Probabilistic Approaches for Computational Biology and Medicine

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MLPM Summer School

25th September 2013

Outline

Health

Regression

Gaussian Processes

Basis Function Representations

Kalman Filter

Conclusions

What's Changed (Changing) for Medicine?

Modern data availability.



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Modern data availability.



Gaussian Processes for Big Data

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Abstract

We introduce stochastic variational inference for Gaussian process models. This enables the application of Gaussian process (GP) models to data sets containing millions of data points. We show how GPs can be varitionally decomposed to decome on a set Even to accommodate these data sets, various approximate techniques are required. One approach is to partition the data set into separate groups [e.g. Snelson and Ghahramani, 2007, Urtasun and Darrell, 2008]. An alternative is to build a low rank approximation to the covariance matrix based around 'inducing variables' [see e.g. Csató and Opper, 2002, Seeger et al., 2003, Quiñonero Candela and Rasmussen, 2005, Tit-



Figure 4: Convergence of the SVIGP algorithm on the two dimensional toy data

land-registry-monthly-price-paid-data/, which covers England and Wales, and filtered for apartments. This resulted in a data set with 75,000 entries,



Figure 5: Variability of apartment price (logarithmically!) throughout England and Wales.

tad a CD with the same compliance function as our

What's Changed (Changing) for Medicine?

Try Googling for: "patient data "...



Image from Wikimedia Commons



Image from Wikimedia Commons





A brief history of Registration

For more information go to: www.direct.gov.uk/motoring

A brief history of registration

The early days

Prior to the appearance of the first railways in Britain, there was a brief development and interest in steam powered road going vehicles. In 1834, a Mr Hancock started a steam coach called the "Era", carrying up to 14 passengers from Paddington to Regents Park and the City at 6d a head. And in the following year, a Mr Church built an omnibus capable of carrying 40 passengers for the London and Birmingham Steam Carriage Company.

However, the success of the railway movement drove all such traffic off the roads. A Parliamentary Commission of Enquiry in 1836 reported "strongly in favour of steam carriages on roads", but subsequent Acts of Parliament tended to have a discouraging and restrictive effect. The Locomotive Act 1861 limited the weight of steam engines to 12 tons and imposed a speed limit of 10 mph.

The Locomotive Act 1865 set a speed limit of 4 mph in the country and 2 mph in towns. The 1865 Act also provided for the famous "man with a red flag". Walking 60 yards ahead of each vehicle, a man with a red flag or lantern enforced a walking pace, and warned horse riders and horse drawn traffic of the approach of a self propelled machine.

The Locomotive Amendment Act 1878 made the red flag optional under local regulations, and



Image from Wikimedia Commons



Imaga from Willimodia Commona

What's Changed (Changing) for Medicine?

- Genotyping.
- Epigenotyping.
- Transcriptome: detailed characterization of phenotype.
 - Stratification of data.

Open Data

- Automatic data curation: from curated data to curation of publicly available data.
- Open Data: http://www.openstreetmap.org/?lat=53.
 38086&lon=-1.48545&zoom=17&layers=M.

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- UK Goverment Stipulation on Data Availability Telegraph Article
- Patient Access: http://www.patient.co.uk/patient-access.asp
- ► The midata project: Tescos, T-mobile ...
- A social network for personal health?? e.g. EMIS myHealth

Deep Health



- If missing at random it can be marginalized.
- As data sets become very large (39 million in EMIS) data becomes extremely sparse.
- Imputation becomes impractical.

- Expectation Maximization (EM) is gold standard imputation algorithm.
- Exact EM optimizes the log likelihood.
- Approximate EM optimizes a lower bound on log likelihood.
 - e.g. variational approximations (VIBES, Infer.net).
- Convergence is *guaranteed* to a local maxima in log likelihood.

Require: An initial guess for missing data

Require: An initial guess for missing data repeat

Require: An initial guess for missing data **repeat** Update model parameters

(M-step)

Require: An initial guess for missing data repeat Update model parameters Update guess of missing data

(M-step) (E-step) Require: An initial guess for missing data repeat Update model parameters Update guess of missing data until convergence

(M-step) (E-step)

- In very sparse data imputation is impractical.
- EMIS: 39 million patients, thousands of tests.
- For most people, most tests are missing.
- M-step becomes confused by poor imputation.

Direct Marginalization is the Answer

Perhaps we need joint distribution of two test outcomes,

 $p(y_1,y_2)$

Obtained through marginalizing over all missing data,

$$p(y_1, y_2) = \int p(y_1, y_2, y_3, \dots, y_p) dy_3, \dots dy_p$$

• Where y_3, \ldots, y_p contains:

- 1. all tests not applied to this patient
- 2. all tests not yet invented!!

Multi-variate Gaussians

- Given 10 dimensional multivariate Gaussian, $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C})$.
- Generate a single correlated sample $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, y_2 \dots y_{10}]$.
- ► How do we find the marginal distribution of *y*₁, *y*₂?



(a) A 10 dimensional sample

(b) colormap showing covariance between dimensions.



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(a) A 10 dimensional sample

(b) covariance between y_1 and y_2 .
Gaussian Marginalization Property



(a) A 10 dimensional sample

(b) correlation between y_1 and y_2 .

Figure: A sample from a 10 dimensional correlated Gaussian distribution.

Rogers and Girolami

Bishop



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- Predict a real value, y_i given some inputs x_i.
- Predict quality of meat given spectral measurements (Tecator data).
- Radiocarbon dating, the C14 calibration curve: predict age given quantity of C14 isotope.
- Predict quality of different Go or Backgammon moves given expert rated training data.

Olympic Marathon Data

- Gold medal times for Olympic Marathon since 1896.
- Marathons before 1924 didn't have a standardised distance.
- Present results using pace per km.
- In 1904 Marathon was badly organised leading to very slow times.



Image from Wikimedia Commons http://bit.ly/16kMKHQ

Olympic Marathon Data



data

 data: observations, could be actively or passively acquired (meta-data).

data +

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data + model

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- model: assumptions, based on previous experience (other data! transfer learning etc), or beliefs about the regularities of the universe. Inductive bias.

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data + model = prediction

- data: observations, could be actively or passively acquired (meta-data).
- model: assumptions, based on previous experience (other data! transfer learning etc), or beliefs about the regularities of the universe. Inductive bias.
- prediction: an action to be taken or a categorization or a quality score.

Regression: Linear Releationship

$$y = mx + c$$

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- y: winning time/pace.
- x: year of Olympics.

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- x: year of Olympics.
- m: rate of improvement over time.

y = mx + c

- y: winning time/pace.
- x: year of Olympics.
- m: rate of improvement over time.
- c: winning time at year 0.

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$
$$y_2 = mx_2 + c$$



$$y_1 - y_2 = m(x_1 - x_2)$$



$$\frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} = m$$



$$m = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

$$c = y_1 - mx_1$$



How do we deal with three simultaneous equations with only two unknowns?

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c$$

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c$$



Overdetermined System

• With two unknowns and two observations:

 $y_1 = mx_1 + c$ $y_2 = mx_2 + c$

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Additional observation leads to overdetermined system.

 $y_3 = mx_3 + c$

Overdetermined System

• With two unknowns and two observations:

 $y_1 = mx_1 + c$ $y_2 = mx_2 + c$

Additional observation leads to *overdetermined* system.

 $y_3 = mx_3 + c$

• This problem is solved through a noise model $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c + \epsilon_1$$

$$y_2 = mx_2 + c + \epsilon_2$$

$$y_3 = mx_3 + c + \epsilon_3$$

- We aren't modeling entire system.
- Noise model gives mismatch between model and data.
- Gaussian model justified by appeal to central limit theorem.
- Other models also possible (Student-*t* for heavy tails).
- Maximum likelihood with Gaussian noise leads to *least* squares.

y = mx + c















y = mx + c

point 1:
$$x = 1, y = 3$$

 $3 = m + c$
point 2: $x = 3, y = 1$
 $1 = 3m + c$
point 3: $x = 2, y = 2.5$
 $2.5 = 2m + c$

 $y = mx + c + \epsilon$

point 1:
$$x = 1, y = 3$$

 $3 = m + c + \epsilon_1$
point 2: $x = 3, y = 1$
 $1 = 3m + c + \epsilon_2$
point 3: $x = 2, y = 2.5$
 $2.5 = 2m + c + \epsilon_3$

Perhaps the most common probability density.

$$p(y|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$
$$\stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mathcal{N}\left(y|\mu,\sigma^2\right)$$

The Gaussian density.
Gaussian Density



The Gaussian PDF with $\mu = 1.7$ and variance $\sigma^2 = 0.0225$. Mean shown as red line. It could represent the heights of a population of students.

