

An overview of kriging for researchers

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An overview of kriging for researchers

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Goal of the class, acknowledgements

- This 1h30 course is an overview of kriging = conditional Gaussian process (GP), GP regression (GPR)
- with openings towards research items.
- Material partly recycled from two previous classes, one given with Nicolas Durrande [Durrande and Le Riche, 2017] and the previous edition of this class [Le Riche, 2014].
- A few new slides on RKHS coming from discussions with Xavier Bay.

Content



Introduction: context, why kriging

Gaussian Process basics

- Random and Gaussian Processes
- Covariance functions basics
- Gaussian process regression
- Kriging noisy data
- Parameter estimation
- Model validation

3 A few GPR topics beyond basics

- Kernel design
- Two other points of view
- Links with other methods
- Kriging issues

Bibliography

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Context

- Kriging is most often used in the context of expensive (numerical) experiments (simulators, e.g. PDE solvers):
- The experiment can be seen as a function of the input parameters

y = f(x)

where *f* is a **costly to evaluate function**.

In the following, we will assume that

- x ∈ X: There are d input variables. Usually (but not necessarily) X is ℝ^d.
- y ∈ ℝ: The output is a scalar. But extensions to GP regression with multiple outputs exist.

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The fact that f is **costly to evaluate** changes a lot of things...

1. Representing the function is not possible...



The fact that f is **costly to evaluate** changes a lot of things...

2. Uncertainty propagation is not possible...



The fact that f is **costly to evaluate** changes a lot of things...

3. Optimisation is also tricky...



- 4. Computing integrals is not possible...
- 5. Sensitivity analysis is not possible...

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Statistical modelling

We know an initial Design of Experiments (DoE) of n points $(x^{i}, y_{i}), y_{i} = f(x^{i}).$ What can be said about possible y at any x using probabilities? kriging for regres- \Rightarrow (conditional GP) sion [Krige, 1951, Matheron, 1963] = a family of surrogates (metamodels) with embedded uncertainty.



General bibliography: [Rasmussen and Williams, 2006, Durrande and Le Riche, 2017, Le Riche, 2014]

Content



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- A few GPR topics beyond basics
 - Kernel design
 - Two other points of view
 - I inks with other methods
 - Kriging issues

Random Process (1/2)

Random variable Y



random event $\omega \in \Omega$ (e.g., throw a dice) get an instance y. Ex:

 ${\scriptstyle \bullet}{}$ if dice ≤ 3 , y=1

• if 4
$$\geq$$
 dice \leq 5 , y = 2

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• if dice = 6 ,
$$y = 3$$

Random process Y(x)

get a function y(x). Ex:

A set of RV's indexed by xrandom event $\omega \in \Omega$ === (e.g., weather)



Random Process (2/2)

Repeat the random event (say 3 times):



3 y(x)'s. They are different, yet bear strong similarities.

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Gaussian Process (1/2)

Assume Y() is a GP, Y(x) ~
$$\mathcal{N}(\mu(x), k(x, x)) \Leftrightarrow$$

 $\forall X = \begin{pmatrix} x^1 \\ \dots \\ x^n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathcal{X}^{n \times d} , \quad Y(X) = \begin{pmatrix} Y(x^1) \\ \dots \\ Y(x^n) \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu(X), K)$
where $K = \operatorname{Cev}(Y(x^i), Y(x^i)) = k(x^i, x^i)$ depends only on the x^i s

where $K_{ij} = \text{Cov}(Y(x^{\prime}), Y(x^{j})) = k(x^{\prime}, x^{j})$ depends only on the x's



Gaussian Process (2/2)

The distribution of a GP is fully characterised by:

- its mean function $\mu(.)$ defined over \mathcal{X}
- its covariance function (or kernel) k(.,.) defined over X × X:
 k(x, x') = Cov(Y(x), Y(x'))

⇒ Example path simulation: Say $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp(-(x - x')^2/\theta^2)$ and in pseudo-R, build a fine grid X, choose mean function mu(), build the covariance matrix, K[i,j]=k(X[i],X[j]), eigenanalysis, Keig = eigen(K), and sample, y = mu[X] + Keig\$vectors %*% diag(sqrt(Keig\$values)) %*% matrix(rnorm(n))

⇒ See also Shiny App: https://github.com/NicolasDurrande/shinyApps

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Valid kernels

A kernel satisfies the following properties:

- It is symmetric: k(x, x') = k(x', x)
- It is positive semi-definite (psd):

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x_i \in D, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n, \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j k(x_i, x_j) \ge 0$$

Furthermore any symmetric psd function can be seen as the covariance of a Gaussian process. This equivalence is known as the Loeve theorem.

