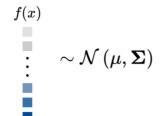
Introduction to Machine Learning

Gaussian Processes Basics



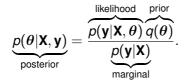


Learning goals

- GPs model distributions over functions
- The marginalization property makes this distribution easily tractable
- GPs are fully specified by mean and covariance function
- GPs are indexed families

WEIGHT-SPACE VIEW

- Until now we considered a hypothesis space \mathcal{H} of parameterized functions $f(\mathbf{x} \mid \theta)$ (in particular, the space of linear functions).
- Using Bayesian inference, we derived distributions for θ after having observed data \mathcal{D} .
- Prior believes about the parameter are expressed via a prior distribution $q(\theta)$, which is updated according to Bayes' rule



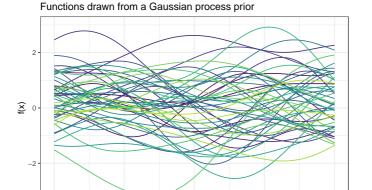


Let us change our point of view:

- Instead of "searching" for a parameter θ in the parameter space, we directly search in a space of "allowed" functions \mathcal{H} .
- We still use Bayesian inference, but instead specifying a prior distribution over a parameter, we specify a prior distribution over functions and update it according to the data points we have observed.



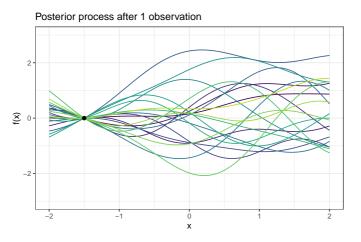
Intuitively, imagine we could draw a huge number of functions from some prior distribution over functions (*).



(*) We will see in a minute how distributions over functions can be specified.

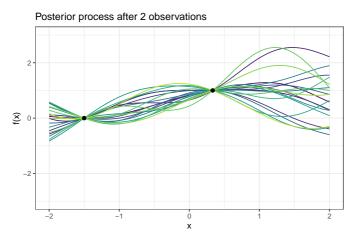


After observing some data points, we are only allowed to sample those functions, that are consistent with the data.



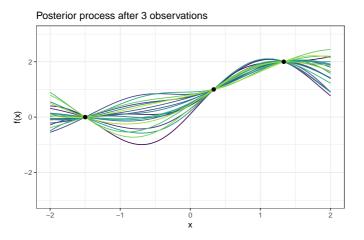


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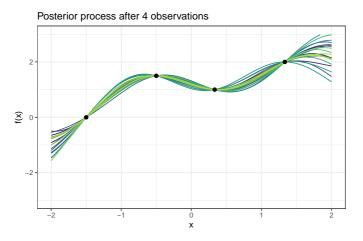


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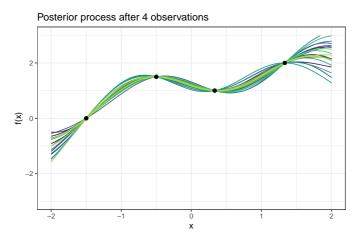


As we observe more and more data points, the variety of functions consistent with the data shrinks.





Inutitively, there is something like "mean" and a "variance" of a distribution over functions.





WEIGHT-SPACE VS. FUNCTION-SPACE VIEW

Weight-Space View

Function-Space View

Parameterize functions

Example: $f(\mathbf{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$

Define distributions on heta

Define distributions on f

Inference in parameter space Θ Inference in function space ${\cal H}$

Next, we will see how we can define distributions over functions mathematically.





Distributions on Functions

For simplicity, let us consider functions with finite domains first.

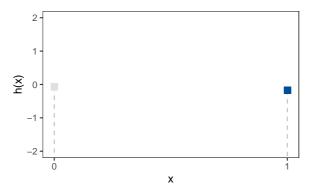
Let $\mathcal{X} = \left\{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right\}$ be a finite set of elements and \mathcal{H} the set of all functions from $\mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$.

Since the domain of any $h(.) \in \mathcal{H}$ has only n elements, we can represent the function h(.) compactly as a n-dimensional vector

$$\mathbf{h} = \left[h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}\right), \dots, h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \right].$$

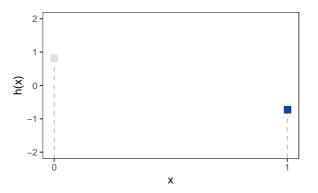


Example 1: Let us consider $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ where the input space consists of **two** points $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$.





