

Introduction to Gaussian Processes

(Kernel Methods meet Bayesian Learning)

CS772A: Probabilistic Machine Learning

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Linear Models and Their Limitations

- Consider learning to map an input \mathbf{x} to the output y
- We've seen various discriminative models (linear and generalized linear models)

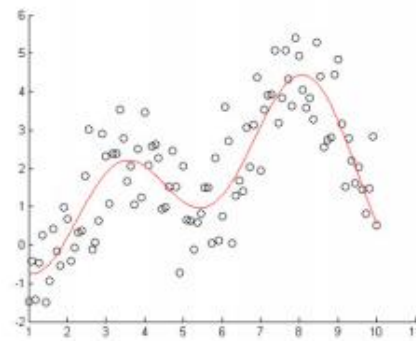
$$p(y|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(y|\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}, \beta^{-1}) \quad (\text{Linear Regression})$$

$$p(y|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = [\sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})]^y [1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x})]^{1-y} \quad (\text{Logistic Regression})$$

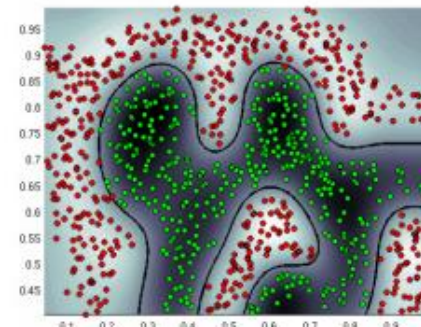
$$p(y|\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}) = \text{ExpFam}(\mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}) \quad (\text{Generalized Linear Model})$$

Natural param of canonical GLM

- These have limited expressive power – can't learn nonlinear patterns



Nonlinear Regression



Nonlinear Classification



Learning Nonlinear Functions

- Assume the input to output relationship to be modeled by a nonlinear function f

$$p(y|f, \mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}(y|f(\mathbf{x}), \beta^{-1})$$

$$p(y|f, \mathbf{x}) = [\sigma(f(\mathbf{x}))]^y [1 - \sigma(f(\mathbf{x}))]^{1-y}$$

$$p(y|f, \mathbf{x}) = \text{ExpFam}(f(\mathbf{x}))$$

In all of these, the linear score $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$ has been replaced by a nonlinear function $f(\mathbf{x})$



- Would like to model this function in a probabilistic/Bayesian manner
 - Nonlinearity + all the benefits of probabilistic/Bayesian modeling

Example: Assuming \mathbf{x} is scalar,
 $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [1, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots, \mathbf{x}^k]$, for some k

- Some ways to achieve this
 - Ad-hoc: Manually define nonlinear features $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ + train Bayesian linear model
 - Ad-hoc: Use a pre-trained deep neural net to extract features $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ + train Bayesian linear model
 - Bayesian Neural Networks (later)
 - Gaussian Processes (a Bayesian approach to [kernel based](#) nonlinear learning; today)



Gaussian Process



Any choice of the GP covariance function has an associated feature map $\phi(x)$ for the inputs x

Hmmm.. So GPs look like kernel methods with all the benefits of probabilistic/Bayesian modeling

- A Gaussian Process (GP) defines a **distribution over functions** and is denoted as

Akin to how we define a Gaussian distribution over scalars/vectors, defined by a mean and variance/covariance matrix

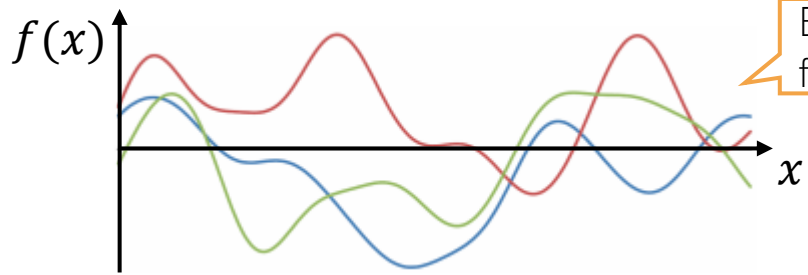
Mean Function

Covariance Function

$$\mathcal{GP}(\mu(\cdot), \kappa(\cdot, \cdot))$$

Can also think of a function as an **infinite dimensional vector** of function's values at different inputs (x), i.e.,
 $f = [f(x_1), f(x_2), f(x_3), \dots]$

