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# **Nonparametric Bayesian Methods (Gaussian Processes)**

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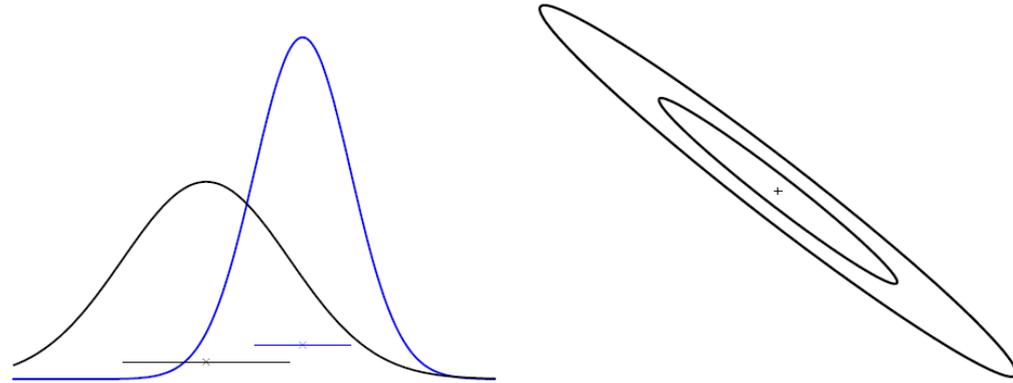
◆ Today, we talk about **Gaussian processes**, a **nonparametric Bayesian** method on the **function spaces**

◆ Outline

- Gaussian process regression
- Gaussian process classification
- Hyper-parameters, covariance functions, and more

# Recap. of Gaussian Distribution

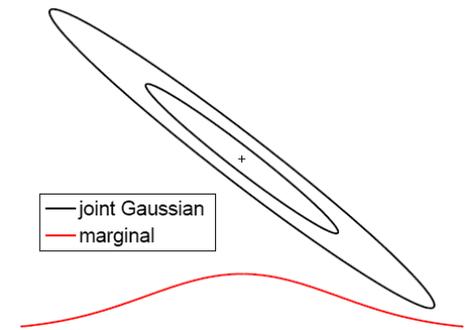
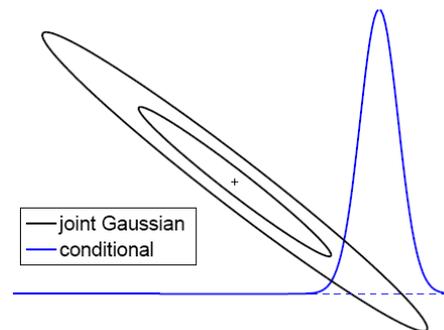
## ◆ Multivariate Gaussian



$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-D/2} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)^\top \Sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \mu)\right)$$

## ◆ Marginal & Conditional

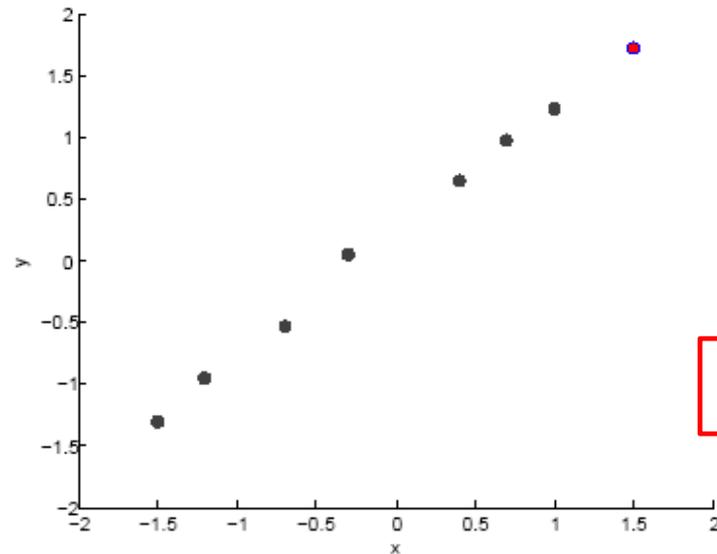
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & C \\ C^\top & B \end{bmatrix}\right)$$



$$\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x + CB^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu_y), A - CB^{-1}C^\top)$$

$$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x, A)$$

# A Prediction Task



$$f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$$

◆ Goal: learn a function from noisy observed data

□ Linear

$$\mathcal{F}_{linear} = \{f : f = wx + c, w, c \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

□ Polynomial

$$\mathcal{F}_{polynomial} = \{f : f = \sum_k w_k x^k, w_k \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

□ ...

⋮

# Bayesian Regression Methods

- ◆ Noisy observations

$$y = f(x) + \epsilon, \text{ where } \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$$

- ◆ Gaussian likelihood function for linear regression  $f(x_i) = \mathbf{w}^\top x_i$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|x_i, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(X^\top \mathbf{w}, \sigma_n^2 I)$$

- ◆ Gaussian prior (Conjugate)

$$\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_p)$$

- ◆ Inference with Bayes' rule

- Posterior  $p(\mathbf{w}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} A^{-1} X \mathbf{y}, A^{-1}\right)$ , where  $A = \sigma_n^{-2} X X^\top + \Sigma_p^{-1}$

- Marginal likelihood

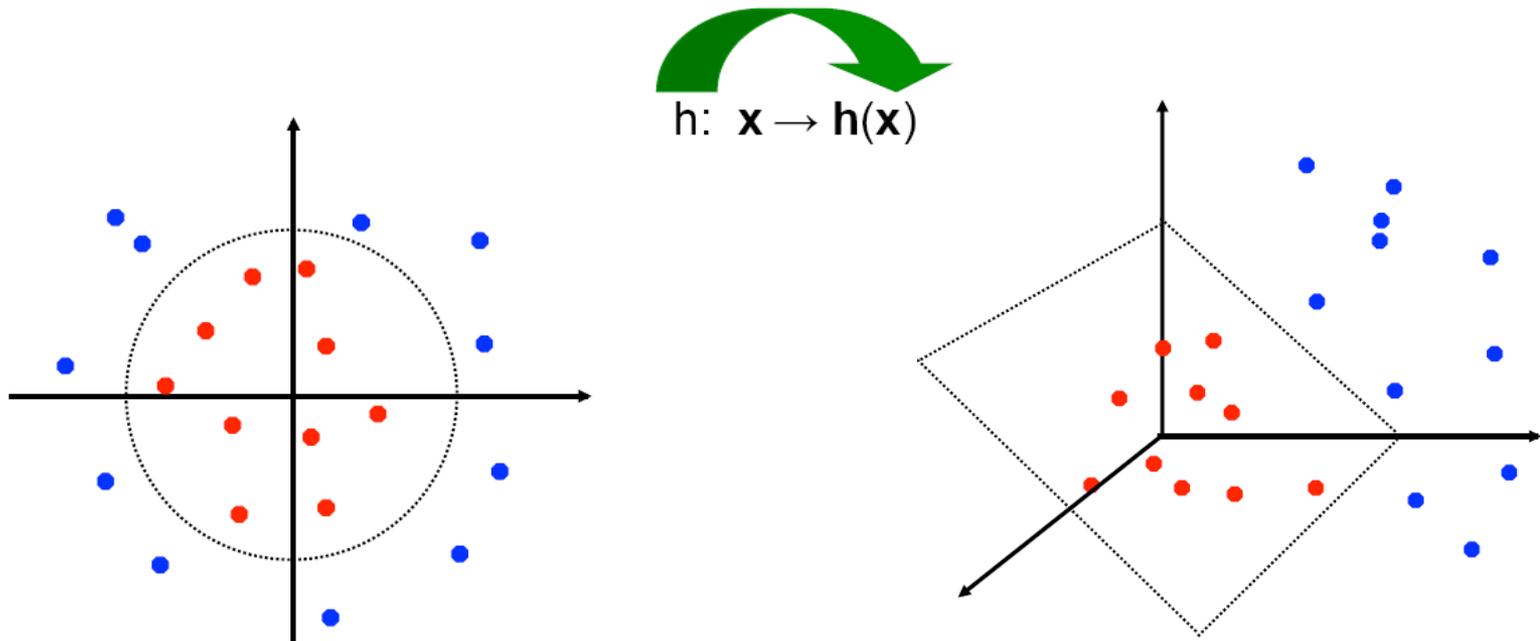
- Prediction

$$p(\mathbf{y}|X) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|X, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}) d\mathbf{w}$$

$$p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*, X, \mathbf{y}) = \int p(f_*|\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{w}) p(\mathbf{w}|X, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{x}_*^\top A^{-1} X \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*^\top A^{-1} \mathbf{x}_*\right)$$

# Generalize to Function Space

- ◆ The linear regression model can be too restricted.
- ◆ How to rescue?
- ◆ ... by projections (the **kernel trick**)



# Generalize to Function Space

- ◆ A mapping function

$$\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^N$$

- ◆ Doing linear regression in the mapped space

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{w}$$

- ◆ ... everything is similar, with  $X$  substituted by  $\Phi(X)$

$$p(f_* | \mathbf{x}_*, X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \phi(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top A^{-1} \Phi \mathbf{y}, \phi(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top A^{-1} \phi(\mathbf{x}_*)\right)$$

$$\Phi(X) = [\phi(\mathbf{x}_1) \cdots \phi(\mathbf{x}_n)] \quad A = \sigma_n^{-2} \Phi \Phi^\top + \Sigma_p^{-1}$$

# Example 1: fixed basis functions

◆ Given a set of basis functions  $\{\phi_h(\mathbf{x})\}_{h=1}^H$

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [\phi_1(\mathbf{x}) \cdots \phi_H(\mathbf{x})]^\top$$

□ E.g. 1:

$$\phi_h(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{c}_h\|_2^2}{2r^2}\right)$$

