Challenges for Gaussian processes

Mark van der Wilk

Department of Computing Imperial College London **y**@markvanderwilk
m.vdwilk@imperial.ac.uk

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Methods for Regression in ML

Most tasks in ML are regression! Deep learning is 99% regression!

Remember where GPs excel:

- ▶ are low dimensional (e.g. tens of dimensions rather than 100s),
- ▶ have little data (or data is expensive to obtain),
- are noisy (random fluctuations that obscure the signal),
- require uncertainty estimates.

Today: Where GPs struggle, and why.

Learning objectives

Know how to perform the computations necessary for GPs

- Computing the marginal likelihood
- Computational complexity
- ► Low-rank approximations

Understand the computational and modelling limitations of GPs

- Limitations of stationary kernels
- Limitations of local kernels in high-dimensions

Training a GP: Computations

To train, we need the marginal likelihood and its gradient:

$$\log p(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta) = \text{const} - \frac{1}{2} \log |\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}| - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$
 (1)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta) = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr} \left[\left(\mathbf{K}_{\theta}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{K}_{\theta} - \mathbf{K}_{\theta}^{-1} \right) \frac{\partial \mathbf{K}_{\theta}}{\partial \theta} \right]$$
(2)

 $(...)^{-1}$ and |...| are calculated from a **matrix decomposition**.

- ► Decompositions are expensive
- But make follow-on operations cheap
- ► The correct decomposition helps numerical stability¹
- ► Directly computing the inverse (np.linalg.inv()) is a bad thing to do!

¹ https://nhigham.com/2020/08/04/what-is-numerical-stability/

Eigenvalue decomposition

We can compute the terms using the **eigenvalue decomposition**:

$$\mathbf{Q}\Lambda\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I} \tag{3}$$

$$\log |\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}| = \log |\mathbf{Q} \Lambda \mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}| = 2\log |\mathbf{Q}|^{\mathsf{T}} + \log |\Lambda| = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \lambda_{i} (\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})$$
(4)

$$\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{y}$$
 (5)

Eigenvalue decomposition is mostly applied for theoretical analysis.

Cholesky decomposition

Or alternatively the **Cholesky decomposition**:

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}$$
, where \mathbf{L} is lower triangular. (6)

$$\log |\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}| = \log |\mathbf{L} \mathbf{L}^{\mathsf{T}}| = 2 \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log [\mathbf{L}]_{nn}$$
 (7)

$$\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{K}_{\theta} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{L}^{\mathsf{T}-1}\mathbf{L}^{-1}\mathbf{y}$$
 (8)

Cholesky decomposition is used for **practical implementation**. (For the coursework, all implementations are fine.)

Computational complexity

- 1. Computing kernel matrix $O(N^2)$ time and $O(N^2)$ space
- 2. Eigendecomp and Cholesky are both often quoted to be $O(N^3)$ time.²
- 3. Logdet or inverse given the decomposition are fast
 - Logdet for both are O(N)
 - Inverse is $O(N^2)$

Can we take advantage of structure in the kernel matrix to do better?

²Algorithms do exist with better asymptotic complexity, but they are definitely slower than $O(N^2)$.

Low-rank kernels

For kernel matrices that are low-rank (have some zero eigenvalues), i.e. with $M \ll N$

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \text{where } \mathbf{K} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}, \mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$$
 (9)

we can compute the marginal likelihood more cheaply:³

$$\log |\mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_N| = \log |\sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_N| + \log |\mathbf{I}_M + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{P}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{P}|$$
(10)

$$\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{K} + \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}_{N})^{-1}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\Big(\sigma^{-2}\mathbf{I}_{N} - \sigma^{-2}\mathbf{P}(\sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}_{M} + \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{P})^{-1}\mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}\Big)\mathbf{y}$$
(11)

Can be computed in $O(NM^2 + M^3)$.

³Can be proved by applying the Woodbury Matrix Identity, and the similar Matrix Determinant Lemma.

Decaying eigenvalues

For example, the squared exponential kernel

$$k(x, x') = \sigma_f^2 \exp\left(\frac{|x - x'|^2}{2\ell^2}\right), \qquad \theta = \{\sigma_f, \ell\}$$
 (12)

with 1D inputs i.i.d. from⁴ $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_D^2)$, we have that the eigenvalues of **K** decay exponentially

$$\lambda_m = \sqrt{\frac{2a}{A}} B^m \qquad \text{with } B < 1 \tag{13}$$

$$a^{-1} = 4\sigma_D^2$$
, $b^{-1} = 2\ell^2$, $c = \sqrt{a^2 + 2ab}$, $A = a + b + c$, $B = b/A$

as the number of data $N \to \infty$.

⁴Conditions can be much weaker, but this is easier.

