & 0.99 & 1 & 0.99 & \dots \\ 0.96 & 0.97 & 0.98 & 0.99 & 1 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$



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We can think of Gaussian processes as an infinite dimensional distribution over functions.

Gaussian processes

A stochastic process is a collection of random variables indexed by some variable $x \in \mathcal{X}$

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Thankfully we only need consider the finite dimensional distributions (FDDs), i.e., for all x_1, \dots, x_n and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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- Gives one way of generating multivariate Gaussians.

Property 2: Conditional distributions are still Gaussian

Suppose

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where

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Then

$$X_2 \mid X_1 = x_1 \sim N(\mu_2 + \Sigma_{21}\Sigma_{11}^{-1}(x_1 - \mu_1), \Sigma_{22} - \Sigma_{21}\Sigma_{11}^{-1}\Sigma_{12})$$

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$$\pi(x_2|x_1) = \frac{\pi(x_1, x_2)}{\pi(x_1)} \propto \pi(x_1, x_2)$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\pi(x_2|x_1) &= \frac{\pi(x_1, x_2)}{\pi(x_1)} \propto \pi(x_1, x_2) \\ &\propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \mu_2 \end{pmatrix} \right)^\top \begin{pmatrix} Q_{11} & Q_{12} \\ Q_{21} & Q_{22} \end{pmatrix} \dots \right]\right)\end{aligned}$$

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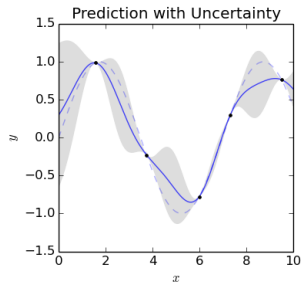
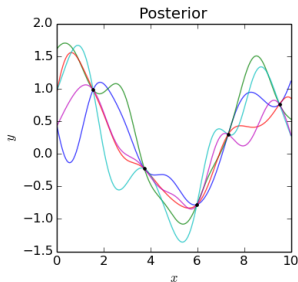
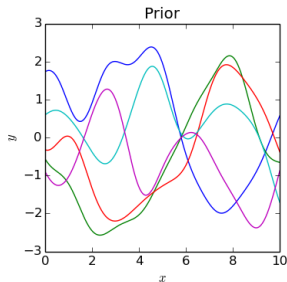
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Note that we still believe f is a GP even though we've observed its value at a number of locations.



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- Closed under any linear operator. If $f \sim GP(m(\cdot), k(\cdot, \cdot))$, then if \mathcal{L} is a linear operator

$$\mathcal{L} \circ f \sim GP(\mathcal{L} \circ m, \mathcal{L}^2 \circ k)$$

e.g. $\frac{df}{dx}$, $\int f(x)dx$, Af are all GPs

Determining the mean and covariance function

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- If mean is a linear combination of known regressor functions, e.g.,

$$m(x) = \beta h(x) \text{ for known } h(x)$$

and $\beta \sim N(\cdot, \cdot)$ is given a normal prior (including $\pi(\beta) \propto 1$), then
 $f|D, \beta \sim GP$ and

$$f|D \sim GP$$

with slightly modified mean and variance formulas.

Covariance functions

- We usually use a covariance function that is a function of distance between the locations

$$k(x, x') = \mathbb{C}ov(f(x), f(x')),$$

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- If

$$k(x, x') = \sigma^2 c(x, x')$$

and we give σ^2 an inverse gamma prior (including $\pi(\sigma^2) \propto 1/\sigma^2$) then $f|D, \sigma^2 \sim GP$ and

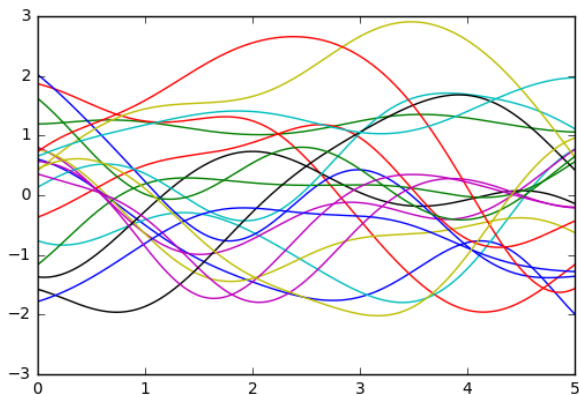
$$f|D \sim \text{t-process}$$

with $n - p$ degrees of freedom. In practice, for reasonable n , this is indistinguishable from a GP.

