Stochastic Processes



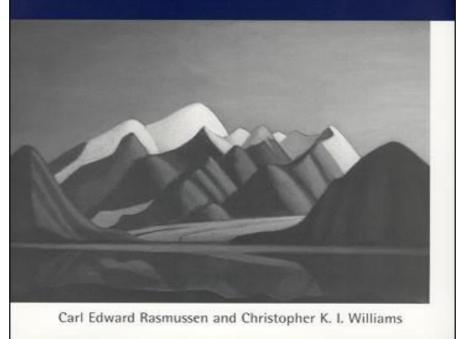
Week 05 (Version 1.0) Gaussian Processes

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Main Reference Textbook

http://gaussianprocess.org/gpml/chapters/RW.pdf

Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning



Outline

1. Motivation

- 2. The Gaussian Distribution
- **3.** Covariance Functions
- 4. Gaussian Process
- **5.** Basis Function Representations
- 6. Constructing Covariance
- 7. Gaussian Process Limitations
- 8. Conclusion

Gaussian Process Motivation

- In many real-world applications we are confronted by the need for a model.
- We apply our knowledge of the physics involved to deduce a specific model form.
- Often our knowledge of the underlying physical processes is useless or involves too many assumptions or variables we cannot measure.
- In these cases machine learning attempts to solve the problem by learning relationships from existing data or measurements (empirical models)
- Impressive results from Deep Neural Networks (DNN).
 However, they are black box (not interpretable) in general, and are vulnerable to adversarial attacks.

Gaussian Process Motivation

. . .

- DNN solutions are still far from commonplace in some applied engineering for a variety of reasons such as data availability, processing complexity, robustness,
- Gaussian Processes can be considered as a suitable model in many applications.

What is a Gaussian Process (GP)

- A Gaussian Process (GP) is a collection of random variables, any finite number of which have a joint Gaussian distribution.
- With GP we seek to find the most likely function that could produce our data using a Bayesian approach.
- Gaussian Processes provide a machine learning approach where uncertainty in the model is concretely available and the model can be used to gain physical insight into the process.
- Gaussian Processes can be considered as neural networks with infinitely many weights where a distribution is assigned to each weight (GP is a distribution over functions)

GP as Distribution over Functions

• A Gaussian proces: $f(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(x), k(x, x'))$

• is completely specified by a mean and covariance function:

$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}[f(x)]$$

$$k(x,x') = \mathbb{E}[(f(x) - m(x))(f(x') - m(x'))]$$

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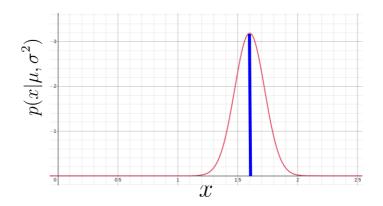
Gaussian Density Function

Gaussian: The most common probability density function. It is completely specified by its mean and variance:

$$p(y|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) = \mathcal{N}(y|\mu,\sigma^2)$$

Gaussian PDF with mean 1.6 and variance 0.125.

Blue vertical line shows the mean.



Important Gaussian Properties

• Sum of <u>independent</u> Gaussian variables is also Gaussian:

 $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2) \quad 1 \le i \le n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma^2\right)$$

 As sum increases, sum of non-Gaussian, finite variance variables is also Gaussian [Central Limit Theorem].

Important Gaussian Properties

• Scaling a Gaussian leads to a Gaussian.

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$
$$ay \sim \mathcal{N}(a\mu, a^2 \sigma^2)$$

Multivariate Gaussian Density Function

The multivariate normal distribution of a k-dimensional random vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_k)^T$ can be written as:

$$\mathbf{X}~\sim~\mathcal{N}(oldsymbol{\mu},\,oldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

Where:

$$oldsymbol{\mu} = \mathrm{E}[\mathbf{X}] = (\mathrm{E}[X_1], \mathrm{E}[X_2], \dots, \mathrm{E}[X_k])^{\mathbf{T}}$$

$$\Sigma_{i,j} = \mathrm{E}[(X_i - \mu_i)(X_j - \mu_j)] = \mathrm{Cov}[X_i, X_j]$$

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

Case Study: System of Equations Random Lines

Two Simultaneous Equations

A system of **two** equations with **two** unknowns.

