

Machine Learning 2 2. Gaussian Process Models (GPs)

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Syllabus



A. Advanced Supervised Learning A.1 Generalized Linear Models Fri. 12.4. (1)Fri. 26.4. (2) A.2 Gaussian Processes Fri. 3.5. (3) A.2b Gaussian Processes (ctd.) Fri. 10.5. (4) A.3 Advanced Support Vector Machines B. Ensembles Fri. 17.5. (5) **B.1 Stacking** Fri. 24.5. (6) **B.2** Boosting Fri. 31.5. (7)**B.3 Mixtures of Experts** C. Sparse Models Fri 7.6 (8) C.1 Homotopy and Least Angle Regression Pentecoste Break Fri. 14.6. Fri. 21.6. (9) C.2 Proximal Gradients Fri. 28.6. (10) C.3 Laplace Priors Fri. 29.6. (11)C.4 Automatic Relevance Determination **D.** Complex Predictors Fri. 6.7. (12)D.1 Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) Fri. 12.7. (13)Q & A ◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆□▶ ◆□▶

Outline



1. GPs for Regression

2. GPs for Classification

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1. GPs for Regression

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Gaussian Process Model

Gaussian Processes describe

- the vector $y := (y_1, \ldots, y_N)^T$ of all targets
- ► as a sample from a **normal distribution**
- where targets of different instances are correlated by a kernel Σ :
- ▶ and thus depend on the **matrix** X **of all predictors**:

$$y \mid X \sim \mathcal{N}(y \mid \mu(X), \Sigma(X))$$

with

$$\mu(X)_n := m(x_n)$$

 $\Sigma(X)_{n,m} := k(x_n, x_m), \quad n, m \in \{1, \dots, N\}$

with a kernel function k and mean function m (often m = 0).

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Kernels



The kernel k measures how much targets y, y' correlate given their predictors x, x'.

- k(x, x') is larger the more similar x, x' are
- esp. $k(x,x) \ge k(x,x') \ \forall x,x'$

Example: squared exponential kernel / Gaussian kernel

$$k(x, x') := \sigma_f^2 e^{-\frac{1}{2\ell^2} ||x - x'||^2}$$

with kernel (hyper)parameters

 ℓ horizontal length scale (x) σ_f^2 vertical variation (y)

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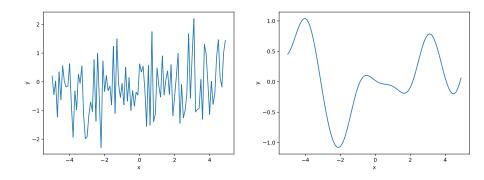
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GPs as Prior on Functions



identity kernel

squared exponential kernel



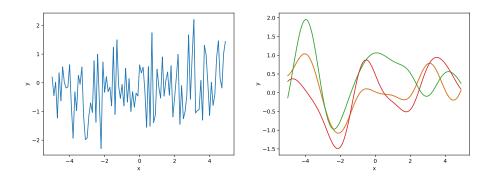
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identity kernel

squared exponential kernel



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Conditional Distributions of Multivariate Normals

Let y_A, y_B be jointly Gaussian

$$y := \begin{pmatrix} y_A \\ y_B \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{pmatrix} y_A \\ y_B \end{pmatrix} \middle| \begin{pmatrix} \mu_A \\ \mu_B \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{AA} & \Sigma_{AB} \\ \Sigma_{BA} & \Sigma_{BB} \end{pmatrix} \right)$$

then the conditional distribution is

$$p(y_B \mid y_A) = \mathcal{N}(y_B \mid \mu_{B|A}, \Sigma_{B|A})$$

with

$$\mu_{B|A} := \mu_B + \Sigma_{BA} \Sigma_{AA}^{-1} (y_A - \mu_A)$$

$$\Sigma_{B|A} := \Sigma_{BB} - \Sigma_{BA} \Sigma_{AA}^{-1} \Sigma_{AB}$$

Predictions w/o Noise

Let y, X be the training data, X_* be the test data and y_* be the test targets to predict.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} y\\ y_* \end{array}\right) \mid X, X_* \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\left(\begin{array}{c} y\\ y_* \end{array}\right) \mid \left(\begin{array}{c} \mu\\ \mu_* \end{array}\right), \left(\begin{array}{c} \Sigma & \Sigma_*\\ \Sigma_*^T & \Sigma_{**} \end{array}\right)\right)$$

with

$$\begin{split} & \mu := m(X), \quad \mu_* := m(X_*) \\ & \Sigma := k(X,X), \quad \Sigma_* := k(X,X_*), \quad \Sigma_{**} := k(X_*,X_*) \end{split}$$