□ E.g. 2:

$$\phi_h(\mathbf{x}) = x_i^p x_j^q$$

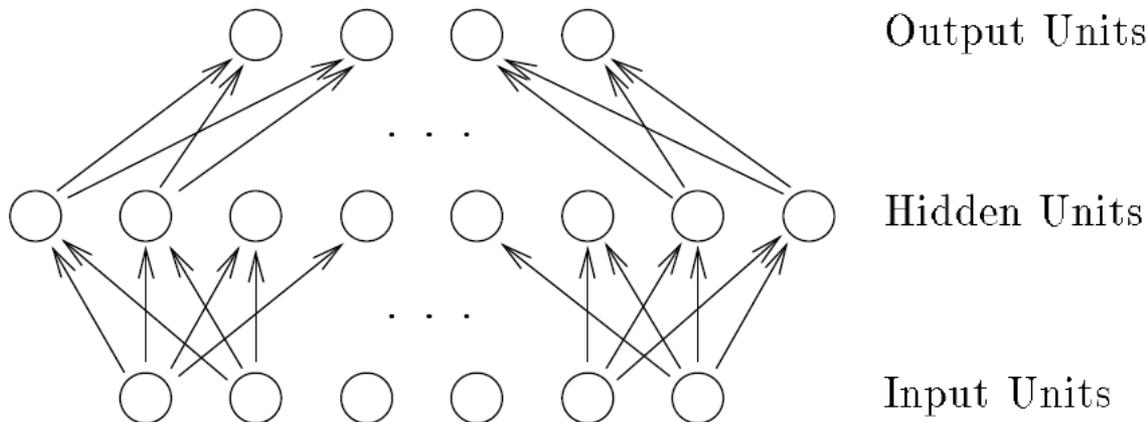
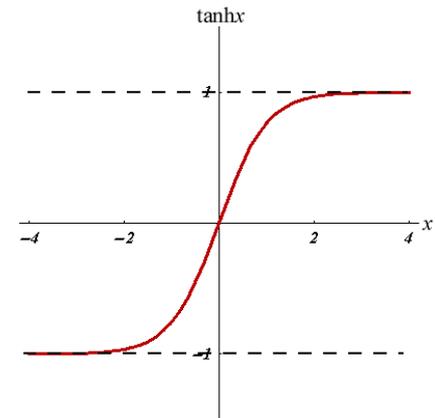
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{w}$$

## Example 2: adaptive basis functions

- ◆ Neural networks to learn a **parameterized** mapping function
- ◆ E.g., a two-layer feedforward neural networks

$$\phi_h(\mathbf{x}) = \tanh\left(\sum_{i=1}^I w_{hi}^{(1)} x_i + w_{h0}^{(1)}\right)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{h=1}^H w_h^{(2)} \phi_h(\mathbf{x}) + w_0^{(2)}$$

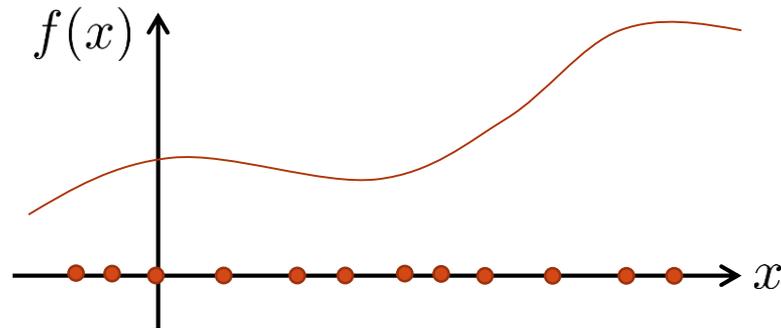


# A Non-parametric Approach

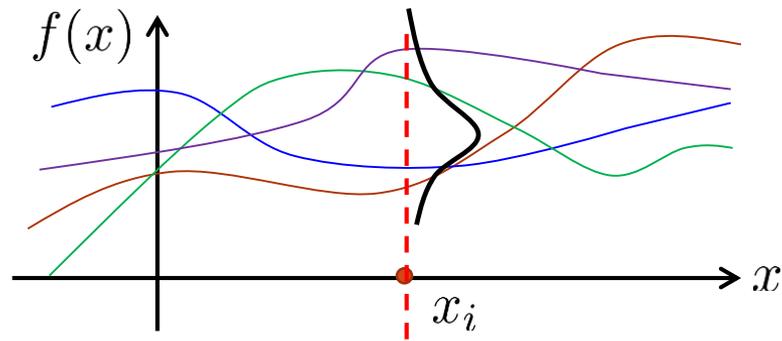
- ◆ A non-parametric approach
  - No explicit parameterization of the function
  - Put a prior over all possible functions
  - Higher probabilities are given to functions that are more likely, e.g., of good properties (smoothness, etc.)
  - Manage an uncountably infinite number of functions
  - Gaussian process provides a sophisticated approach with computational tractability

# Random Function vs. Random Variable

- ◆ A function is represented as an infinite vector with a index set



- ◆ For a particular point  $x_i$ ,  $f(x_i)$  is a random variable



# Gaussian Process

- ◆ A Gaussian process (GP) is a generalization of a multivariate Gaussian distribution to infinitely many variables, thus functions
- ◆ **Def:** A stochastic process is Gaussian *iff* for every finite set of indices  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  in the index set  $(f(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}_n))$  is a vector-valued Gaussian random variable

- ◆ A Gaussian **distribution** is fully specified by the mean vector and covariance matrix

$$\mathbf{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_n)^\top \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

- ◆ A Gaussian **process** is fully specified by a mean function and covariance function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- Mean function

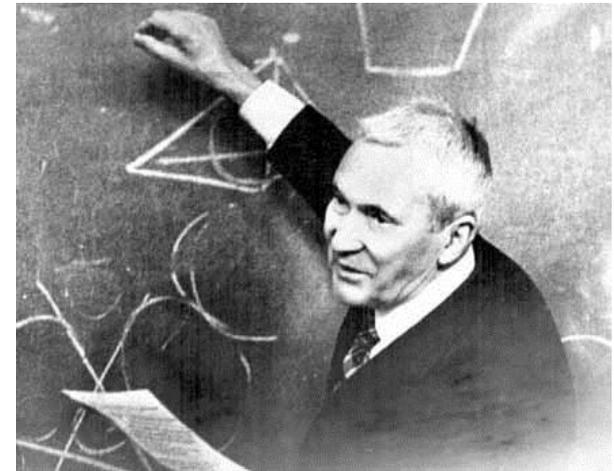
$$m(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})]$$

- Covariance function

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

# Kolmogorov Consistency

- ◆ A fundamental theorem guarantees that a suitably “consistent” collection of finite-dim distributions will define a stochastic process
- ◆ aka **Kolmogorov extension theorem**
- ◆ Kolmogorov Consistency Conditions
  - Order over permutation
  - Marginalization
- verified with the properties of multivariate Gaussian



Andrey Nikolaevich Kolmogorov  
Soviet Russian mathematician  
[1903 – 1987]

# Compare to Dirichlet Process

- ◆ DP is on random probability measure  $P$ , i.e., a special type of function
  - Positive, and sum to one!
  - Kolmogorov consistency due to the properties of Dirichlet distribution
- ◆ DP: discrete instances (**measures**) with probability one
  - Natural for mixture models
  - DP mixture is a limit case of finite Dirichlet mixture model
- ◆ GP: continuous instances (**real-valued functions**)
  - Consistency due to the properties of Gaussian
  - Good for prediction functions, e.g., regression and classification

# Bayesian Linear Regression is a GP

- ◆ Bayesian linear regression with mapping functions

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{w} \quad \mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma_p)$$

- ◆ The mean and covariance are

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})] = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}] = 0$$

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{x})f(\mathbf{x}')] = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^\top] \phi(\mathbf{x}') = \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \Sigma_p \phi(\mathbf{x}')$$

- ◆ Therefore,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, \phi(\mathbf{x})^\top \Sigma_p \phi(\mathbf{x}'))$$

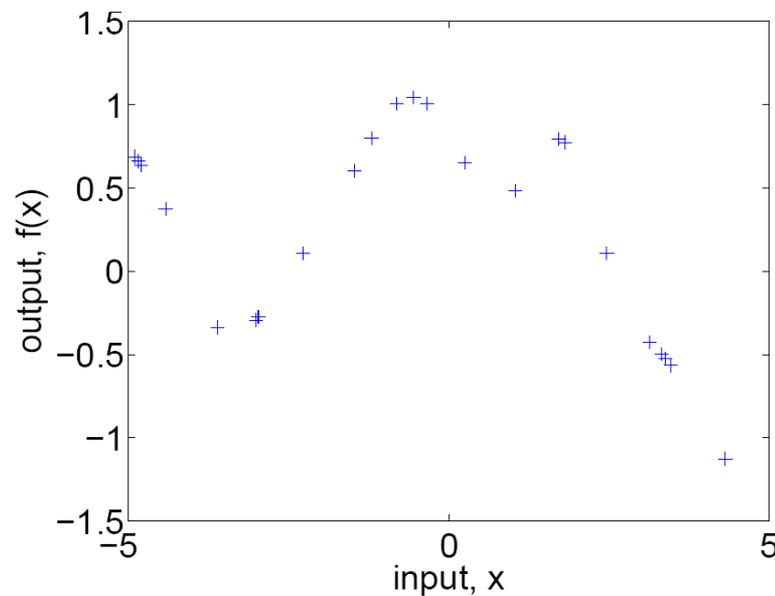
# Draw Random Functions from a GP

◆ Example:

$$p(f(x)) \sim \mathcal{GP}\left(m(x) = 0, \kappa(x, x') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x - x')^2\right)\right)$$

□ For a finite subset

$$(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_n)) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma), \text{ where } \Sigma_{ij} = \kappa(x_i, x_j)$$



# Draw Samples from Multivariate Gaussian

◆ **Task:** draw a set of samples from

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

◆ Directly draw is apparently impossible

◆ A procedure is as follows

- Cholesky decomposition (aka “matrix square root”)

$$\Sigma = LL^\top$$

$L$  is a lower triangular matrix.