Examples

RBF/Squared-exponential/exponentiated quadratic

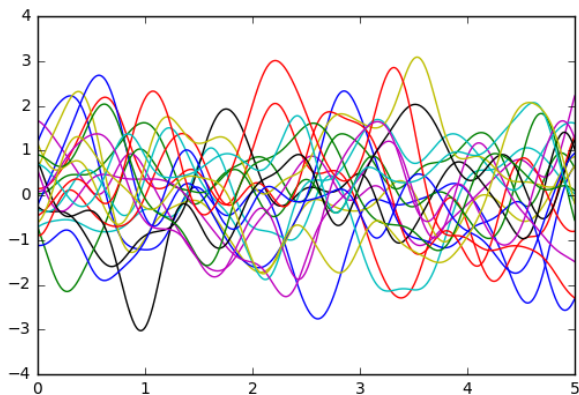
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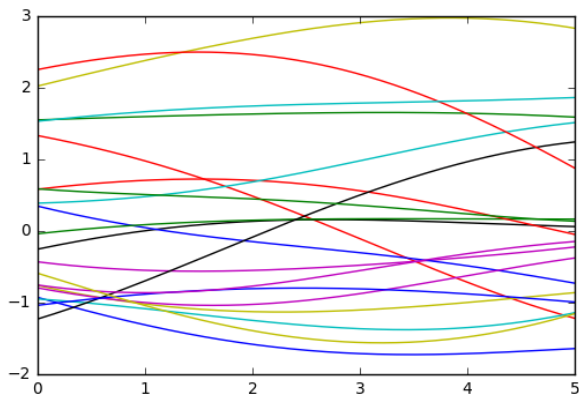
$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - x')^2}{0.25^2}\right)$$



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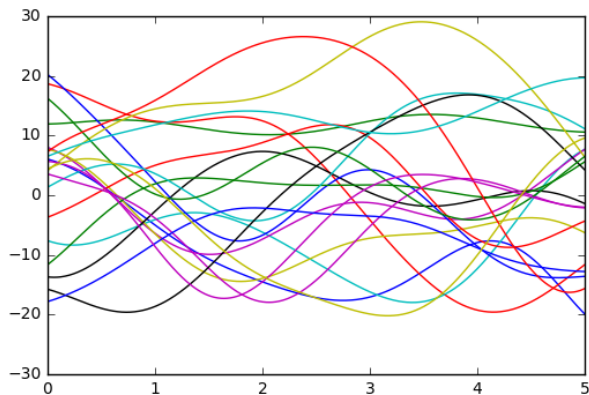
$$k(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - x')^2}{4^2}\right)$$



Examples

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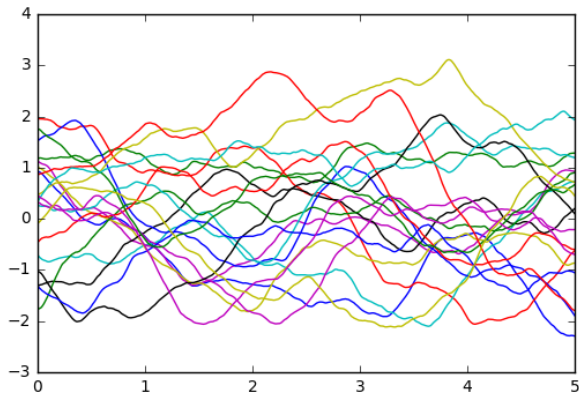
$$k(x, x') = 100 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - x')^2\right)$$