Then

$$p(y_* \mid y) = \mathcal{N}(y_* \mid \tilde{\mu}_*, \tilde{\Sigma}_*)$$
$$\tilde{\mu}_* := \mu_* + \Sigma_*^T \Sigma^{-1} (y - \mu)$$
$$\tilde{\Sigma}_* := \Sigma_{**} - \Sigma_*^T \Sigma^{-1} \Sigma_*$$

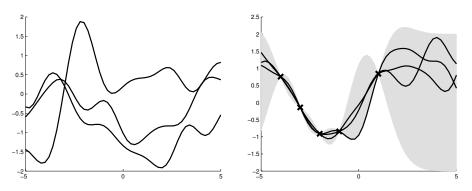




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Example w/o Noise



Without noise the data is interpolated.

[Mur12, fig. 15.2] < □ ▶ < 圕 ▶ < 볼 ▶ < 볼 ▶ 물 말 말 ♡ < . ♡

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Predictions with Noise

No noise:

 $\Sigma := K$

With noise:

$$\Sigma := K_y = K + \sigma_y^2 I$$

Then as before

$$p(y_* \mid y) = \mathcal{N}(y_* \mid \tilde{\mu}_*, \tilde{\Sigma}_*)$$

now with

$$\tilde{\mu}_* := \mu_* + K_*^T K_y^{-1} (y - \mu) \tilde{\Sigma}_* := K_{**} + \sigma_y^2 I - K_*^T K_y^{-1} K_*$$

where

$$K := k(X, X), \quad K_* := k(X, X_*), \quad K_{**} := k(X_*, X_*)$$



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Predictions with Noise, Zero Means



$$p(y_* \mid y) = \mathcal{N}(y_* \mid \tilde{\mu}_*, \tilde{\Sigma}_*)$$

with

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mu}_{*} &:= \mu_{*} + K_{*}^{T} K_{y}^{-1} (y - \mu) \\ \tilde{\Sigma}_{*} &:= K_{**} + \sigma_{y}^{2} I - K_{*}^{T} K_{y}^{-1} K_{*} \end{split}$$

With m = 0:

$$p(y_* \mid y) = \mathcal{N}(y_* \mid \tilde{\mu}_*, \tilde{\Sigma}_*)$$

with

$$\tilde{\mu}_* := K_*^T K_y^{-1} y$$
$$\tilde{\Sigma}_* := K_{**} + \sigma_y^2 I - K_*^T K_y^{-1} K_*$$

Prediction for a single instance



$$p(y_* \mid y) = \mathcal{N}(y_* \mid \tilde{\mu}_*, \tilde{\Sigma}_*)$$

with

$$\begin{split} \tilde{\mu}_* &:= K_*^T K_y^{-1} y \\ \tilde{\Sigma}_* &:= K_{**} + \sigma_y^2 I - K_*^T K_y^{-1} K_* \end{split}$$

Prediction \hat{y} for a single instance x:

$$\hat{y}(x) := k_*^T \mathcal{K}_y^{-1} y = \sum_{n=1}^N \alpha_n k(x_n, x), \quad \alpha := \mathcal{K}_y^{-1} y$$

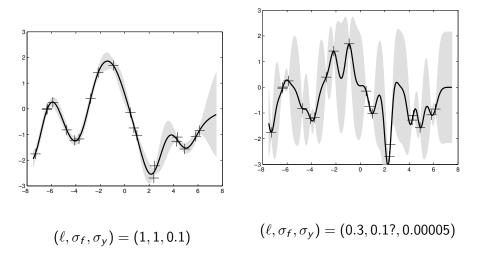
with

$$k_* := k(X, x)$$

But GPs can provide a joint inference for multiple instances and a set on a

Example with Noise

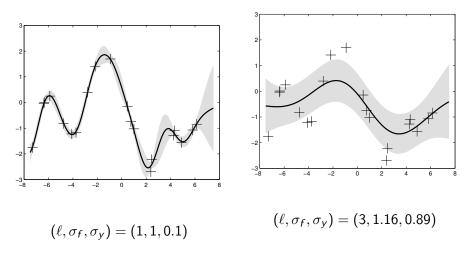




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Example with Noise





[Mur12, fig. 15.3] ㅋㅁ▶ㅋ 문자 토자 토가 토도 카이어

Estimating Kernel Parameters

Either treating them as hyperparameters (grid search, random search) or maximize the marginal likelihood (empirical Bayes; grad. desc.).