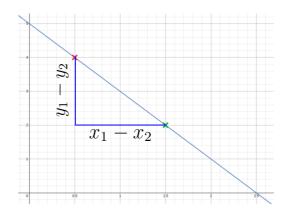
$$y_{1} = mx_{1} + c$$

$$y_{2} = mx_{2} + c$$

$$y_{1} - y_{2} = m(x_{1} - x_{2})$$

$$m = \frac{y_{1} - y_{2}}{x_{1} - x_{2}}$$

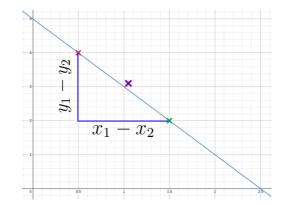
$$c = y_{1} - mx_{1}$$



Three Simultaneous Equations

How do we deal with **three** simultaneous equations with only **two** unknowns?

 $y_1 = mx_1 + c$ $y_2 = mx_2 + c$ $y_3 = mx_3 + c$



Overdetermined Systems

With two unknowns and two observations:

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c$$

Additional observation leads to overdetermined system:

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c$$

This problem is solved through a noise model

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c + \epsilon_1$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c + \epsilon_2$$

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c + \epsilon_3$$

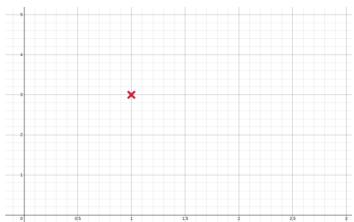
Noise Models

- We aren't modeling the entire system.
- Noise model gives mismatch between model and data.
- Gaussian model justified by appeal to central limit theorem.
- Other models also possible (Student-t for heavy tails).
- Maximum likelihood with Gaussian noise leads to least squares.

Underdetermined Systems

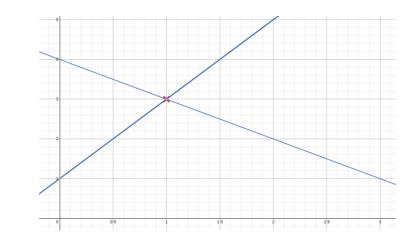
What about **two** unknowns and **one** observation?

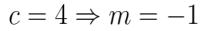
$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$



Underdetermined System

We can compute m given c:

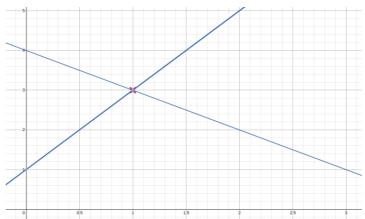




Underdetermined System

We can compute m given c:

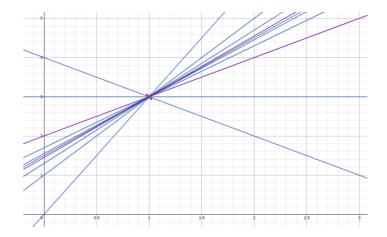
$$c = 1 \Rightarrow m = 2$$



Underdetermined System

We can compute m given c. Assume:

 $c \sim \mathcal{N}(1.5, 0.75)$



We find a distribution of solutions.

Probability for Under- and Overdetermined Systems

- To deal with overdetermined system, introduced probability distribution for **variable**, ϵ_i .
- For underdetermined system, introduced probability distribution for **parameter**, c.
- We can solve this problem with a GP model (the random line example).
- This is known as a Bayesian treatment.

Probability for Under- and Overdetermined Systems

- For general Bayesian inference we need multivariate priors.
- E.g. for multivariate linear regression:

$$y_i = \sum_j w_{i,j} x_j + \epsilon_i$$
$$y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{i,:} = \epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

(where we've dropped c for convenience)

• We need distribution over parameters (w) and variables (ϵ_i). This motivates a multivariate Gaussian density.