Gaussian Density

$$\mathcal{N}(y|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

 σ^2 is the variance of the density and μ is the mean.

Sum of Gaussians

• Sum of Gaussian variables is also Gaussian.

$$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2\right)$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_i^2\right)$$

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Scaling a Gaussian

• Scaling a Gaussian leads to a Gaussian.

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Scaling a Gaussian

• Scaling a Gaussian leads to a Gaussian.

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \sigma^2\right)$$

And the scaled density is distributed as

$$wy \sim \mathcal{N}\left(w\mu, w^2\sigma^2\right)$$

• Set the mean of Gaussian to be a function.

$$p(y_i|x_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - f(x_i))^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

- This gives us a 'noisy function'.
- This is known as a process.

Height as a Function of Weight

- In the standard Gaussian, parametized by mean and variance.
- Make the mean a linear function of an *input*.
- This leads to a regression model.

$$y_i = f(x_i) + \epsilon_i,$$

$$\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2).$$

• Assume y_i is height and x_i is weight.

Linear Function



A linear regression between *x* and *y*.

Likelihood of an individual data point

$$p(y_i|x_i, m, c) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

 Parameters are gradient, *m*, offset, *c* of the function and noise variance σ².

- ► If the noise, *e_i* is sampled independently for each data point.
- Each data point is independent (given *m* and *c*).
- For independent variables:

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y_i)$$

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- ► If the noise, *ε_i* is sampled independently for each data point.
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- For independent variables:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}, m, c) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - mx_i - c)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

Normally work with the log likelihood:

$$L(m, c, \sigma^{2}) = -\frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{n}{2}\log \sigma^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(y_{i} - mx_{i} - c)^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}.$$

Consistency of Maximum Likelihood

- If data was really generated according to probability we specified.
- Correct parameters will be recovered in limit as $n \to \infty$.
- This can be proven through sample based approximations (law of large numbers) of "KL divergences".
- Mainstay of classical statistics.

Probabilistic Interpretation of the Error Function

- Probabilistic Interpretation for Error Function is Negative Log Likelihood.
- *Minimizing* error function is equivalent to *maximizing* log likelihood.
- Maximizing *log likelihood* is equivalent to maximizing the *likelihood* because log is monotonic.
- Probabilistic interpretation: Minimizing error function is equivalent to maximum likelihood with respect to parameters.

 Negative log likelihood is the error function leading to an error function

$$E(m, c, \sigma^2) = \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i - c)^2.$$

 Learning proceeds by minimizing this error function for the data set provided. ▶ Ignoring terms which don't depend on *m* and *c* gives

$$E(m,c) \propto \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(x_i))^2$$

where $f(x_i) = mx_i + c$.

- ► This is known as the *sum of squares* error function.
- Commonly used and is closely associated with the Gaussian likelihood.

Linear Function



- Section 1.2.5 of Bishop up to equation 1.65.
- Section 1.1-1.2 of Rogers and Girolami for fitting linear models.

Multi-dimensional Inputs

- Multivariate functions involve more than one input.
- Height might be a function of weight and gender.
- There could be other contributory factors.
- Place these factors in a feature vector x_i.
- Linear function is now defined as

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \sum_{j=1}^q w_j x_{i,j} + c$$

mo

Write in vector notation,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + c$$

► Can absorb *c* into w by assuming extra input *x*₀ which is always 1.

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$$

Log Likelihood for Multivariate Regression

The likelihood of a single data point is

$$p(y_i|x_i) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_i - \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

Leading to a log likelihood for the data set of

$$L(\mathbf{w},\sigma^2) = -\frac{n}{2}\log\sigma^2 - \frac{n}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}.$$

And a corresponding error function of

$$E(\mathbf{w},\sigma^2) = \frac{n}{2}\log\sigma^2 + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2}{2\sigma^2}.$$

Expand the Brackets

$$E(\mathbf{w}, \sigma^2) = \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \mathbf{w} + \text{const.}$$
$$= \frac{n}{2} \log \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 - \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{w}^\top \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i y_i$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \mathbf{w}^\top \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \right] \mathbf{w} + \text{const.}$$

Multivariate Derivatives

- We will need some multivariate calculus.
- ► For now some simple multivariate differentiation:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{a}^{\top}\mathbf{w}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{a}$$

and

$$\frac{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{w}} = \left(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}\right)\mathbf{w}$$

or if **A** is symmetric (*i.e.* $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}$)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{w}} = 2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}.$$

Differentiate

Differentiating with respect to the vector **w** we obtain

$$\frac{\partial L(\mathbf{w},\beta)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \beta \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i} y_{i} - \beta \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}} \right] \mathbf{w}$$

Leading to

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \left[\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top\right]^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i y_i,$$

Rewrite in matrix notation:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{\top} = \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{X}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_{i} y_{i} = \mathbf{X}^{\top} \mathbf{y}$$

► Update for **w**^{*}.

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \left(\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{y}$$

• The equation for σ^{2*} may also be found

$$\sigma^{2^*} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \mathbf{w}^{* \top} \mathbf{x}_i \right)^2}{n}.$$



 Section 1.3 of Rogers and Girolami for Matrix & Vector Review. Nonlinear Regression

- Problem with Linear Regression—x may not be linearly related to y.
- Potential solution: create a feature space: define φ(x) where φ(·) is a nonlinear function of x.
- Model for target is a linear combination of these nonlinear functions

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{K} w_j \phi_j(\mathbf{x})$$
(1)

Quadratic Basis

► Basis functions can be global. E.g. quadratic basis: $[1, x, x^2]$



Figure: A quadratic basis.

Quadratic Basis

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[1, x, x²]



Figure: A quadratic basis.

Quadratic Basis

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Figure: A quadratic basis.
Functions Derived from Quadratic Basis

 $f(x) = w_1 + w_2 x + w_3 x^2$



Figure: Function from quadratic basis with weights $w_1 = 0.87466$, $w_2 = -0.38835$, $w_3 = -2.0058$.

Functions Derived from Quadratic Basis

 $f(x) = w_1 + w_2 x + w_3 x^2$



Figure: Function from quadratic basis with weights $w_1 = -0.35908$, $w_2 = 1.2274$, $w_3 = -0.32825$.

Functions Derived from Quadratic Basis

 $f(x) = w_1 + w_2 x + w_3 x^2$



Figure: Function from quadratic basis with weights $w_1 = -1.5638$, $w_2 = -0.73577$, $w_3 = 1.6861$.

Radial Basis Functions

► Or they can be local. E.g. radial (or Gaussian) basis $\phi_j(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu_j)^2}{\ell^2}\right)$



Figure: Radial basis functions.

Radial Basis Functions

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Figure: Radial basis functions.

Functions Derived from Radial Basis

$$f(x) = w_1 e^{-2(x+1)^2} + w_2 e^{-2x^2} + w_3 e^{-2(x-1)^2}$$



Figure: Function from radial basis with weights $w_1 = -0.47518$, $w_2 = -0.18924$, $w_3 = -1.8183$.

Functions Derived from Radial Basis

$$f(x) = w_1 e^{-2(x+1)^2} + w_2 e^{-2x^2} + w_3 e^{-2(x-1)^2}$$



Figure: Function from radial basis with weights $w_1 = 0.50596$, $w_2 = -0.046315$, $w_3 = 0.26813$.

Functions Derived from Radial Basis

$$f(x) = w_1 e^{-2(x+1)^2} + w_2 e^{-2x^2} + w_3 e^{-2(x-1)^2}$$



Figure: Function from radial basis with weights $w_1 = 0.07179$, $w_2 = 1.3591$, $w_3 = 0.50604$.

- Chapter 1, pg 1-6 of Bishop.
- Section 1.4 of Rogers and Girolami.
- Chapter 3, Section 3.1 of Bishop up to pg 143.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 0, model error -3.3989, $\sigma^2 = 0.286$, $\sigma = 0.535$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 1, model error -21.772, $\sigma^2 = 0.0733$, $\sigma = 0.271$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 2, model error -29.101, $\sigma^2 = 0.0426$, $\sigma = 0.206$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 3, model error -29.907, $\sigma^2 = 0.0401$, $\sigma = 0.200$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 4, model error -29.943, $\sigma^2 = 0.0400$, $\sigma = 0.200$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 5, model error -30.056, $\sigma^2 = 0.0397$, $\sigma = 0.199$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 6, model error -32.866, $\sigma^2 = 0.0322$, $\sigma = 0.180$.