Low-rank approximations

So we know that for large *N* our **K** will be **approximately low-rank**. Can we approximate it with a low-rank matrix?

$$\mathbf{K} = \mathbf{Q} \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_1 & \mathbf{Q}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_1 & \\ & \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Q}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \mathbf{Q}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{Q}_1 \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_1 \mathbf{Q}_1^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathbf{Q}_2 \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_2 \mathbf{Q}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \quad (14)$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{\Lambda}_1 \mathbf{Q}_1^{\mathsf{T}} + \mathbf{Q}_2 \mathbf{A}_2 \mathbf{Q}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \stackrel{\approx}{=} \mathbf{0} \mathbf{P} \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{T}}, \quad \text{with } \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{\Lambda}^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (15)$$

This gives the approximation with the minimal Frobenius norm:

$$\left\| \mathbf{K} - \hat{\mathbf{K}} \right\|_{\mathrm{F}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=M+1}^{N} \lambda_i} \tag{16}$$

Low-rank approximation: Data fit

Starting with the data-fit term:⁵

$$\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} (\hat{\mathbf{K}} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K} - \hat{\mathbf{K}})^{-1} \mathbf{y}$$

$$= \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} (\hat{\mathbf{K}} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y} - \underbrace{\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} (\hat{\mathbf{K}} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})^{-1} (\mathbf{K} - \hat{\mathbf{K}}) (\mathbf{K} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{y}}_{\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } \|\mathbf{K} - \hat{\mathbf{K}}\|_{r} \rightarrow 0}$$
(17)

You can place bounds on the error using knowledge of λ_M (the final included eigenvalue).

⁵Applying the identity $(A + B)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(A + B)^{-1}$.

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Low-rank approximation: Complexity penalty

And finishing with the complexity penalty:

$$\log |\mathbf{K} + \sigma^{2} \mathbf{I}| = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(\lambda_{n}(\mathbf{K}) + \sigma^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{m=1}^{M} \log(\lambda_{m}(\mathbf{K}) + \sigma^{2}) + \sum_{r=M+1}^{N} \log(\underbrace{\lambda_{r}(\mathbf{K}) + \sigma^{2}}_{\approx \sigma^{2}}) \qquad (18)$$

$$\approx \sum_{m=1}^{M} \log(\lambda_{m}(\mathbf{K}) + \sigma^{2}) + \sum_{r=M+1}^{N} \log(\sigma^{2}) \qquad (19)$$

$$=\log\left|\hat{\mathbf{K}}+\sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right|\tag{20}$$

Low-rank approximations overview

- ► Learning with exact matrix decompositions is expensive $O(N^3)$ time, $O(N^2)$ memory
- ► Low-rank kernels improve things when $N \gg M$ $O(NM^2)$ time, O(NM) memory
- ► Low-rank approximations do exist!
- ▶ We used an impractical method (eigendecomposition) to find which low-rank columns to use, with a cost of $O(N^2M)$ time.

For certain approximations, we have 1) fast methods for finding **P**, and 2) proofs for how large *M* needs to be.

E.g. Burt et al [2019] show that for regression and the Squared Exponential kernel, we can get arbitrarily good approximations in

$$O(N(\log N)^{2D}(\log\log N)^2) \tag{21}$$

$$O(N(\log N)^{2D}(\log\log N)^2) = O(N^{1+\epsilon}), \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$
 (22)

Practical constraints and implementation

GPs are slow, but often not even because of asymptotic complexity!

- Memory is often the main bottleneck (storing large matrices).
 This is poorly suited to modern-day hardware (i.e. GPUs)
- ► Decompositions require serial computations. This is poorly suited to modern-day hardware (i.e. GPUs)
- Decompositions need high floating point precision.
 This is poorly suited to modern-day hardware (i.e. GPUs)

There is hope

Approximations can make the computations look more similar to a neural network by

- ► Reduce the size of the matrix decomposition [Titsias, 2009]
- ► Improve data parallelism [Hensman et al, 2013]
- ► Increase reliance on fast matrix-matrix multiplications [Gardner et al, 2018; Wang et al, 2019]
- ► Remove matrix inverses altogether [van der Wilk et al, 2019]

This slide for reference only, not examinable.

Implementation matters!

We have good asymptotic bounds on the computational complexity!

Constants cause slowness ⇒ implementation matters

E.g. *Exact Gaussian Processes on a Million Data Points*, Wang et al [2019] tailors a very good approximation to GPU hardware, with impressive results.

Conclusions on Computational Issues

- Gaussian processes are computationally expensive to train
- ► Low-rank approximations to the kernel matrix **K** do exist
- ► Low-rank approximations improve the asymptotic complexity
- Still need work to optimise algorithms and tailor to modern hardware

Modelling limitations

We know that the generalisation capability of a model depends strongly on the properties of its prior.

Do we really have good priors?

Some criticisms...

Stationary kernels

We have seen many examples of **stationary** kernels:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = k(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}') \tag{23}$$

e.g. the squared exponential.

- Same generalisation characteristic is applied through the entire input space.
- ► See stationary-kernel-failure.ipynb in the inference-plots GitHub repo.

Local kernels in high dimensions

Many kernels depend on some form of the Euclidean distance:

$$k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \sigma_f^2 \exp\left[-\frac{||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'||^2}{2\ell^2}\right]$$
 (24)

This behaves badly in high dimensions (even MNIST, $D = 28^2 = 784$):

- ► Small differences in each dimension add up to large distances

 → low correlation
- Function is allowed to vary independently along each input dimension
- Prior with low lengthscale is too flexible, large lengthscale is too inflexible
- ► No middle ground

Conclusions

Gaussian processes have limitations for both

- ▶ low-dimensional inputs (e.g. stationarity)
- ► high-dimensional inputs (e.g. locality)

We need to either make much better priors, or incorporate GPs into more complex models.

References I

 J. Gardner, G. Pleiss, K. Q. Weinberger, D. Bindel, and A. G. Wilson. Gpytorch: Blackbox matrix-matrix gaussian process inference with gpu acceleration. In S. Bengio, H. Wallach, H. Larochelle, K. Grauman, N. Cesa-Bianchi, and R. Garnett, editors, Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 31, pages 7576–7586. Curran Associates, Inc., 2018.