- Generate  $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$

- Compute  $\mathbf{x} = \mu + L\mathbf{y}$

➔  $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}] = \mu, \text{cov}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{x} - \mu)(\mathbf{x} - \mu)^\top] = L\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{y}\mathbf{y}^\top]L^\top = \Sigma$

# Prediction with Noise-free Observations

- ◆ For noise-free observations, we know the true function value

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, f_i)\}_{i=1}^n$$

- ◆ The joint distribution of training output  $\mathbf{f}$  and test outputs  $\mathbf{f}_*$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}_* \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \begin{bmatrix} K(X, X) & K(X, X_*) \\ K(X_*, X) & K(X_*, X_*) \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

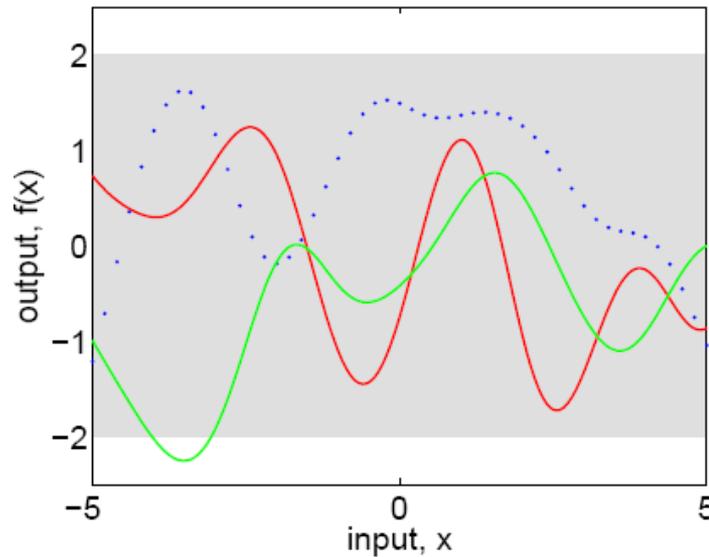
$$\mathbf{f}_* | X_*, X, \mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}\left( K(X_*, X)K(X, X)^{-1}\mathbf{f}, \right. \\ \left. K(X_*, X_*) - K(X_*, X)K(X, X)^{-1}K(X, X_*) \right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left( \begin{bmatrix} \mu_x \\ \mu_y \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} A & C \\ C^\top & B \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

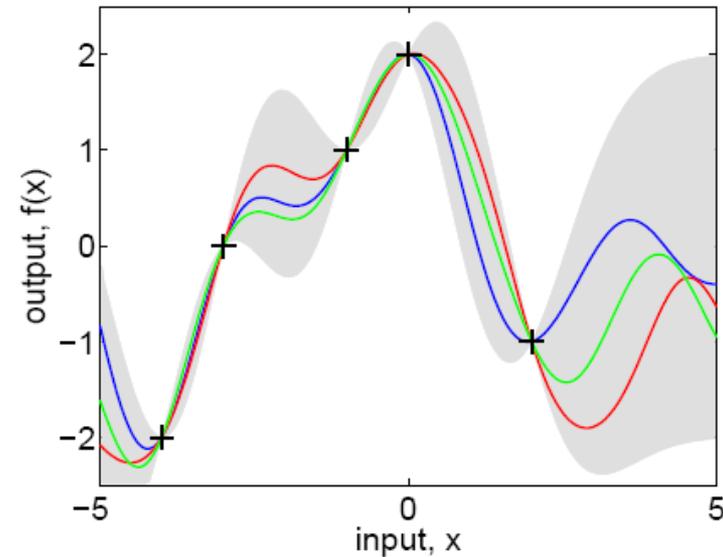
$$\mathbf{x} | \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_x + CB^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \mu_y), A - CB^{-1}C^\top)$$

# Posterior GP

- ◆ Samples from the prior and the posterior after observing “+”



(a), prior



(b), posterior

- shaded region denotes twice the standard deviation at each input
- ◆ Why the variance at the training points is zero?

# Prediction with Noisy Observations

- ◆ For noisy observations, we don't know true function values

$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n \quad y_i = f(\mathbf{x}_i) + \epsilon \quad \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{cov}(y_p, y_q) = k(\mathbf{x}_p, \mathbf{x}_q) + \sigma_n^2 \delta_{pq} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{cov}(\mathbf{y}) = K(X, X) + \delta_n^2 I$$

- ◆ The joint distribution of training output  $\mathbf{y}$  and test outputs  $\mathbf{f}_*$

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

$$\mathbf{f}_* | X_*, X, \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left( K(X_*, X)[K(X, X) + \delta_n^2 I]^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \right. \\ \left. K(X_*, X_*) - K(X_*, X)[K(X, X) + \delta_n^2 I]^{-1} K(X, X_*) \right)$$

- ◆ Is the variance at the training points zero?

# Residual Modeling with GP

## ◆ Explicit Basis Function:

$$g(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\top \beta, \text{ where } f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- residual modeling with GP
- an example of semi-parametric model
- if we assume a normal prior

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{b}, B)$$

- we have

$$g(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}\left(\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{b}, \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\top B \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}')\right)$$

- Similarly, we can derive the predictive mean and covariance

# Outline

- ◆ Introduction
- ◆ Gaussian Process Regression
- ◆ Gaussian Process Classification

# Recap. of Probabilistic Classifiers

## ◆ Naïve Bayes (**generative models**)

- The prior over classes  $p(y)$
- The likelihood with strict conditional independence assumption on inputs

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_d | y) = \prod_{i=1}^d p(x_i | y)$$

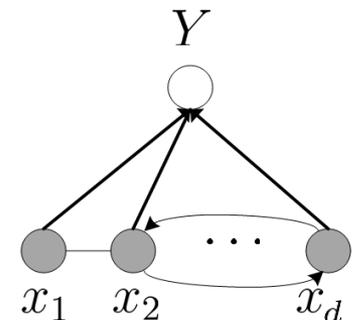
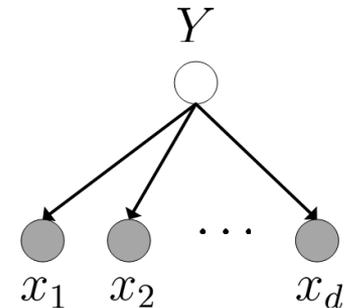
- Bayes' rule is used for posterior inference

$$p(y | \mathbf{x}) \propto p(y) p(x_1, \dots, x_d | y)$$

## ◆ Logistic regression (**conditional/discriminative models**)

- Allow arbitrary structures in inputs

$$p(y | \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp\{\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y)\}}{\sum_{y'} \exp\{\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, y')\}}$$

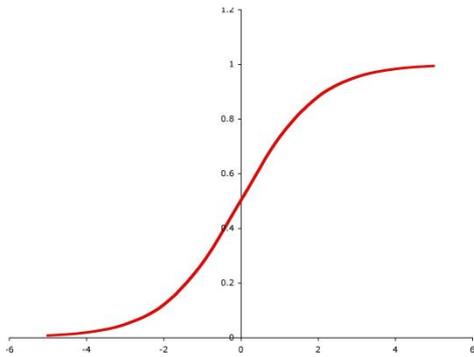


# Recap. of Probabilistic Classifiers

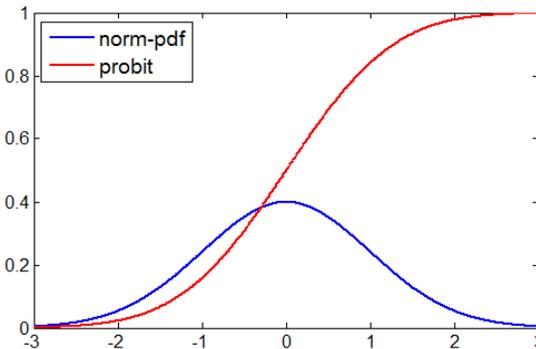
- ◆ More on the discriminative methods (**binary classification**)

$$p(y = +1|\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})$$

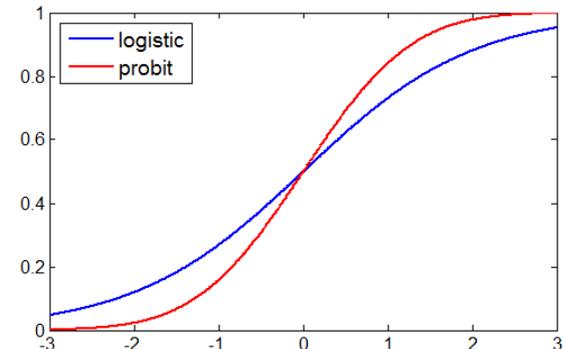
- $\sigma$  is the *response function* (the inverse is a *link function*)



$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



$$\Phi(z) = \int_{-\infty}^z \mathcal{N}(x|0, 1)dx$$



comparison

# Recap. of Probabilistic Classifiers

- ◆ MLE estimation

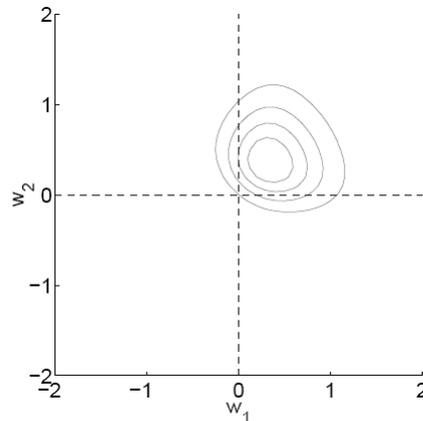
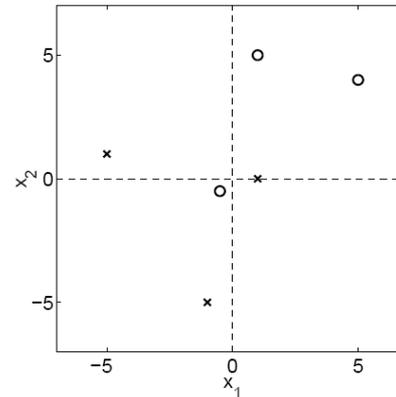
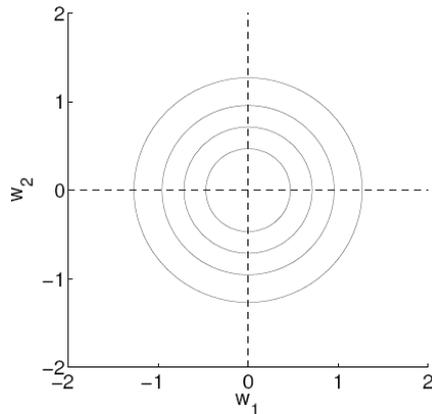
$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \log p(\mathbf{y}|X, \mathbf{w})$$