Overfitting

- Increase number of basis functions, we obtain a better 'fit' to the data.
- ► How will the model perform on previously unseen data?

- We call the data used for fitting the model the 'training set'.
- Data not used for training, but when the model is applied 'in the field' is called the 'test data'.
- Challenge for generalization is to ensure a good performance on test data given only training data.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 0, training error -1.8774, validation error -0.13132, $\sigma^2 = 0.302$, $\sigma = 0.549$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 1, training error -15.325, validation error 2.5863, $\sigma^2 = 0.0733$, $\sigma = 0.271$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 2, training error -17.579, validation error -8.4831, $\sigma^2 = 0.0578$, $\sigma = 0.240$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 3, training error -18.064, validation error 11.27, $\sigma^2 = 0.0549$, $\sigma = 0.234$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 4, training error -18.245, validation error 232.92, $\sigma^2 = 0.0539$, $\sigma = 0.232$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 5, training error -20.471, validation error 9898.1, $\sigma^2 = 0.0426$, $\sigma = 0.207$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 6, training error -22.881, validation error 67775, $\sigma^2 = 0.0331$, $\sigma = 0.182$.

- Take training set and remove one point.
- Train on the remaining data.
- Compute the error on the point you removed (which wasn't in the training data).
- Do this for each point in the training set in turn.
- Average the resulting error. This is the leave one out error.


































































































































































Polynomial order 2, training error -28.403, leave one out error 0.34669.



Polynomial order 2, training error -28.403, leave one out error 0.34669.



Polynomial order 2, training error -28.403, leave one out error 0.34669.






























































































































































































































- Leave one out cross validation can be very time consuming!
- Need to train your algorithm *n* times.
- An alternative: *k* fold cross validation.




















































































What about two unknowns and *one* observation?

$$y_1 = mx_1 + c$$





Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = 1.75 \Longrightarrow m = 1.25$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

$$c = -0.777 \Longrightarrow m = 3.78$$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -4.01 \Longrightarrow m = 7.01$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -0.718 \Longrightarrow m = 3.72$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = 2.45 \Longrightarrow m = 0.545$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -0.657 \Longrightarrow m = 3.66$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

 $c = -3.13 \Longrightarrow m = 6.13$



Can compute *m* given *c*.

$$c = -1.47 \Longrightarrow m = 4.47$$



Can compute *m* given *c*. Assume

$$c \sim \mathcal{N}(0,4)$$
,

we find a distribution of solutions.



Probability for Under- and Overdetermined

- To deal with overdetermined introduced probability distribution for 'variable', ε_i.
- ► For underdetermined system introduced probability distribution for 'parameter', *c*.
- This is known as a Bayesian treatment.

- ▶ Bishop Section 1.2.3 (pg 21–24).
- ▶ Bishop Section 1.2.6 (start from just past eq 1.64 pg 30-32).
- Rogers and Girolami use an example of a coin toss for introducing Bayesian inference Chapter 3, Sections 3.1-3.4 (pg 95-117). Although you also need the beta density which we haven't yet discussed. This is also the example that Laplace used.

- Bayesian inference requires a prior on the parameters.
- The prior represents your belief *before* you see the data of the likely value of the parameters.
- For linear regression, consider a Gaussian prior on the intercept:

 $c \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha_1)$

- Posterior distribution is found by combining the prior with the likelihood.
- Posterior distribution is your belief *after* you see the data of the likely value of the parameters.
- ► The posterior is found through **Bayes' Rule**

$$p(c|y) = \frac{p(y|c)p(c)}{p(y)}$$

Bayes Update



Figure: A Gaussian prior combines with a Gaussian likelihood for a Gaussian posterior.

Bayes Update



Figure: A Gaussian prior combines with a Gaussian likelihood for a Gaussian posterior.

Bayes Update



Figure: A Gaussian prior combines with a Gaussian likelihood for a Gaussian posterior.

Stages to Derivation of the Posterior

- Multiply likelihood by prior
 - ► they are "exponentiated quadratics", the answer is always also an exponentiated quadratic because exp(a²) exp(b²) = exp(a² + b²).
- Complete the square to get the resulting density in the form of a Gaussian.
- Recognise the mean and (co)variance of the Gaussian. This is the estimate of the posterior.

- ► For general Bayesian inference need multivariate priors.
- E.g. for multivariate linear regression:

$$y_i = \sum_i w_j x_{i,j} + \epsilon_i$$

(where we've dropped *c* for convenience), we need a prior over **w**.

• This motivates a *multivariate* Gaussian density.

- ► For general Bayesian inference need multivariate priors.
- E.g. for multivariate linear regression:

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \epsilon_i$$

(where we've dropped *c* for convenience), we need a prior over **w**.

• This motivates a *multivariate* Gaussian density.

- ► Consider height, *h*/*m* and weight, *w*/*kg*.
- Could sample height from a distribution:

 $p(h) \sim \mathcal{N}(1.7, 0.0225)$

And similarly weight:

 $p(w) \sim N(75, 36)$
Height and Weight Models



Gaussian distributions for height and weight.

Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



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Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



Marginal Distributions



• This assumes height and weight are independent.

p(h,w) = p(h)p(w)

• In reality they are dependent (body mass index) = $\frac{w}{h^2}$.














































p(w,h) = p(w)p(h)

$$p(w,h) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_1^2}\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{(w-\mu_1)^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{(h-\mu_2)^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)\right)$$

$$p(w,h) = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{\sigma_1^2\sigma_2^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{bmatrix}w\\h\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}\mu_1\\\mu_2\end{bmatrix}\right)^{\mathsf{T}}\begin{bmatrix}\sigma_1^2 & 0\\0 & \sigma_2^2\end{bmatrix}^{-1}\left(\begin{bmatrix}w\\h\end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix}\mu_1\\\mu_2\end{bmatrix}\right)\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi |\mathbf{D}|} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top} \mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi \left|\mathbf{D}\right|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi |\mathbf{D}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{R}^{\top}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{R}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\top}\mathbf{D}^{-1}(\mathbf{R}^{\top}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{R}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2\pi |\mathbf{D}|^{\frac{1}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\right)$$

this gives a covariance matrix:

$$\mathbf{C}^{-1} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{R}^{\top}$$

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this gives a covariance matrix:

 $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{R}^{\top}$

1. Sum of Gaussian variables is also Gaussian.

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2. Scaling a Gaussian leads to a Gaussian.

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu,\sigma^2\right)$$

$$wy \sim \mathcal{N}\left(w\mu, w^2\sigma^2\right)$$

Multivariate Consequence

► If



Multivariate Consequence

• If $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ • And

 $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$

Multivariate Consequence



Multivariate Regression Likelihood

Noise corrupted data point

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \epsilon_i$$

Multivariate Regression Likelihood

Noise corrupted data point

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Multivariate regression likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\sigma^2\right)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,i}\right)^2\right)$$

Multivariate Regression Likelihood

Noise corrupted data point

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \epsilon_i$$

Multivariate regression likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\sigma^2\right)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_{i,:}\right)^2\right)$$

• Now use a multivariate Gaussian prior:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\alpha\right)^{\frac{p}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\alpha}\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{w}\right)$$



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 0, model error 29.757, $\sigma^2 = 0.286$, $\sigma = 0.535$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 1, model error 14.942, $\sigma^2 = 0.0749$, $\sigma = 0.274$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 2, model error 9.7206, $\sigma^2 = 0.0427$, $\sigma = 0.207$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 3, model error 10.416, $\sigma^2 = 0.0402$, $\sigma = 0.200$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 4, model error 11.34, $\sigma^2 = 0.0401$, $\sigma = 0.200$.
Polynomial Fits to Olympics Data



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 5, model error 11.986, $\sigma^2 = 0.0399$, $\sigma = 0.200$.

Polynomial Fits to Olympics Data



Left: fit to data, *Right*: marginal log likelihood. Polynomial order 6, model error 12.369, $\sigma^2 = 0.0384$, $\sigma = 0.196$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 0, training error 29.757, validation error -0.29243, $\sigma^2 = 0.302$, $\sigma = 0.550$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 1, training error 14.942, validation error 4.4027, $\sigma^2 = 0.0762$, $\sigma = 0.276$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 2, training error 9.7206, validation error -8.6623, $\sigma^2 = 0.0580$, $\sigma = 0.241$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 3, training error 10.416, validation error -6.4726, $\sigma^2 = 0.0555$, $\sigma = 0.236$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 4, training error 11.34, validation error -8.431, $\sigma^2 = 0.0555$, $\sigma = 0.236$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 5, training error 11.986, validation error -10.483, $\sigma^2 = 0.0551$, $\sigma = 0.235$.



