# An introduction to Gaussian Processes 

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## Introduction

## Univariate Gaussian distributions

PDF of a $\mathbf{N}(0,1)$ random variable


CDF of a $\mathbf{N}(0,1)$ random variable


X

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X \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)
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PDF: $\quad f_{X}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \exp \left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}\right)$
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If $Z \sim N(0,1)$ then $X=\mu+\sigma Z \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$

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- Infinite divisibility
- If normally distributed rvs $X$ and $Y$ are uncorrelated, then they are independent
- Square-loss functions lead to procedures that have a Gaussian probabilistic interpretation
eg Fit model $f_{\beta}(x)$ to data $y$ by mimizing $\sum\left(y_{i}-f_{\beta}\left(x_{i}\right)\right)^{2}$ is equivalent to maximum likelihood estimation under the assumption that $y=f_{\beta}(x)+\epsilon$ where $\epsilon \sim N\left(0, \sigma^{2}\right)$.


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－mean vector $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$
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Write

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Bivariate Gaussian：d＝2

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X=\binom{X_{1}}{X_{2}} \quad \mu=\binom{\mu_{1}}{\mu_{2}} \quad \Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
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\end{array}\right) \\
\mathbb{V a r}\left(X_{i}\right)=\sigma_{i}^{2} \quad \mathbb{C o v}\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)=\rho_{i j} \sigma_{i} \sigma_{j} \quad \operatorname{Cor}\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)=\rho_{12} \text { for } i \neq j
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& \text { pdf: } \quad f(x \mid \mu, \Sigma)=|\Sigma|^{-\frac{1}{2}}(2 \pi)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^{\top} \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$









## More pictures

Consider $d=5$ with

$$
\Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 & 0.6 \\
0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 & 0.7 \\
0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 & 0.8 \\
0.7 & 0.8 & 0.9 & 1 & 0.9 \\
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It's hard to visualise in dimensions $>3$, so let's stack points next to each other.

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\Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}
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0.99 & 1 & 0.99 & 0.98 & 0.97 & \ldots \\
0.98 & 0.99 & 1 & 0.99 & 0.98 & \ldots \\
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& : & : & : & : & :
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Thankfully we only need consider the finite dimensional distributions (FDDs), i.e., for all $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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\mathbb{P}\left(f\left(x_{1}\right) \leq y_{1}, \ldots, f\left(x_{n}\right) \leq y_{n}\right)
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Conversely, any matrix $\Sigma$ which is positive semi-definite is a valid covariance matrix:
If $Z \sim N_{d}\left(0_{d}, I_{d}\right)$ then $X=\mu+\Sigma^{\frac{1}{2}} Z \sim N_{d}(\mu, \Sigma)$.
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- Gives one way of generating multivariate Gaussians.


## Property 2: Conditional distributions are still Gaussian

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where

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\mu=\binom{\mu_{1}}{\mu_{2}} \quad \Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
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Then

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## Proof:

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\pi\left(x_{2} \mid x_{1}\right)=\frac{\pi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)}{\pi\left(x_{1}\right)} \propto \pi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)
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So $X_{2} \mid X_{1}=x_{1}$ is Gaussian.

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So

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A simple matrix inversion lemma gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q_{22}^{-1} & =\Sigma_{22}-\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} \Sigma_{12} \\
\text { and } Q_{22}^{-1} Q_{21} & =\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1}
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$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi\left(x_{2} \mid x_{1}\right) & \propto \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)^{\top} Q_{22}\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)+2\left(x_{2}-\mu_{2}\right)^{\top} Q_{21}\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right)\right]\right) \\
& \propto \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left[x_{2}^{\top} Q_{22} x_{2}-2 x_{2}^{\top}\left(Q_{22} \mu_{2}+Q_{21}\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right)\right)\right]\right) \\
& \propto \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(x_{2}-Q_{22}^{-1}\left(Q_{22} \mu_{2}+Q_{21}\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right)\right)\right)^{\top} Q_{22}\left(x_{2}-\ldots\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So

$$
X_{2} \mid X_{1}=x_{1} \sim N\left(\mu_{2}+Q_{22}^{-1} Q_{21}\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right), Q_{22}\right)
$$