- ◆ The objective function is smooth and concave, with unique maximum
- ◆ We can solve it using Newton's methods, or conjugate gradient descent
- ◆  $\mathbf{w}$  goes to infinity for separable case

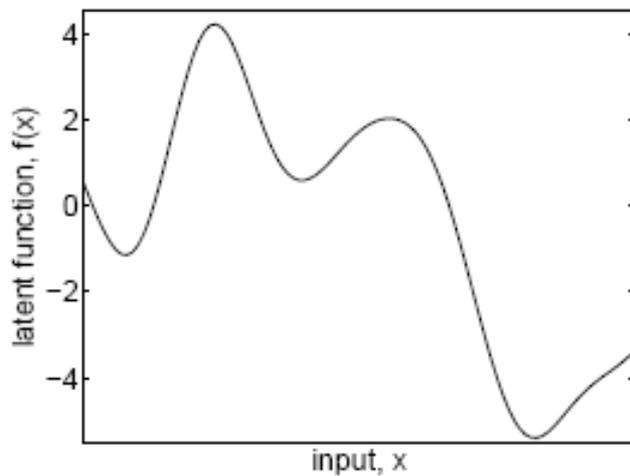
# Bayesian Logistic Regression

- ◆ Place a prior over  $\mathbf{w}$

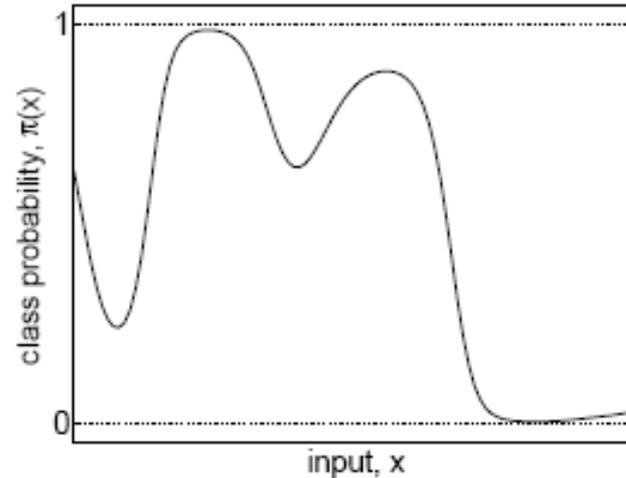
$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_p)$$



# Gaussian Process Classification



(a)



(b)

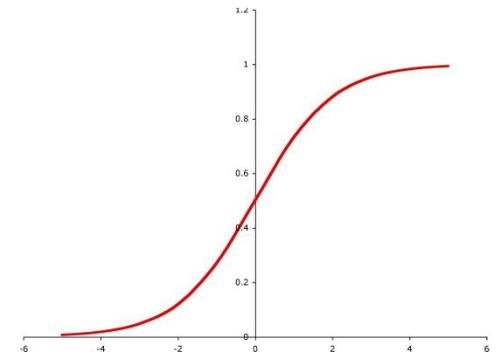
- ◆ Latent function  $f(x)$

$$f(x) \sim GP(m(x), K(x, x'))$$

$$\pi(x) \triangleq p(y = +1|x) = \sigma(f(x))$$

- ◆ Observations are independent given the latent function

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|f_i)$$



# Posterior Inference for Classification

◆ Posterior (Non-Gaussian)

◆ Latent value  $p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{\mathcal{N}(m(\mathbf{x}), K(X, X))}{p(X, \mathbf{y})} \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i|f_i)$

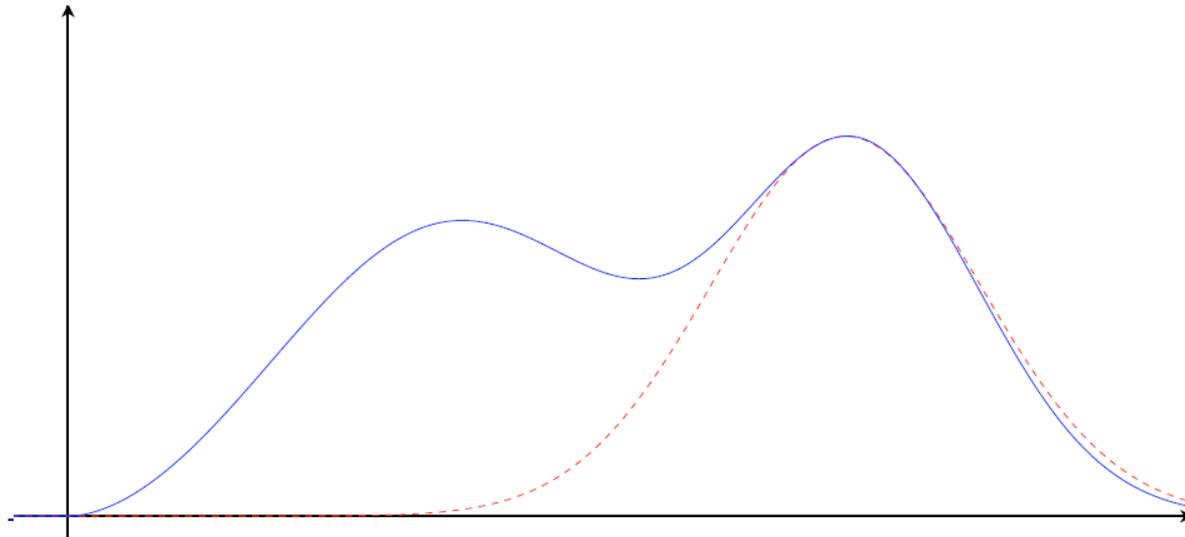
◆ Predictive distribution

$$p(f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) = \int p(f_*|X, \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}$$

$$p(y_* = +1|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) = \int \sigma(f_*)p(f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*)df_*$$

# Laplace Approximation Methods

- ◆ Approximating a hard distribution with a “nicer” one



- ◆ Laplace approximation is a method using a Gaussian distribution as the approximation
- ◆ What Gaussian distribution?

# Laplace Approximation Methods

◆ Approximate the integrals of the form

$$\int_a^b e^{Mf(x)} dx$$

- assume  $f(x)$  has global maximum at  $x_0$
- then  $f(x_0) \geq f(x)$  for any  $x \neq x_0$
- since  $e^{Mf(x)}$  growing exponentially with  $M$ , it's enough to focus on  $f(x)$  at  $x_0$

◆ As  $M$  increases, integral is well-approximated by a Gaussian

$$\int_a^b e^{Mf(x)} dx \approx \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{M|\nabla^2 f(x_0)|}} e^{Mf(x_0)} \text{ as } M \rightarrow \infty$$

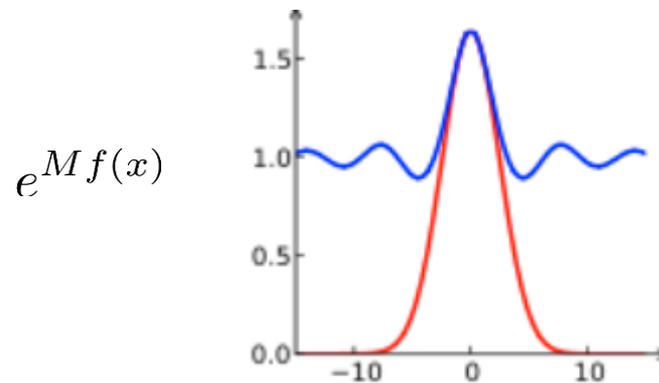
where  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  denotes  $\nabla \nabla f(x)$

# Laplace Approximation Methods

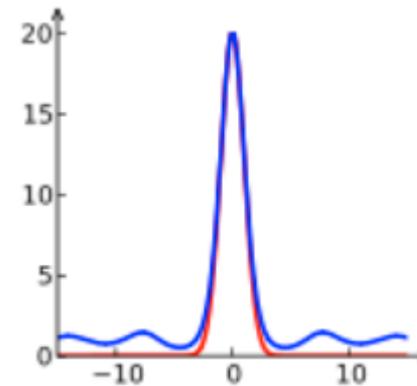
◆ An example:

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$$

□ a global maximum is  $x_0 = 0$



$$M = 0.5$$



$$M = 3$$

# Laplace Approximation Methods

◆ Deviations by Taylor series expansion

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x)|_{x=x_0}(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 f(x)|_{x=x_0}(x - x_0)^2 + h.o.t \dots$$

□ assume that the high-order terms are negligible

□ since  $f(x_0)$  is a local maxima,  $\nabla f(x)|_{x=x_0} = 0$

◆ Then, take the first three terms of the Taylor series at  $x_0$

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 f(x)|_{x=x_0}(x - x_0)^2$$

$$\int_a^b e^{Mf(x)} dx = e^{Mf(x_0)} \int_a^b \exp\left(\frac{1}{2}M\nabla^2 f(x)|_{x=x_0}(x - x_0)^2\right) dx$$

$$\text{Let } \sigma^2 = -\frac{1}{M\nabla^2 f(x)|_{x=x_0}}$$

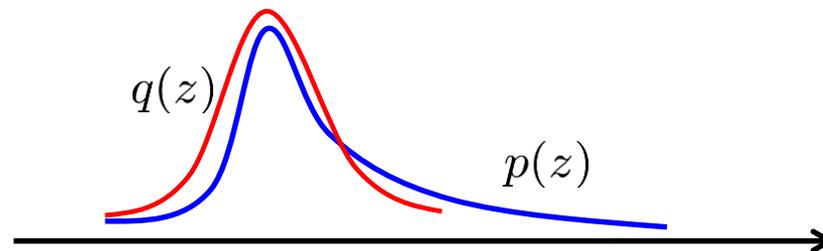
$$\int_a^b e^{Mf(x)} dx = e^{Mf(x_0)} \int_a^b \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - x_0)^2\right) dx = e^{Mf(x_0)} \sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}$$