Left: fit to data, *Right*: model error. Polynomial order 6, training error 12.369, validation error -3.3823, $\sigma^2 = 0.0537$, $\sigma = 0.232$.



Try predicting phenotype (Y) from a set of known mutations (S):

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{s}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}$$

Problem: observations are corrupted by environmental disturbances:

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{V}\mathbf{s}_{i,:} + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}$$

Here $\mathbf{x}_{i,:}$ is a vector of unobserved environmental factors (Parts et al., 2011).

• Our contribution: marginalize both **V** and **W**.

Linear Dimensionality Reduction

Linear Latent Variable Model

- Represent data, Y, with a lower dimensional set of latent variables X.
- Assume a linear relationship of the form

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:},$$

where

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right).$$

Probabilistic PCA

 Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:} | \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}_{i,:}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
- Standard Latent variable approach:



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:} | \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}_{i,:}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

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$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}_{i,:} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
- Standard Latent variable approach:
 - Define Gaussian prior over *latent space*, X.
 - Integrate out *latent variables*.



$$p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{W}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{x}_{i,:} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I} \right)$$
$$p(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N} \left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W} \mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} \right)$$

$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})$

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 $\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top}),$

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}, \quad \mathbf{x}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})$$
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Probabilistic PCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Tipping and Bishop, 1999)



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

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$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}\right) = -\frac{n}{2}\log|\mathbf{C}| - \frac{1}{2}\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}\right) + \operatorname{const.}$$

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If \mathbf{U}_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $n^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

Probabilistic PCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Tipping and Bishop, 1999)

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}), \quad \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

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If \mathbf{U}_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $n^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_q \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \left(\mathbf{\Lambda}_q - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where **R** is an arbitrary rotation matrix.

Dual Probabilistic PCA

 Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

Dual Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
- Novel Latent variable approach:



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:} | \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}_{i,:}, \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Dual Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
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 - Define Gaussian prior over *parameters*, W.



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{w}_{i,:} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Dual Probabilistic PCA

- Define *linear-Gaussian* relationship between latent variables and data.
- Novel Latent variable approach:
 - Define Gaussian prior over *parameters*, **W**.
 - Integrate out *parameters*.



$$p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{W}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:},\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

$$p\left(\mathbf{W}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{w}_{i,:}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{I}\right)$$

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{:,j} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{:,j}, \quad \mathbf{w}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{:,j} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{:,j}, \quad \mathbf{w}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}),$

$$\mathbf{y}_{:,j} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{:,j}, \quad \mathbf{w}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})$$
$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top}),$$
$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{:,j} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{:,j} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})$$

Dual Probabilistic PCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Lawrence, 2004, 2005)



$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right)$$

Dual PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Lawrence, 2004, 2005)

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}), \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Tipping and Bishop, 1999)

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}), \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right) = -\frac{p}{2}\log|\mathbf{K}| - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\right) + \mathrm{const.}$$

PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln

$$p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}\right), \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

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If \mathbf{U}'_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $p^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\top}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln

$$p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}\right), \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right) = -\frac{p}{2}\log|\mathbf{K}| - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\right) + \mathrm{const.}$$

If \mathbf{U}'_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $p^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\top}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}_q' \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \left(\mathbf{\Lambda}_q - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where **R** is an arbitrary rotation matrix.

Dual PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Lawrence, 2004, 2005)

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{j=1}^{p} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{:,j}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}), \quad \mathbf{K} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{X}\right) = -\frac{p}{2}\log|\mathbf{K}| - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\right) + \mathrm{const.}$$

If \mathbf{U}'_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $p^{-1}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\top}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}_q' \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}^{\top}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \left(\mathbf{\Lambda}_q - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where **R** is an arbitrary rotation matrix.
Linear Latent Variable Model IV

PPCA Max. Likelihood Soln (Tipping and Bishop, 1999)

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{i,:}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}), \quad \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$

$$\log p\left(\mathbf{Y}|\mathbf{W}\right) = -\frac{n}{2}\log|\mathbf{C}| - \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(\mathbf{C}^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}\right) + \mathrm{const.}$$

If \mathbf{U}_q are first q principal eigenvectors of $n^{-1}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}$ and the corresponding eigenvalues are $\mathbf{\Lambda}_q$,

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_q \mathbf{L} \mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \mathbf{L} = \left(\mathbf{\Lambda}_q - \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where **R** is an arbitrary rotation matrix.

Equivalence of Formulations

The Eigenvalue Problems are equivalent

Solution for Probabilistic PCA (solves for the mapping)

$$\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{U}_q = \mathbf{U}_q\mathbf{\Lambda}_q \qquad \mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}_q\mathbf{L}\mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Solution for Dual Probabilistic PCA (solves for the latent positions)

$$\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime} = \mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime}\mathbf{\Lambda}_{q} \qquad \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U}_{q}^{\prime}\mathbf{L}\mathbf{R}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Equivalence is from

$$\mathbf{U}_q = \mathbf{Y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{U}_q' \mathbf{\Lambda}_q^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$



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PLOS COMPUTATIONAL BIOLOGY

Joint Modelling of Confounding Factors and Prominent Genetic Regulators Provides Increased Accuracy in Genetical Genomics Studies

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Gene expression

Advance Access publication April 4, 2013

Detecting regulatory gene-environment interactions with unmeasured environmental factors

Nicoló Fusi^{1,*}, Christoph Lippert², Karsten Borgwardt^{3,4}, Neil D. Lawrence¹ and Oliver Stegle^{3,5,*}

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Back to the full model



$$p(\mathbf{Y} \,|\, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}_{\mathrm{K}}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{S}) = \prod_{g=1}^{G} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{g} \,|\, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}),$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \underbrace{\sum_{\forall k \in \mathcal{S}} \beta_k^2 \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{S}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{q=1}^Q \alpha_q^2 \mathbf{x}_q \mathbf{x}_q^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{X}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{\forall (k,q) \notin \mathcal{I}} \gamma_{k,q}^2 (\mathbf{s}_k \odot \mathbf{x}_q) (\mathbf{s}_k \odot \mathbf{x}_q)^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{I}}} + \sigma_p^2 \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{P}} + \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{I}}$$

- Section 2.3 of Bishop up to top of pg 85 (multivariate Gaussians).
- ► Section 3.3 of Bishop up to 159 (pg 152–159).
- The LIMMI paper (Fusi et al., 2013).
- ► The PANAMA paper (Fusi et al., 2012).



Rasmussen and Williams (2006)

Multi-variate Gaussians

- We will consider a Gaussian with a particular structure of covariance matrix.
- Generate a single sample from this 25 dimensional Gaussian distribution, $\mathbf{f} = [f_1, f_2 \dots f_{25}]$.
- We will plot these points against their index.



(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)

(b) colormap *i*showing correlations between dimensions.



(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)

(b) colormap *i*showing correlations between dimensions.



(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)



0.8

(b) colormap showing correlations between dimensions.





(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)

(b) colormap showing correlations between dimensions.



(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)

(b) colormap showing correlations between dimensions.



0.8 0.6 0.4 0.2

(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)

(b) colormap showing correlations between dimensions.



(a) A 25 dimensional correlated random variable (values ploted against index)



(b) colormap showing correlations between dimensions.





The single contour of the Gaussian density represents the joint distribution, p(f₁, f₂).



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- We observe that $f_1 = -0.313$.



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- Conditional density: $p(f_2|f_1 = -0.313)$.



- ► The single contour of the Gaussian density represents the joint distribution, p(f₁, f₂).
- We observe that $f_1 = -0.313$.
- Conditional density: $p(f_2|f_1 = -0.313)$.

Prediction with Correlated Gaussians

- ▶ Prediction of *f*₂ from *f*₁ requires *conditional density*.
- Conditional density is *also* Gaussian.

$$p(f_2|f_1) = \mathcal{N}\left(f_2|\frac{k_{1,2}}{k_{1,1}}f_1, k_{2,2} - \frac{k_{1,2}^2}{k_{1,1}}\right)$$

where covariance of joint density is given by

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} k_{1,1} & k_{1,2} \\ k_{2,1} & k_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}$$



The single contour of the Gaussian density represents the joint distribution, p(f₁, f₅).