Popular kernels in 1D

There are a lot of functions that have already been proven psd:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{constant} & k(x,x') = \sigma^2 \\ \mbox{white noise} & k(x,x') = \sigma^2 \delta_{x,x'} & (\mbox{Kronecker delta function}) \\ \mbox{Brownian} & k(x,x') = \sigma^2 \min(x,x') \\ \mbox{power-exponential} & k(x,x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-|x-x'|^p/\theta\right), \ 0$

The parameter σ^2 is called the **variance** and θ the **length-scale**. General factorized form: $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 r(x, x')$, r(,) the correlation function.

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Effect of θ , squared exponential kernel

$$k(|x-x'|)$$

trajectories
$$y(x)$$



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Trajectories with squared exponential kernel

and the Shiny App @ https://github.com/NicolasDurrande/shinyApps



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GP regression

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Trajectories with the Brownian kernel



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Trajectories with the Matérn 3/2 kernel



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Trajectories with the exponential kernel



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Regularity and covariance function

- The regularity and frequency content of the y(x) are controlled by the kernel (and its length-scale)
- For stationary processes (depend on τ = x − x' only), the trajectories are p times differentiable (in the mean square sense) if k(τ) is 2p times differentiable at τ = 0 ⇒ the property of k(τ) at τ = 0 define the regularity of the process.
- Examples:
 - trajectories with squared exponential kernels are infinitely differentiable = very (unrealistically?) smooth.
 - trajectories with Matérn 5/2 and 3/2 kernels are twice and once differentiable.
 - trajectories with power-exponential are not differentiable excepted when p = 2.

Popular multi-dimensional kernels (1/2)

constant $k(x, x') = \sigma^2$ w ex Μ

white noise
$$k(x, x') = \sigma^2$$

exponential $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp(-||x - x'||_{\theta})$
Matérn 3/2 $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \left(1 + \sqrt{3}||x - x'||_{\theta}\right) \exp\left(-\sqrt{3}||x - x'||_{\theta}\right)$
Matérn 5/2 $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \left(1 + \sqrt{5}||x - x'||_{\theta} + \frac{5}{3}||x - x'||_{\theta}^2\right) \times \exp\left(-\sqrt{5}||x - x'||_{\theta}\right)$
sq. exp. $k(x, x') = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}||x - x'||_{\theta}^2\right)$

where
$$||x - x'||_{\theta} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} \frac{(x_i - x'_i)^2}{\theta_i^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

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Popular multi-dimensional kernels (2/2)

A common general recipee: a product of univariate kernels,

$$k(x,x') = \sigma^2 \prod_{i=1}^d r_i(x_i,x_i')$$

which has d + 1 parameters.

(more on kernel design later)

Gaussian process regression

Assume we have observed a function f() over a set of points $X = (x^1, ..., x^n)$:



The vector of observations is F = f(X) (ie $F_i = f(x^i)$).

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Since f() in unknown, we make the general assumption that it is the sample path of a Gaussian process $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu(), k(,))$:



(here $\mu(x) = 0$)

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If we remove all the samples that do not interpolate the observations we obtain:



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It can summarized by a mean function and 95% confidence intervals.



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The conditional distribution can be obtained analytically:

By definition, (Y(x), Y(X)) is multivariate normal. Formulas on the conditioning of Gaussian vectors give the distribution of Y(x)|Y(X) = F. It is $\mathcal{N}(m(.), c(.,.))$ with :

$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(x)|Y(X)=F]$$

= $\mu(x) + k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}(F - \mu(X))$
 $c(x, x') = \text{Cov}[Y(x), Y(x')|Y(X)=F]$
= $k(x, x') - k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}k(X, x')$

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Kriging equations (2/2)

The distribution of Y(x)|Y(X) = F is $\mathcal{N}(m(.), c(., .))$ with:

$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}[Y(x)|Y(X)=F]$$

= $\mu(x) + k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}(F - \mu(X))$
 $c(x, x') = Cov[Y(x), Y(x')|Y(X)=F]$
= $k(x, x') - k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}k(X, x')$

- $k(X, X) = [k(x^{i}, x^{j})]$: covariance matrix, Gram matrix in SVM. • $k(x, X) = [k(x, x^{1})] = k(x, x^{n})]$; covariance vector, only
- k(x, X) = [k(x, x¹), ..., k(x, xⁿ)] : covariance vector, only dependance on x beside μ(x).
- It is a Gaussian distribution: gives confidence intervals, can be sampled, this is actually how the previous slides were generated.
- Bayesian: Y(x)|Y(X) = F is the posterior distribution of Y(x) once Y(X) = F is observed.