Multivariate Regression Likelihood

• Multivariate regression likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{i,:})^2\right)$$

 Now we use a multivariate Gaussian prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\alpha)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\alpha}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w}\right)$$

Posterior Density

• If compute the posterior, we get to Gaussian distribution again:

$$\log p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) + \log p(\mathbf{w}) + const.$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 + \frac{2}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \mathbf{x}_{i,:}^T \mathbf{w}$$
$$-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_{i,:} \mathbf{x}_{i,:}^T \mathbf{w} - \frac{1}{2\alpha} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + const.$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\mu_{\mathbf{w}}, \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{w}})$$
$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{w}} = (\sigma^{-2}\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X} + \alpha^{-1})^{-1} \qquad \mu_{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{C}_{\mathbf{w}}\sigma^{-2}\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{y}$$

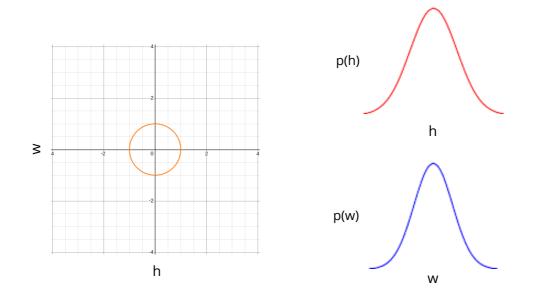
Case Study: Two Dimensional Gaussian Height vs Weight

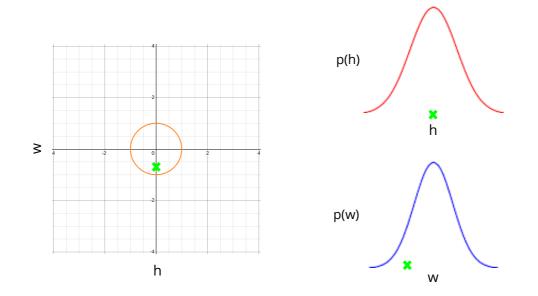
Height and Weight Models

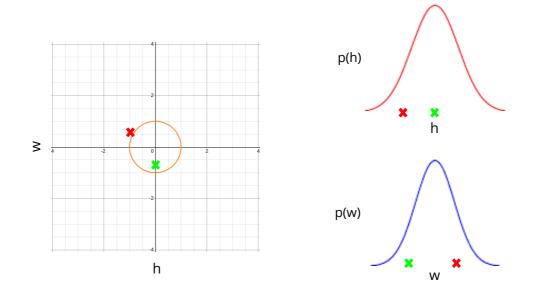
Gaussian distributions for weight and height:

