Gaussian Processes

Definition, applications and deep extension

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Definitions

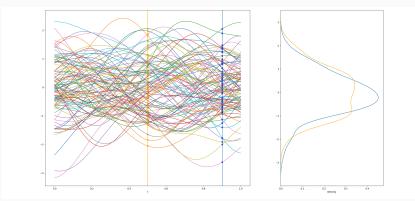
Gaussian process

Gaussian process

A Gaussian process is a stochastic process, i.e, a collection of random variables $\{X_t\}_{t\in\mathcal{T}}$ indexed by a set \mathcal{T} , such that any finite subset is Gaussian.

$$\left\{ X_{t_{1}},\ldots,X_{t_{N}}\right\} \sim\mathcal{N}\left(\cdot,\cdot\right)$$

For example, $X_{t_i} \sim \mathcal{N}(\cdot, \cdot)$.



Characterization

Gaussian processes are completely determined by their first and second order moments¹.

Given
$$m{t} = (t_1, \dots, t_N), \ N \in \mathbb{N}$$
:
$$X(m{t}) = (X_{t_1}, \dots, X_{t_N}) \sim \mathcal{N}\left(m(m{t}), K(m{t}, m{t})\right)$$
 where
$$\begin{cases} m(m{t}) &= \mathbb{E}\left[X(m{t})\right] \\ K(m{t}, m{t}) &= \textit{Cov}\left(X(m{t}), X(m{t})\right) \end{cases}$$

Defining m and K we get a Gaussian process.

¹Bishop, Christopher M. Pattern recognition and machine learning. Springer, 2006.

Examples

It is usual to take a **zero mean function**, m(t) = 0 and **kernel functions**:

- RBF: $K(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{t}') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{t} \mathbf{t}'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$.
- *Matérn*: Family of kernels, parameterized by ν . Generalize several kernels.



Define a **probability distribution over functions**: Given a function, which is its probability when interpreted as a sample of a Gaussian process?

Regression Problem

Problem statement

Given dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$ and an unknown function f such that

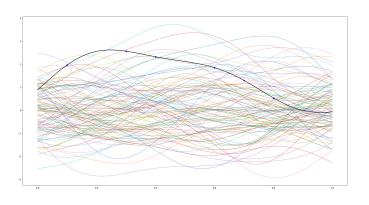
$$y_n = f(\mathbf{x}_n) + \epsilon \quad \forall n = 1, \dots, N, \text{ where } \epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

Assumption

Function f is a Gaussian process of unknown mean function m and kernel function K

Assumption

Function f is a Gaussian process of unknown mean function m and kernel function K



Naming $\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$ and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)$:

$$\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{X}) + \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \implies \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(m(\mathbf{X}), K(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right).$$

Remark: A distribution is assumed over function points **but not over** x.

Let \mathbf{X}^* be a test case where $\mathbf{y}^* = f(\mathbf{X}^*) + \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} f(\mathbf{X}) \\ f(\mathbf{X}^*) \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} m(\mathbf{X}) \\ m(\mathbf{X}^*) \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} K(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}) & K(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X}^*) \\ K(\mathbf{X}^*, \mathbf{X}) & K(\mathbf{X}^*, \mathbf{X}^*) \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

An **usual assumption** is that m = 0.

Remark

Typically, x is erased from the notation.

Naming
$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N)$$
 and $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)$:

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{f} + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) \implies \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right).$$

Remark: A distribution is assumed over f points but not over X.

Let \mathbf{X}^* be a test case where $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{f}^* + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$:

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

Predictive posterior

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}^* \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(0, \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} & \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}^*} \\ \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}} & \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}^*} \end{pmatrix} \right) \quad \mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

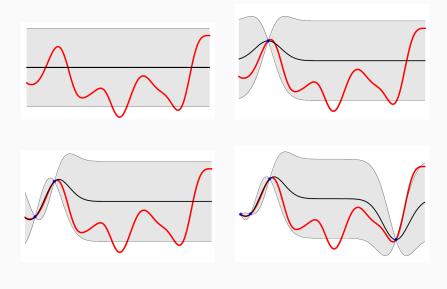
$$P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^*) = P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{f}) \implies \mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^* \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

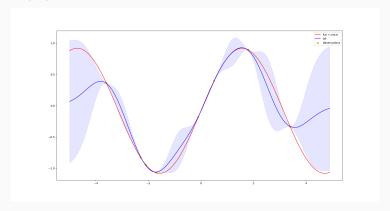
$$\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\cdot, \cdot) \implies \mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\cdot, \cdot)$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma) \quad \begin{cases} \mu = \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}} (\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} \\ \Sigma = \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}^*} - \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}} (\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}^*} \end{cases}$$



Unknown function $f(x) = \sin(x)$, \mathcal{D} is a sample of 8 points in (-5,5), RBF kernel.



Computational complexity

Several computations are done, assuming X has N points and X^* has M:

$$\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} \implies \mathcal{O}(N^2)
(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \implies \mathcal{O}(N^3)
\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}^*} = \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}}^T \implies \mathcal{O}(NM)
\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{f}^*} \implies \mathcal{O}(M^2)$$

Training: $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$ and Test: $\mathcal{O}(NM^2)$. They are **computationally inefficient!!**

This can be slightly reduced using the *Cholesky decomposition* for the matrix inversion.

Advantages

They give a prediction $\mu = K_{f^*,f}(K_{f,f} + \sigma^2 I)^{-1}y$. Equals the kernel ridge regression estimator!!.

Implicit confidence interval, $(\mu - 3\Sigma, \mu + 3\Sigma)$.

