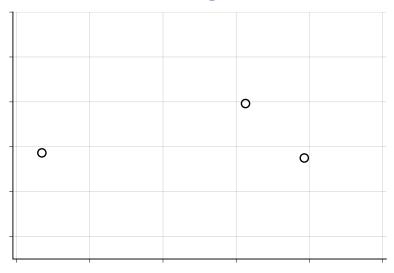
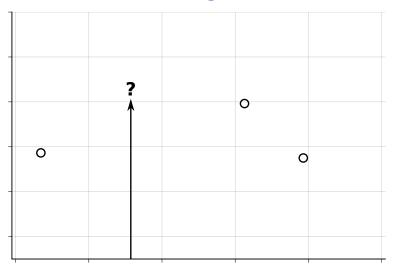
A tutorial on Gaussian Processes

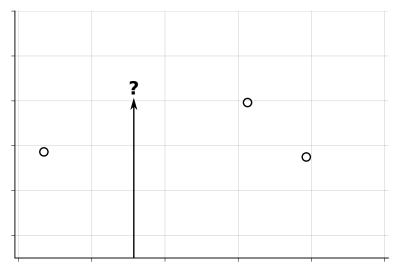
Daniel Hernández-Lobato

Computer Science Department Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

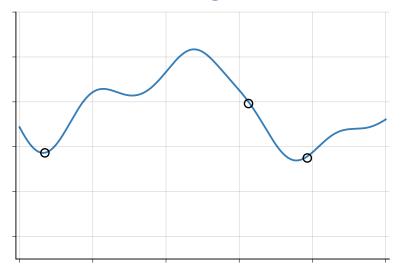
http://dhnzl.org, daniel.hernandez@uam.es



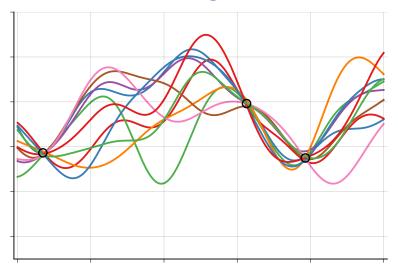




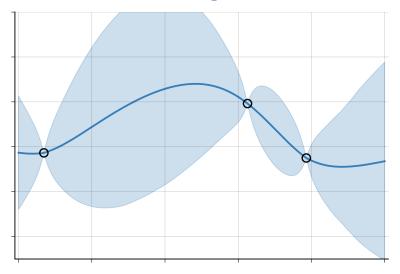
We have to specify a model that may depend on parameters W.



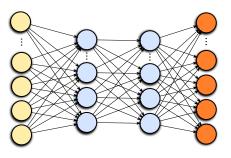
Given W the model will output a prediction.



Many values for W can be compatible with the data!

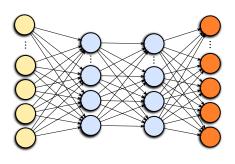


We are interested in a predictive distribution!



$$h_j(\mathbf{x}) = \tanh\left(\sum_{i=1}^I x_i w_{ji}\right)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{H} v_j h_j(\mathbf{x})$$

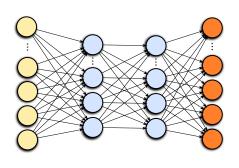


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The posterior distribution of **W** is:

$$p(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{y},\mathbf{X}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{W},\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{W})}{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})}, \qquad p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{W},\mathbf{X})p(\mathbf{W})d\mathbf{W},$$



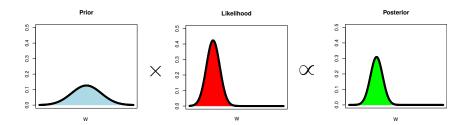
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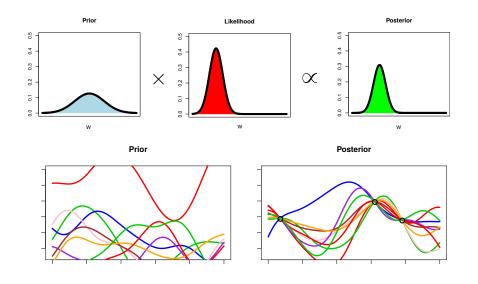
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The posterior captures the values of W compatible with y and X.





The predictive distribution y^* is computed using the posterior:

$$p(y^{\star}|\mathbf{y},\mathbf{X}) = \int p(y^{\star}|\mathbf{W},\mathbf{x}^{\star})p(\mathbf{W}|\mathbf{y},\mathbf{X})d\mathbf{W}.$$

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Takes into account all potential values for W!

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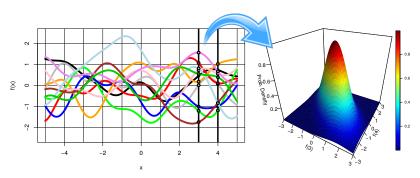
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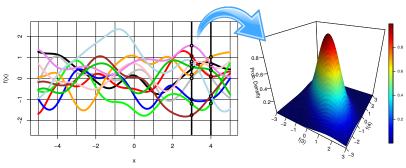
Solved by setting $p(\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{ii} \mathcal{N}(w_{ii}|0, \sigma^2 H^{-1})$ and letting $H \to \infty$!

Distribution over functions $f(\cdot)$ so that for any finite $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^N$, $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_N))^T$ follows an N-dimensional Gaussian distribution.

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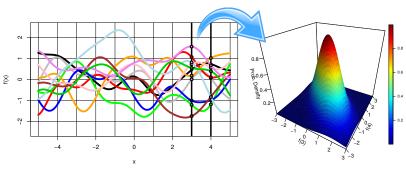


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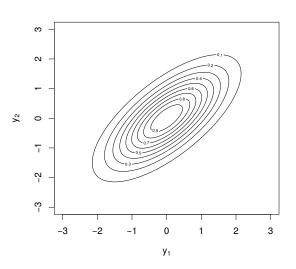


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Due to Gaussian form, there are closed-form solutions for many useful questions about finite data.