A simple matrix inversion lemma gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q_{22}^{-1} & =\Sigma_{22}-\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} \Sigma_{12} \\
\text { and } Q_{22}^{-1} Q_{21} & =\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

giving

$$
X_{2} \mid X_{1}=x_{1} \sim N\left(\mu_{2}+\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1}\left(x_{1}-\mu_{1}\right), \Sigma_{22}-\Sigma_{21} \Sigma_{11}^{-1} \Sigma_{12}\right)
$$

## Conditional updates of Gaussian processes

So suppose $f$ is a Gaussian process, then

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where $\mu^{*}$ and $\sigma^{*}$ are as on the previous slide．
Note that we still believe $f$ is a GP even though we＇ve observed its value at a number of locations．




## Why use GPs? Answer 1

The GP class of models is closed under various operations.

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- Closed under Bayesian conditioning, i.e., if we observe

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- Closed under any linear operator. If $f \sim G P(m(\cdot), k(\cdot, \cdot))$, then if $\mathcal{L}$ is a linear operator

$$
\mathcal{L} \circ f \sim G P\left(\mathcal{L} \circ m, \mathcal{L}^{2} \circ k\right)
$$

e.g. $\frac{d f}{d x}, \int f(x) d x, A f$ are all GPs

## Determining the mean and covariance function

 How do we determine the mean $\mathbb{E}(f(x))$ and covariance $\operatorname{Cov}\left(f(x), f\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)$ ?
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m(x)=\mathbb{E}(f(x))
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- If mean is a linear combination of known regressor functions, e.g.,

$$
m(x)=\beta h(x) \text { for known } h(x)
$$

and $\beta \sim N(\cdot, \cdot)$ is given a normal prior (including $\pi(\beta) \propto 1$ ), then $f \mid D, \beta \sim G P$ and

$$
f \mid D \sim G P
$$

with slightly modified mean and variance formulas.

## Covariance functions

- We usually use a covariance function that is a function of distance between the locations

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\operatorname{Cov}\left(f(x), f\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right)
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- This can be problematic (see Nicolas' talk)
- If

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\sigma^{2} c\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)
$$

and we give $\sigma^{2}$ an inverse gamma prior (including $\pi\left(\sigma^{2}\right) \propto 1 / \sigma^{2}$ ) then $f \mid D, \sigma^{2} \sim G P$ and

$$
f \mid D \sim \text { t-process }
$$

with $n-p$ degrees of freedom. In practice, for reasonable $n$, this is indistinguishable from a GP.

## Examples

RBF/Squared-exponential/exponentiated quadratic

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)
$$



## Examples

RBF/Squared-exponential/exponentiated quadratic

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{0.25^{2}}\right)
$$



## Examples

RBF／Squared－exponential／exponentiated quadratic

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{4^{2}}\right)
$$



## Examples

RBF/Squared-exponential/exponentiated quadratic

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=100 \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}\right)
$$



## Examples

Matern 3／2

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right) \sim\left(1+\left|x-x^{\prime}\right|\right) \exp \left(-\left|x-x^{\prime}\right|\right)
$$



## Examples

Brownian motion

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\min \left(x, x^{\prime}\right)
$$



## Examples

White noise

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}
1 \text { if } x=x^{\prime} \\
0 \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$



## Examples

The GP inherits its properties primarily from the covariance function $k$.

- Smoothness
- Differentiability
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What is happening?
Suppose $f(x)=c x$ where $c \sim N(0,1)$.
Then
$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Cov}\left(f(x), f\left(x^{\prime}\right)\right) & =\mathbb{C o v}\left(c x, c x^{\prime}\right) \\ & =x^{\top} \operatorname{Cov}(c, c) x^{\prime}\end{aligned}$
$=x^{\top} x^{\prime}$

## Conditional updates of Gaussian processes - revisited

ERROR: here covariance is Sigma, but on next slide I have Sigma + sigma2 I.
So suppose $f$ is a Gaussian process, then

$$
f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{n}\right), f(x) \sim N(0, \Sigma)
$$

where

$$
\Sigma=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 
& & & k\left(x_{1}, x\right) \\
& K & & k\left(x_{2}, x\right) \\
& & & & \vdots \\
k\left(x, x_{1}\right) & k\left(x, x_{2}\right) & \ldots & k\left(x, x_{n}\right) & k(x, x)
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $K_{i j}=k\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right)$ is the Gram/kernel matrix.