Full probabilistic approach.

Inducing points

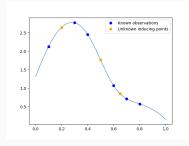
Inducing points

Main idea: Use a *smaller* and *hidden* set of points.

Let $X_u \subset \mathbb{R}^D$ be a set of *known* points (commonly computed from X). We make the assumption that $u = f(X_u)$ is representative of y.

Remark. The inducing points **u** are unknown and must be marginalized.

$$P(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^*) = \int P(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^*, \mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$
$$= \underbrace{\int P(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u}) P(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}}_{Intractable}$$



Where \boldsymbol{u} are taken from a Gaussian process:

$$\boldsymbol{u} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \boldsymbol{K}(\boldsymbol{X}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle U}, \boldsymbol{X}_{\!\scriptscriptstyle U})).$$

Approaches

• Exact inference in approximated model:

$$P(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u}) = P(\mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{u}) P(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u})$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$P(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^*) = \int P(\mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{u}) P(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u}) P(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

And further approximate $P(\mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{u})$ and $P(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u})$

• Variational inference:

$$Q(\mathbf{u}) \approx P(\mathbf{u} \mid \mathbf{y}).$$

Approximated models

Exact conditionals

$$P(f \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, K_{f,f} - Q_{f,f})$$

$$P(f^* \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f^*,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, K_{f^*,f^*} - Q_{f^*,f^*})$$

$$Q_{a,b} = K_{a,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}K_{u,b}$$

The Subset of Regressors approximation

$$Q_{SOR}(\mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, 0)$$
$$Q_{SOR}(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^*,\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, 0)$$

• The Deterministic Training Conditional approximation

$$Q_{DTC}(\mathbf{f} \mid \mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, 0)$$
$$Q_{DTC}(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u}) = P(\mathbf{f}^* \mid \mathbf{u})$$

Exact conditionals

$$P(f \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, K_{f,f} - Q_{f,f})$$

$$P(f^* \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f^*,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, K_{f^*,f^*} - Q_{f^*,f^*})$$

$$Q_{a,b} = K_{a,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}K_{u,b}$$

The Fully Independent Training Conditional approximation

$$Q_{FITC}(f \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, diag(K_{f,f} - Q_{f,f}))$$
$$Q_{FITC}(f^* \mid u) = P(f^* \mid u)$$

The Partially Independent Training Conditional approximation

$$Q_{PITC}(f \mid u) = \mathcal{N}(K_{f,u}K_{u,u}^{-1}u, blockdiag(K_{f,f} - Q_{f,f}))$$

 $Q_{PITC}(f^* \mid u) = P(f^* \mid u)$

Variational bounds

Using Jensen's inequality:

$$\log P(\boldsymbol{y} \mid \boldsymbol{u}) = \log \mathbb{E}_{P(\boldsymbol{f}|\boldsymbol{u})}[P(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \boldsymbol{f})] \geq \mathbb{E}_{\log P(\boldsymbol{f}|\boldsymbol{u})}[P(\boldsymbol{u} \mid \boldsymbol{f})] \equiv \mathcal{L}_1,$$

raises Titsias' bound ²

$$\log P(\mathbf{y}) = \log \int P(\mathbf{y} \mid \mathbf{u}) P(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u} \ge \log \int \exp \mathcal{L}_1 P(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u} \equiv \mathcal{L}_2.$$

But it is not suitable for **stochastic optimization**. Appears a new bound³

$$\log P(\mathbf{y}) \geq \mathbb{E}_{Q(\mathbf{u})} \left[\mathcal{L}_1 + \log P(\mathbf{u}) - \log Q(\mathbf{u}) \right] \equiv \mathcal{L}_3.$$

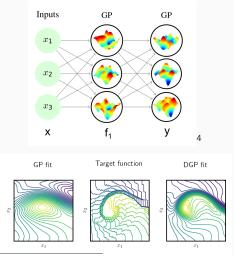
²Titsias, Michalis. "Variational learning of inducing variables in sparse Gaussian processes." In Artificial intelligence and statistics, 2009.

³Hensman, James, Nicolo Fusi, and Neil D. Lawrence. "Gaussian processes for big data." 2013.

Deep Gaussian processes

General idea

Connect Gaussian processes in a chain.



 $^{^4} l mage \ reference: \ https://www.groundai.com/project/inference-in-deep-gaussian-processes-using-stochastic-gradient-hamiltonian-monte-carlo/1$

Definition

Let $\mathcal{D} = (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$ be a dataset of an unknown function f.

Deep Gaussian process

A deep Gaussian process of length L considers L independent Gaussian processes f^1, \ldots, f^L such that the input of a Gaussian process is the output of the previous one.

$$\mathbf{X}^1 = f^1(\mathbf{X}) \implies \mathbf{X}^2 = f^2(\mathbf{X}^2) \implies \cdots \implies \mathbf{X}^L = f^L(\mathbf{X}^{L-1}) \approx \mathbf{Y}$$

Problem

In the Gaussian process, the input **did not** follow any distribution.

 ${\it X}$ no distribution $\implies {\it X}^1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\cdot, \cdot) \implies {\it X}^2$ no longer Gaussian Distribution in inner layers cannot be computed in closed form.

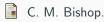
Distribution in inner layers cannot be computed in closed form.

- Variational inference is used to train the model.
- Different evidence lower bounds depending on the assumptions made (inducing points might be considered in each inner layer).
- Distribution is intractable but samples can be taken easily

 Monte Carlo.
- Expectation propagation algorithm is used.



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