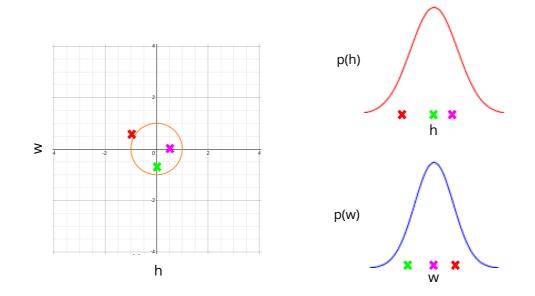
Height distribution

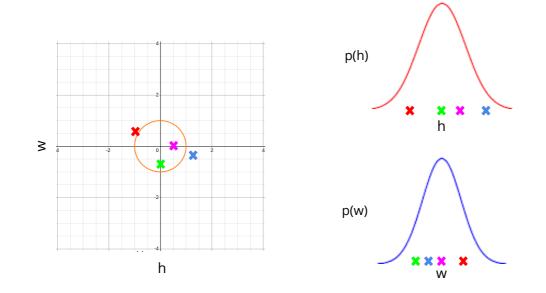
Weight distribution

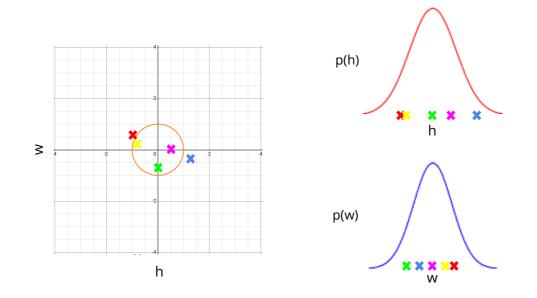










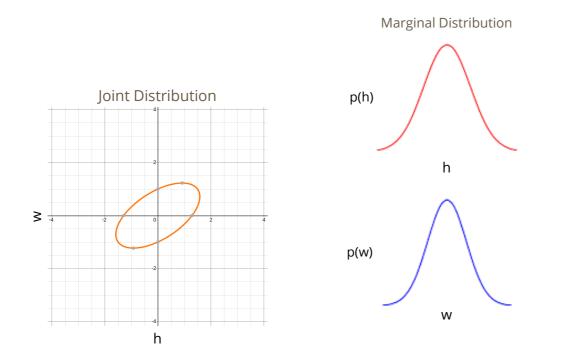


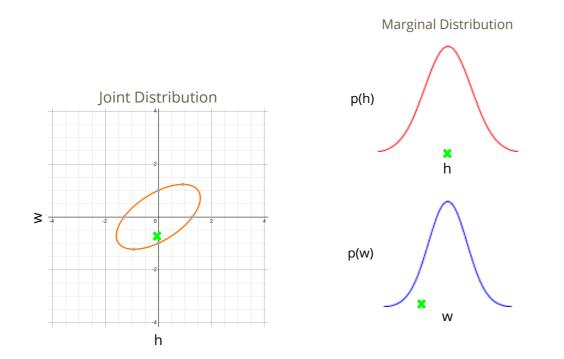
Independence Assumption

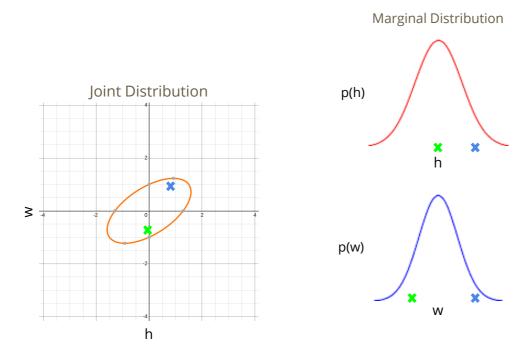
This assumes height and weight are independent.

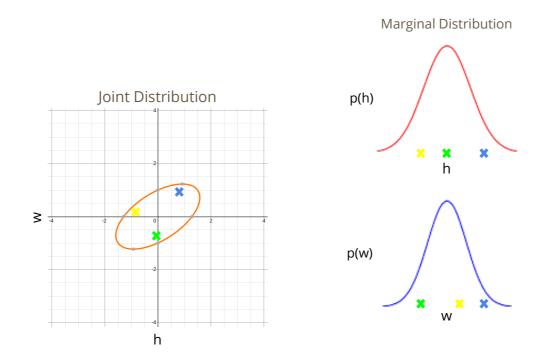
$$p(h,w) = p(h)p(w)$$

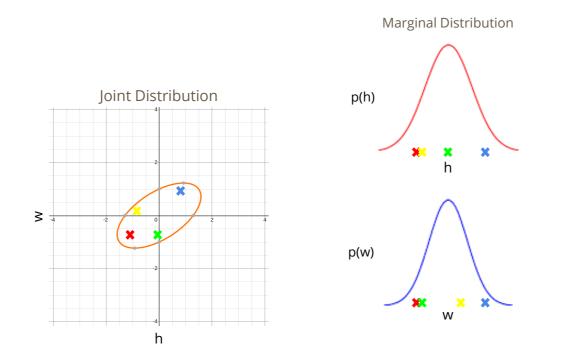
In reality they are dependent (body mass index = $\frac{w}{h^2}$).