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- The single contour of the Gaussian density represents the joint distribution, p(f₁, f₅).
- We observe that $f_1 = -0.313$.
- Conditional density: $p(f_5|f_1 = -0.313)$.

Prediction with Correlated Gaussians

- Prediction of f_{*} from f requires multivariate *conditional density*.
- Multivariate conditional density is *also* Gaussian.

$$p(\mathbf{f}_*|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f}_*|\mathbf{K}_{*,f}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}}^{-1}\mathbf{f},\mathbf{K}_{*,*} - \mathbf{K}_{*,f}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{f}}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},*}\right)$$

Here covariance of joint density is given by

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}_{f,f} & \mathbf{K}_{*,f} \\ \mathbf{K}_{f,*} & \mathbf{K}_{*,*} \end{bmatrix}$$

Prediction with Correlated Gaussians

- Prediction of f_{*} from f requires multivariate *conditional density*.
- Multivariate conditional density is *also* Gaussian.

$$p(\mathbf{f}_*|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f}_*|\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}\right)$$
$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{K}_{*,f} \mathbf{K}_{f,f}^{-1} \mathbf{f}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \mathbf{K}_{*,*} - \mathbf{K}_{*,f} \mathbf{K}_{f,f}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{f,*}$$
$$\blacktriangleright \text{ Here covariance of joint density is given by}$$

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}_{f,f} & \mathbf{K}_{*,f} \\ \mathbf{K}_{f,*} & \mathbf{K}_{*,*} \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Exponentiated Quadratic Kernel Function (RBF, Squared Exponential, Gaussian)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

- Covariance matrix is built using the *inputs* to the function x.
- For the example above it was based on Euclidean distance.
- The covariance function is also know as a kernel.



Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Exponentiated Quadratic Kernel Function (RBF, Squared Exponential, Gaussian)

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- Covariance matrix is built using the *inputs* to the function x.
- For the example above it was based on Euclidean distance.
- The covariance function is also know as a kernel.

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_1 = -3.0$$

$$k_{1,1} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3.0 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_2 = 1.20, x_1 = -3.0$$

$$k_{2,1} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.20 - 3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{2} = 1.20, x_{1} = -3.0$$

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

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$$1.00 \quad 0.110$$

$$0.110$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_2 = 1.20, x_2 = 1.20$$

$$k_{2,2} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.20 - 1.20)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$
Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_2 = 1.20, x_2 = 1.20$$

$$k_{2,2} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.20 - 1.20)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.40, x_1 = -3.0$$

$$k_{3,1} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.40, x_{1} = -3.0$$

$$k_{3,1} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - 3.0)^{2}}{2 \times 2.00^{2}}\right)$$

$$0.0889$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_i - x_j||^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.40, x_2 = 1.20$$

$$k_{3,2} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - 1.20)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

$$0.0889 \quad 0.995$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.40, x_{3} = 1.40$$

$$k_{3,3} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - 1.40)^{2}}{2 \times 2.00^{2}}\right)$$

$$0.0889 \quad 0.995$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.40, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$k_{3,3} = 1.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - 1.40)^2}{2 \times 2.00^2}\right)$$

$$1.00$$

$$1.00 \quad 0.110 \quad 0.0889$$

$$0.995$$

$$1.00$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$



Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3, x_1 = -3$$

$$k_{1,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3--3)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_{i} - x_{j}||^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{1} = -3, x_{1} = -3$$

$$k_{1,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3 - 3)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_{i} - x_{j}||^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{2} = 1.2, x_{1} = -3$$

$$k_{2,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.2 - 3)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_{i}-x_{j}||^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{2} = 1.2, x_{2} = 1.2$$

$$k_{2,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.2-1.2)^{2}}{2\times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_{i} - x_{j}||^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{2} = 1.2, x_{2} = 1.2$$

$$k_{2,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.2 - 1.2)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_{i} - x_{j}||^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.4, x_{1} = -3$$

$$k_{3,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - -3)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.4, x_1 = -3$$

$$k_{3,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 3)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.089$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.4, x_{1} = -3$$

$$k_{3,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 3)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 \\ 0.089 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.4, x_{2} = 1.2$$

$$k_{3,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.2)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

$$1.0 = 0.11 = 0.089$$

$$0.11 = 1.0$$

$$0.089$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{||x_i - x_j||^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.4, x_2 = 1.2$$

$$k_{3,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$x_3 = 1.4, x_2 = 1.2$$

$$k_{3,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_3 = 1.4, x_3 = 1.4$$

$$k_{3,3} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_{i}, x_{j}) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_{i} - x_{j}\|^{2}}{2\ell^{2}}\right)$$

$$x_{3} = 1.4, x_{3} = 1.4$$

$$k_{3,3} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.4 - 1.4)^{2}}{2 \times 2.0^{2}}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_1 = -3$$

$$k_{4,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 3)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 & 1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_1 = -3$$

$$k_{4,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 3)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.011 \quad 0.089$$

$$1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_1 = -3$$

$$k_{4,1} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 3)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_2 = 1.2$$

$$k_{4,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_2 = 1.2$$

$$k_{4,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044 \quad 0.92$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_2 = 1.2$$

$$k_{4,2} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.2)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 0.92$$

$$0.089 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044 \quad 0.92$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_3 = 1.4$$

$$k_{4,3} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 & 0.044 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 0.92 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\ 0.044 & 0.92 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_3 = 1.4$$

$$k_{4,3} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 0.92$$

$$0.089 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0$$

$$0.044 \quad 0.92 \quad 0.96$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_3 = 1.4$$

$$k_{4,3} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 1.4)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1.0 & 0.11 & 0.089 & 0.044 \\ 0.11 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 0.92 \\ 0.089 & 1.0 & 1.0 & 0.96 \\ 0.044 & 0.92 & 0.96 \end{bmatrix}$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_4 = 2.0$$

$$k_{4,4} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 2.0)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

$$0.11 \quad 1.0 \quad 0.92$$

$$0.089 \quad 1.0 \quad 1.0 \quad 0.96$$

$$0.044 \quad 0.92 \quad 0.96$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_4 = 2.0, x_4 = 2.0$$

$$k_{4,4} = 1.0 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(2.0 - 2.0)^2}{2 \times 2.0^2}\right)$$

$$1.0 \quad 0.11 \quad 0.089 \quad 0.044$$

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Where did this covariance matrix come from?

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 $x_1 = -3$, $x_2 = 1.2$, $x_3 = 1.4$, and $x_4 = 2.0$ with $\ell = 2.0$ and $\alpha = 1.0$.

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

$$k(x_i, x_j) = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|x_i - x_j\|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

$$x_1 = -3.0, x_1 = -3.0$$

$$k_{1,1} = 4.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(-3.0 - -3.0)^2}{2 \times 5.00^2}\right)$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

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$$x_3 = 1.40, x_3 = 1.40$$

$$k_{3,3} = 4.00 \times \exp\left(-\frac{(1.40 - 1.40)^2}{2 \times 5.00^2}\right)$$

$$2.72 \quad 4.00$$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

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Basis Function Form

Radial basis functions commonly have the form

$$\phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i) = \exp\left(-\frac{\left|\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k\right|^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$



Figure: A set of radial basis functions with width $\ell = 2$ and location parameters $\mu = [-4 \ 0 \ 4]^{\top}$.

Represent a function by a linear sum over a basis,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{i,:};\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{k=1}^{m} w_k \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_{i,:}),$$
(2)

• Here: *m* basis functions and $\phi_k(\cdot)$ is *k*th basis function and

$$\mathbf{w} = [w_1, \ldots, w_m]^\top.$$

• For standard linear model: $\phi_k(\mathbf{x}_{i,:}) = x_{i,k}$.

Random Functions

Functions derived using:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \phi_k(x),$$

where **W** is sampled from a Gaussian density,

$$w_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$$
.





RBF Basis Functions

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}')$$

$$\phi_i(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|x - \mu_i\|_2^2}{\ell^2}\right)$$
$$\mu = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\0\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$



RBF Basis Functions

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x}')$$





Use matrix notation to write function,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) = \sum_{k=1}^m w_k \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

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 $\mathbf{\Phi} \in \mathfrak{R}^{n \times p}$ is a design matrix

 Φ is fixed and non-stochastic for a given training set.

f is Gaussian distributed.