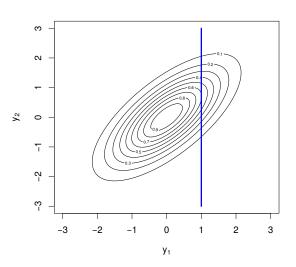
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{\Sigma}) \propto \exp\left\{-0.5\mathbf{y}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1}\mathbf{y}\right\}$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.7 \\ 0.7 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

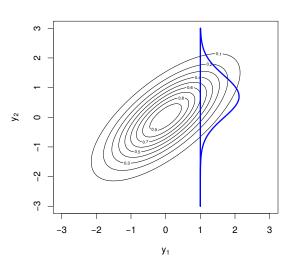


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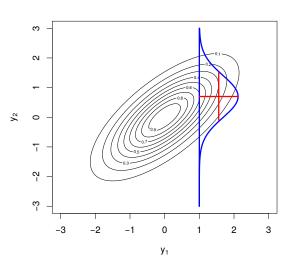
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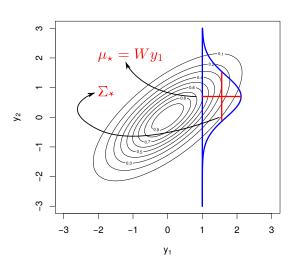
$$p(y_2|y_1, \mathbf{\Sigma}) \propto \exp\left\{-0.5(y_2 - \mu_{\star})\mathbf{\Sigma}_{\star}^{-1}(y_2 - \mu_{\star})\right\} \qquad \mathbf{\Sigma} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.7 \\ 0.7 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

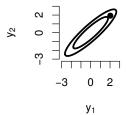


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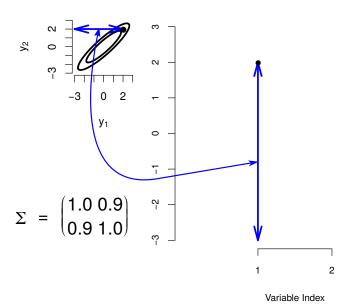


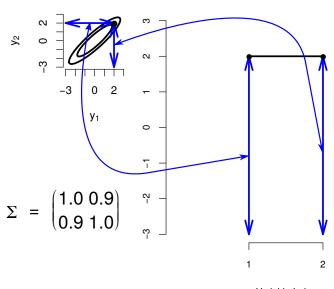
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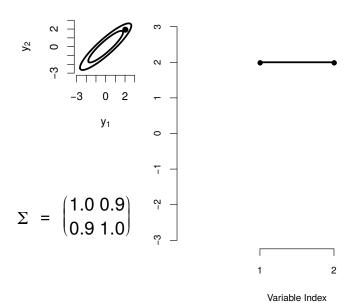


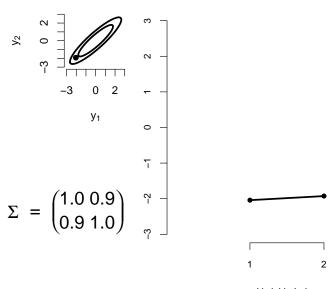


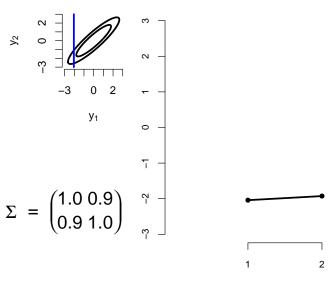
$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} 1.0 & 0.9 \\ 0.9 & 1.0 \end{pmatrix}$$

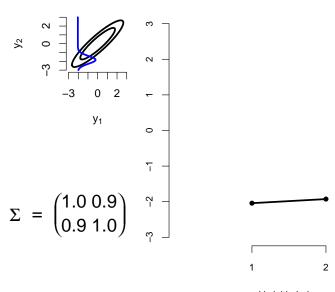












Five Dimensional Example

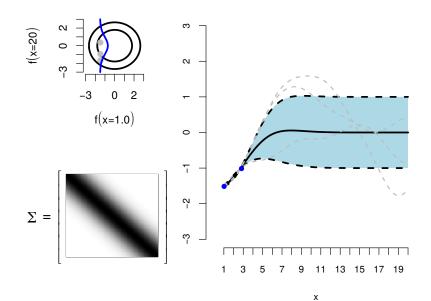
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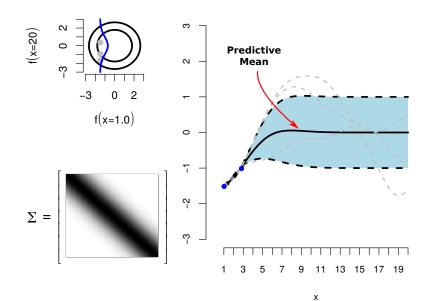
Twenty Dimensional Example

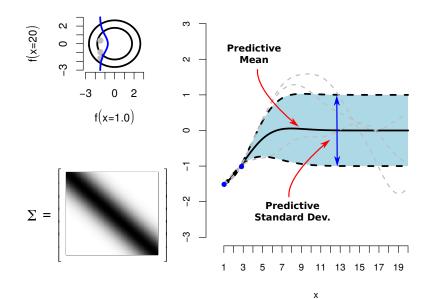
Twenty Dimensional Example

Infinite Dimensional Example

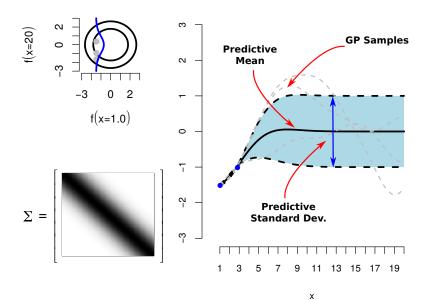
Infinite Dimensional Example



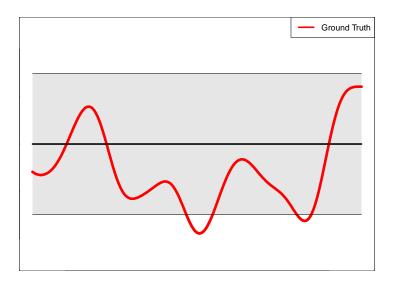


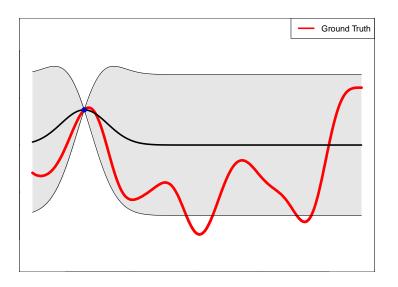


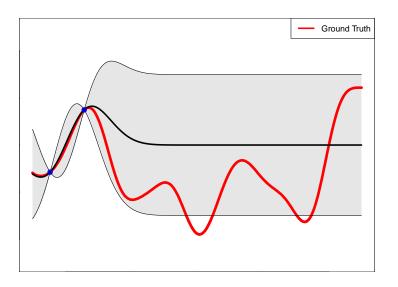
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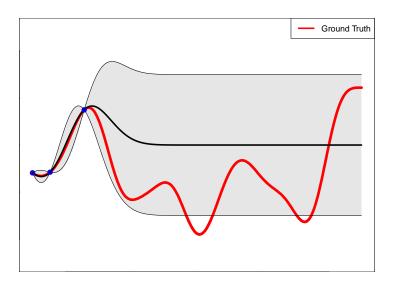