- Every draw/sample from $\mathcal{GP}(\mu, \kappa)$ will give a random function f



Each of these curves is a random function drawn from the GP

Mean Function $\mu(\cdot)$ defines the "average" function looks like:
 $\mu(x) = \mathbb{E}[f(x)]$

μ and κ can be pre-defined or can even be learned

Covariance Function $\kappa(\cdot, \cdot)$ defines **similarity between pairs of inputs** and controls the shape of these curves (also needs to be pos-sem-def)

- IMP:** If $f \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu, \kappa)$ then f 's value at any finite set of inputs is jointly Gaussian

Can concisely write it as
 $p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{K})$

$$p \left(\begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_N) \end{bmatrix} \right) = \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu(x_1) \\ \mu(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ \mu(x_N) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \kappa(x_1, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_1, x_N) \\ \kappa(x_2, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_2, x_N) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \kappa(x_N, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_N, x_N) \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$N \times 1$ vector of f 's values: \mathbf{f}

$N \times 1$ mean vector: $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

$N \times N$ cov/kernel matrix (PSD): \mathbf{K}

Very useful property for **making predictions**: Knowing f 's value at some N "training" inputs, say, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N , we can easily compute its value **at a new test input x_*** , using the Gaussian joint-to-conditional formula





Predicting using GP

The results we saw here relating the score f_* to \mathbf{f} will still hold ☺

We just need to use a likelihood model for y_n to handle such "noisy settings" (will see soon)

For example
 $p(y_n|f_n) = \mathcal{N}(y_n|f_n, \beta^{-1})$
 $p(y_n|f_n) = \text{Bernoulli}(y_n|\sigma(f_n))$

The setting considered on this slide is the "noiseless" setting where the response y_n is simply given by $y_n = f_n = f(x_n)$. More realistic settings will have each output y_n as a transformation of a "score" given by GP: $f_n = f(x_n)$

- We have already seen that

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_N) \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mu(x_1) \\ \mu(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ \mu(x_N) \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \kappa(x_1, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_1, x_N) \\ \kappa(x_2, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_2, x_N) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \kappa(x_N, x_1) & \dots & \kappa(x_N, x_N) \end{bmatrix}\right) \xrightarrow{\text{concisely}} p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \mathbf{K})$$

- Let's assume the mean function $\mu(x) = 0$, thus $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$ and $p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$
- Assume we know $\mathbf{f} = [f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_N)]$ and want to compute $f(x_*)$
- Due to the GP property, joint distribution of f 's values will always be Gaussian

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ f_* \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K} & \mathbf{k}_* \\ \mathbf{k}_*^\top & \kappa(x_*, x_*) \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

where $\mathbf{k}_* = [\kappa(x_1, x_*), \kappa(x_2, x_*), \dots, \kappa(x_N, x_*)]^\top$

PPD without computing posterior ☺

$(N + 1) \times 1$ vector

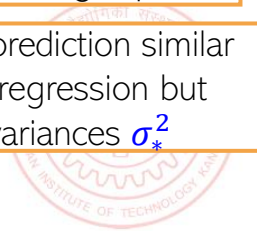
$(N + 1) \times (N + 1)$ matrix

$N \times 1$ vector of similarities of x_* with each of the N training inputs

$$p(f_*|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{f}, \kappa(x_*, x_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{k}_*) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_*, \sigma_*^2)$$