We have

$$\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle = \mathbf{\Phi} \langle \mathbf{w} \rangle.$$

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Prior mean of w was zero giving

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Prior covariance of **f** is

$$\mathbf{K} = \left\langle \mathbf{f} \mathbf{f}^{\top} \right\rangle - \left\langle \mathbf{f} \right\rangle \left\langle \mathbf{f} \right\rangle^{\top}$$

Expectations

We have

$$\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle = \mathbf{\Phi} \langle \mathbf{w} \rangle.$$

Prior mean of w was zero giving

$$\left\langle f\right\rangle =0.$$

Prior covariance of f is

$$\mathbf{K} = \left\langle \mathbf{f} \mathbf{f}^{\top} \right\rangle - \left\langle \mathbf{f} \right\rangle \left\langle \mathbf{f} \right\rangle^{\top}$$
$$\left\langle \mathbf{f} \mathbf{f}^{\top} \right\rangle = \mathbf{\Phi} \left\langle \mathbf{w} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \right\rangle \mathbf{\Phi}^{\top},$$

giving

$$\mathbf{K} = \gamma' \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

Back to the full model



$$p(\mathbf{Y} \,|\, \mathbf{S}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{\Theta}_{\mathrm{K}}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{S}) = \prod_{g=1}^{G} \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}_{g} \,|\, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{\Sigma}),$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma} = \underbrace{\sum_{\forall k \in \mathcal{S}} \beta_k^2 \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{S}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{q=1}^Q \alpha_q^2 \mathbf{x}_q \mathbf{x}_q^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{X}}} + \underbrace{\sum_{\forall (k,q) \notin \mathcal{I}} \gamma_{k,q}^2 (\mathbf{s}_k \odot \mathbf{x}_q) (\mathbf{s}_k \odot \mathbf{x}_q)^\top}_{\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{I}}} + \sigma_p^2 \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{P}} + \sigma_e^2 \mathbf{I}_{\mathbf{I}}$$

Gaussian Process Interpolation



Figure: Real example: BACCO (see *e.g.* (Oakley and O'Hagan, 2002)). Interpolation through outputs from slow computer simulations (*e.g.* atmospheric carbon levels).

Gaussian Process Interpolation



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Dealing with Non Gaussian Data

- Marginalization property of Gaussians very attractive.
- How to incorporate non-Gaussian data?
 - Data which isn't missing at random.
 - Binary data.
 - Ordinal categorical data.
 - Poisson counts.
 - Outliers.

Project Back into Gaussian

- Combine non-Gaussian likelihood with Gaussian prior.
- Either:
 - Project back to Gaussian posterior that is nearest in KL sense.
 - Expectation propagation.
- ► Or:
 - Fit a locally valid Gaussian approximation.
 - Laplace Approximation.

Ongoing work with Ricardo Andrade Pacheco (EP) and Alan Saul (Laplace) also James Hensman.





Gaussian Noise



Figure: Inclusion of a data point with Gaussian noise.

Gaussian Noise



Figure: Inclusion of a data point with Gaussian noise.

Gaussian Noise



Figure: Inclusion of a data point with Gaussian noise.

Classification Noise Model

Probit Noise Model



Figure: The probit model (classification). The plot shows $p(y_i|f_i)$ for different values of y_i . For $y_i = 1$ we have $p(y_i|f_i) = \phi(f_i) = \int_{-\infty}^{f_i} \mathcal{N}(z|0, 1) dz$.



Figure: An EP style update with a classification noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with a classification noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with a classification noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with a classification noise model.

Ordinal Noise Model

Ordered Categories



Figure: The ordered categorical noise model (ordinal regression). The plot shows $p(y_i|f_i)$ for different values of y_i . Here we have assumed three categories.



Figure: An EP style update with an ordered category noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with an ordered category noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with an ordered category noise model.



Figure: An EP style update with an ordered category noise model.



$$h(t|\mathbf{x}) = \overbrace{h_0(t)}^{\exp(GP(t))} \exp\left(\overbrace{\beta \mathbf{x}}^{GP(\mathbf{x}(t),t)}\right)$$

- Apply these extremely flexible methods to Survival Analysis
- Alter assumptions of Cox Proportional Hazards Model to discover how significant they are, test whether we can increase our predictive power by:
 - Breaking proportionality assumption
 - 2 Allowing for interactions between variables

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Can we determine covariance parameters from the data?

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}}|\mathbf{K}|} \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y}}{2}\right)$$

The parameters are *inside* the covariance function (matrix).

Can we determine covariance parameters from the data?

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}}|\mathbf{K}|} \exp\left(-\frac{\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y}}{2}\right)$$

The parameters are *inside* the covariance function (matrix).

Can we determine covariance parameters from the data?

$$\log \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}) = -\frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{K}| - \frac{\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{y}}{2} - \frac{n}{2} \log 2\pi$$

The parameters are *inside* the covariance function (matrix).

Can we determine covariance parameters from the data?

$$E(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{K}| + \frac{\mathbf{y}^{\top} \mathbf{K}^{-1} \mathbf{y}}{2}$$

The parameters are *inside* the covariance function (matrix).

Eigendecomposition of Covariance

A useful decomposition for understanding the objective function.

 $\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{R} \mathbf{\Lambda}^2 \mathbf{R}^\top$



Diagonal of Λ represents distance along axes. **R** gives a rotation of these axes.

where Λ is a *diagonal* matrix and $\mathbf{R}^{\top}\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{I}$.

Capacity control: log |K|


















$$|\mathbf{\Lambda}| = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \lambda_3$$





 $|\mathbf{R}\mathbf{\Lambda}| = \lambda_1 \lambda_2$

Data Fit: $\frac{\mathbf{y}^{-1}\mathbf{K}^{-1}\mathbf{y}}{2}$



 y_1

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- Given given expression levels in the form of a time series from Della Gatta et al. (2008).
- Want to detect if a gene is expressed or not, fit a GP to each gene (Kalaitzis and Lawrence, 2011).



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Open Access

A Simple Approach to Ranking Differentially Expressed Gene Expression Time Courses through Gaussian Process Regression

Alfredo A Kalaitzis" and Neil D Lawrence"

Abstract

Background: The analysis of gene expression from time series underpins many biological studies. Two basic forms of analysis recur for data of this type: removing inactive (quiet) genes from the study and determining which genes are differentially expressed. Often these analysis stages are applied disregarding the fact that the data is drawn from a time series. In this paper we propose a simple model for accounting for the underlying temporal nature of the data based on a Gaussian process.

Results: We review Gaussian process (GP) regression for estimating the continuous trajectories underlying in gene expression time-series. We present a simple approach which can be used to filter quiet genes, or for the case of time series in the form of expression ratios, quantify differential expression. We assess via ROC curves the rankings produced by our regression framework and compare them to a recently proposed hierarchical Bayesian model for the analysis of gene expression time-series (BATS). We compare on both simulated and experimental data showing that the proposed approach considerably outperforms the current state of the art.



Contour plot of Gaussian process likelihood.



Optima: length scale of 1.2221 and log₁₀ SNR of 1.9654 log likelihood is -0.22317.



Optima: length scale of 1.5162 and \log_{10} SNR of 0.21306 log likelihood is -0.23604.



Optima: length scale of 2.9886 and \log_{10} SNR of -4.506 log likelihood is -2.1056.

Gaussian Process Fit to Olympic Marathon Data



Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Exponentiated Quadratic Kernel Function (RBF, Squared Exponential, Gaussian)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

- Covariance matrix is built using the *inputs* to the function x.
- For the example above it was based on Euclidean distance.
- The covariance function is also know as a kernel.



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Linear Covariance Function

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}'$$



$$\alpha = 1$$



Linear Covariance Function

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}'$$

Bayesian linear regression.

$$\alpha = 1$$

MLP Covariance Function

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \operatorname{asin}\left(\frac{w\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{x}' + b}{\sqrt{w\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + b + 1}\sqrt{w\mathbf{x}'^{\top}\mathbf{x}' + b + 1}}\right)$$

 Based on infinite neural network model.

$$w = 40$$
$$b = 4$$



MLP Covariance Function

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Ornstein-Uhlenbeck (stationary Gauss-Markov) covariance function

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Outline

Health

Regression

Gaussian Processes

Basis Function Representations

Kalman Filter

Conclusions

Simple Markov Chain

- Assume 1-d latent state, a vector over time, $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \dots x_T]$.
- Markov property,

$$x_{i} = x_{i-1} + \epsilon_{i},$$

$$\epsilon_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}(x_{i-1}, \alpha)$$

Initial state,

 $x_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha_0)$

- If $x_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha)$ we have a Markov chain for the latent states.
- Markov chain it is specified by an initial distribution (Gaussian) and a transition distribution (Gaussian).