## Conditional updates of Gaussian processes - revisited

Then

$$
f(x) \mid f\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, f\left(x_{n}\right) \sim N(m(x), c(x))
$$

where

$$
m(x)=k(x)\left(K+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y
$$

with

$$
k(x)=\left(k\left(x, x_{1}\right) \quad k\left(x, x_{2}\right) \ldots \quad k\left(x, x_{n}\right)\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}
$$

and

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Cf

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Why use GPs? Answer 2: non-parametric/kernel regression We can also view GPs as a non-parametric extension to linear regression. $k$ determines the space of functions that sample paths live in.

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& =X^{\top}\left(X X^{\top}+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y \quad \text { (the dual form) }
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where $\quad X=\left(\begin{array}{c}x_{1}^{\top} \\ x_{2}^{\top} \\ \vdots\end{array}\right)$

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& \text { as } \\
& \text { so } \quad X^{\top}\left(X X^{\top}+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1}=\left(X^{\top} X+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} X^{\top}
\end{aligned}
$$

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At first the dual form

$$
\hat{\beta}=X^{\top}\left(X X^{\top}+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y
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looks harder to compute than the usual

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－$X X^{\top}$ is $n \times n$
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- $X^{\top} X$ is $p \times p \quad p=$ number of features/parameters
- $X X^{\top}$ is $n \times n \quad n$ is the number of data points

But the dual form only uses inner products.

$$
X X^{\top}=\left(\begin{array}{c}
x_{1}^{\top} \\
\vdots \\
x_{n}^{\top}
\end{array}\right)\left(x_{1} \ldots x_{n}\right)=\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
x_{1}^{\top} x_{1} & \ldots & x_{1}^{\top} x_{n} \\
\vdots & & \\
x_{n}^{\top} x_{1} & \ldots & x_{n}^{\top} x_{n}
\end{array}\right)=K
$$

- This is useful!


## Prediction

The best prediction of $y$ at a new location $x^{\prime}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{y}^{\prime} & =x^{\prime \top} \hat{\beta} \\
& =x^{\prime \top} X^{\top}\left(X X^{\top}+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y \\
& =k\left(x^{\prime}\right)\left(K+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y
\end{aligned}
$$

where $k\left(x^{\prime}\right):=\left(x^{\prime \top} x_{1}, \ldots, x^{\prime \top} x_{n}\right)$ and $K_{i j}:=x_{i}^{\top} x_{j}$

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- every element is an inner product btwn 2 points.


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$K$ and $k(x)$ are kernel matrices

- every element is an inner product btwn 2 points.

Note this is exactly the GP conditional mean we derived before.

$$
m(x)=t(x)\left(K+\sigma^{2} I\right)^{-1} y
$$

- linear regression and GP regression are equivalent when

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=x^{\top} x^{\prime}
$$

- We know that we can replace $x$ by a feature vector in linear regression, e.g., $\phi(x)=\left(1 \times x^{2}\right)$ etc. Then

$$
K_{i j}=\phi\left(x_{i}\right)^{\top} \phi\left(x_{j}\right) \quad \text { etc }
$$

- For some sets of features, the inner product is equivalent to evaluating a kernel function

$$
\phi(x)^{\top} \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right) \equiv k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)
$$

where

$$
k: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}
$$

is a semi-positive definite function.

NEEDS CLARIFICATION. ADD PICTURE OF FEATURES ETC. ADD THEORY AND TIGHTEN UP.

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$$

is a semi-positive definite function.
Example: If (modulo some detail)

$$
\phi(x)=\left(e^{-\frac{\left(x-c_{1}\right)^{2}}{2 \lambda^{2}}}, \ldots, e^{-\frac{\left(x-c_{N}\right)^{2}}{2 \lambda^{2}}}\right)
$$

then as $N \rightarrow \infty$ then

$$
\phi(x)^{\top} \phi(x)=\exp \left(-\frac{\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{2 \lambda^{2}}\right)
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- We can use an infinite dimensional feature vector $\phi(x)$, and because linear regression can be done solely in terms of inner-products (inverting a $n \times n$ matrix in the dual form) we never need evaluate


## Kernel trick:

lift $x$ into feature space by replacing inner products $x^{\top} x^{\prime}$ by $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$


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lift $x$ into feature space by replacing inner products $x^{\top} x^{\prime}$ by $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$


Kernel regression／non－parametric regression／GP regression all closely related：

$$
\hat{y}^{\prime}=m\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} k\left(x, x_{i}\right)
$$

Generally, we don't think about these features, we just choose a kernel.