Model:
$$p(y \mid X, \theta) = \mathcal{N}(y \mid 0, K_y)$$
 with $\theta = (\ell, \sigma_f^2, \sigma_y^2)$

Negative log-likelihood:

$$L(\theta) = -\log p(y \mid X, \theta) = \frac{1}{2} y^{T} K_{y}^{-1} y + \frac{1}{2} \log |K_{y}| + \frac{N}{2} \log(2\pi)$$
(1)

Gradients: (via $\partial(X^{-1}) = X^{-1}(\partial X)X^{-1}$ and $\partial \det X = \frac{1}{\det X} \operatorname{tr} \left((X^{-1})^{\mathsf{T}} \partial X \right)$)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_j} = -\frac{1}{2} y^T K_y^{-1} \frac{\partial K_y}{\partial \theta_j} K_y^{-1} y + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}(K_y^{-1} \frac{\partial K_y}{\partial \theta_j})$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr}\left((\alpha \alpha^T - K_y^{-1}) \frac{\partial K_y}{\partial \theta_j}\right)$$

with $\alpha = K_y^{-1} y$

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Cholesky decompositon

How to solve Ax = b?

Matrix inversion: $x = A^{-1}b$ is problematic because

- Numerically unstable
- A^{-1} is dense, even if A is sparse
- Better: *LU*-decomposition

$$Ax = b \xrightarrow{A = LU} \frac{Lz = b}{Ux = z}$$

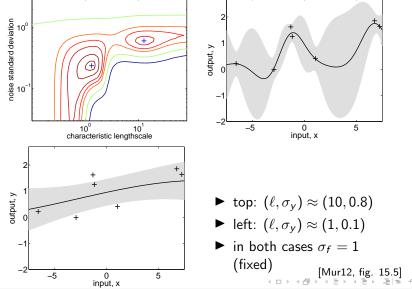
- ► L and U lower/upper triangular
- ▶ if A symmetric pos.-definite, then (L, U) can be chosen s.t. U = L^T (Cholesky-decomposition)

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Local Minima for Kernel Parameters





Semi-parametric GPs



$$f(x) = \beta^T \phi(x) + r(x)$$

r(X) ~GP(r | 0, k(X, X))

Assuming

$$\beta \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta \mid b, B), \quad \text{e.g., } b := 0, B := \sigma_{\beta}^2 I$$

yields just another GP

$$f(X) \sim \mathsf{GP}(\phi(X)^{\mathsf{T}}b, k(X, X) + \phi(X)B\phi(X)^{\mathsf{T}})$$

where

$$\phi(X) := (\phi(x_1), \ldots, \phi(x_N))^T$$

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Model



$$p(y \mid x) := s(y f(x)), \quad y \in \{+1, -1\}, s =$$
logistic $f \sim GP(0, K(X, X))$

► f: latent score

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Inference

Two-step inference (given training data-set $\mathcal{D} = (X, y)$)

1. infer latent score variable:

$$p(f_* \mid X, y, x_*) = \int p(f_* \mid X, x_*, f) p(f \mid X, y) df$$

with
$$p(f \mid X, y) = p(y \mid f)p(f \mid X)/p(y \mid X)$$
 (Bayes thm.)

2. infer target:

$$\pi_* := p(y_* = +1 \mid X, y, x_*) = \int s(f_*) \, p(f_* \mid X, y, x_*) \, df_*$$

Non-Gaussians are analytically intractable.

- → Gaussian approximation (Laplace approximation)
- **~~** Expectation Propagation (EP)
- $\rightsquigarrow \ further \ methods$

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Laplace Approximation If h has a unique global maximum in x_0 then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{h(x)} dx \approx \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{-h''(x_0)}} e^{h(x_0)}$$

Proof: Via Taylor $h(x) \approx h(x_0) + \frac{1}{2}h''(x_0)(x-x_0)^2$

Apply on the marginal likelihood

$$p(y \mid X) = \int p(y \mid f) p(f \mid x) df = \int e^{\ell(f)} \approx e^{\ell(\hat{f})} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}^n}{\sqrt{|\nabla^2 \ell(\hat{f})|}}$$

 $\implies \log p(y \mid X) \approx \log p(y \mid \hat{f}) + \log p(\hat{f} \mid x) - \frac{1}{2} \log |\nabla^2 \ell(\hat{f})| + \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi)$

How to find \hat{f} and $\nabla^2 \ell(\hat{f})$?