=



















Multivariate Gaussian Properties: Reminder

If $\mathbf{z} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \mathbf{C})$ and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{z} + \mathbf{b}$ then $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{W}\mu + \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{W}^{\mathsf{T}})$

Multivariate Gaussian Properties: Reminder





 $x_1 = \epsilon_1$



 $x_2 = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2$



 $x_3 = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3$



 $x_4 = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 + \epsilon_4$



 $x_5 = \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3 + \epsilon_4 + \epsilon_5$

 $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}_1 \times \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

- Since x is linearly related to *e* we know x is a Gaussian process.
- Trick: we only need to compute the mean and covariance of x to determine that Gaussian.

$x = L_1 \epsilon$

$\langle x \rangle = \langle L_1 \varepsilon \rangle$

$\langle x \rangle = L_1 \langle \varepsilon \rangle$

$\langle x\rangle = L_1 \langle \varepsilon \rangle$

$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I}\right)$

$\langle x\rangle = L_1 0$

$\langle x \rangle = 0$

$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\top} &= \mathbf{L}_{1}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\top}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top} \\ \mathbf{x}^{\top} &= \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\top}\mathbf{L}^{\top} \end{aligned}$

 $\langle \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\top}\rangle = \left\langle \mathbf{L}_{1}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\top}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right\rangle$

$\langle \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\top} \rangle = \mathbf{L}_1 \langle \boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\top} \rangle \mathbf{L}_1^{\top}$

$\langle \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \rangle = \mathbf{L}_1 \langle \boldsymbol{\epsilon}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\mathsf{T}} \rangle \mathbf{L}_1^{\mathsf{T}}$

 $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I})$

$\langle \mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\top} \rangle = \alpha \mathbf{L}_{1}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}$

$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}_1 \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$

$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}_{1}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I}\right)$

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$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}_{1}\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I}\right)$ \Longrightarrow $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{L}_{1}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right)$

- Make the variance dependent on time interval.
- Assume variance grows *linearly* with time.
- Justification: sum of two Gaussian distributed random variables is distributed as Gaussian with sum of variances.
- If variable's movement is additive over time (as described) variance scales linearly with time.
► Given $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{I}) \Longrightarrow \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \alpha \mathbf{L}_{1}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right).$ Then $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \Delta t \alpha \mathbf{I}\right) \Longrightarrow \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \Delta t \alpha \mathbf{L}_{1}\mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right).$

where Δt is the time interval between observations.

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{I}\right), \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{L}_{1} \mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right)$$

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 $\mathbf{K} = \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\top}$

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$$\mathbf{K} = \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{L}_{\mathbf{1}}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$k_{i,j} = \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{l}_{:,i}^{\top} \mathbf{l}_{:,j}$$

where $\mathbf{l}_{:,k}$ is a vector from the *k*th row of \mathbf{L}_1 : the first *k* elements are one, the next T - k are zero.

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{I}\right), \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \alpha \Delta t \mathbf{L}_{1} \mathbf{L}_{1}^{\top}\right)$$

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where $\mathbf{l}_{:,k}$ is a vector from the *k*th row of \mathbf{L}_1 : the first *k* elements are one, the next T - k are zero.

 $k_{i,j} = \alpha \Delta t \min(i, j)$ define $\Delta ti = t_i$ so $k_{i,j} = \alpha \min(t_i, t_j) = k(t_i, t_j)$

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Markov Process

$$k(t,t') = \alpha \min(t,t')$$

 Covariance matrix is built using the *inputs* to the function *t*.



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Markov Process

Visualization of inverse covariance (precision).

- Precision matrix is sparse: only neighbours in matrix are non-zero.
- This reflects *conditional* independencies in data.
- In this case Markov structure.



Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Exponentiated Quadratic Kernel Function (RBF, Squared Exponential, Gaussian)

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \alpha \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|_2^2}{2\ell^2}\right)$$

- Covariance matrix is built using the *inputs* to the function x.
- For the example above it was based on Euclidean distance.
- The covariance function is also know as a kernel.



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- The covariance function is also know as a kernel.

Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Exponentiated Quadratic

Visualization of inverse covariance (precision).

- Precision matrix is not sparse.
- Each point is dependent on all the others.
- In this case non-Markovian.



Where did this covariance matrix come from?

Markov Process

Visualization of inverse covariance (precision).

- Precision matrix is sparse: only neighbours in matrix are non-zero.
- This reflects *conditional* independencies in data.
- In this case Markov structure.



Simple Kalman Filter I

• We have state vector $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1 \dots \mathbf{x}_q] \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times q}$ and if each state evolves independently we have

$$p(\mathbf{X}) = \prod_{i=1}^{q} p(\mathbf{x}_{:,i})$$
$$p(\mathbf{x}_{:,i}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_{:,i}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}).$$

• We want to obtain outputs through:

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:}$$

Stacking and Kronecker Products I

Represent with a 'stacked' system:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{K}\right)$$

where the stacking is placing each column of **X** one on top of another as

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{:,1} \\ \mathbf{x}_{:,2} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{:,q} \end{bmatrix}$$

Kronecker Product



Kronecker Product



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Column Stacking















Can also stack each row of **X** to form column vector:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1,:} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2,:} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{T,:} \end{bmatrix}$$

 $p(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K} \otimes \mathbf{I}\right)$

Row Stacking













The observations are related to the latent points by a linear mapping matrix,

$$\mathbf{y}_{i,:} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}_{i,:} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{i,:}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)$$

Mapping from Latent Process to Observed



This leads to a covariance of the form

 $(\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{W})(\mathbf{K} \otimes \mathbf{I})(\mathbf{I} \otimes \mathbf{W}^{\top}) + \mathbf{I}\sigma^{2}$ Using $(\mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{B})(\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{D}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{C} \otimes \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}$ This leads to $\mathbf{K} \otimes \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{\top} + \mathbf{I}\sigma^{2}$

or

$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^\top \otimes \mathbf{K} + \mathbf{I}\sigma^2\right)$$

Kernels for Vector Valued Outputs: A Review

Foundations and Trends[®] in Machine Learning Vol. 4, No. 3 (2011) 195–266 © 2012 M. A. Álvarez, L. Rosasco and N. D. Lawrence DOI: 10.1561/2200000036



Kernels for Vector-Valued Functions: A Review

By Mauricio A. Álvarez, Lorenzo Rosasco and Neil D. Lawrence This Kronecker structure leads to several published models.

$$(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}'))_{j,j'}=k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')k_T(j,j'),$$

where *k* has **x** and k_T has *i* as inputs.

- Can think of multiple output covariance functions as covariances with augmented input.
- Alongside x we also input the *j* associated with the *output* of interest.

► Taking B = WW^T we have a matrix expression across outputs.

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')=k(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')\mathbf{B},$$

where **B** is a $p \times p$ symmetric and positive semi-definite matrix.

- **B** is called the *coregionalization* matrix.
- We call this class of covariance functions *separable* due to their product structure.
Sum of Separable Covariance Functions

In the same spirit a more general class of kernels is given by

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \sum_{j=1}^{q} k_j(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}')\mathbf{B}_j.$$

This can also be written as

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{j=1}^{q} \mathbf{B}_{j} \otimes k_{j}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}),$$

- This is like several Kalman filter-type models added together, but each one with a different set of latent functions.
- We call this class of kernels sum of separable kernels (SoS kernels).

- Use of GPs in Geostatistics is called kriging.
- These multi-output GPs pioneered in geostatistics: prediction over vector-valued output data is known as *cokriging*.
- The model in geostatistics is known as the *linear model of* coregionalization (LMC, Journel and Huijbregts (1978); Goovaerts (1997)).
- Most machine learning multitask models can be placed in the context of the LMC model.

Weighted sum of Latent Functions

- In the linear model of coregionalization (LMC) outputs are expressed as linear combinations of independent random functions.
- In the LMC, each component f_i is expressed as a linear sum

$$f_j(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^q w_{j,j} u_j(\mathbf{x}).$$

where the latent functions are independent and have covariance functions $k_i(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$.

• The processes $\{f_j(\mathbf{x})\}_{j=1}^q$ are independent for $q \neq j'$.

Kalman Filter Special Case

- The Kalman filter is an example of the LMC where $u_i(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow x_i(t)$.
- I.e. we've moved form time input to a more general input space.
- In matrix notation:
 - 1. Kalman filter

 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}$

2. LMC

 $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{U}$

where the rows of these matrices **F**, **X**, **U** each contain *q* samples from their corresponding functions at a different time (Kalman filter) or spatial location (LMC).