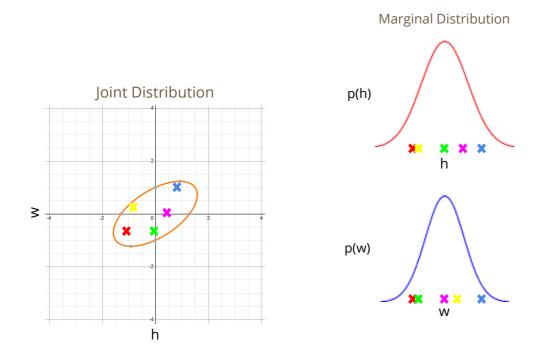












Bivariate Independent Gaussians

$$p(h,w) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 \sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} h-\mu_1\\ w-\mu_2 \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0\\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} h-\mu_1\\ w-\mu_2 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2} |\mathbf{D}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\mu)^T \mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}-\mu)\right)$$

Correlated Gaussians

Obtained from original by rotating the data space using matrix **R**.

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{k/2} |\mathbf{C}|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \mu)^T \mathbf{C}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu)\right)$$

This gives a covariance matrix:

 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{R}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{R}^T$

Recall Univariate Gaussian Properties (slides 10-11) Multivariate Consequence:

If we have:

 $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

And:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$$

Then:

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\mu},\mathbf{W}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{W}^T)$$

Prediction with Correlated Gaussians

Suppose a zero-mean 2-dimensional Gaussian variable:

$$p(x_1, x_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$$

Prediction of x_2 from x_1 requires conditional density. Conditional density is also Gaussian:

$$p(x_2|x_1) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{\mathbf{K}_{1,2}}{\mathbf{K}_{1,1}}x_1, \mathbf{K}_{2,2} - \frac{\mathbf{K}_{1,2}^2}{\mathbf{K}_{1,1}}\right)$$

Prediction with Correlated Gaussians

General case (still zero-mean):

$$p(\mathbf{x}, x_*) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}} & \mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{x}, *} \\ \mathbf{k}_{*, \mathbf{x}} & k_{*, *} \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

Prediction of x_* from **x** requires conditional density. Conditional density is also Gaussian:

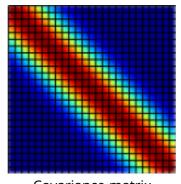
$$p(x_*|\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{k}_{*,\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}}^{-1}\mathbf{x}, k_{*,*} - \mathbf{k}_{*,\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}}^{-1}\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{x},*}\right)$$

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Covariance Functions

- Covariance **matrix** is built by getting values from covariance **function**.
- The covariance function is also known as a kernel.
- Covariance functions are building blocks of covariance matrices.



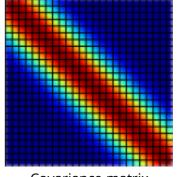
Covariance matrix

Covariance **matrix** is built by getting values from covariance **function**.

Exponentiated Quadratic Kernel Function:

(also known as RBF, Squared Exponential, Gaussian)

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right) \xrightarrow{M_{i,j} = k(i,j)}$$



Covariance matrix

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{1,1} = k(x_1, x_1)$$

$$= k(-3.0, -3.0) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3.0 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 1.0$$

1.0

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{1,2} = k(x_1, x_2)$$

$$= k(-3.0, 1.2) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3.0 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.11$$

1.0	0.11	

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{1,3} = k(x_1, x_3)$$

$$= k(-3.0, 1.4) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3.0 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.089$$

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{2,1} = k(x_2, x_1)$$

$$= k(1.2, -3.0) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.2 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.11$$

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

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$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{2,3} = k(x_2, x_3)$$

$$= k(1.2, 1.4) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.2 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.995$$