# Application: approximate a hard dist.

- ◆ Consider single variable  $z$  with distribution

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z} f(z)$$

- where the normalization constant is unknown
  - $f(z)$  could be a scaled version of  $p(z)$
- 
- ◆ Laplace approximation can be applied to find a Gaussian approximation centered on the mode of  $p(z)$



# Application: approximate a hard dist.

◆ Doing Taylor expansion in the **logarithm space**

$$p(z) = \frac{1}{Z} f(z) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{\ln f(z)}$$

□  $z_0$  is the mode. We have

$$\nabla p(z)|_{z_0} = 0 \quad \nabla f(z)|_{z_0} = 0 \quad \nabla \ln f(z)|_{z_0} = 0$$

□ Then, the Taylor series on  $z_0$  is

$$\ln f(z) = \ln f(z_0) - \frac{1}{2} A (z - z_0)^2 \quad \text{where } A = -\nabla^2 \ln f(z)|_{z=z_0}$$

□ Taking exponential, we have  $f(z) \approx f(z_0) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} A (z - z_0)^2\right)$

$$Z \triangleq \int f(z) dz \approx \int f(z_0) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} A (z - z_0)^2\right) dz$$

$$= f(z_0) \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{A}}$$

$$q(z) = \frac{\tilde{f}(z)}{\tilde{Z}} = \mathcal{N}(z_0, A^{-1})$$

# Application: generalize to multivariate

- ◆ Task: approximate  $p(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{1}{Z}f(\mathbf{z})$  defined over  $M$ -dim space
- ◆ Find a stationary point  $\mathbf{z}_0$ , where  $\nabla f(\mathbf{z})|_{\mathbf{z}_0} = 0$
- ◆ Do Taylor series expansion in log-space at  $\mathbf{z}_0$

$$\ln f(\mathbf{z}) = \ln f(\mathbf{z}_0) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)^\top A(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)$$

- where  $A$  is the  $M \times M$  Hessian matrix

$$A = -\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{z})|_{\mathbf{z}_0}$$

- ◆ Take exponential and normalize

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = f(\mathbf{z}_0) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)^\top A(\mathbf{z} - \mathbf{z}_0)\right)$$

$$q(\mathbf{z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_0, A^{-1})$$

# Steps in Applying Laplace Approximation

- ◆ Find the mode
  - Run a numerical optimization algorithm
  - Multimodal distributions lead to different Laplace approximations depending on the mode considered
- ◆ Evaluate the Hessian matrix  $A$  at that mode

# Approximate Gaussian Process

- ◆ Using a Gaussian to approximate the posterior

$$p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) \approx q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}, A^{-1})$$

- ◆ Then, the latent function distribution

$$q(f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) = \mathcal{N}(f_*|\mu_*, \sigma_*^2), \text{ where}$$

$$\mu_* = \mathbf{k}_*^\top K^{-1} \mathbf{m}, \quad \sigma_*^2 = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top (K^{-1} - K^{-1} A^{-1} K^{-1}) \mathbf{k}_*$$

- ◆ Laplace method to a nice Gaussian

$$q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}|\hat{\mathbf{f}}, A^{-1}) \propto \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{f} - \hat{\mathbf{f}})^\top A(\mathbf{f} - \hat{\mathbf{f}})\right)$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{f}} p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y})$  and  $A = -\nabla \nabla \log p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y})|_{\mathbf{f}=\hat{\mathbf{f}}}$

# Laplace Approximation for GP

- ◆ Computing the mode and Hessian matrix
- ◆ The true posterior

$$p(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|X)}{p(\mathbf{y}|X)}$$

- normalization constant

- ◆ Find the MAP estimate

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(\mathbf{f}) &= \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) + \log p(\mathbf{f}|X) \\ &= \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{f}^\top K^{-1}\mathbf{f} - \frac{1}{2}\log |K| - \frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi\end{aligned}$$

- Take the derivative

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

$$\nabla^2\psi(\mathbf{f}) = \nabla^2\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} = -W - K^{-1}$$

# Laplace Approximation for GP

- ◆ The derivatives of the log posterior are

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

$$\nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{f}) = \nabla^2 \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} = -W - K^{-1}$$

- $W$  is diagonal since data points are independent

- ◆ Finding the mode

- *Existence of maximum*

- For logistic, we have

**How about probit regression?  
(homework)**

$$\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i|f_i) = t_i - \pi_i$$

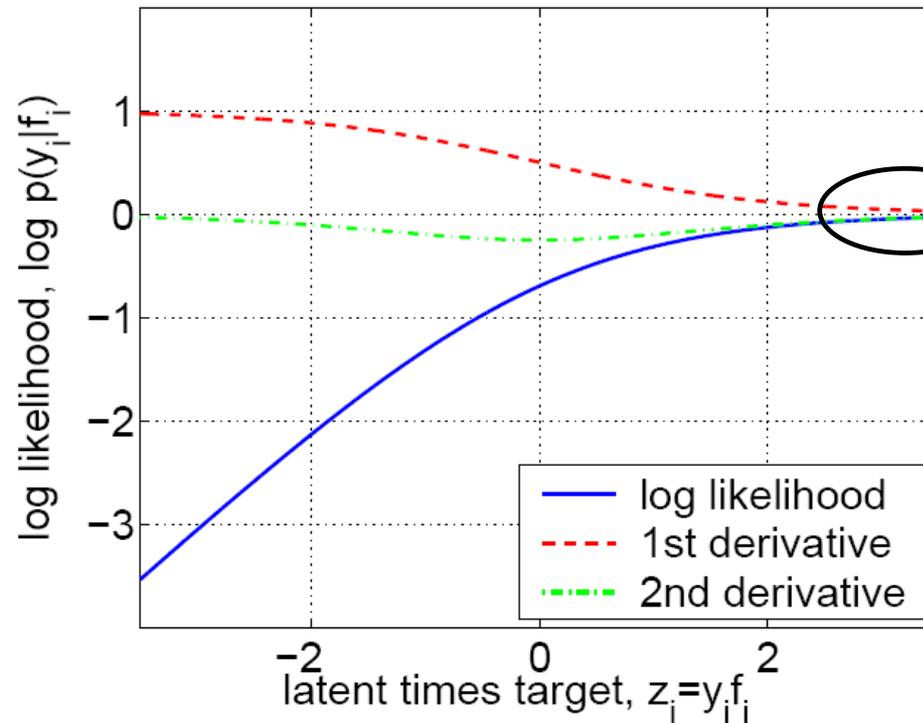
$$W_{ii} = \nabla_{f_i}^2 \log p(y_i|f_i) = -\pi_i(1 - \pi_i)$$

where  $\pi_i = p(y_i = 1|f_i)$  and  $t_i = (y_i + 1)/2$ .

**The Hessian is negative definite**  **The objective is concave and has unique maxima**

# Laplace Approximation for GP

## ◆ Logistic regression likelihood

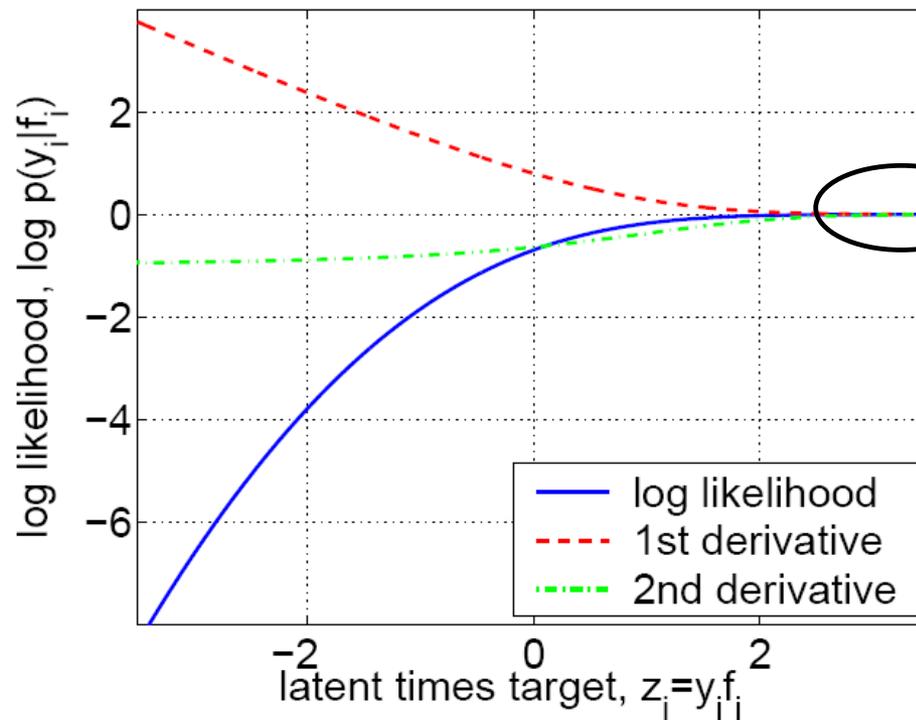


Well-explained Region  
 $\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i | f_i) \approx 0$

□ How about negative examples?

# Laplace Approximation for GP

## ◆ Probit regression likelihood



Well-explained Region

$$\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i | f_i) \approx 0$$

- How about negative examples?