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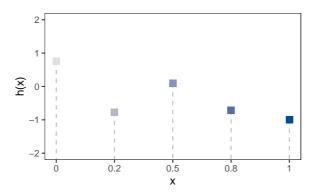


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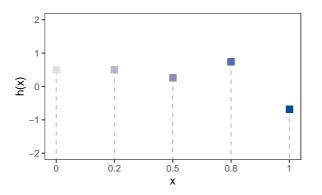


Example 2: Let us consider $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ where the input space consists of **five** points $\mathcal{X} = \{0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1\}$.



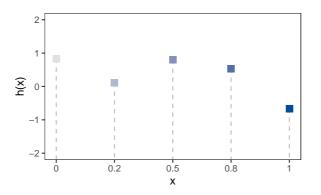


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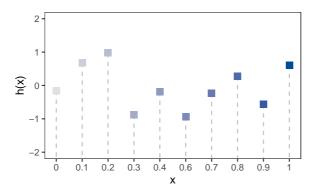


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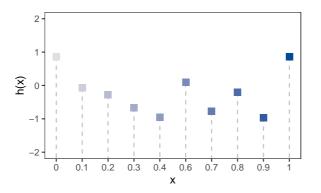


Example 3: Let us consider $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ where the input space consists of **ten** points.



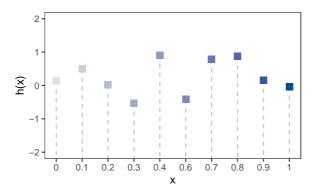


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DISTRIBUTIONS ON DISCRETE FUNCTIONS

One natural way to specify a probability function on discrete function $h \in \mathcal{H}$ is to use the vector representation

$$\boldsymbol{h} = \left[h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}\right), h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}\right), \dots, h\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \right]$$

of the function.

Let us see *h* as a *n*-dimensional random variable. We will further assume the following normal distribution:

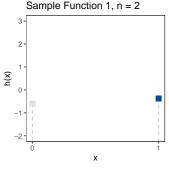
$$\mathbf{h} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{K}\right)$$
.

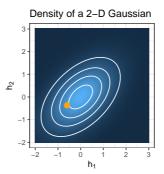
Note: For now, we set m = 0 and take the covariance matrix K as given. We will see later how they are chosen / estimated.



Example 1 (continued): Let $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ be a function that is defined on **two** points \mathcal{X} . We sample functions by sampling from a two-dimensional normal variable

$$\mathbf{\textit{h}} = [\textit{h}(1), \textit{h}(2)] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{\textit{m}}, \mathbf{\textit{K}})$$



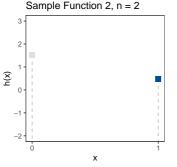


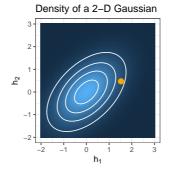
In this example,
$$m = (0,0)$$
 and $K = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.



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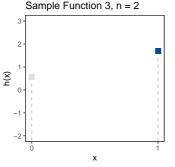


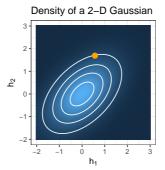
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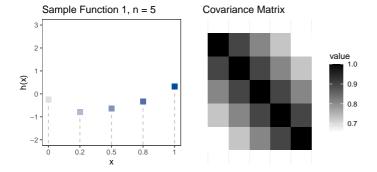


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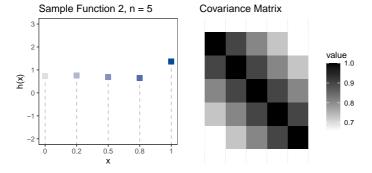
$$\mathbf{h} = [h(1), h(2), h(3), h(4), h(5)] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{K})$$





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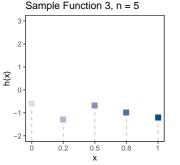
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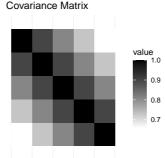




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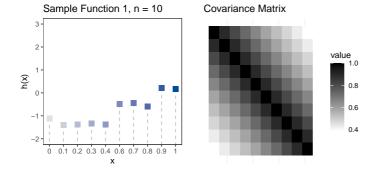