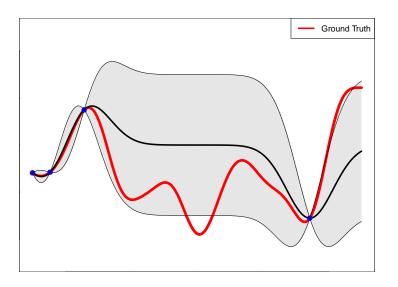
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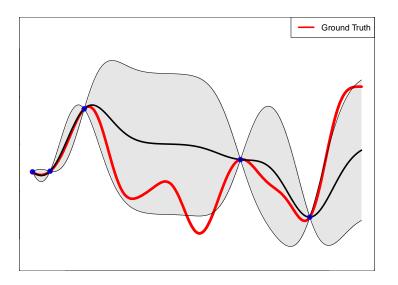


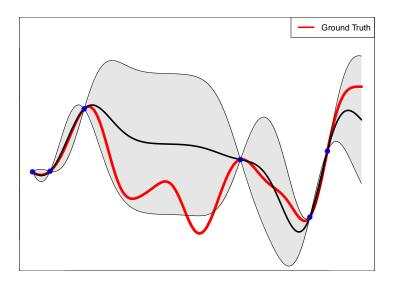


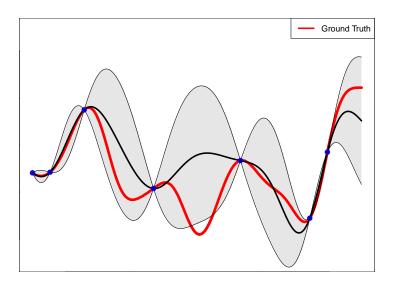


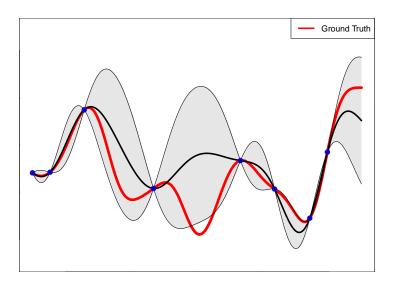


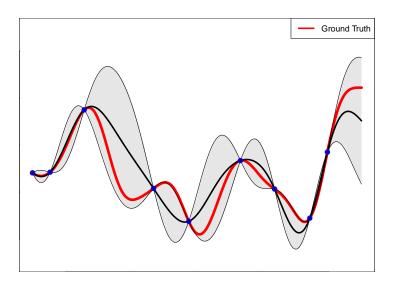


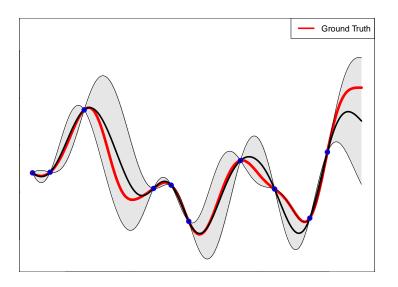


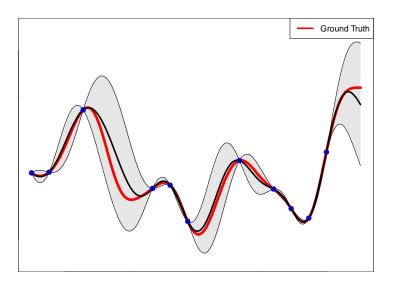


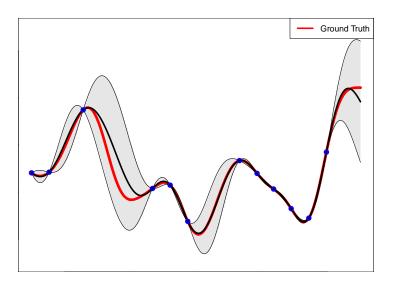


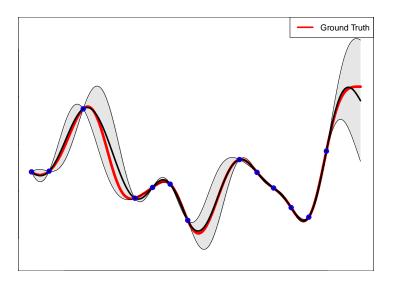


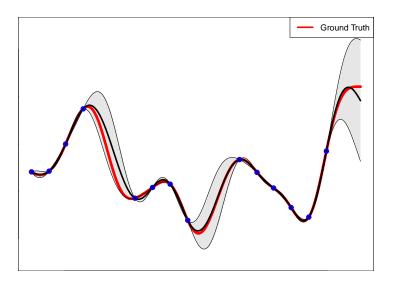


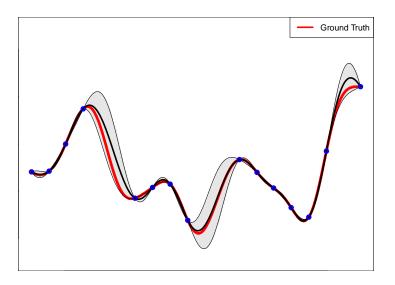


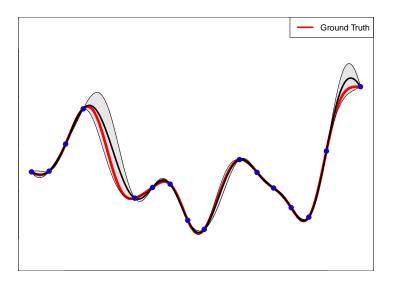


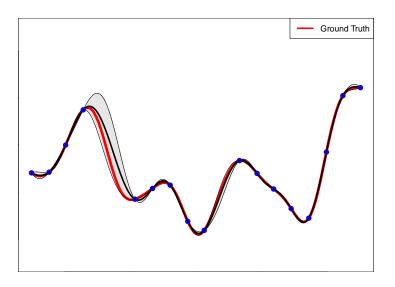


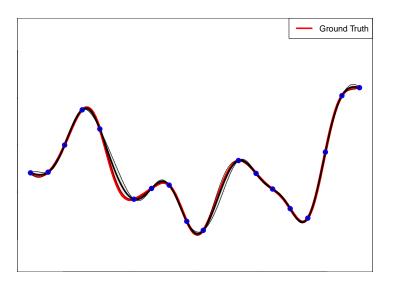


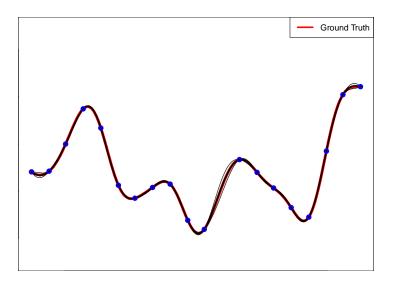


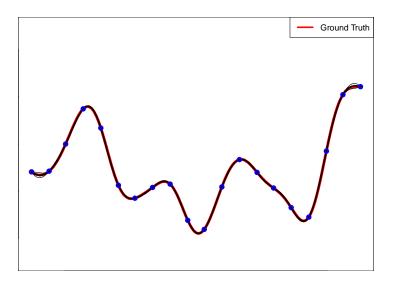












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- Due to the Gaussian distribution of finite function values, there are many closed form expressions like the predictive distribution.
- GPs are non-parametric models and become more expressive the more data we have.

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A Gaussian process is fully specified by a mean function $m(\mathbf{x})$ and covariance function $C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(m(\mathbf{x}), C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')), \text{ indices } \mathbf{x}.$$

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The covariance function sets prior covariances among function values!

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We can use the marginalization property of distributions:

$$\begin{split} & \rho(\mathbf{y}_1) = \int \rho(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) d\mathbf{y}_2 \,, \\ & \rho(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) = \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T} & \mathbf{B} \end{array} \right] \right) \,, \end{split}$$

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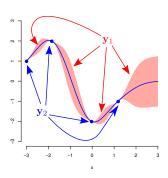
$$\begin{split} p(\mathbf{y}_1) &= \int p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) d\mathbf{y}_2 \,, \\ p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) &= \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T} & \mathbf{B} \end{array} \right] \right) \,, \\ p(\mathbf{y}_1) &= \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_1 | \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{A}) \,, \end{split}$$

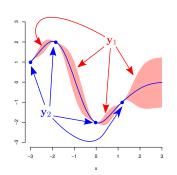
If the GP mean has infinite length and the GP covariance matrix is $\infty \times \infty$, how do we represent a GP on a computer?

We can use the marginalization property of distributions:

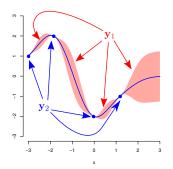
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We only need to work with finite sets of random variables!

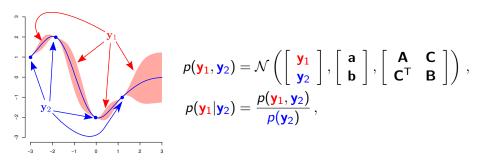




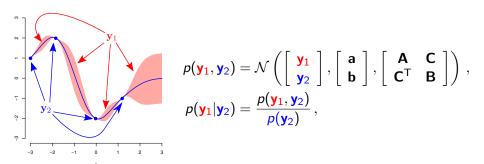
$$\rho(\mathbf{y_1}, \mathbf{y_2}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{y_1} \\ \mathbf{y_2} \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T} & \mathbf{B} \end{array} \right] \right) \,,$$