Form of prediction similar to kernel regression but also get variances σ_*^2

- Exercise: Show that predictive mean $\mu_* = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i f_i = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i \kappa(x_i, x_*)$



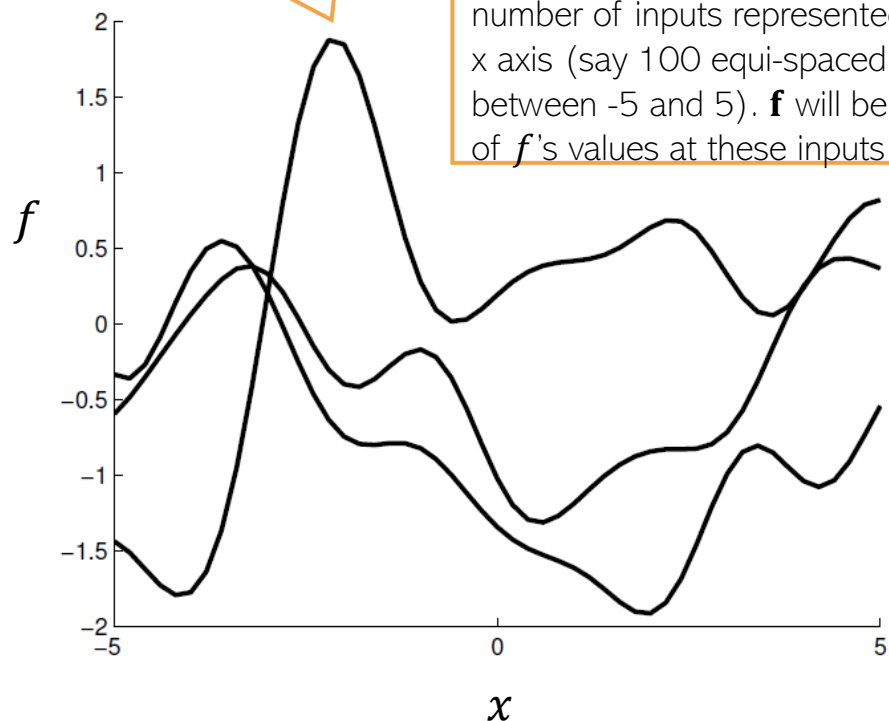
GP: A Visualization

- Assumed zero mean function and a squared exponential kernel

$$k_{SE}(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{(x-x')^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

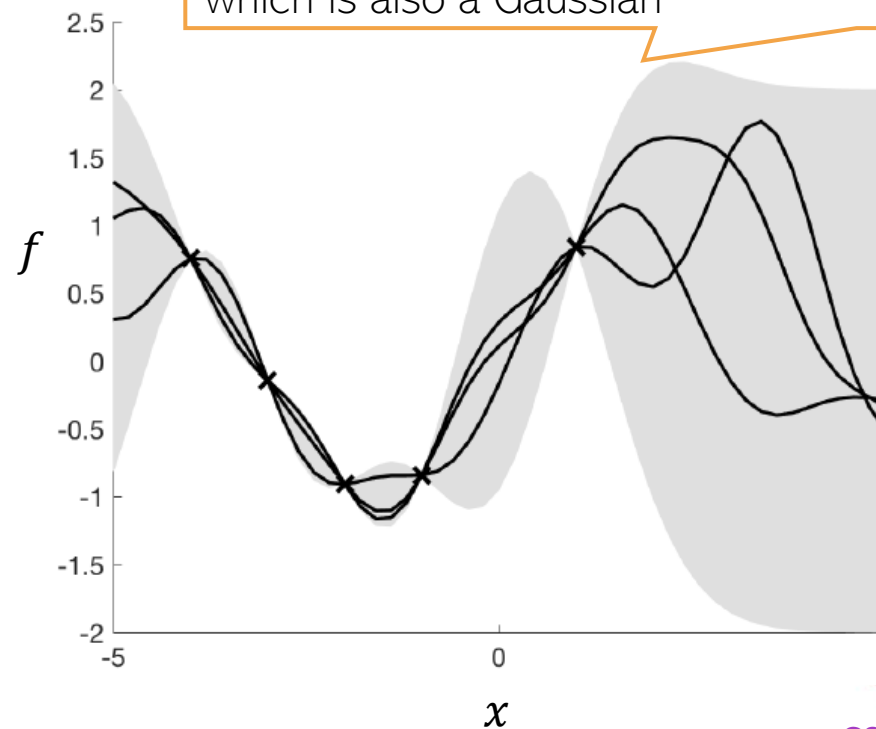
Each curve below is obtained by drawing a random \mathbf{f} from the GP "prior" $p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$ and plotting it.