Examples

Matern 3/2

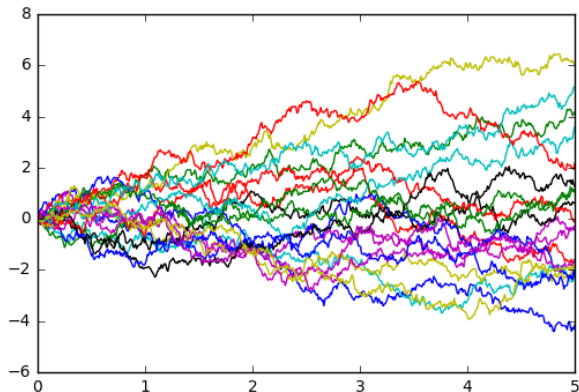
$$k(x, x') \sim (1 + |x - x'|) \exp(-|x - x'|)$$



Examples

Brownian motion

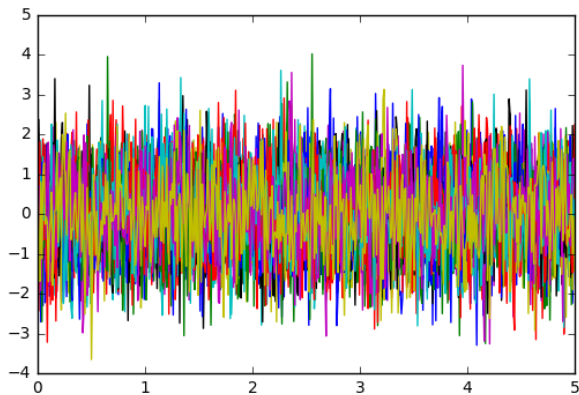
$$k(x, x') = \min(x, x')$$



Examples

White noise

$$k(x, x') = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = x' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Examples

The GP inherits its properties primarily from the covariance function k .

- Smoothness
- Differentiability
- Variance

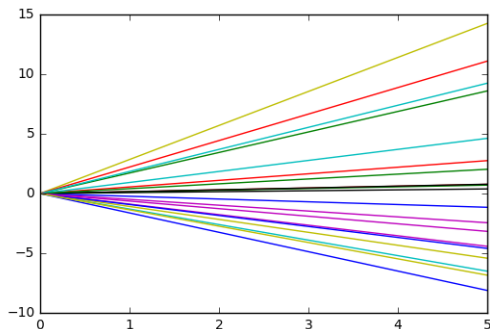
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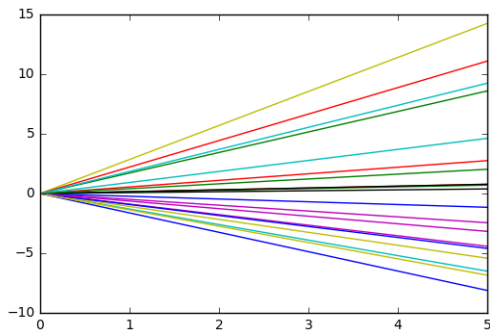
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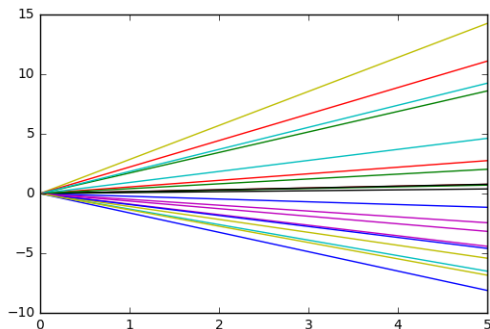
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$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}(f(x), f(x')) &= \text{Cov}(cx, cx') \\ &= x^\top \text{Cov}(c, c)x' \\ &= x^\top x'\end{aligned}$$

Conditional updates of Gaussian processes - revisited

So suppose f is a Gaussian process, then

$$f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n), f(x) \sim N(0, \Sigma)$$

where

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & k(x_1, x) \\ & & & & k(x_2, x) \\ & & K & & \vdots \\ & & & & k(x_n, x) \\ k(x, x_1) & k(x, x_2) & \dots & k(x, x_n) & k(x, x) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $K_{ij} = k(x_i, x_j)$ is the Gram/kernel matrix.