$$p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T} & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}\right),$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{y}_2) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2)}{p(\mathbf{y}_2)},$$

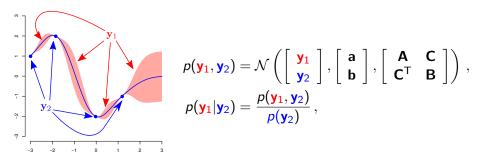


$$p(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{y}_2) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_1 \middle| \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{B}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{b}), \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{B}^{-1}\mathbf{C}^{\mathsf{T}}\right)$$



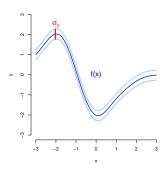
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• The predictive mean is linear in y2.



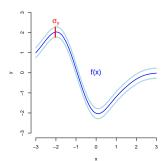
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- The predictive mean is linear in y₂.
- The predictive covariance is more confident than the prior!.



$$y(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon \sigma_{\mathbf{y}},$$

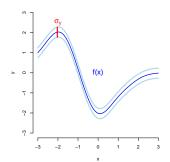
 $p(\epsilon) = \mathcal{N}(\epsilon|0,1).$



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Since f(x) follows a GP and ϵ is Gaussian y(x) is another GP!

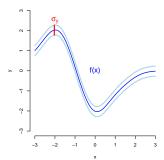


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The predictive distribution is:

$$p(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{y}_2) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_1 \middle| \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}\sigma_y^2)^{-1}(\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{b}), \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{I}\sigma_y^2)^{-1}\mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T}\right)$$

Squared Exponential:
$$C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sigma^2 \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^d \left(\frac{x_j - x_j'}{l_j} \right)^2 \right\}$$

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- Vertical scale —
- Horizontal scale -

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Intuition: find parameters θ that are compatible with the observed data.

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(posterior) (likelihood)

what we know after what the data what we know before seeing the data \propto tell us \times seeing the data (prior)

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ho(\mathbf{y}| heta) &\equiv ext{how well does } heta ext{ explain the observed data} \ &= \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma} + \mathbf{I}\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^2
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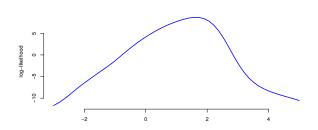
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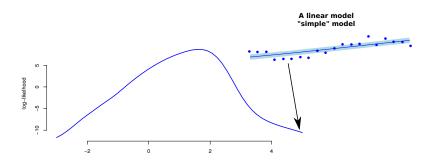
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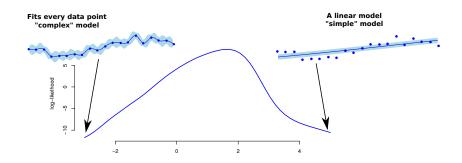
$$p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) \equiv$$
 how well does θ explain the observed data
$$= \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma} + \mathbf{I}\sigma_{\mathbf{y}}^{2}\right)$$

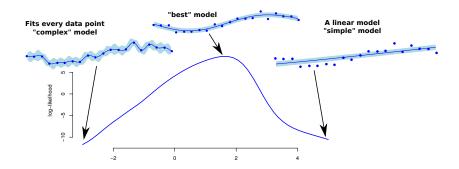
Often, with a reasonable amount of data, maximizing $p(y|\theta)$ w.r.t. θ gives good results as it favors the right model!

