Gaussian Process in Practice: Scalability and Uncertainty

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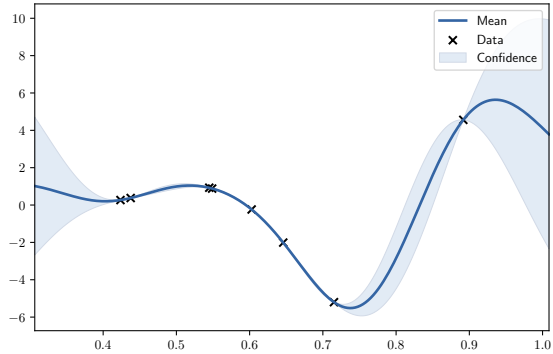
Gaussian process

$$\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \ldots, y_N), \quad \mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{x}_N)^\top$$

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right), \quad p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f}|0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X})\right)$$

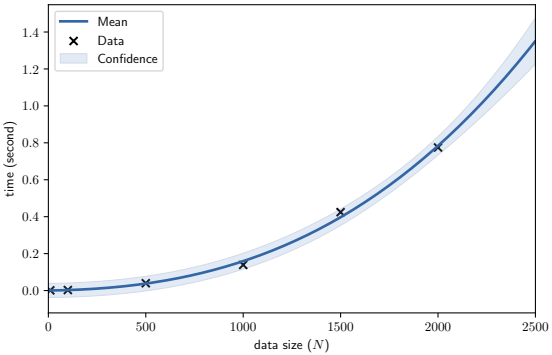


The computational time of GP

- The time complexity of Gaussian process is $O(N^3)$.
- Take 1D regression problem as an example:

GP meta-analysis

The computational cost of Gaussian process is $O(N^3)$.



What if we have 1 million data points?

What about waiting for faster computers?

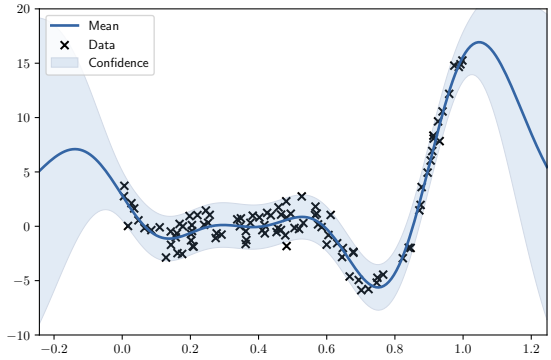
What about parallel computing / GPU?

Is this the end of the story?

- Apart from speeding up the exact computation, there have been a lot of works on approximation of GP inference.
- These methods often target at some specific scenario and provide good approximation for the targeted scenarios.
- Provide an overview about common approximations.

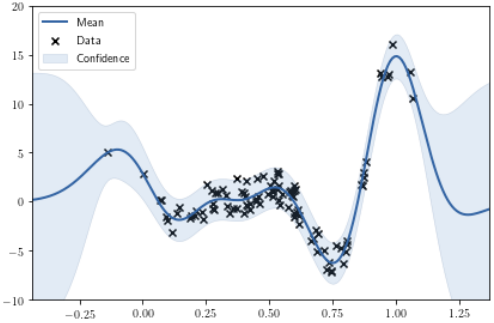
Big data (?)

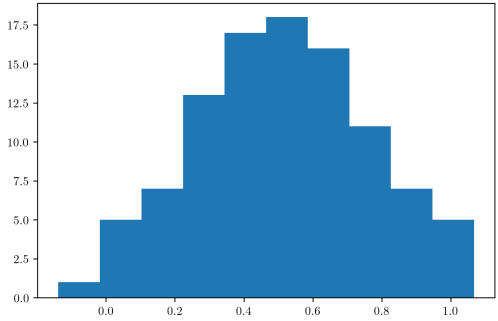
- lots of data $\neq$ complex function
- In real world problems, we often collect a lot of data for modeling relatively simple relations.



Data subsampling?

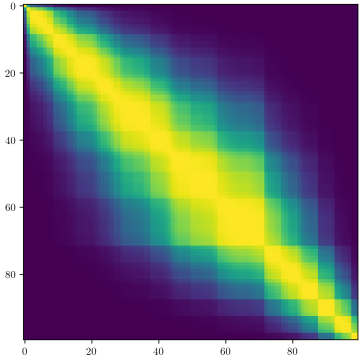
- Real data often do not evenly distributed.
- We tend to get a lot of data on common cases and very few data on rare cases.