\mathbf{K} is the kernel matrix of a finite number of inputs represented on the x axis (say 100 equi-spaced points between -5 and 5). \mathbf{f} will be a vector of f 's values at these inputs



Shaded area shows the predictive uncertainty for each of the test inputs (± 2 std)

Each curve below is obtained by drawing random \mathbf{f} 's the GP posterior $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{f}_{train})$ which is also a Gaussian



GP for Noisy Setting: Regression (Gaussian Lik.)

- For Gaussian lik, we can get PPD $p(\mathbf{y}_*|\mathbf{y})$ without computing the GP posterior $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y})$
- Note that, in this case, the marginal likelihood is also a Gaussian

Also useful when learning hyperparams of the GP covariance/kernel

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f})d\mathbf{f} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K} + \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}_N)$$

$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N)$

$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$

- The joint distribution of the training \mathbf{y} and test response \mathbf{y}_* is also a Gaussian

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{y}_* \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{y}_* \end{bmatrix} \mid \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C}_N & \mathbf{k}_* \\ \mathbf{k}_*^\top & \kappa(x_*, x_*) + \beta^{-1} \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

Note: All hyperparams assumed to be known

Identical to the noiseless case except the additional β^{-1} term on the diagonal

- Using the above, we can easily obtain $p(\mathbf{y}_*|\mathbf{y})$ using Gaussian properties

$$p(\mathbf{y}_*|\mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{y}, \kappa(x_*, x_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{k}_* + \beta^{-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_*, \sigma_*^2)$$

Weighted average of the training responses

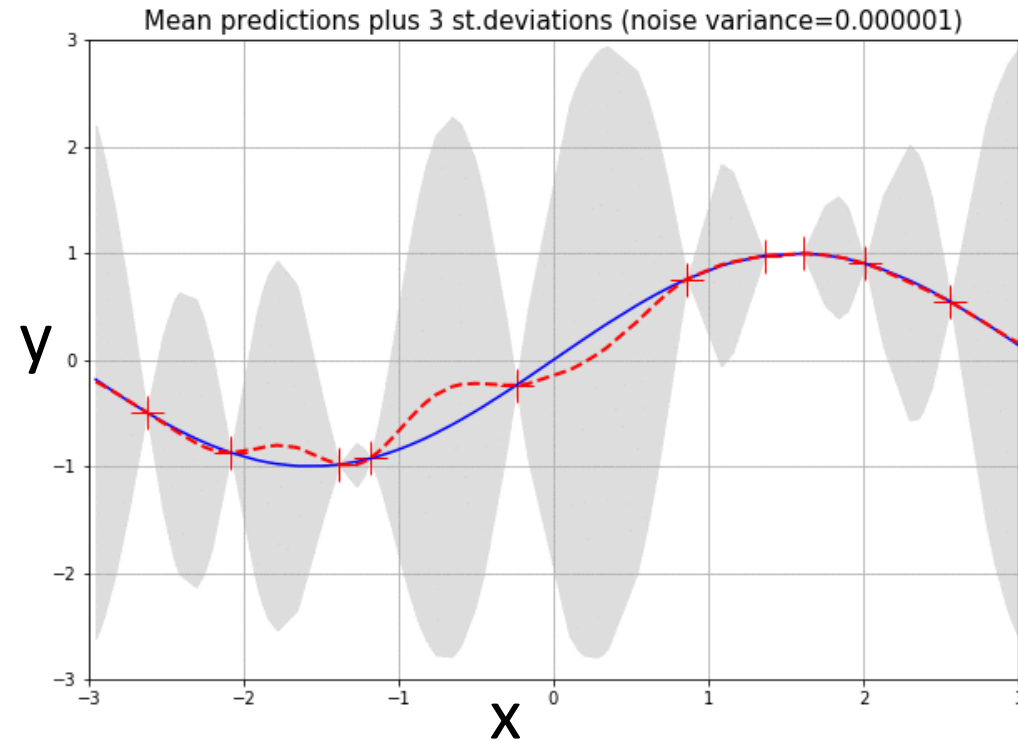
μ_* has a similar interpretation as in the noiseless case