- $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ is a kernel ifF it is a positive semidefinite function

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- $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)$ is a kernel ifF it is a positive semidefinite function Any kernel implicitly determines a set of features (ie we can write $k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\phi(x)^{\top} \phi\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ for some feature vector $\left.\phi(x)\right)$,

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$$
f(x)=\sum_{i} c_{i} k\left(x, x_{i}\right)^{1}
$$

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- this space of functions is called the Reproducing Kernel Hilbert Space (RKHS) of $k$.

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Although reality may not lie in the RKHS defined by $k$, this space is much richer than any parametric regression model (and can be dense in some sets of continuous bounded functions), and is thus more likely to contain an element close to the true functional form than any class of models that contains only a finite number of features.

This is the motivation for non-parametric methods.

[^2]
## Why use GPs? Answer 3: Naturalness of GP framework

Why use Gaussian processes as non-parametric models?

## Why use GPs? Answer 3: Naturalness of GP framework

Why use Gaussian processes as non-parametric models?
One answer might come from Bayes linear methods ${ }^{2}$. If we only knew the expectation and variance of some random variables, $X$ and $Y$, then how should we best do statistics?

[^3]
## Why use GPs? Answer 3: Naturalness of GP framework

Why use Gaussian processes as non-parametric models?
One answer might come from Bayes linear methods ${ }^{2}$.
If we only knew the expectation and variance of some random variables, $X$ and $Y$, then how should we best do statistics?

It has been shown, using coherency arguments, or geometric arguments, or..., that the best second-order inference we can do to update our beliefs about $X$ given $Y$ is

$$
\mathbb{E}(X \mid Y)=\mathbb{E}(X)+\mathbb{C o v}(X, Y) \operatorname{Var}(Y)^{-1}(Y-\mathbb{E}(Y))
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i.e., exactly the Gaussian process update for the posterior mean.

So GPs are in some sense second-order optimal.

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See also kernel Bayes and kriging/BLUP.

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## Why use GPs？Answer 4：Uncertainty estimates from

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## Why use GPs? Answer 4: Uncertainty estimates from emulators

We often think of our prediction as consisting of two parts

- point estimate
- uncertainty in that estimate

That GPs come equipped with the uncertainty in their prediction is seen as one of their main advantages.

It is important to check both aspects.
Warning: the uncertainty estimates from a GP can be flawed. Note that given data $D=\{X, y\}$

$$
\operatorname{Var}(f(x) \mid X, y)=k(x, x)-k(x, X) k(X, X)^{-1} k(X, x)
$$

so that the posterior variance of $f(x)$ does not depend upon $y$ !
The variance estimates are particularly sensitive to the hyper-parameter estimates.

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- We pick a covariance function from a small set, based usually on differentiability considerations.
- Possibly try a few (plus combinations of a few) covariance functions, and attempt to make a good choice using some sort of empirical evaluation.
- Covariance functions often contain hyper-parameters. E.g
- RBF kernel

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\sigma^{2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\left(x-x^{\prime}\right)^{2}}{\lambda^{2}}\right)
$$

Estimate these using some standard procedure (maximum likelihood, cross-validation, Bayes etc)

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So the posterior can concentrate not on a point, but on some submanifold of parameter space, and the projection of the prior on this space continues to impact the posterior even as more and more data are collected.
E.g. consider a zero mean GP on $[0,1]$ with covariance function

$$
k\left(x, x^{\prime}\right)=\sigma^{2} \exp \left(-\kappa^{2}|x-x|\right)
$$

We can consistently estimate $\sigma^{2} \kappa$, but not $\sigma^{2}$ or $\kappa$, even as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

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We often work around these problems by running the optimizer multiple times from random start points, using prior distributions, constraining or fixing hyper-parameters, or adding white noise.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Not quite - it lies in the completion of this set of linear combinations

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Not quite - it lies in the completion of this set of linear combinations

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Not quite - it lies in the completion of this set of linear combinations

[^3]:    ${ }^{2}$ Statistics without probability!

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