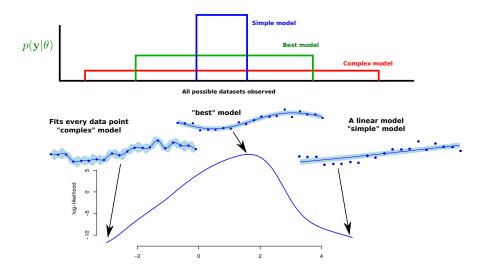
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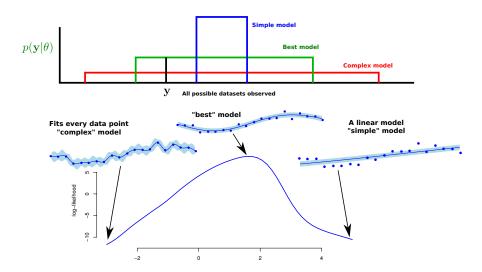


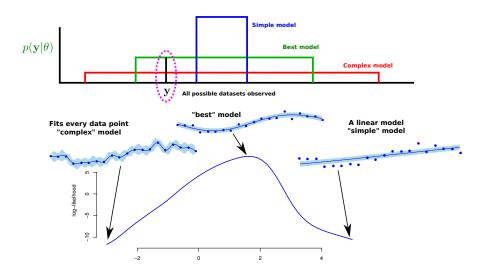










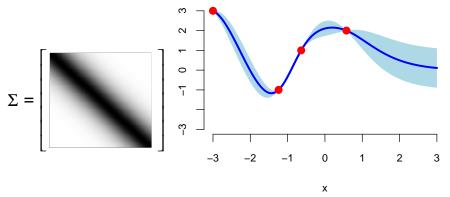


$$C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sigma^2 \frac{2^{1-\nu)}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu r}}{l} \right)^{\nu} K_{\nu} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2\nu r}}{l} \right)$$

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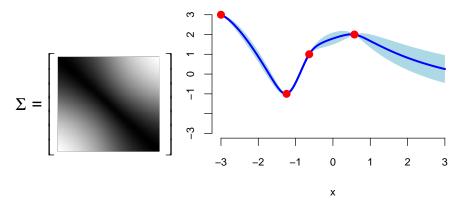


$$C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sigma^2 \frac{2}{\pi} \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{x}'}{\sqrt{(1 + 2\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{x}')(1 + 2\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{x}')}} \right)$$

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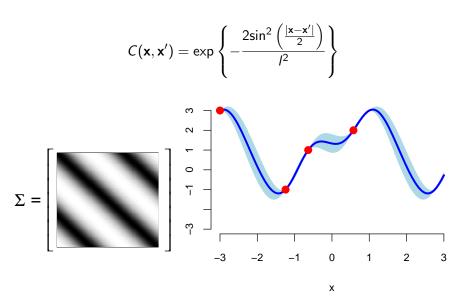
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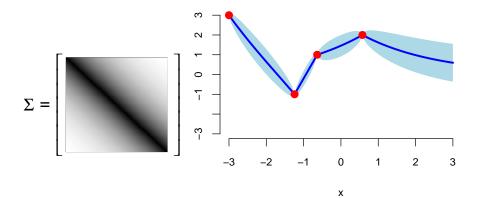
$$C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp \left\{ -\frac{2\sin^2\left(\frac{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}{2}\right)}{J^2} \right\}$$

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$$C(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left\{-\frac{|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'|}{2l^2}\right\}$$



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- Covariance functions can be combined (sum + and product \times).
- The likelihood p(y) can discriminate among them (use with care).

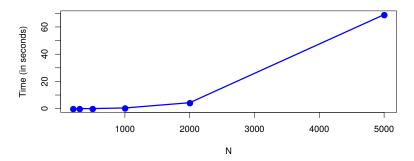
The memory cost is in $\mathcal{O}(N^2)$ since we have to compute Σ .

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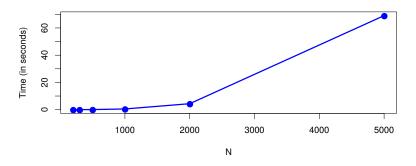
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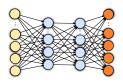
We can handle just a few thousand data instances at most!

Improving the Cost of Gaussian Processes

GPs are non-parametric models whose flexibility grows with N!

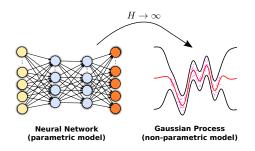
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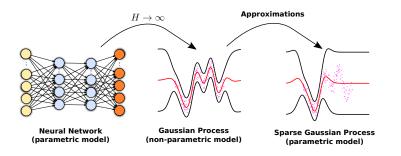


Neural Network (parametric model)

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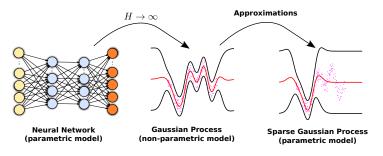


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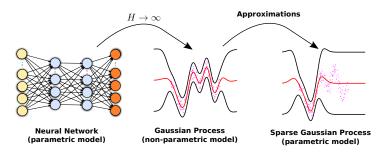
Idea: go back to the parametric model, but in such a way that we can still make inference easily!



Approximations based on inducing points:

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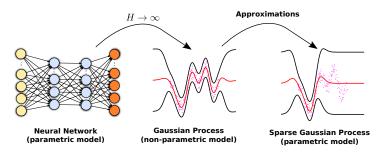


Approximations based on inducing points:

FITC: changes the GP model to remove some dependencies!

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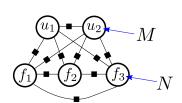
- **FITC**: changes the GP model to remove some dependencies!
- **VFE**: does approximate inference with a simplified distribution q.

1. Extend model with $M \ll N$ inducing points and outputs at $\overline{\mathbf{X}}$.

$$\textit{p}(f,u) = \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} f \\ u \end{array}\right] \middle| \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 0 \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} K_{ff} & K_{fu} \\ K_{uf} & K_{uu} \end{array}\right]\right)$$

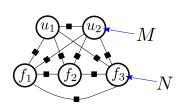
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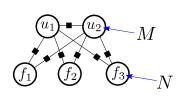


2. Introduce conditional independences:

$$p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(f_i|\mathbf{u})$$

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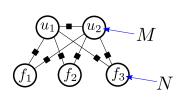


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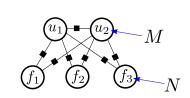
3. Marginalize \mathbf{u} to obtain an approximate GP prior for \mathbf{f} .

$$p(\mathbf{f}) = \int p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(f_i|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}|0, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}})$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{ff}} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{ff}}$ with \mathbf{D} diagonal and $\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{ff}} = \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{fu}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{uu}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{uf}}$ of rank M.