- This is almost identical to the expression of $p(\mathbf{f}_*|\mathbf{f})$ from the noiseless case except \mathbf{K} there is replaced by \mathbf{C}_N and extra β^{-1} term in variance



GP Regression: An Illustration

- The figure below shows GP predictive mean and variance as noise variance changes



Blue curve: True function
 Red point: Training inputs (noisy)
 Red curve: Learned predictive mean
 Shaded region: +/- 3 std-dev

- As expected, the predictive mean worsens and predictive variance increases as the noise variance increases



Weight Space View vs Function Space View

- GPs are defined w.r.t. a **function space** that models input-output relationship
- In contrast, we have seen models that are defined w.r.t. a **weight space**, e.g.,

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N) \quad \text{Likelihood}$$

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{w}|\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0) \quad \text{Prior over weight vector}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w})p(\mathbf{w})d\mathbf{w} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\mu}_0, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N + \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0\mathbf{X}^\top) \quad \text{Marginal likelihood after integrating out the weights}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N + \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top) \quad \text{Marginal likelihood assuming } \boldsymbol{\mu}_0 = \mathbf{0} \text{ and } \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0 = \mathbf{I}$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top) \quad \text{Assuming noise-free likelihood}$$

- Thus the joint distribution of the N responses $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2, \dots, \mathbf{y}_N$ is a multivariate Gaussian

This equivalence also shows that Bayesian linear regression is a special case of GP with linear kernel

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{y}_N \end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_1^\top \mathbf{x}_N \\ \mathbf{x}_2^\top \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_2^\top \mathbf{x}_N \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_N^\top \mathbf{x}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{x}_N^\top \mathbf{x}_N \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

Same as a GP $f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{y}_i$, $\boldsymbol{\mu}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ and linear covariance/kernel function $\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) = \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{x}_j$

- Thus GPs can be seen as bypassing the weight space and directly defining the model using a marginal likelihood via a function space defined by the GP



GP for Noisy Setting: Classification and GLM

- Binary classification: Now likelihood will be Bernoulli: $p(y_n|f_n) = \text{Bernoulli}(y_n|\sigma(f_n))$
- For multi-class ($K > 2$) GP, $p(y_n|f_n)$ will be multinoulli and f_n will be a $K \times 1$ vector
- For GP based GLM, $p(y_n|f_n)$ will be some exp-family distribution
- The prior $p(\mathbf{f})$ will still be a GP. Assuming a zero-mean GP prior $p(\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K})$
- The posterior predictive $p(y_*|\mathbf{y})$ can again be written as

$$\begin{aligned} p(y_*|\mathbf{y}) &= \int p(y_*|f_*)p(f_*|\mathbf{y})df_* \\ &= \int p(y_*|f_*)p(f_*|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y})d\mathbf{f}df_* \end{aligned}$$