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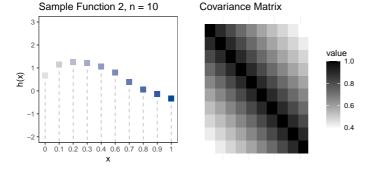
$$\mathbf{h} = [h(1), h(2), \dots, h(10)] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{K})$$





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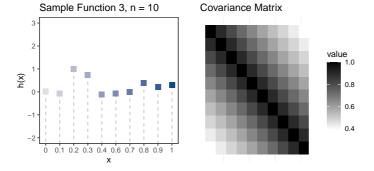
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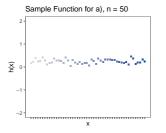


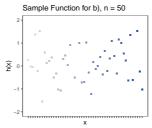
ROLE OF THE COVARIANCE FUNCTION

Note that the covariance controls the "shape" of the drawn function. Consider two extreme cases where function values are

a) strongly correlated:
$$K = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0.99 & \dots & 0.99 \\ 0.99 & 1 & \dots & 0.99 \\ 0.99 & 0.99 & \ddots & 0.99 \\ 0.99 & \dots & 0.99 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

b) uncorrelated: K = I







ROLE OF THE COVARIANCE FUNCTION / 2

 \bullet "Meaningful" functions (on a numeric space $\mathcal{X})$ may be characterized by a spatial property:

If two points $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$, $\mathbf{x}^{(j)}$ are close in \mathcal{X} -space, their function values $f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$, $f(\mathbf{x}^{(j)})$ should be close in \mathcal{Y} -space.

In other words: If they are close in \mathcal{X} -space, their functions values should be **correlated**!

We can enforce that by choosing a covariance function with

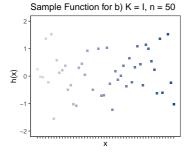
 K_{ij} high, if $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}$ close.

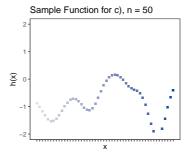


ROLE OF THE COVARIANCE FUNCTION / 3

• We can compute the entries of the covariance matrix by a function that is based on the distance between $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}$, for example:

c) Spatial correlation:
$$K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \left|\mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \mathbf{x}^{(j)}\right|^2\right)$$





Note: $k(\cdot, \cdot)$ is known as the **covariance function** or **kernel**. It will be studied in more detail later on.





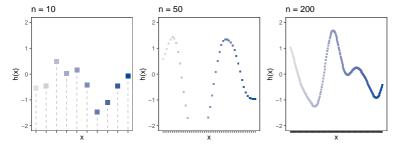
Gaussian Processes

FROM DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

 We defined distributions on functions with discrete domain by defining a Gaussian on the vector of the respective function values

$$\mathbf{h} = [h(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), h(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}), \dots, h(\mathbf{x}^{(n)})] \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{K})$$

• We can do this for $n \to \infty$ (as "granular" as we want)





FROM DISCRETE TO CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

- No matter how large n is, we are still considering a function over a discrete domain.
- How can we extend our definition to functions with **continuous** domain $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}$?



- Intuitively, a function f drawn from Gaussian process can be understood as an "infinite" long Gaussian random vector.
- It is unclear how to handle an "infinite" long Gaussian random vector!



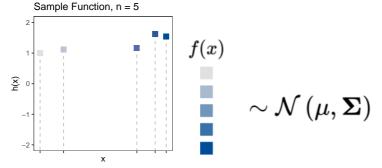


• Thus, it is required that for **any finite set** of inputs $\{\mathbf{x}^{(1)},\ldots,\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\}\subset\mathcal{X}$, the vector **f** has a Gaussian distribution

$$\textbf{\textit{f}} = \left[f\left(\textbf{\textit{x}}^{(1)}\right), \ldots, f\left(\textbf{\textit{x}}^{(n)}\right) \right] \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\textbf{\textit{m}}, \textbf{\textit{K}}\right),$$

with m and K being calculated by a mean function m(.) / covariance function k(.,.).

This property is called Marginalization Property.