Posterior



$$p(f \mid X, y) = \frac{p(y \mid f, X) p(f \mid X)}{p(y \mid X)} \propto p(y \mid f) p(f \mid X)$$
$$\ell(f) = \log p(y \mid f) + \log p(f \mid X)$$
$$= \log p(y \mid f) - \frac{1}{2} f^T K^{-1} f - \frac{1}{2} \log |K| - \frac{N}{2} \log 2\pi$$
$$\implies \nabla \ell(f) = \nabla \log p(y \mid f) - K^{-1} f$$
$$\implies \nabla^2 \ell(f) = \nabla^2 \log p(y \mid f) - K^{-1}$$

for logistic (p(y | f) = s(yf))

$$abla \log p(y \mid f) = y - \pi$$

 $abla^2 \log p(y \mid f) = \operatorname{diag}(-\pi \circ (1 - \pi)) =: -W$

At maximum: $\nabla \ell(f) = 0 \implies f = K \nabla \log p(y_{\Box}|, f)_{\mathbb{P}} \land \mathbb{R} \land$

Posterior



at maximum:

$$\nabla \ell(f) = 0 \implies f = K \nabla \log p(y \mid f)$$

Use Newton to find a maximum:

$$f^{(t+1)} := f^{(t)} - (\nabla^2 \ell)^{-1} \nabla \ell$$

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

eventually yielding the maximum posterior \hat{f} at convergence. Then:

$$p(f \mid X, y) \approx q(f \mid X, y) := \mathcal{N}(f \mid \hat{f}, (K^{-1} + W)^{-1})$$

(Gaussian Approximation)

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Predictions Recall: $\mathbb{E}_q[f_* \mid X, y, x_*] = K_*^T K_y^{-1} \hat{f} = K_*^T \nabla \log p(y \mid \hat{f})$

$$\implies \mathbb{E}_{p}[f_{*} \mid X, y, x_{*}] = \int \mathbb{E}[f_{*} \mid f, X, x_{*}] p(f \mid X, y) df$$
$$= K_{*}^{T} K_{y}^{-1} fp(f \mid X, y) df$$
$$= k(x_{*})^{T} K^{-1} \mathbb{E}[f \mid X, y]$$

approximated mean:

$$\mathbb{E}_q(f_* \mid X, y, x_*) = k(x_*)^T K^{-1} \hat{f}$$

variance:

$$Var_q(f_* \mid X, y, x_*) = k(x_*, x_*) - k_*^T (K + W^{-1})^{-1} k_*$$

predictions:

$$ar{\pi}_* := \mathbb{E}_q(\pi_* \mid X, y, x*) = \int s(f_*)q(f_* \mid X, y, x_*)df_*$$

Solve integral via MCMC or probit approximation (Murphy 8.4.4.2) = 200





Algorithm (Step 1)



input: K (covariance matrix), \mathbf{y} (±1 targets), $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})$ (likelihood function) 2: f := 0initialization Newton iteration repeat 4: $W := -\nabla \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})$ $L := \text{cholesky}(I + W^{\frac{1}{2}}KW^{\frac{1}{2}})$ eval. W e.g. using eq. (3.15) or (3.16) $B = I + W^{\frac{1}{2}} K W^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $\mathbf{b} := W\mathbf{f} + \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})$ 6. $\mathbf{a} := \mathbf{b} - W^{\frac{1}{2}} L^{\top} \setminus (L \setminus (W^{\frac{1}{2}} K \mathbf{b}))$ eq. (3.18) using eq. (3.27) $\mathbf{f} := K\mathbf{a}$ 8. objective: $-\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{f} + \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})$ until convergence 10: $\log q(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta) := -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{f} + \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) - \sum_{i} \log L_{ii}$ eq. (3.32) return: $\hat{\mathbf{f}} := \mathbf{f}$ (post. mode), $\log q(\mathbf{y}|X, \theta)$ (approx. log marg. likelihood)

Algorithm 3.1: Mode-finding for binary Laplace GPC. Commonly used convergence

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Algorithm (Step 2)