Conditional updates of Gaussian processes - revisited

Then

$$f(x)|f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n) \sim N(m(x), c(x))$$

where

$$m(x) = k(x)(K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1}y$$

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$$k(x) = (k(x, x_1) \ k(x, x_2) \ \dots \ k(x, x_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$$

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We can also view GPs as a non-parametric extension to linear regression.

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$$\text{so} \quad X^\top (XX^\top + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} = (X^\top X + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} X^\top$$

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But the dual form only uses inner products.

$$XX^T = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ \vdots \\ x_n^T \end{pmatrix} (x_1 \dots x_n) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T x_1 & \dots & x_1^T x_n \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_n^T x_1 & \dots & x_n^T x_n \end{pmatrix} = K$$

— This is useful!

Prediction

The best prediction of y at a new location x' is

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{y}' &= x'^{\top} \hat{\beta} \\ &= x'^{\top} X^{\top} (XX^{\top} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} y \\ &= k(x') (K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} y\end{aligned}$$

where $k(x') := (x'^{\top} x_1, \dots, x'^{\top} x_n)$ and $K_{ij} := x_i^{\top} x_j$

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Note this is exactly the GP conditional mean we derived before.

$$m(x) = t(x) (K + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} y$$

- linear regression and GP regression are equivalent when $k(x, x') = x^{\top} x'$.

- We know that we can replace x by a feature vector in linear regression, e.g., $\phi(x) = (1 \ x \ x^2)$ etc.

Then

$$K_{ij} = \phi(x_i)^\top \phi(x_j) \quad \text{etc}$$

- For some sets of features, the inner product is equivalent to evaluating a kernel function

$$\phi(x)^\top \phi(x') \equiv k(x, x')$$

where

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

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Example: If (modulo some detail)

$$\phi(x) = \left(e^{-\frac{(x-c_1)^2}{2\lambda^2}}, \dots, e^{-\frac{(x-c_N)^2}{2\lambda^2}} \right)$$

then as $N \rightarrow \infty$ then

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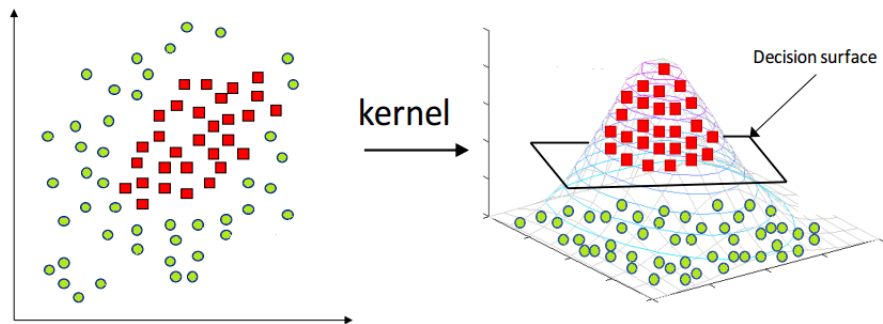
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- We can use an infinite dimensional feature vector $\phi(x)$, and because linear regression can be done solely in terms of inner-products (inverting a $n \times n$ matrix in the dual form) we never need evaluate the feature vector, only the kernel.

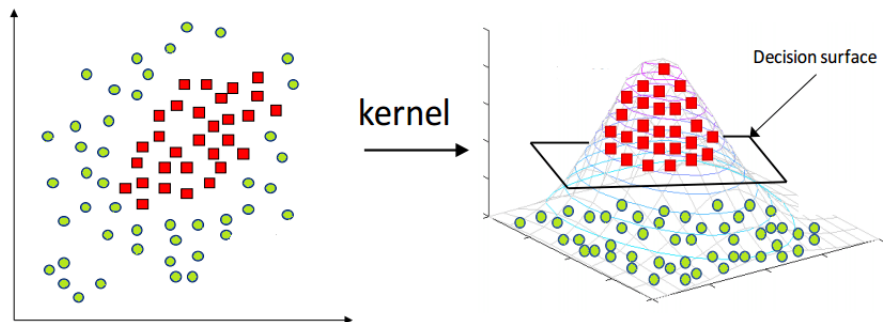
Kernel trick:

lift x into feature space by replacing inner products $x^T x'$ by $k(x, x')$



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Kernel regression/non-parametric regression/GP regression all closely related:

$$\hat{y}' = m(x') = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i k(x, x_i)$$

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$$f(x) = \sum_i c_i k(x, x_i)^1$$

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- this space of functions is called the Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) of k .