- A few remarkable properties of GPR models
 - They (can) interpolate the data-points
 - The prediction variance does not depend on the observations
 - The mean predictor does not depend on the variance parameter
 - They (usually) come back to the a priori trend $\mu(x)$ when we are far away from the observations.

(proofs left as exercise)

Changing the kernel has a huge impact on the model:



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This is because changing the kernel means changing the prior on f



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There is no kernel that is intrinsically better... it depends!



The kernel has to be chosen according to the prior belief on the behaviour of the function to study:

- is it continuous, differentiable, how many times?
- is it stationary ?
- is it monotonous, bounded? Cf. [López-Lopera et al., 2018]
- ... (more on this in the kernel design section later)
- Default: constant trend μ (empirical mean or $\hat{\mu}$ from max likelihood [Roustant et al., 2012]) and Matérn 5/2 kernel.

Kriging of noisy data

An important special case, noisy data $F = f(X) + \varepsilon$. Model F with Y(x) + N(x) where $N(x) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, n(., .))$ independent of Y(x). Then,

$$Cov(Y(x^{i}) + N(x^{i}), Y(x^{j}) + N(x^{j})) = k(x^{i}, x^{j}) + n(x^{i}, x^{j})$$
$$Cov(Y(x), Y(x^{i}) + N(x^{i})) = k(x, x^{i})$$

The expressions of GPR with noise become (just apply Gaussian vector conditioning with the above)

$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}[Z(x)|Z(X) + N(X)=F]$$

= $\mu(x) + k(x,X)(k(X,X) + n(X,X))^{-1}(F - \mu(X))$
 $c(x,x') = \text{Cov}[Z(x), Z(x')|Z(X) + N(X)=F]$
= $k(x,x') - k(x,X)(k(X,X) + n(X,X))^{-1}k(X,x')$

Examples of models with observation noise for $n(x, x') = \tau^2 \delta_{x,x'}$:



The values of τ^2 are respectively 0.001, 0.01 and 0.1.

Kriging with noise kernel (nugget) does not interpolate the data.

A small τ^2 (e.g., 10^{-10}) often used to make the covariance matrix invertible (more on regularization of GPs in [Le Riche et al., 2017]).
We have seen previously that the choice of the kernel and its parameters (σ^2 , the θ 's, the trend and other parameters) have a great influence on the model.

In order to choose a prior that is suited to the data at hand, we can:

- minimise the model error
- maximize the model likelihood

We now detail the second approach.

Definition: The **likelihood** of a distribution with a density p_U given observations u^1, \ldots, u^p is:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{p} p_U(u^i)$$

The likelihood measures the adequacy between observations and a distribution.

In the GPR context, we often have only **one observation** of the vector F. The likelihood is then:

$$L = p_{Y(X)}(F) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \det(k(X,X))^{1/2}} \times \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(F - \mu(X))^{\top}k(X,X)^{-1}(F - \mu(X))\right)$$

It is thus possible to maximise L – or log(L) – with respect to the kernel and model parameters in order to find a well suited prior. The likelihood in a multi-modal function in θ 's and must be optimized with global optimization algorithms.

(more details on likelihood such as concentration in, e.g. [Le Riche, 2014])

We have seen that given some observations F = f(X), it is very easy to build lots of models, either by changing the kernel parameters or the kernel itself.

The question is now how to measure the quality of a model to build the best one at the end.

Principle: introduce new data and to compare them to the model prediction.



Let X_t be the test set and $F_t = f(X_t)$ be the associated observations.

The accuracy of the mean can be measured by computing:

Mean Square Error $MSE = mean((F_t - m(X_t))^2)$ A "normalized" criterion $Q_2 = 1 - \frac{\sum(F_t - m(X_t))^2}{\sum(F_t - mean(F_t))^2}$

On the above example we get MSE = 0.038 and $Q_2 = 0.95$.

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The predicted distribution can be tested by normalizing the residuals.

According to the model, $F_t \sim \mathcal{N}(m(X_t), c(X_t, X_t))$.

 $c(X_t, X_t)^{-1/2}(F_t - m(X_t))$ should thus be independents $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$:



Normal Q-Q Plot

When no test set is available, another option is to consider cross validation methods such as leave-one-out.