- This in general is not as easy to compute unlike the case of GP regression we saw
 - $p(f_*|\mathbf{f})$ is still not a problem (will be Gaussian due to the GP property)
 - GP posterior $p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{y}) \propto p(\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})$ will require approximation (Laplace, MCMC, variational, etc)
 - The overall integral will require approximation as well



Learning Hyperparameters in GP based Models

- Can learn the hyperparameters of the GP prior as well as of the likelihood model
- Assuming $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{0}$, the hyperparams of GP are cov/kernel function hyperparams

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}_n - \mathbf{x}_m\|^2}{\gamma}\right) \quad \text{(RBF kernel)}$$

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \exp\left(-\sum_{d=1}^D \frac{(\mathbf{x}_{nd} - \mathbf{x}_{md})^2}{\gamma_d}\right) \quad \text{(ARD kernel)}$$

$$\kappa(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) = \kappa_{\theta_1}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) + \kappa_{\theta_2}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) + \dots + \kappa_{\theta_M}(\mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}_m) \quad \text{(flexible composition of multiple kernels)}$$

Can help in feature selection (irrelevant features will tend to have very large γ_d)

Different RBF kernel bandwidth γ_d for each feature

Ability to learn kernel hyperparams (without cross-valid) is another very appealing property of GP



- MLE-II is a popular choice for learning these hyperparams (otherwise MCMC, VI, etc)
- Denoting the covariance/kernel matrix as \mathbf{K}_θ , for Gaussian likelihood case, the marg-lik

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}, \beta^{-1}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_\theta + \beta^{-1}\mathbf{I}_N)$$

- This can be maximized to learn $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ and β
- For **non-Gaussian likelihoods**, the marg-lik itself will need to be approximated



Coming Up

- Some aspects of GPs
 - Scalability
 - Connections with neural nets
 - Some recent advances



Scalability of GPs

- Computational costs in some steps of GP models scale in the size of training data
- For example, prediction cost is $O(N)$

$O(N)$ cost assuming \mathbf{C}_N is already inverted

$$p(y_* | \mathbf{y}) = \mathcal{N}(\mu_*, \sigma_*^2) \quad \mu_* = \mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{y} \quad \sigma_*^2 = \kappa(x_*, x_*) - \mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{k}_* + \beta^{-1}$$

- GP models often require matrix inversions (e.g., in marg-lik computation when estimating hyperparameters) – takes $O(N^3)$
- Storage also requires $O(N^2)$ since need to store the covariance matrix
- A lot of work on speeding up GPs¹. Some prominent approaches include
 - **Inducing Point Methods** (condition predictions only on a small set of “learnable” points)
 - Divide-and-Conquer (learn GP on small subsets of data and aggregate predictions)
 - Kernel approximations
- Note that nearest neighbor methods and kernel methods also face similar issues
 - Many tricks to speed up kernel methods can be used for speeding up GPs too

$M \ll N$ pseudo-inputs and pseudo-outputs



GP: Some Comments

- GP is sometimes referred to as a **nonparametric** model because
 - Complexity (representation size) of the function f grows in the size of training data
 - To see this, note the form of the GP predictions, e.g., predictive mean in GP regression