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Generally, we don't think about these features, we just choose a kernel.

- $k(x, x')$ is a kernel iff it is a positive semidefinite function

Any kernel implicitly determines a set of features (ie we can write $k(x, x') = \phi(x)^\top \phi(x')$ for some feature vector $\phi(x)$), and our model only includes functions that are linear combinations of this set of features

$$f(x) = \sum_i c_i k(x, x_i)^1$$

- this space of functions is called the Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) of k .

Although reality may not lie in the RKHS defined by k , this space is much richer than any parametric regression model (and can be dense in some sets of continuous bounded functions), and is thus more likely to contain an element close to the true functional form than any class of models that contains only a finite number of features.

This is the motivation for non-parametric methods.

¹Not quite - it lies in the completion of this set of linear combinations

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It has been shown, using coherency arguments, or geometric arguments, or..., that the best second-order inference we can do to update our beliefs about X given Y is

$$\mathbb{E}(X|Y) = \mathbb{E}(X) + \text{Cov}(X, Y)\text{Var}(Y)^{-1}(Y - \mathbb{E}(Y))$$

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See also kernel Bayes and kriging/BLUP.

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Why use GPs? Answer 4: Uncertainty estimates from emulators

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- point estimate
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Warning: the uncertainty estimates from a GP can be flawed. Note that given data $D = \{X, y\}$

$$\text{Var}(f(x)|X, y) = k(x, x) - k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}k(X, x)$$

so that the posterior variance of $f(x)$ does not depend upon y !

The variance estimates are particularly sensitive to the hyper-parameter estimates.

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- We pick a covariance function from a small set, based usually on differentiability considerations.
- Possibly try a few (plus combinations of a few) covariance functions, and attempt to make a good choice using some sort of empirical evaluation.
- Covariance functions often contain hyper-parameters. E.g.
 - ▶ RBF kernel

$$k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x - x')^2}{\lambda^2}\right)$$

Estimate these using some standard procedure (maximum likelihood, cross-validation, Bayes etc)

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Gelman *et al.* 2017

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E.g. consider a zero mean GP on $[0, 1]$ with covariance function

$$k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp(-\kappa^2 |x - x'|)$$

We can consistently estimate $\sigma^2 \kappa$, but not σ^2 or κ , even as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

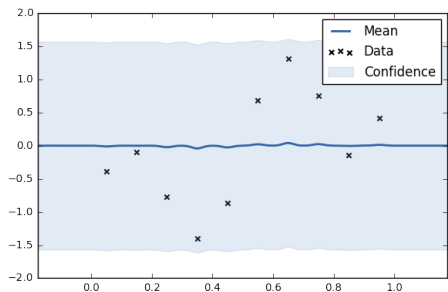
Problems with hyper-parameter optimization

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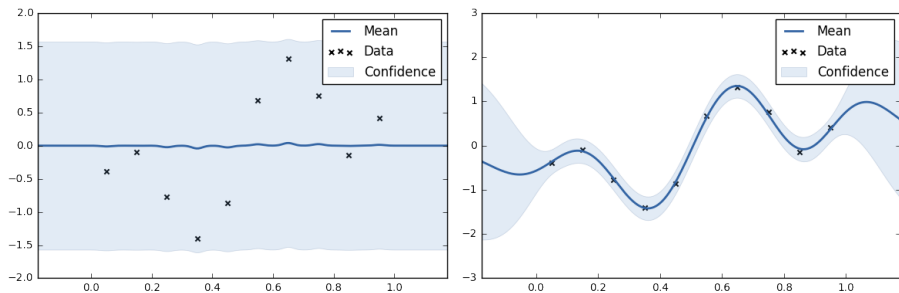
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We often work around these problems by running the optimizer multiple times from random start points, using prior distributions, constraining or fixing hyper-parameters, or adding white noise.