The steps are:

- 1. build a model based on all observations except one
- 2. compute the model error at this point

This procedure can be repeated for all the design points in order to get a vector of error.

Model to be tested:



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Step 1:



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Step 2:



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Step 3:



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We finally obtain:

MSE = 0.24 and $Q_2 = 0.34$.

We can also look at the residual distribution. For leave-one-out, there is no joint distribution for the residuals so they have to be standardized independently.



Sample code in R

(with 6D Hartman function)

library(DiceKriging)
library(DiceDesign)

X <- lhsDesign(n=80,... dimension=6)\$design

X <- data.frame(X)
y <- apply(X, 1, hartman6)
mlog <- km(design = X,
response = -log(-y))
plot(mlog)</pre>



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- Kernel design
- Two other points of view
- Links with other methods
- Kriging issues

Bibliography

Kernel design: making new from old

Many operations can be applied to psd functions while retaining this property

Kernels can be:

- Summed
 - On the same space $k(x, x') = k_1(x, x') + k_2(x, x')$
 - On the tensor space $k(x, x') = k_1(x_1, x'_1) + k_2(x_2, x'_2)$
- Multiplied
 - On the same space $k(x,x') = k_1(x,x') \times k_2(x,x')$
 - On the tensor space $k(x,x') = k_1(x_1,x_1') \times k_2(x_2,x_2')$
- Composed with a function
 - $k(x, x') = k_1(h(x), h(x'))$

to create new (non stationary) kernels, increase their dimension. All these transformations can be combined. Examples ...

Image: Image:

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Example (The Mauna Loa observatory dataset)

This famous dataset compiles the monthly CO_2 concentration in Hawaii since 1958.



Let's try to predict the concentration for the next 20 years.

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We first consider a squared-exponential kernel with a small and a large length-scale:



The results are terrible!

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GP regression

What happens if we sum both kernels?

$$k(x, x') = k_{se1}(x, x') + k_{se2}(x, x')$$



The model is drastically improved

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We can try the following kernel:

$$k(x,x') = \sigma_0^2 x^2 x'^2 + k_{se1}(x,x') + k_{se2}(x,x') + k_{per}(x,x')$$



Once again, the model is significantly improved.

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Composition with a function

Let k_1 be a kernel over $\mathcal{X}_1 \times \mathcal{X}_1$ and h be an arbitrary function $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{X}_1$, then

$$k(x, x') = k_1(h(x), h(x'))$$

is a kernel over $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}$. proof

$$\sum \sum a_i a_j k(x_i, x_j) = \sum \sum a_i a_j k_1(\underbrace{h(x_i)}_{y_i}, \underbrace{h(x_j)}_{y_j}) \ge 0 \ \Box$$

Remarks:

- k corresponds to the covariance of $Z(x) = Z_1(h(x))$
- This can be seen as a (non-linear) rescaling of the input space. A way to make non-stationary kernels.

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Example

We consider
$$h(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$
 and a Matérn 3/2 kernel $k_1(x, y) = (1 + |x - y|)e^{-|x-y|}$.

We obtain:



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 $k(x, x') = h(x)h(x')k_1(x, x')$ is a valid kernel. Can be seen as $k_1(,) \times$ composition of function and linear kernel. Better, see it as the covariance of $Y(x) = h(x)Y_1(x)$.

- Trajectories of Y() and $Y_1()$ can be obtained from each other: Y(x) | Y(X) = F sampled through $Y_1()$ with $h(x)Y_1(x) | Y_1(X) = F/h(X)$ (component-wise division)
- Boundary conditions: say you want to impose that all trajectories go through Y(x) = 0 for all (infinite number) x's such that a(x) = 0. Use h(x) = d(a(x))



GP regression

from Durrande & Gauthier ENBIS09

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• Symmetric kernel: to have $Y\begin{pmatrix} x_1\\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = Y\begin{pmatrix} x_2\\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$, use

$$k\left(\begin{pmatrix}x_1\\x_2\end{pmatrix},\begin{pmatrix}x_1'\\x_2'\end{pmatrix}\right) = k'\left(\begin{pmatrix}x_1\\x_2\end{pmatrix},\begin{pmatrix}x_1'\\x_2'\end{pmatrix}\right) + k'\left(\begin{pmatrix}x_2\\x_1\end{pmatrix},\begin{pmatrix}x_1'\\x_2'\end{pmatrix}\right)$$

Example

Symmetrical kriging, mean and std. deviation.