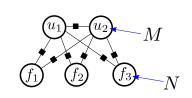
5. We make the prediction of f^* at \mathbf{x}^* by considering the approximate GP prior:

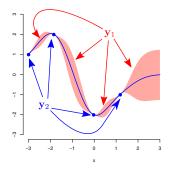
$$p(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^{\star}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}^{\star} \end{bmatrix} \middle| \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{\tilde{K}}_{\mathbf{f}} & \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}f^{\star}} \\ \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}f} & \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}f^{\star}} \end{bmatrix}\right) \qquad (f_{1})$$



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$$p(\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}^{\star}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c}\mathbf{f}\\\mathbf{f}^{\star}\end{array}\right]\middle|\left[\begin{array}{c}\mathbf{0}\\\mathbf{0}\end{array}\right],\left[\begin{array}{cc}\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}} & \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{f}^{\star}}\\\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}} & \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}^{\star}}\end{array}\right]\right)$$

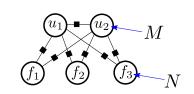




$$p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a} \\ \mathbf{b} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{C} \\ \mathbf{C}^\mathsf{T} & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}\right),$$
$$p(\mathbf{y}_1|\mathbf{y}_2) = \frac{p(\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2)}{p(\mathbf{y}_2)},$$

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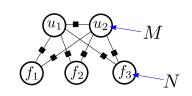
$$p(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f}^{\star}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{f}^{\star} \end{array}\right] \middle| \left[\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \end{array}\right], \left[\begin{array}{cc} \mathbf{\tilde{K}_{ff}} & \mathbf{Q_{ff^{\star}}} \\ \mathbf{Q_{f^{\star}f}} & \mathbf{K_{f^{\star}f^{\star}}} \end{array}\right]\right)$$



$$\rho(\mathbf{f}^{\star}|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f}^{\star}|\ \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}}\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{f}^{\mathbf{f}}}^{-1}\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}^{\star}} - \mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}}^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\mathbf{f}^{\mathbf{f}}}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{f}^{\star}\mathbf{f}}\right)$$

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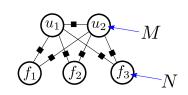


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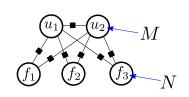
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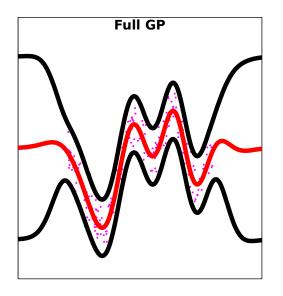


$$\textit{p}(f^{\star}|f) = \mathcal{N}\left(f^{\star}|\ Q_{f^{\star}f}\tilde{K}_{ff}^{-1}f, K_{f^{\star}f^{\star}} - Q_{f^{\star}f}^{\mathsf{T}}\tilde{K}_{ff}^{-1}Q_{f^{\star}f}\right)$$

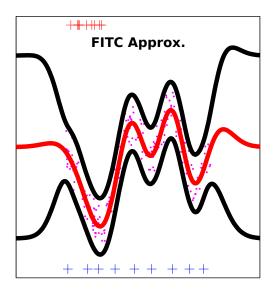
Due to the structure in \tilde{K}_{ff} all computations have cost in $\mathcal{O}(NM^2)$.

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Simply treat them as prior parameters and maximize the approximate likelihood $p(f|0, \tilde{K}_{ff})!$

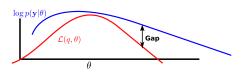


(Snelson & Gahramani, 2006)



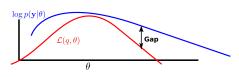
(Snelson & Gahramani, 2006)

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \log \int p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}|\theta) d\mathbf{f} d\mathbf{u}$$



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$$= \log \int p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}|\theta) \frac{q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})}{q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})} d\mathbf{f} d\mathbf{u}$$



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$$\log p(\mathbf{y}| heta)$$
 Gap $heta$

$$= \log \int p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u} | \theta) \frac{q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})}{q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})} d\mathbf{f} d\mathbf{u} \ge \int q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u} | \theta)}{q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})} d\mathbf{f} d\mathbf{u} \equiv \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{q}, \theta)$$

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Lower bound the log-likelihood:

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KL ≡ Kullback-Leibler divergence

By maximizing $\mathcal{L}(q, \theta)$ w.r.t q we are enforcing that $q(f, \mathbf{u})$ looks similar to $p(f, \mathbf{u}|\mathbf{y})$ in terms of the KL!

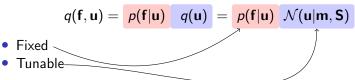
Consider the following approximate distribution:

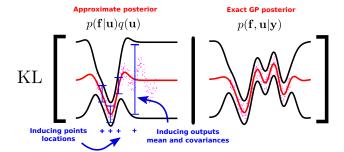
Consider the following approximate distribution:

$$q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}) = \boxed{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})} \quad q(\mathbf{u}) = \boxed{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})} \quad \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{S})$$

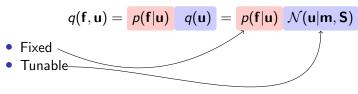
- Fixed
- Tunable-

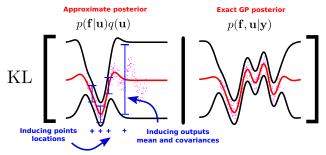
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The inducing points are now parameters of the approx. dist. q!

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$$= \int p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) q(\mathbf{u}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}, \theta) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) p(\mathbf{u})}{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) q(\mathbf{u})} d\mathbf{f} d\mathbf{u}$$

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- KL between Gaussians

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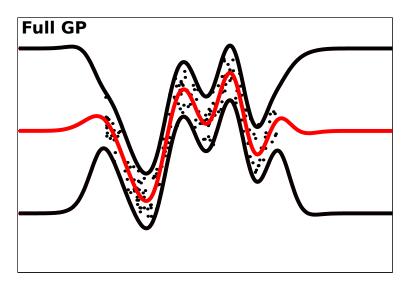
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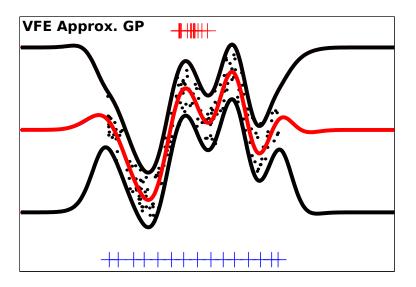
- KL between Gaussians
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- Predictions are made using $p(\mathbf{f}^*|\mathbf{u})q(\mathbf{u})$ marginalizing out \mathbf{u} .