1.0	0.11	0.089
0.11	1.0	0.995

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{3,1} = k(x_3, x_1)$$

$$= k(1.4, -3.0) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.089$$

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{3,2} = k(x_3, x_2)$$

$$= k(1.4, 1.2) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 0.995$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089\\0.11 & 1.0 & 0.995\\0.089 & 0.995 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$k(x_1, x_2) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{(x_1 - x_2)^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_2 = 1.20, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$\gamma = 2.00, \alpha = 1.00$$

$$k_{3,3} = k(x_3, x_3)$$

$$= k(1.4, 1.4) = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right) = 1.0$$

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Gaussian Process

Stochastic process X indexed on some space \mathcal{X} is called a Gaussian process (GP) with mean function μ and covariance function k if for every finite subset of \mathcal{X} such as $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_n\}$ the joint distribution of X on this subset is a multivariate Gaussian variable with mean μ and covariance generated from k:

$$P(X(x_1), \dots, X(x_n)) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{pmatrix} \mu(x_1) \\ \mu(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ \mu(x_n) \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & k(x_1, x_2) & \dots & k(x_1, x_n) \\ k(x_2, x_1) & \dots & k(x_2, x_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_n, x_1) & \dots & k(x_n, x_n) \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

Outline

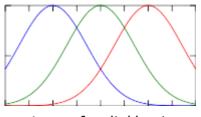
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Basis Function Form

Radial basis functions commonly have the form:

$$\varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) = \exp\left(-\frac{|\mathbf{x}-\mu_k|^2}{2\gamma^2}\right)$$

Basis function maps data into a **feature space** in which a linear sum is a nonlinear function.



A set of radial basis functions

Basis Function Representations

Represent a function by a linear sum over a basis.

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

Where $\varphi_k(\cdot)$ are basis functions.

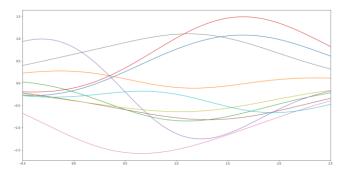
Random Functions

Functions derived using:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x})$$

where **w** is sampled from a Gaussian density:

$$w_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$$



Each line is a separate sample, generated by a weighted sum of the basis set. The weights, w are sampled from a Gaussian density with variance 1.

Direct Construction of Covariance Matrix

Using matrix notation to write function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

computed at training data gives a vector:

$$\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}$$

- w and f are only related by a inner product.
- Φ is fixed and non-stochastic for a given training set.
- f is Gaussian distributed.
- It is straightforward to compute distribution for f.

Infinite Feature Space

- A RBF model with infinite basis functions is a Gaussian process. The covariance function is the exponentiated quadratic.
- Note: The functional form for the covariance function and basis functions are similar.
 - This is a special case,
 - In general they are very different

Nonparametric Gaussian Processes

- Gaussian processes are generally nonparametric: combine data with covariance function to get model.
- This representation cannot be summarized by a parameter vector of a fixed size.

The Parametric Bottleneck

- Parametric models have a representation that does not respond to increasing training set size.
- Bayesian posterior distributions over parameters contain the information about the training data.
 - 1. Use Bayes' rule from training data to estimate parameters: p (w|y, X),
 - 2. Make predictions on test data using estimated parameters:

$$p(y_*|X_*,y,X) = \int p(y_*|w,X_*) p(w|y,X) dw$$

The Parametric Bottleneck

$$p(y_*|X_*, y, X) = \int p(y_*|w, X_*) p(w|y, X) dw$$

w becomes a bottleneck for information about the training set to pass to the test set.

Solution: increase m (dimension of w) so that the bottleneck is so large that it no longer presents a problem.

How big is big enough for m? Non-parametric says:

 $m \to \infty$

The Parametric Bottleneck: Nonparametric Solution

Now no longer possible to manipulate the model through the standard parametric form.

However, it is possible to express *parametric* as GPs:

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \varphi(x_i)^T \varphi(x_j)$$

These are known as degenerate covariance matrices.