Note how the variance is null symmetrically to observations.

from [Ginsbourger, 2009]

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The statistical point of view

Kriging is often introduced as best linear interpolator:

• linear:
$$\widehat{Y}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i(x) Y(x^i) = \lambda(x)^{\top} Y(X)$$

• unbiased:
$$\mathbb{E}\widehat{Y}(x) = \lambda(x)^{\top}\mathbb{E}Y(X) = \mathbb{E}Y(x) = \mu(x)$$

• best: $\lambda(x) = \arg \min_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathbb{E} \| \widehat{Y}(x) - Y(x) \|^2$

This constrained optimization problem is solved in $\lambda(x)$ and the kriging equations are recovered from

•
$$m(x) = \mathbb{E}(\widehat{Y}(x) \mid Y(X) = F)$$

• and $c(x, x') = \mathbb{E}\left((\widehat{Y}(x) - Y(x))(\widehat{Y}(x') - Y(x'))\right)$

but the link with the GP interpretation is typically not discussed,

•
$$\mathbb{E}(Y(x) \mid Y(X) = F) \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbb{E}(\widehat{Y}(x) \mid Y(X) = F)$$

• and $\mathbb{E}((Y(x) - \mu(x))^2 \mid Y(X) = F) \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbb{E}(\widehat{Y}(x) - Y(x))^2$.

The functional point of view (thanks Xavier Bay)

The kernel k(.,.) defines a space of functions, a RKHS, $\mathcal{H}_k \coloneqq \text{span}\{k(x,.), x \in \mathcal{X}\}$ with an inner product^a $\langle .,. \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ such that there is a linear evaluation functional $\langle f(.), k(x,.) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = f(x)$.

^aThe inner product between 2 functions is: $f(.) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha_i k(x_i, .)$, $g(.) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \beta_j k(x'_j, .), \langle f(.), g(.) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \beta_j k(x_i, x'_j)$, which implies the evaluation functional.

Associated to the psd k(.,.) are eigenvalues and eigenfunctions

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} k(.,t)\phi_i(t)dt = \lambda_i\phi_i(.) \quad , \quad \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq 0$$

The $\phi_i(.)$'s form an orthonormal basis of \mathcal{H} w.r.t. the usual scalar product. All this is a generalization of the eigendecomposition of symmetric positive definite matrices to infinite dimensions.

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 \Rightarrow Another way to make kernels (Mercer): choose the $\phi_i(.)$'s,

$$k(x,x') = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i \phi_i(x) \phi_i(x')$$

Degenerated k(.,.) if $N < +\infty$ (the covariance matrix becomes non-invertible beyond N observations) *Proof:* $k(x,.) \in L^2(\mathcal{X}), \ k(x,.) = \sum_i \langle k(x,.), \phi_i(.) \rangle_{L^2} \phi_i(.)$ $= \sum_i \int_{\mathcal{X}} k(x,t) \phi_i(t) dt \phi_i(.) = \sum_i \lambda_i \phi_i(x) \phi_i(.) \square$

Alternative definition of the RKHS: $\mathcal{H} = \{f(.) \in L^2(\mathcal{X}) : f(.) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} c_i \phi_i(.) \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_i^2}{\lambda_i} < +\infty\}$

i.e., impose a sufficiently fast decrease in eigencomponents, a kind of regularization.

Intuition behind the alternative definition of the RKHS, \mathcal{H} :

1. construct an orthonormal basis of $\mathcal H$

The $\phi_i(.)$'s are bi-orthogonal w.r.t. $\langle ., . \rangle_{L^2}$ and $\langle ., . \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$ but need to be normalized in \mathcal{H} : we use the integral equation of slide 61, which gives an intuition that the $\phi_i()$'s belong to \mathcal{H} (think of the integral as a sum). Then,

$$\begin{split} \langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle_{\mathcal{H}} &= \frac{1}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle \int_{\mathcal{X}} k(., t) \phi_i(t) dt, \int_{\mathcal{X}} k(., t') \phi_j(t') dt' \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \phi_i(t) \phi_j(t') k(t, t') dt dt' = \frac{1}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \phi_i(t) \left[\int_{\mathcal{X}} k(t, t') \phi_j(t') dt' \right] dt \\ &= \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle_{L^2} = \frac{\lambda_j}{\lambda_i \lambda_j} \delta_{ij} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \widetilde{\phi}_i() = \sqrt{\lambda_i} \phi_i() \text{ is an orthonormal basis of } \mathcal{H} \end{split}$$