 $\begin{array}{ll} \operatorname{input:} \ \hat{\mathbf{f}} \ (\operatorname{mode}), \ X \ (\operatorname{inputs}), \ \mathbf{y} \ (\pm 1 \ \operatorname{targets}), \ k \ (\operatorname{covariance function}), \\ p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \ (\operatorname{likelihood function}), \ \mathbf{x}_* \ \operatorname{test input} \\ 2: \ W := -\nabla\nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{f}}) \\ L := \operatorname{cholesky}(I + W^{\frac{1}{2}}KW^{\frac{1}{2}}) \\ 4: \ \bar{f}_* := \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)^\top \nabla \log p(\mathbf{y}|\hat{\mathbf{f}}) \\ \mathbf{v} := L \setminus (W^{\frac{1}{2}}\mathbf{k}(\mathbf{x}_*)) \\ 6: \ \mathbb{V}[f_*] := k(\mathbf{x}_*, \mathbf{x}_*) - \mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{v} \\ \bar{\pi}_* := \int \sigma(z)\mathcal{N}(z|\bar{f}_*, \mathbb{V}[f_*])dz \\ 8: \ \mathbf{return:} \ \bar{\pi}_* \ (\operatorname{predictive class probability} \ (\operatorname{for class 1})) \end{array} \right\} eq. (3.25)$

Algorithm 3.2: Predictions for binary Laplace GPC. The posterior mode $\hat{\mathbf{f}}$ (which can be computed using Algorithm 3.1) is input. For multiple test inputs lines 4-7 are applied to each test input. Computational complexity is $n^3/6$ operations once (line 3) plus n^2 operations per test case (line 5). The one-dimensional integral in line 7 can be done analytically for cumulative Gaussian likelihood, otherwise it is computed using an approximation or numerical quadrature.

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MCMC



How to compute integrals of the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} h(x)p(x)dx$$

where p is a probability density on [a, b]. LOTUS implies

$$\int_{a}^{b} h(x)p(x)dx = \mathbb{E}_{p}[h] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h(x_{i})$$
(2)

when x_i are sampled iid from p. (Monte-Carlo-integration) Markov-Chain-Monte-Carlo: Clever sampling strategy of x_i

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Approximation Methods for Large Datasets

See recent literature:

- Filippone, M. and Engler, R. 2015. Enabling scalable stochastic gradient-based inference for Gaussian processes by employing the Unbiased LInear System SolvEr (ULISSE), arXiv preprint arXiv:1501.05427. (2015).
- Dai, B., Xie, B., He, N., Liang, Y., Raj, A., Balcan, M.-F. and Song, L. 2014.

Scalable Kernel Methods via Doubly Stochastic Gradients. arXiv:1407.5599 [cs, stat]. (Jul. 2014).

 Hensman, J., Fusi, N. and Lawrence, N.D. 2013. Gaussian processes for big data. arXiv preprint arXiv:1309.6835. (2013).

Summary



- Gaussian processes model continuous targets as jointly normally distributed.
 - correlated by covariance matrix depending on the predictors (kernel)
- ▶ The squared exponential kernel often is used as kernel.
 - having 2 kernel parameters: horizontal length scale and vertical variation
- Noise variation has to be added to the model
 otherwise Gaussian processes interpolate the observed data.
- ► Kernel parameters can be learnt through gradient descent.
 - ▶ the objective is not convex, local minima need to be treated

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Summary (2/2)



- ▶ For classification, Gaussian processes can be used to model
 - ► a score function f
 - that is mapped through the logistic function to probabilities π of target labels.
- The posterior is not Gaussian, but can be approximated by a Gaussian (Laplace approximation).
- ► Also the posterior predictive E(π_{*} | x_{*}, X, y) cannot be computed analytically.
 - but it can be approximated by an integral over the (approximatly) normally distributed predictive score f_{*}
 - ► and thus be computed by MCMC.

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Further Readings



- Rasmussen & Williams: Gaussian Processes for Machine Learning (free ebook!)
- ► See also [Mur12, chapter 15].
- ► Conditioning Gaussians: [Mur12, section 4.3].
- Derivatives of inverse of a matrix etc., see, e.g., The Matrix Cookbook, http:

//www.mit.edu/~wingated/stuff_i_use/matrix_cookbook.pdf

Some Matrix Derivatives



$$\partial(X^{-1}) = -X^{-1}(\partial X)X^{-1}$$

 $\partial(\log(|X|)) = \operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}\partial X)$

Computing with traces:

$$tr(aa^TB) = a^TBa$$

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References



Kevin P. Murphy.

Machine learning: a probabilistic perspective. The MIT Press, 2012.