- If one covariance used for latent functions (like in Kalman filter).
- This is called the intrinsic coregionalization model (ICM, Goovaerts (1997)).
- The kernel matrix corresponding to a dataset **X** takes the form

- ► If outputs are noise-free, maximum likelihood is equivalent to independent fits of **B** and *k*(**x**, **x**') (Helterbrand and Cressie, 1994).
- In geostatistics this is known as autokrigeability (Wackernagel, 2003).
- In multitask learning its the cancellation of intertask transfer (Bonilla et al., 2008).

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^{\top} \otimes k(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}).$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\5 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5\\5 & 25 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}\mathbf{w}^{\top} \otimes k(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}).$$





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$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{B}_1 \otimes k_1(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{B}_2 \otimes k_2(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X})$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.4 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\ell_{1} = 1$$
$$\mathbf{B}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.5 & 1.3 \end{bmatrix}$$
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LMC in Machine Learning and Statistics

- Used in machine learning for GPs for multivariate regression and in statistics for computer emulation of expensive multivariate computer codes.
- Imposes the correlation of the outputs explicitly through the set of coregionalization matrices.
- Setting B = I_p assumes outputs are conditionally independent given the parameters θ. (Minka and Picard, 1997; Lawrence and Platt, 2004; Yu et al., 2005).
- More recent approaches for multiple output modeling are different versions of the linear model of coregionalization.

Semiparametric Latent Factor Model

 Coregionalization matrices are rank 1 Teh et al. (2005). rewrite equation (??) as

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \sum_{j=1}^{q} \mathbf{w}_{:,j} \mathbf{w}_{:,j}^{\top} \otimes k_{j}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}).$$

- Like the Kalman filter, but each latent function has a *different* covariance.
- Authors suggest using an exponentiated quadratic characteristic length-scale for each input dimension.

$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}_{:,1}\mathbf{w}_{:,1}^{\top} \otimes k_1(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{w}_{:,2}\mathbf{w}_{:,2}^{\top} \otimes k_2(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X})$$

$$\mathbf{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{w}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}_{:,1}\mathbf{w}_{:,1}^{\top} \otimes k_1(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{w}_{:,2}\mathbf{w}_{:,2}^{\top} \otimes k_2(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X})$$





$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}_{:,1}\mathbf{w}_{:,1}^{\top} \otimes k_1(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{w}_{:,2}\mathbf{w}_{:,2}^{\top} \otimes k_2(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X})$$





$$\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{w}_{:,1}\mathbf{w}_{:,1}^{\top} \otimes k_1(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X}) + \mathbf{w}_{:,2}\mathbf{w}_{:,2}^{\top} \otimes k_2(\mathbf{X},\mathbf{X})$$





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Gaussian processes for Multi-task, Multi-output and Multi-class

- Bonilla et al. (2008) suggest ICM for multitask learning.
- ► Use a PPCA form for **B**: similar to our Kalman filter example.
- Refer to the autokrigeability effect as the cancellation of inter-task transfer.
- Also discuss the similarities between the multi-task GP and the ICM, and its relationship to the SLFM and the LMC.

Multitask Classification

- Mostly restricted to the case where the outputs are conditionally independent given the hyperparameters φ (Minka and Picard, 1997; Williams and Barber, 1998; Lawrence and Platt, 2004; Seeger and Jordan, 2004; Yu et al., 2005; Rasmussen and Williams, 2006).
- Intrinsic coregionalization model has been used in the multiclass scenario. Skolidis and Sanguinetti (2011) use the intrinsic coregionalization model for classification, by introducing a probit noise model as the likelihood.
- Posterior distribution is no longer analytically tractable: approximate inference is required.

- A statistical model used as a surrogate for a computationally expensive computer model.
- Higdon et al. (2008) use the linear model of coregionalization to model images representing the evolution of the implosion of steel cylinders.
- In Conti and O'Hagan (2009) use the ICM to model a vegetation model: called the Sheffield Dynamic Global Vegetation Model (Woodward et al., 1998).

Example: Prediction of Malaria Incidence in Uganda

- Work with John Quinn and Martin Mubaganzi (Makerere University, Uganda)
- See http://cit.mak.ac.ug/cs/aigroup/.

Malaria Prediction in Uganda



Data SRTM/NASA from http://dds.cr.usgs.gov/srtm/version2_1



Malaria Prediction in Uganda



Malaria Prediction in Uganda



Mixed Noise Models










WebmasterWorld Forums





direction for further research.

11.1. HAVE WE THROWN THE BABY OUT WITH THE BATH WATER?

According to the hype of 1987, neural networks were meant to be intelligent models which discovered features and patterns in data. Gaussian processes in contrast are simply smoothing devices. How can Gaussian processes possibly replace neural networks? What is going on?

I think what the work of Williams and Rasmussen (1996) shows is that many real-world data modelling problems are perfectly well solved by sensible smoothing methods. The most interesting problems, the task of feature discovery for example, are not ones which Gaussian processes will solve. But maybe multilayer perceptrons can't solve them either. On the other hand, it may be that the limit of an infinite number of hidden units, to which Gaussian processes correspond, was a bad limit to take; maybe we should backtrack, or modify the prior on neural network parameters, so as to create new models more interesting than Gaussian processes. Evidence that this infinite limit has lost something compared with finite neural networks comes from the observation that in a finite neural network with more than one output, there are non-trivial correlations between the outputs (since they share inputs from common hidden units); but in the limit of an infinite number of hidden units, these correlations vanish. Radford Neal has suggested the use of non-Gaussian priors in networks with multiple hidden layers. Or perhaps a completely fresh start is needed, approaching the problem of machine learning from a paradigm different from the supervised feedforward mapping.

MacKay: NIPS Tutorial 1997 "Have we thrown out the baby with the bathwater?" (Published as MacKay, 1998) Also noted by (Wilson et al., 2012)

Deep Models



Deep Models



Deep Models



Deep Gaussian Processes



Damianou and Lawrence (2013)

- Deep architectures allow abstraction of features (Bengio, 2009; Hinton and Osindero, 2006; Salakhutdinov and Murray, 2008).
- We use variational approach to stack GP models.

Deep Health



- Stacking PPCA still leads to a linear latent variable model.
- To stack latent variable models, need a non-linear model.
- The GP-LVM is a non-linear latent variable model.
- ► Stacking GP-LVM leads to hierarchical GP-LVM.

 Bayesian GP-LVM allows variational marginalization of X and W.



 This leads to a Bayesian model where latent dimensionality can be learnt.

Modeling Multiple 'Views'

- Single space to model correlations between two different data sources, e.g., images & text, image & pose.
- Shared latent spaces: (Shon et al., 2006; Navaratnam et al., 2007; Ek et al., 2008b)



- Effective when the 'views' are correlated.
- But not all information is shared between both 'views'.
- ▶ PCA applied to concatenated data vs CCA applied to data.

Shared-Private Factorization

- In real scenarios, the 'views' are neither fully independent, nor fully correlated.
- Shared models
 - either allow information relevant to a single view to be mixed in the shared signal,
 - or are unable to model such private information.
- Solution: Model shared and private information (Virtanen et al., 2011; Ek et al., 2008a; Leen and Fyfe, 2006; Klami and Kaski, 2007, 2008; Tucker, 1958)



 Probabilistic CCA is case when dimensionality of Z matches Y⁽ⁱ⁾ (cf Inter Battery Factor Analysis (Tucker, 1958)).

Manifold Relevance Determination



Damianou et al. (2012)



Shared GP-LVM



Separate ARD parameters for mappings to $\mathbf{Y}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{Y}^{(2)}$.

- Revisit 'high five' data.
- This time allow model to learn structure, rather than imposing it.

Deep hierarchies – motion capture



Deep Gaussian processes

- Are deep hierarchies justified for small data sets?
- We can lower bound the evidence for different depths.
- ► For 150 6s, 0s and 1s from MNIST we found at least 5 layers are required.

Deep hierarchies - MNIST





- Gaussian models good for missing data.
- Disparate data types handled with EP and Laplace.
- Deep models allow complex abstract representation of data sets at higher levels.
- Current limitation is on data set size.
- Addressing this through work by James Hensman on Stochastic Variational Inference for GPs (recent UAI paper).
- Intention is to deploy these models for assimilating a wide range of data types in personalized health (text, survival times, images, genotype, phenotype).
- Requires population scale models with millions of features.

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