2. f is in the RKHS if its coefficients are a converging series,

$$f() = \sum_{i} c_{i}\phi_{i}() = \sum_{i} \frac{c_{i}}{\sqrt{\lambda_{i}}}\widetilde{\phi}_{i}()$$
$$\|f()\|_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{i} \frac{c_{i}^{2}}{\lambda_{i}} < +\infty \qquad \Box$$

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Trajectories can be generated with (Karhunen-Loève),

$$Y(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sqrt{\lambda_i} \xi_i \phi_i(x)$$
, $\xi_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ i.i.d

 \Rightarrow in general the trajectories are not in the RKHS:

$$N$$
 finite, $Y(x) \in \mathcal{H}$, N infinite, $Y(x) \notin \mathcal{H}$.
Proof: $\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(\sqrt{\lambda_i}\xi_i)^2}{\lambda_i} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \xi_i^2 \xrightarrow{N \nearrow} N \square$

But the GP mean is in the RKHS.

Proof:
$$m(x) = k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}F = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i k(x, x^i) \square$$

GPR and complexity control

If complexity is measured as the norm of the function, the Representer Theorem [Schölkopf et al., 2001] says that m() is the least complex interpolator:

$$m(.) = \begin{cases} \arg \min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \|h\|_{\mathcal{H}}^2 \\ \text{such that } h(x^i) = f(x^i) , i = 1, \dots, n \end{cases}$$

Proof:
$$h = h_k + h'$$
 where $h_k = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i k(x^i, .)$ and $h' \perp h_k$. Then,
 $f(x^i) = \langle k(x^i, .), h_k + h' \rangle = \langle k(x^i, .), \sum_{j=1}^n c_j k(x^j, .) \rangle + \underbrace{0}_{h' \perp h_k} = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j k(x^j, x^i) = k(x^i, X)c$,
c the vector of $n c_i$'s. The problem becomes, $\min_{c \in \mathbb{R}^n, h' \perp \text{span}\{k(x^i, .)\}} c^\top k(X, X)c$ such that
 $k(X, X)c = F$ whose solution is $h' = 0$, $c = k(X, X)^{-1}F$, i.e.,
 $m(x) = h_k(x) = k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}F \square$

A regularization can also be seen in the likelihood in Slide 38 with det(k(X, X)) which must be as small as possible (\Rightarrow large θ 's).

Image: Image:

Content

Introduction: context, why kriging

- 2 Gaussian Process basics
 - Random and Gaussian Processes
 - Covariance functions basics
 - Gaussian process regression
 - Kriging noisy data
 - Parameter estimation
 - Model validation

A few GPR topics beyond basics

- Kernel design
- Two other points of view
- Links with other methods
- Kriging issues

Bibliography

- Universal kriging: account for trend parameters in the GPR equations. Cf. [Le Riche, 2014].
- Multiple outputs: cokriging. Cf. [Garland et al., 2019],[Fricker et al., 2013], with gradient as 2nd output [Laurent et al., 2019].
- Discrete x variables: Cf. [Roustant et al., 2019], mixed variables and optimization [Pelamatti et al., 2019].

Other names, (almost) same equations

$$m(x) = k(x, X)k(X, X)^{-1}F$$
 is ubiquitous

- Bayesian linear regression: the posterior distribution is identical to the GPR equations under conditions on the kernel, cf. [Le Riche, 2014] slide 35 and [Rasmussen and Williams, 2006], slide 20 of [Rosić, 2019].
- Kalman filter, see slide 21 of [Rosić, 2019].
- LS-SVR: same functional form of predictor (sum of kernels centered), but explicit regularization control (*C*, whereas GPR is implicit in likelihood), no uncertainty.
- RBF (Radial Basis Functions) [Broomhead and Lowe, 1988]: same prediction, no uncertainty (hence no likelihood).

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Kriging issues

- Too large n: k(X, X) is n × n and takes O(n³) operations for its inversion ⇒ not directly applicable beyond n = 1000. Solutions: inducing points [Hensman et al., 2013], nested kriging [Rullière et al., 2018].
- k(X,X) is ill-conditioned: regularize it, 3 variants in [Le Riche et al., 2017] (nugget, pseudo-inverse and distribution-wise GP).
- Maximizing the likelihood (for infering the GP parameters) or minimizing the cross-validation error are multi-modal problems in O(d) dimensions: use global optimization algorithms.

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