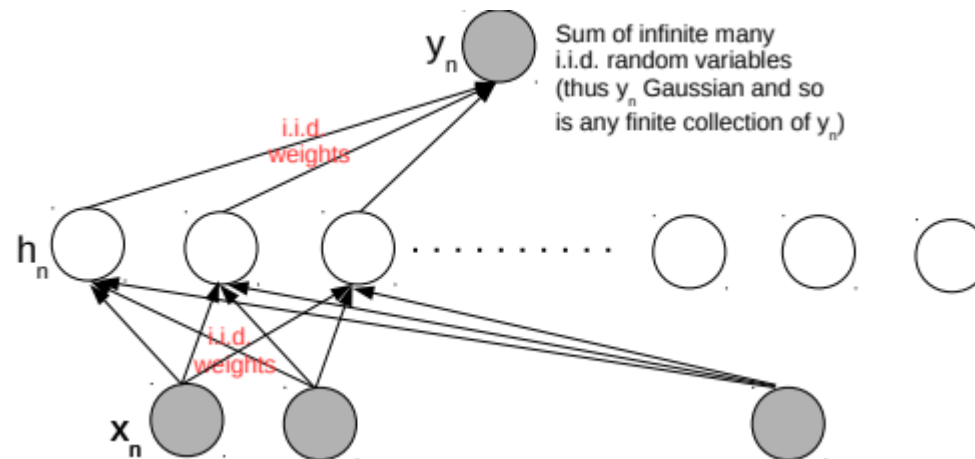
$$\mu_* = f(\mathbf{x}_*) = \mathbf{k}_*^\top \mathbf{C}_N^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{k}_*^\top \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_n)$$

- It implies that $f(\cdot) = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n k(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_n)$ which means f is written in terms of all training examples
 - Thus the representation size of f depends on the number of training examples
- In contrast, a parametric model has a size that doesn't grow with training data
 - E.g., a linear model learns a weight vector $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ (D parameters, size independent of N)
- Nonparametric models more flexible since their complexity is not limited beforehand
 - Note: Methods like nearest neighbors and kernel SVMs are also nonparametric (but not Bayesian)



Neural Networks and Gaussian Process

- An infinitely-wide single hidden layer NN with i.i.d. priors on weights = GP
- Shown formally by (Neal², 1994). Based on applying the central limit theorem



- This equivalence is useful for several reasons
 - Can use a GP instead of an **infinitely wide** Bayesian NN (which is impractical anyway)
 - With GPs, inference is easy (at least for regression and with known hyperparams)
 - A proof that GPs can also learn any function (just like infinitely wide neural nets - Hornik's theorem)
- Connection generalized to infinitely wide multiple hidden layer NN (Lee et al³, 2018)



²Priors for infinite networks, Tech Report, 1994

³Deep Neural Networks as Gaussian Processes (ICLR 2018)

GP: A Few Other Comments

- GPs can be thought of as Bayesian analogues of kernel methods
- Can get estimate in the uncertainty in the function and its predictions



- Can learn the kernel (by learning the hyperparameters of the kernels)
- Not limited to supervised learning problems
 - f could even define a mapping of low-dim latent variable \mathbf{z}_n to an observation \mathbf{x}_n

$$\mathbf{x}_n = f(\mathbf{z}_n) + \text{"noise"}$$

GP latent variable model for dimensionality reduction
(like a kernel version of probabilistic PCA)

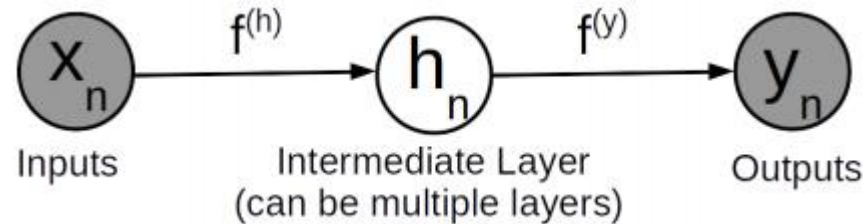
- Many mature implementations of GP exist. You may check out
 - GPyTorch (PyTorch), GPFlow (Tensorflow)
 - GPML (MATLAB), GPsuff (MATLAB/Octave)



GP: Some Other Recent Advances

■ Deep Gaussian Processes (DGP)

- Akin to a deep neural network where each hidden node is modeled by a GP



- A nice alternative to linear transform + nonlinearity in neural nets, e.g., $h = \tanh(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x})$

■ GPs with deep kernels defined by neural nets

■ Neural Processes (GP + neural nets): Faster way to do GPs