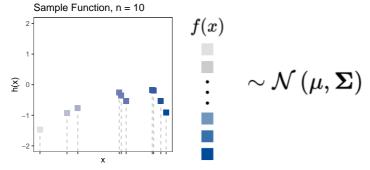


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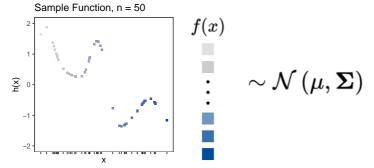


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GAUSSIAN PROCESSES

This intuitive explanation is formally defined as follows:

A function $f(\mathbf{x})$ is generated by a GP $\mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$ if for **any finite** set of inputs $\{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}\}$, the associated vector of function values $\mathbf{f} = (f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}), \dots, f(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}))$ has a Gaussian distribution

$$\mathbf{f} = \left[f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}\right), \dots, f\left(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}\right) \right] \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{K}\right),$$

with

$$\mathbf{m} := \left(m\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}\right)\right)_i, \quad \mathbf{K} := \left(k\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}\right)\right)_{i,j},$$

where $m(\mathbf{x})$ is called mean function and $k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ is called covariance function.



GAUSSIAN PROCESSES / 2

A GP is thus **completely specified** by its mean and covariance function

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

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



Note: For now, we assume $m(\mathbf{x}) \equiv 0$. This is not necessarily a drastic limitation - thus it is common to consider GPs with a zero mean function.

SAMPLING FROM A GAUSSIAN PROCESS PRIOR

We can draw functions from a Gaussian process prior. Let us consider $f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$ with the squared exponential covariance function (*)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\ell^2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2\right), \ \ell = 1.$$

This specifies the Gaussian process completely.



^(*) We will talk later about different choices of covariance functions.

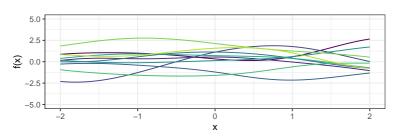
SAMPLING FROM A GAUSSIAN PROCESS PRIOR

/ **2**

To visualize a sample function, we

- choose a high number n (equidistant) points $\{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(n)}\}$
- compute the corresponding covariance matrix $\mathbf{K} = \left(k\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}\right)\right)_{i,j}$ by plugging in all pairs $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, \mathbf{x}^{(j)}$
- sample from a Gaussian $f \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$.

We draw 10 times from the Gaussian, to get 10 different samples.





SAMPLING FROM A GAUSSIAN PROCESS PRIOR

Since we specified the mean function to be zero $m(\mathbf{x}) \equiv 0$, the drawn functions have zero mean.





Gaussian Processes as Indexed Family

GAUSSIAN PROCESSES AS AN INDEXED FAMILY

A Gaussian process is a special case of a **stochastic process** which is defined as a collection of random variables indexed by some index set (also called an **indexed family**). What does it mean?

An **indexed family** is a mathematical function (or "rule") to map indices $t \in T$ to objects in S.



A family of elements in $\mathcal S$ indexed by $\mathcal T$ (indexed family) is a surjective function

$$s: T \rightarrow S$$

 $t \mapsto s_t = s(t)$



INDEXED FAMILY

Some simple examples for indexed families are:

- finite sequences (lists): $T = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ and $(s_t)_{t \in T} \in \mathbb{R}$
- ullet infinite sequences: $\mathcal{T} = \mathbb{N}$ and $(s_t)_{t \in \mathcal{T}} \in \mathbb{R}$



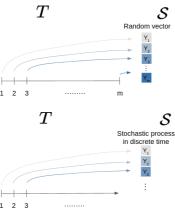


List

INDEXED FAMILY /2

But the indexed set S can be something more complicated, for example functions or **random variables** (RV):

- T = {1,...,m}, Y_t's are RVs: Indexed family is a random vector.
- T = {1,...,m}, Y_t's are RVs: Indexed family is a stochastic process in discrete time
- $T = \mathbb{Z}^2$, Y_t 's are RVs: Indexed family is a 2D-random walk.

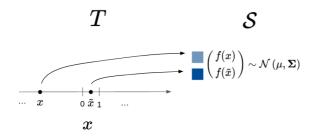




INDEXED FAMILY

- A Gaussian process is also an indexed family, where the random variables $f(\mathbf{x})$ are indexed by the input values $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$.
- Their special feature: Any indexed (finite) random vector has a multivariate Gaussian distribution (which comes with all the nice properties of Gaussianity!).



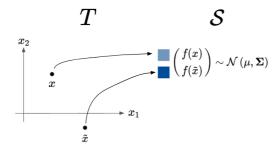


Visualization for a one-dimensional \mathcal{X} .

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Visualization for a two-dimensional \mathcal{X} .