Variational Free Energy (VFE)



(Titsias, 2009)

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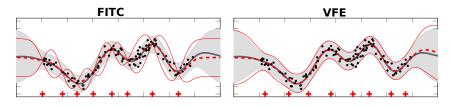
Two approaches:

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- FITC: optimize the marginal likelihood of an approximate GP model.
- VFE: maximize fidelity to the original exact GP.

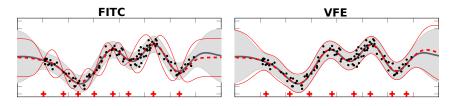
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- FITC: less local optima and easier to optimize, also less accurate.
- VFE: more accurate, more local optima, more difficult to optimize.

(Bui et al., 2017) (Bauer et al., 2016)

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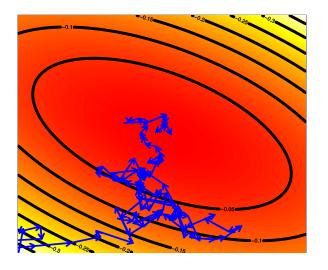
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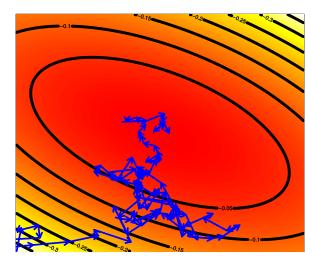
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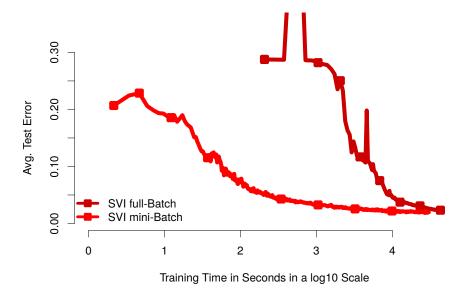
The training cost goes down to $\mathcal{O}(M^3)$ which allows to address datasets with millions of instances!

(Hensman et al., 2013)





To converge to a local neighborhood of the optimum stochastic methods require an estimate of the gradient which can be very cheap!



(Hernández-Lobato, 2015)

Advantages of GPs:

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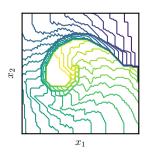
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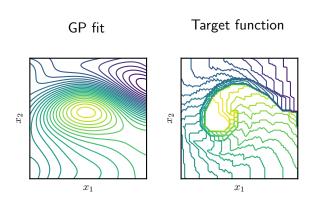
Deep GPs constitute a nice alternative to address these issues!

Motivation for Deep Gaussian Processes

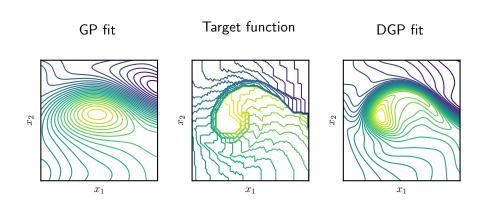
Target function



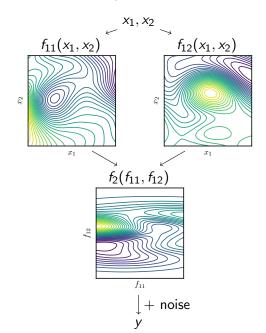
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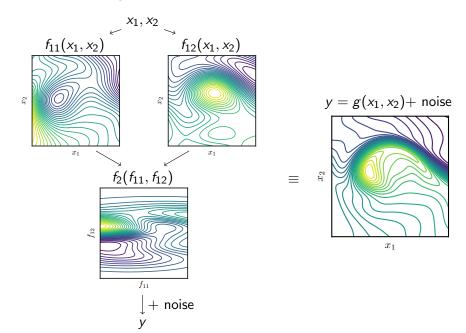
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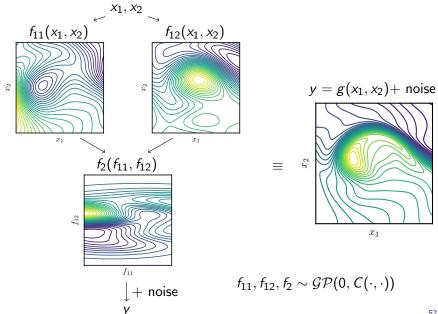
How do deep GPs work?



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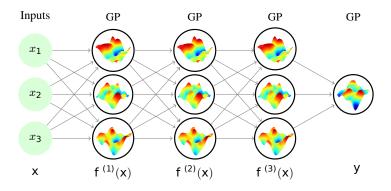


How do deep GPs work?



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Deep GPs as Deep Neural Networks



$$y = f(g(\mathbf{x})), \quad f(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, C_f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')) \quad g(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, C_g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

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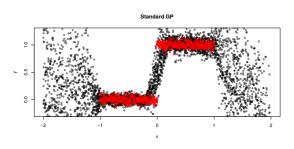
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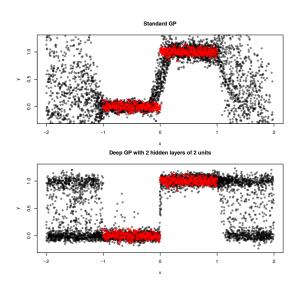
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Deep GPs perform automatic covariance function design!

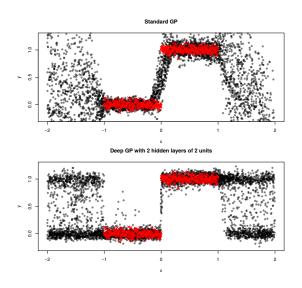
Deep GP Predictive Distribution



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In a deep GP the predictive distribution needs not be Gaussian!

Advantages:

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- Useful input warping: automatic, non-parametric kernel design.
- Repair damage done by sparse approximations to GPs.
- More accurate predictions and better uncertainty estimates.

Drawbacks:

- Require complicated approximate inference methods.
- High computational cost.