# Laplace Approximation for GP

- ◆ The derivatives of the log posterior are

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

$$\nabla^2\psi(\mathbf{f}) = \nabla^2 \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} = -W - K^{-1}$$

- $W$  is diagonal since data points are independent

- ◆ Finding the mode

- *Existence of maximum*

- At the maximum, we have  $\nabla\psi(\mathbf{f}) = 0$

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = K\nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{f}})$$

- No-closed form solution, numerical methods are needed

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{f}^{t+1} &= \mathbf{f}^t - (\nabla^2\psi)^{-1}\nabla\psi = \mathbf{f}^t + (W + K^{-1})^{-1}(\nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1}\mathbf{f}) \\ &= (W + K^{-1})^{-1}(W\mathbf{f}^t + \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}))\end{aligned}$$

# Laplace Approximation for GP

- ◆ The derivatives of the log posterior are

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

$$\nabla^2\psi(\mathbf{f}) = \nabla^2 \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - K^{-1} = -W - K^{-1}$$

- $W$  is diagonal since data points are independent
- ◆ Finding the mode
  - No-closed form solution, numerical methods are needed

$$\mathbf{f}^{t+1} = (W + K^{-1})^{-1}(W\mathbf{f}^t + \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}))$$

- ◆ The Gaussian approximation

$$q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\hat{\mathbf{f}}, (K^{-1} + W)^{-1}\right)$$

# Laplace Approximation for GP

## ◆ Laplace approximation

$$q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mathbf{f}}, (K^{-1} + W)^{-1})$$

## ◆ Predictions as GP predictive mean

$$\mathbb{E}_q[f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*] = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top K^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{f}})$$

- Positive examples have positive coefficients for their kernels

$$\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i = 1|f_i) = 1 - p(y_i = 1|f_i) > 0$$

- Negative examples have negative coefficients for their kernels

$$\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i = -1|f_i) = -p(y_i = 1|f_i) < 0$$

- Well-explained points don't contribute strongly to predictions

$$\nabla_{f_i} \log p(y_i|f_i) \approx 0$$

Non-support vectors

# Laplace Approximation for GP

- ◆ Laplace approximation

$$q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mathbf{f}}, (K^{-1} + W)^{-1})$$

- ◆ Predictions as GP predictive mean

$$\mathbb{E}_q[f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*] = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top K^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{f}})$$

- Then, the response variable is predicted as (**MAP prediction**)

$$\hat{y}_* = \sigma(\mathbb{E}_q[f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*])$$

- Alternative average prediction

$$\hat{y}_* \approx \int \sigma(f_*) q(f_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) df_*$$

# Weakness of Laplace Approximation

- ◆ Directly only applicable to real-valued variables
  - Based on Gaussian distribution
- ◆ May be applicable to transformed variable
  - If  $0 < \tau < \infty$  , then consider Laplace approximation of  $\ln \tau$
- ◆ Based purely on a specific value of the variable
  - Expansion on local maxima

# GPs for Multi-class Classification

- ◆ Latent functions for  $n$  training points and for  $C$  classes

$$\mathbf{f} = (f_1^1, \dots, f_n^1, f_1^2, \dots, f_n^2, \dots, f_1^C, \dots, f_n^C)^\top$$

- ◆ Using multiple independent GPs, one for each category

$$\forall c \in \mathcal{C} : f^c(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m^c(\mathbf{x}), \kappa^c(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- ◆ Using softmax function to get the class probability

$$p(y_i^c | \mathbf{f}_i) = \frac{\exp(f_i^c)}{\sum_{c'} \exp(f_i^{c'})}$$

**Notation:**  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1^1, \dots, y_n^1, y_1^2, \dots, y_n^2, \dots, y_1^C, \dots, y_n^C)^\top$

$\forall i$  : only one of  $y_i^c$  is 1. all other  $C - 1$  entries are 0.

# Laplace Approximation for Multi-class GP

◆ The log of un-normalized posterior is

$$\psi(\mathbf{f}) = \mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{f} - \sum_n \log\left(\sum_c \exp f_i^c\right) - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{f}^\top K^{-1} \mathbf{f} - \frac{1}{2} \log |K| - \frac{Cn}{2} \log 2\pi$$

◆ We have  $\nabla \psi(\mathbf{f}) = -K^{-1} \mathbf{f} + \mathbf{y} - \pi$ , where  $\pi_i^c = p(y_i^c | \mathbf{f}_i)$

$$\nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{f}) = -K^{-1} - W, \text{ where } W = \text{diag}(\pi) - \Pi \Pi^\top$$

◆ Then, the mode is

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = K(\mathbf{y} - \hat{\pi})$$

□ Newton method can be applied with the above Hessian

Uncorrelated processes  
between classes:

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} K_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & K_2 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & K_C \end{bmatrix} \quad \Pi = \begin{bmatrix} \text{diag}(\pi^1) \\ \text{diag}(\pi^2) \\ \vdots \\ \text{diag}(\pi^C) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Laplace Approximation for Multi-class GP

◆ Predictions with the Gaussian approximation

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = K(\mathbf{y} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}})$$

$$q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\hat{\mathbf{f}}, (W + K^{-1})^{-1})$$

□ The predictive mean for class  $c$  is

$$q(\mathbf{f}_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) = \int p(\mathbf{f}_*|X, \mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{f})q(\mathbf{f}|X, \mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}$$

- which is Gaussian as both terms in the product are Gaussian
- the mean and co-variance are

$$\mathbb{E}_q[f^c(\mathbf{x}_*)|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*] = \mathbf{k}_c(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top K_c^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{f}}^c = \mathbf{k}_c(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top (\mathbf{y}^c - \hat{\boldsymbol{\pi}}^c)$$

$$\text{cov}_q(\mathbf{f}_*|X, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}_*) = \text{diag}(\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*)) - Q_*^\top (K + W^{-1})^{-1} Q_*$$

$$Q_* = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{k}_1(\mathbf{x}_*) & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{k}_2(\mathbf{x}_*) & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \mathbf{k}_C(\mathbf{x}_*) \end{bmatrix}$$

# Covariance Functions

- ◆ The only requirement for covariance matrix is the positive semidefinite
- ◆ Many covariance functions, hyper-parameters make influence

covariance function	expression	S	ND
constant	$\sigma_0^2$	✓	
linear	$\sum_{d=1}^D \sigma_d^2 x_d x'_d$		
polynomial	$(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}' + \sigma_0^2)^p$		
squared exponential	$\exp(-\frac{r^2}{2\ell^2})$	✓	✓
Matérn	$\frac{1}{2^{\nu-1}\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}}{\ell} r\right)^\nu K_\nu\left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu}}{\ell} r\right)$	✓	✓
exponential	$\exp(-\frac{r}{\ell})$	✓	✓
$\gamma$ -exponential	$\exp\left(-\left(\frac{r}{\ell}\right)^\gamma\right)$	✓	✓
rational quadratic	$\left(1 + \frac{r^2}{2\alpha\ell^2}\right)^{-\alpha}$	✓	✓
neural network	$\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{2\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^\top \Sigma \tilde{\mathbf{x}'}}{\sqrt{(1+2\tilde{\mathbf{x}}^\top \Sigma \tilde{\mathbf{x}})(1+2\tilde{\mathbf{x}'^\top \Sigma \tilde{\mathbf{x}'})}}\right)$		✓

S: stationary; ND: non-degenerate. Degenerate covariance functions have finite rank

# Covariance Functions

## ◆ Squared Exponential Kernel

$$k(x_p, x_q) = \sigma_f^2 \exp \left[ \frac{-(x_p - x_q)^2}{2l^2} \right]$$

- Infinitely differentiable
- Equivalent to regression using infinitely many Gaussian shaped basis functions placed everywhere, **not just training points!**

## ◆ Gaussian-shaped basis functions

$$\forall c \in [c_{min}, c_{max}] : \phi_c(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x - c)^2}{2l^2}\right)$$

- For the finite case, let the prior  $\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_p^2 I)$ , we have a GP with covariance function

$$\kappa(x_p, x_q) = \sigma_p^2 \sum_{c=1}^N \phi_c(x_p) \phi_c(x_q)$$

- For the infinite limit, we can show

$$\frac{\sigma_p^2}{\Delta H} \sum_{c=1}^N \phi_c(x_p) \phi_c(x_q) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\pi} l \sigma_p^2 \exp\left(-\frac{(x_p - x_q)^2}{2(\sqrt{2}l)^2}\right) \quad \Delta H = \frac{N}{c_{max} - c_{min}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \# \text{ basis functions} \\ \text{per unit interval.} \end{array}$$

# Covariance Functions

◆ Squared Exponential Kernel  $\Delta H = \frac{N}{c_{\max} - c_{\min}}$

$$\frac{\sigma_p^2}{\Delta H} \sum_{c=1}^N \phi_c(x_p) \phi_c(x_q) \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\pi} l \sigma_p^2 \exp\left(-\frac{(x_p - x_q)^2}{2(\sqrt{2}l)^2}\right)$$

□ Proof: (a set of uniformly distributed basis functions)

$$\forall c \in [c_{\min}, c_{\max}] : \phi_c(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x - c)^2}{2l^2}\right)$$