No matter how big training data is, their rank is bounded by m. Instead, non-parametric models have full rank covariance matrices.

Most well known is the **linear kernel**:

$$k(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$$

Making Predictions

- For non-parametrics prediction at new points x_* is made by conditioning on \mathcal{X} in the joint distribution.
- In GPs this involves combining the training data with the covariance function and the mean function.
- Parametric is a special case when conditional prediction can be summarized in a fixed number of parameters.
- Complexity of parametric model remains fixed regardless of the size of our training data set.
- For a non-parametric model the required number of parameters grows with the size of the training data.

Outline

- 1. Motivation
- 2. The Gaussian Distribution
- **3.** Covariance Functions
- 4. Gaussian Process
- **5.** Basis Function Representations
- 6. Constructing Covariance
- 7. Gaussian Process Limitations
- 8. Conclusion

Constructing Covariance Functions

Sum of two covariances is also a covariance function.

$$k(x, x') = k_1(x, x') + k_2(x, x')$$

Constructing Covariance Functions

Product of two covariances is also a covariance function:

$$k(x, x') = k_1(x, x') \cdot k_2(x, x')$$

If f(x) is a Gaussian process, and g (x) is a deterministic function and:

h(x) = f(x)g(x)

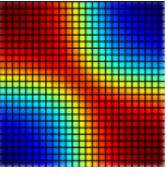
Then:

$$k_h(x, x') = g(x)k_f(x, x')g(x')$$

MLP covariance function:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \arcsin\left(\frac{w\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x}' + b}{\sqrt{(w\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x} + b + 1)(w\mathbf{x}'^T\mathbf{x}' + b + 1)}}\right)$$

Based on the infinite neural network model.

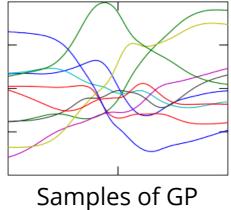


MLP covariance matrix

MLP covariance function:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \arcsin\left(\frac{w\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x}' + b}{\sqrt{(w\mathbf{x}^T\mathbf{x} + b + 1)(w\mathbf{x}'^T\mathbf{x}' + b + 1)}}\right)$$

Based on infinite neural network model:

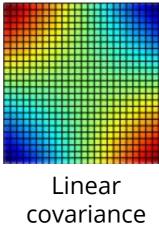


samples of GP generated by MLP covariance

Linear covariance function:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$$

Bayesian linear regression.

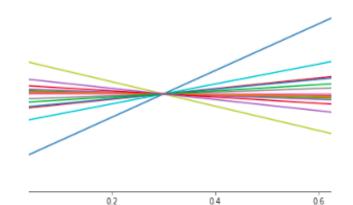


matrix

Linear covariance function:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}'$$

Bayesian linear regression.





Gaussian Noise

Gaussian noise model,

 $P(y_i|x_i) = \mathcal{N}(y_i|x_i, \sigma^2)$

Where σ^2 is the variance of the noise.

Equivalent to a covariance function of the form

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \delta_{i,j} \sigma^2$$

where $\delta_{i,j}$ is the Kronecker delta function.

Additive nature of Gaussians means we can simply add this term to existing covariance matrices.

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Limitations of Gaussian Processes

- Inference is $O(N^3)$ due to matrix inverse (in practice use Cholesky).
- Gaussian processes don't deal well with discontinuities (financial crises, phosphorylation, collisions, edges in images).
- Widely used exponentiated quadratic covariance (RBF) can be too smooth in practice (but there are many alternatives.)

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Summary

• Broad introduction to Gaussian processes.

Started with Gaussian distribution.

Motivated Gaussian processes through the multivariate density.

- Emphasized the role of the covariance (not the mean). Performs nonlinear regression with error bars.
- Parameters of the covariance function (kernel) are easily optimized with maximum likelihood.

• Demos:

- https://edward-rees.com/gp
- http://chifeng.scripts.mit.edu/stuff/gp-demo/

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Next Week:

Point Estimation

Have a good day!