Bayesian inference

Posterior over latent functions (typically at the observed data X):

$$p(\mathbf{f}^1, \mathbf{f}^2, \mathbf{f}^3 | \mathbf{Y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{f}^1)p(\mathbf{f}^2)p(\mathbf{f}^3) p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{f}^1, \mathbf{f}^2, \mathbf{f}^3, \mathbf{X})}{p(\mathbf{Y})}$$

- GP priors -
- Likelihood function
- Marginal likelihood

But the posterior $p(\mathbf{f}^1, \mathbf{f}^2, \mathbf{f}^3 | \mathbf{Y})$ is **intractable**.

Latent variables: from $\mathcal{O}(N)$ to $\mathcal{O}(M)$, with $M \ll N$.

Distribution on f given by GP with inducing inputs $\bar{\mathbf{X}}$ and outputs \mathbf{u} .

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If
$$\mathbf{u}$$
 is known, then $p(f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|m^\star, v^\star)$, where
$$m^\star = \mathbf{k}_{f^\star,\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{u} \,,$$

$$v^\star = k_{f^\star,f^\star} - \mathbf{k}_{f^\star,\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{u},f^\star} \,.$$

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 If $p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{m},\mathbf{S})$, then $p(f(\mathbf{x}^{\star})) = \mathcal{N}(f(\mathbf{x}^{\star})|m^{\star}, v^{\star})$, where
$$m^{\star} = \mathbf{k}_{f^{\star},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{m},$$

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Latent variables: from $\mathcal{O}(N)$ to $\mathcal{O}(M)$, with $M \ll N$.

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If **u** is known, then
$$p(f(\mathbf{x}^*)|\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(f(\mathbf{x}^*)|m^*, v^*)$$
, where

$$m^* = \mathbf{k}_{f^*,\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{u} ,$$

$$v^* = k_{f^*,f^*} - \mathbf{k}_{f^*,\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{u},f^*} .$$

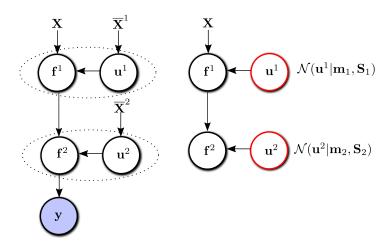
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Given u or a Gaussian for u, f is fully specified!

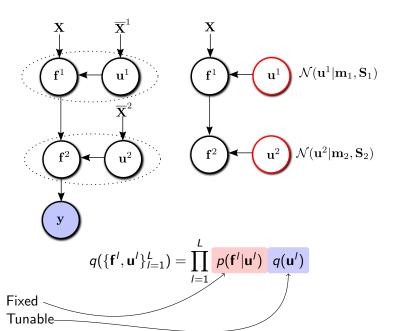
Deep GPs Joint Distribution

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \{\mathbf{u}^{I}, \mathbf{f}^{I}\}_{I=1}^{L}) = \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{N} p(y_{i}|f_{i}^{L})}_{\text{Deep GP prior}} \times \underbrace{\prod_{l=1}^{L} p(\mathbf{f}^{I}|\mathbf{u}^{I}, \overline{\mathbf{X}}^{I}) p(\mathbf{u}^{I}|\overline{\mathbf{X}}^{I})}_{\text{Deep GP prior}}$$

Graphical Model and Posterior Approximation



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Based on minimizing $KL(q(\lbrace \mathbf{u}^I, \mathbf{f}^I \rbrace_{l=1}^L) | p(\lbrace \mathbf{u}^I, \mathbf{f}^I \rbrace_{l=1}^L | \mathbf{y}))$

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Equivalent to maximizing the lower bound on $\log p(y)$:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{q} \left[\log \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{N} \rho(y_{i}|f_{i}^{L}) \prod_{l=1}^{L} \rho(\mathbf{f}^{L}|\mathbf{u}^{L}) \rho(\mathbf{u}^{l})}{\prod_{l=1}^{L} \rho(\mathbf{f}^{L}|\mathbf{u}^{L}) q(\mathbf{u}^{l})} \right].$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}_{q} [\log \rho(y_{i}|f_{i}^{L})] - \sum_{l=1}^{L} \mathsf{KL}(q(\mathbf{u}^{l})|\rho(\mathbf{u}^{l})).$$

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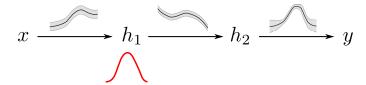
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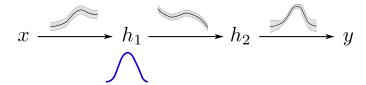
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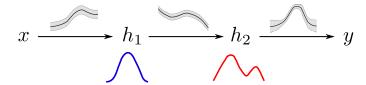
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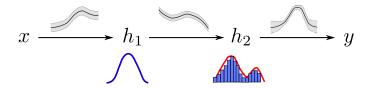
- Suitable for stochastic optimization.
- The expectations can be approximated by Monte Carlo.

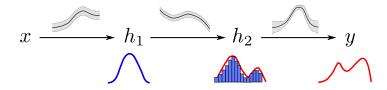


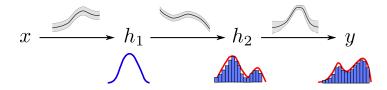




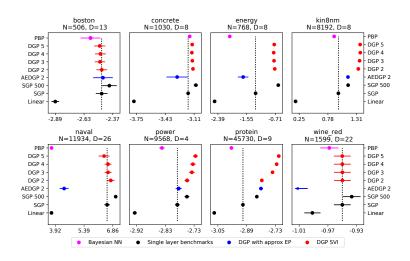




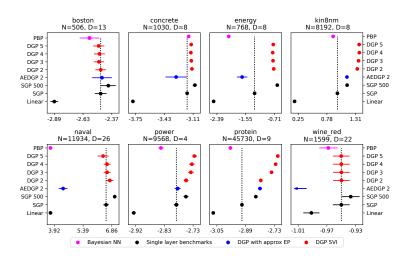




DGPs Experimental Results



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DGPs perform similar or better than the sparse GP and adding more layers does not seem to overfit!

There are several packages providing implementations of GPs:

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Software for GPs and Deep GPs

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Deep GPs: uses doubly stochastic variational inference and GPflow.

There is several research going on on GP:

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- **6 Convolutional GPs**: introduce prior knowledge about the latent function similar to that of convolutional neural networks.

Gaussian Processes:

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More flexible models that address some of the GP limitations.

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Thank you for your attention!

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