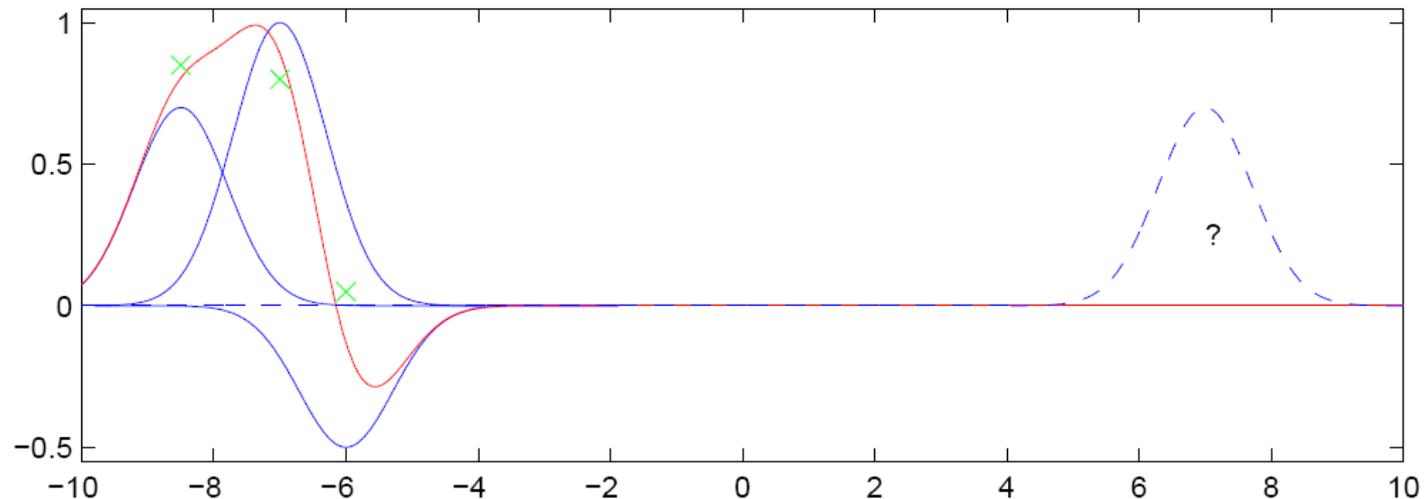
$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sigma_p^2}{\Delta H} \sum_{c=1}^N \phi_c(x_p) \phi_c(x_q) = \sigma_p^2 \int_{c_{\min}}^{c_{\max}} \phi_c(x_p) \phi_c(x_q) dc$$

• Let the integral interval go to infinity, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa(x_p, x_q) &= \sigma_p^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{(x_p - c)^2}{2l^2}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{(x_q - c)^2}{2l^2}\right) dc \\ &= \sqrt{\pi} l \sigma_p^2 \exp\left(-\frac{(x_p - x_q)^2}{2(\sqrt{2}l)^2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

# Using finitely many basis functions can be dangerous!

## ◆ Missed components



## ◆ Not full rank

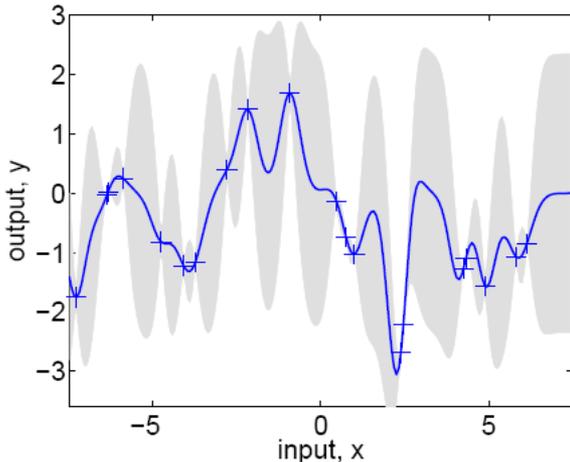
# Adaptation of Hyperparameters

◆ Characteristic length scale parameter  $l$

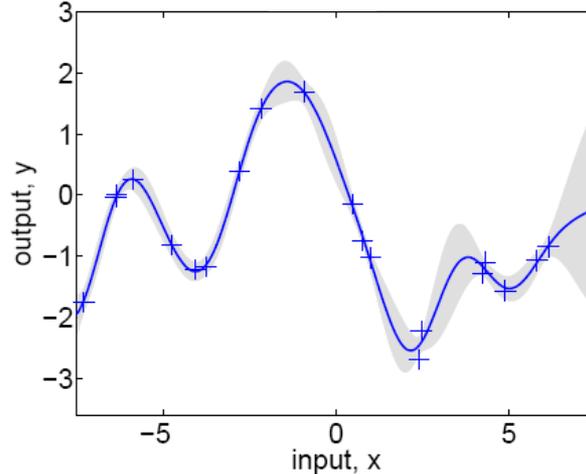
$$k(x_p, x_q) = \sigma_f^2 \exp \left[ \frac{-(x_p - x_q)^2}{2l^2} \right] + \sigma_n^2 \delta_{p,q}$$

- Roughly measures how far we need to go in order to make the data points un-related (or the function value change significantly)
- Larger  $l$  gives smoother functions (i.e., simpler functions)

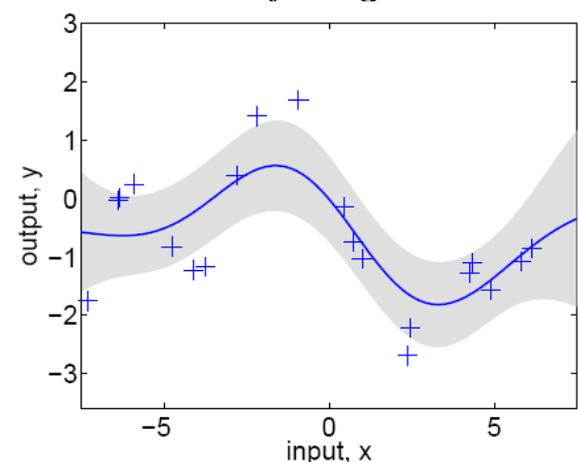
$l = 0.3$



$l = 1$



$l = 3$



# Adaptation of Hyperparameters

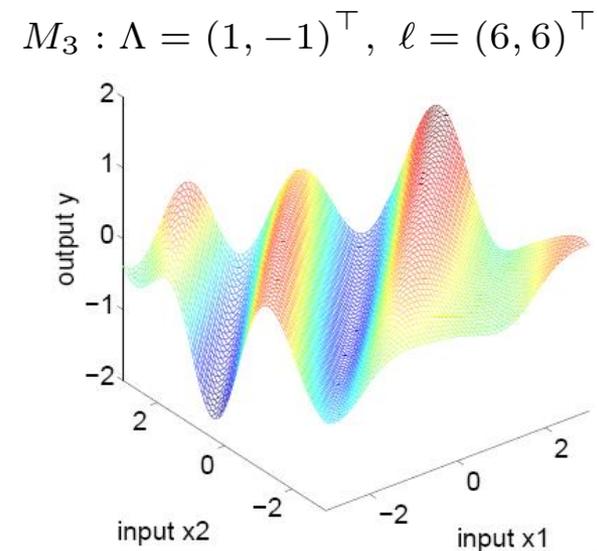
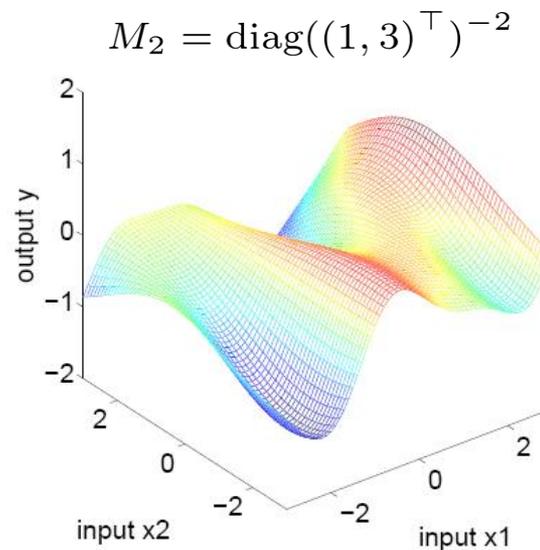
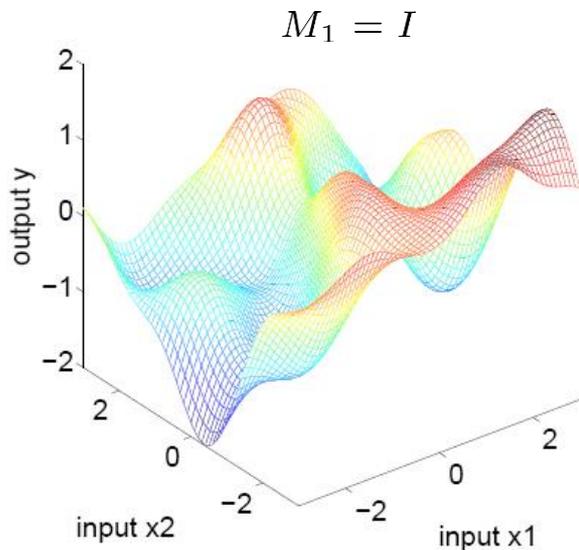
## ◆ Squared exponential covariance function

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}_p, \mathbf{x}_q) = \sigma_f^2 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}_p - \mathbf{x}_q)^\top M(\mathbf{x}_p - \mathbf{x}_q)\right) + \sigma_n^2 \delta_{p,q}$$

□ Hyper-parameters  $\theta = (M, \sigma_f^2, \sigma_n^2)$

□ Possible choices of M

$$M_1 = \ell^{-2} I, \quad M_2 = \text{diag}(\ell)^{-2}, \quad M_3 = \Lambda \Lambda^\top + \text{diag}(\ell)^{-2}$$



# Marginal Likelihood for Model Selection

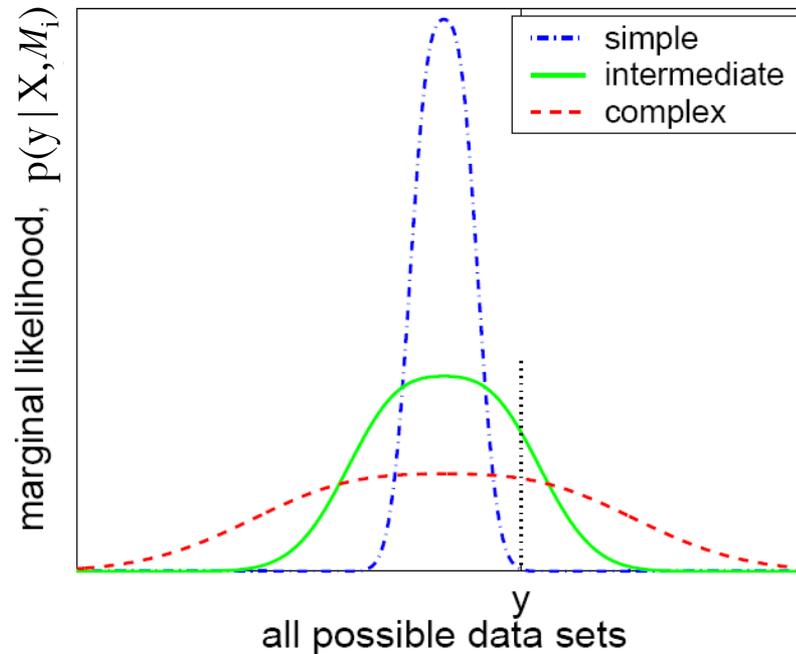
- ◆ A Bayesian approach to model selection
  - Let  $\mathcal{M}_i$  denote a family of models. Each  $\mathcal{M}_i$  is characterized by some parameters  $\theta$
  - The marginal likelihood (evidence) is

$$p(\mathbf{y}|X, \mathcal{M}_i) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta, \mathcal{M}_i)p(\theta|\mathcal{M}_i)d\theta$$

likelihood                      prior

- An automatic trade-off between data fit and model complexity  
(see next slide ...)

# Marginal Likelihood for Model Selection



- ◆ Simple models account for a limited range of data sets; complex models account for a broad range of data sets.
- ◆ For a particular data set  $y$ , the margin likelihood prefers a model of intermediate complexity over too simple or too complex ones

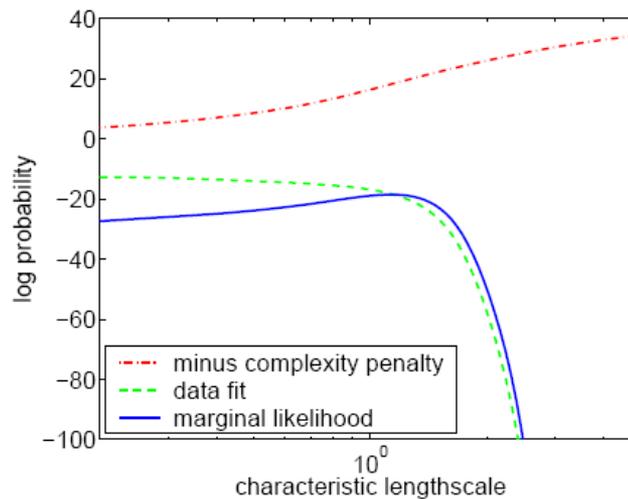
# Marginal Likelihood for GP

- ◆ Marginal likelihood can be used to estimate the hyper-parameters for GP
- ◆ For GP regression, we have

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta) = -\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^\top \underbrace{K_y^{-1}}_{\text{data fit}} \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2} \log |K_y| - \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi$$

**data fit** **model complexity**

where  $K_y = K_f + \sigma^2 I$  for noisy targets  $\mathbf{y}$ .



# Marginal Likelihood for GP

- ◆ Marginal likelihood can be used to estimate the hyper-parameters for GP
- ◆ For GP regression, we have

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta) = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^\top K_y^{-1}\mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{2}\log |K_y| - \frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi$$

where  $K_y = K_f + \sigma^2 I$  for noisy targets  $\mathbf{y}$ .

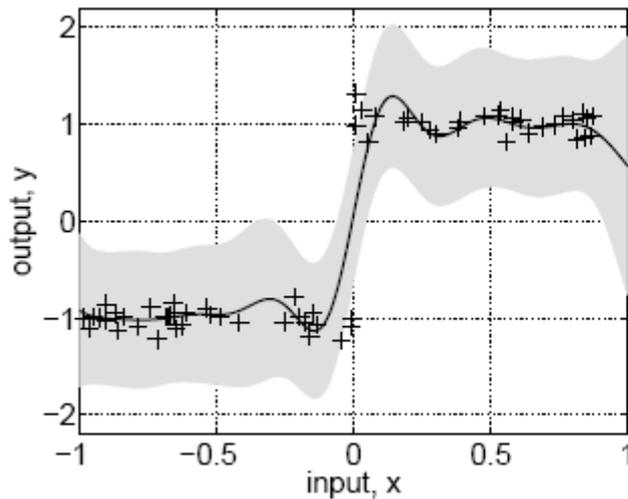
- ◆ Then, we can do gradient descent to solve

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} \log p(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta)$$

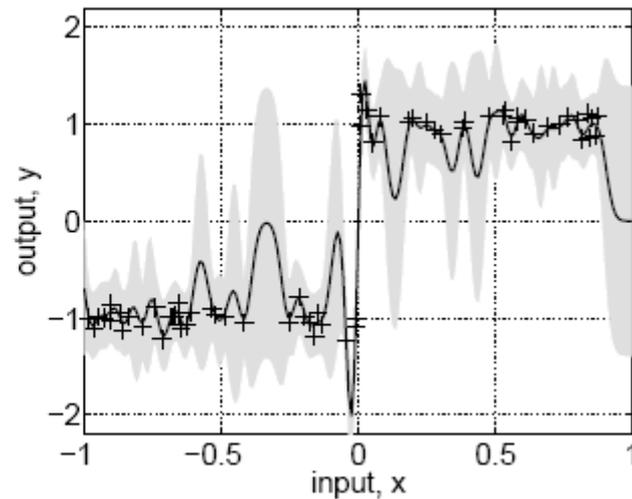
- ◆ For GP classification, we need Laplace approximation to compute the marginal likelihood.

# Other Model Selection Methods

- ◆ When the number of parameters is small, we can do
  - K-fold cross-validation (CV)
  - Leave-one-out cross-validation (LOO-CV)
- ◆ Different selection methods usually lead to different results



Marginal likelihood estimation



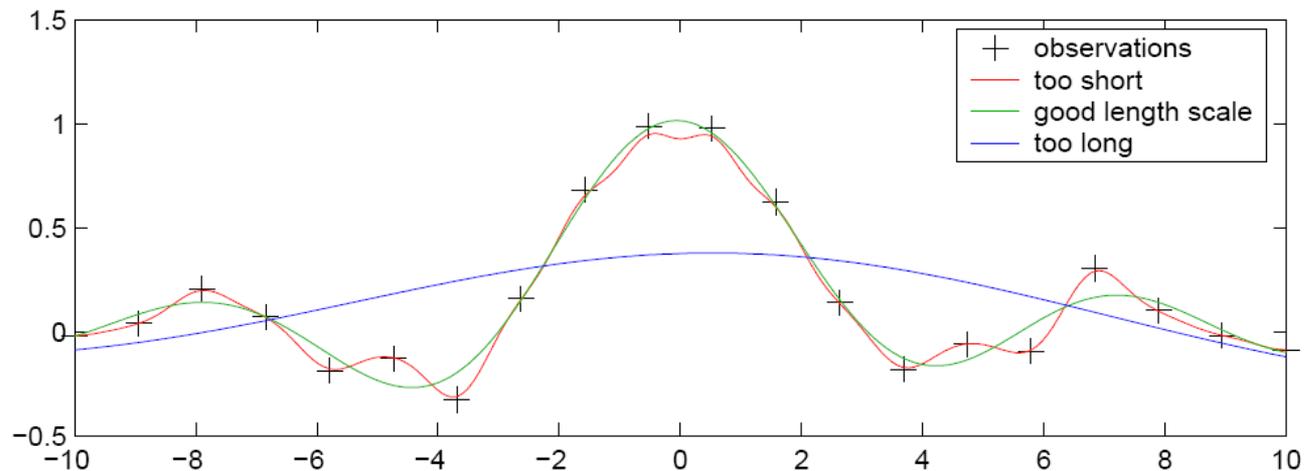
LOO-CV

# Hyperparameters of Covariance Function

## ◆ Squared Exponential

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

- Hyperparameters: maximum allowable covariance, and Length parameter



- The mean posterior predictive functions for three different length-scales
- Green one learned by maximum marginal likelihood
- Too short one can almost exactly fits the data!

# Other Inference Methods

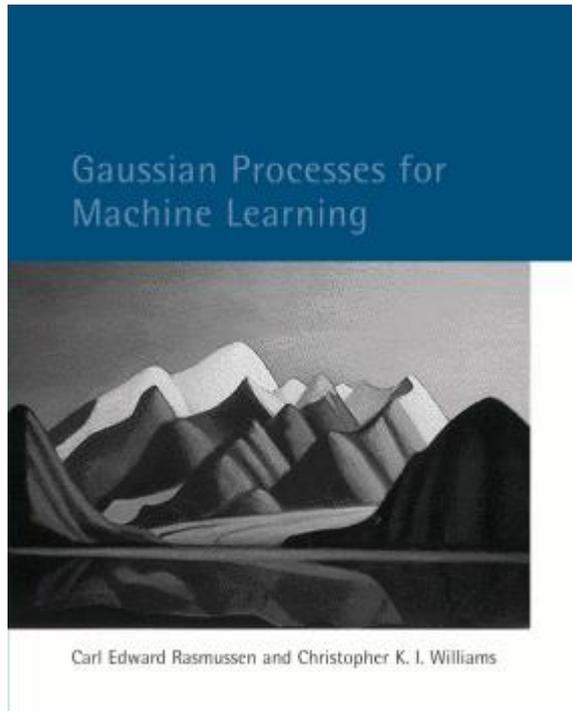
- ◆ Markov Chain Monte Carlo methods
- ◆ Expectation Propagation
- ◆ Variational Approximation

# Other Issues

- ◆ Multiple outputs
- ◆ Noise models with correlations
- ◆ Non-Gaussian likelihood
- ◆ Mixture of GPs
- ◆ Student's t process
- ◆ Latent variable models
- ◆ ...

# References

- ◆ Rasmussen & Williams. Gaussian Process for Machine Learning, 2006.



- ◆ The Gaussian Process website: <http://www.gaussianprocess.org/>

# Source Code

◆ GPStuff

◆ <http://becs.aalto.fi/en/research/bayes/gpstuff/>