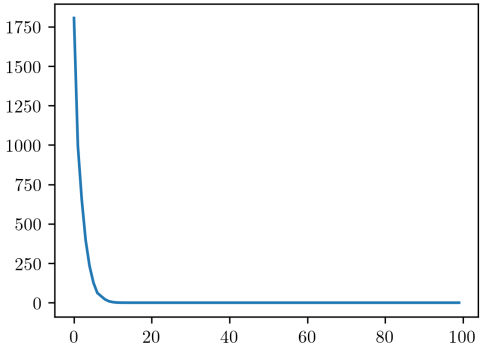




Covariance matrix of redundant data

- With redundant data, the covariance matrix becomes low rank.
- What about low rank approximation?





Low-rank approximation

- Let's recall the log-likelihood of GP:

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|0, \mathbf{K} + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right),$$

  where $\mathbf{K}$ is the covariance matrix computed from $\mathbf{X}$ according to the kernel function $k(\cdot, \cdot)$ and σ^2 is the variance of the Gaussian noise distribution.
- Assume $\mathbf{K}$ to be low rank.
- This leads to Nyström approximation by Williams and Seeger (2001).

Nyström approximation (Williams and Seeger 2001)

- Let's randomly pick a subset from the training data: $\mathbf{Z} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times Q}$.
- Approximate the covariance matrix $\mathbf{K}$ by $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$:

$$\tilde{\mathbf{K}} = \mathbf{K}_z \mathbf{K}_{zz}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_z^\top,$$

  where $\mathbf{K}_z = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})$ and $\mathbf{K}_{zz} = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Z})$.
- Note that $\tilde{\mathbf{K}} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, $\mathbf{K}_z \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$ and $\mathbf{K}_{zz} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times M}$.
- The log-likelihood is approximated by

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \theta) \approx \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|0, \mathbf{K}_z \mathbf{K}_{zz}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_z^\top + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right).$$

Efficient computation using Woodbury formula

- The naive formulation does not bring any computational benefits.

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}} = -\frac{1}{2}\log|2\pi(\tilde{\mathbf{K}} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I})| - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{y}^\top(\tilde{\mathbf{K}} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{y}$$

- Apply the Woodbury formula:

$$(\mathbf{K}_z\mathbf{K}_{zz}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_z^\top + \sigma^2\mathbf{I})^{-1} = \sigma^{-2}\mathbf{I} - \sigma^{-4}\mathbf{K}_z(\mathbf{K}_{zz} + \sigma^{-2}\mathbf{K}_z^\top\mathbf{K}_z)^{-1}\mathbf{K}_z^\top$$

- Note that $(\mathbf{K}_{zz} + \sigma^{-2}\mathbf{K}_z^\top\mathbf{K}_z) \in \mathbb{R}^{M\times M}$.
- The computational complexity reduces to $O(NM^2)$.

Gaussian process with pseudo data (1)

- Snelson and Ghahramani (2006) propose the idea of having pseudo data. This approach is later referred to as Fully Independent Training Conditional (FITC).
- Augment the training data $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$ with pseudo data $\mathbf{u}$ at location $\mathbf{Z}$.

$$p\left(\begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{y}\\ \mathbf{u}\end{bmatrix} | \begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{X}\\ \mathbf{Z}\end{bmatrix}\right) = \mathcal{N}\left(\begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{y}\\ \mathbf{u}\end{bmatrix} | 0, \begin{bmatrix}\mathbf{K}_{ff} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I} & \mathbf{K}_{fu}\\ \mathbf{K}_{fu}^\top & \mathbf{K}_{uu}\end{bmatrix}\right)$$

where $\mathbf{K}_{ff} = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X})$, $\mathbf{K}_{fu} = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})$ and $\mathbf{K}_{uu} = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{Z}, \mathbf{Z})$.

Gaussian process with pseudo data (2)

- Thanks to the marginalization property of Gaussian distribution,

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \int_{\mathbf{u}} p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}).$$

- Further re-arrange the notation:

$$p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{u}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) = p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})$$

where $p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|0, \mathbf{K}_{uu})$,
$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{K}_{ff} - \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right)$.

FITC approximation (1)

- So far, $p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X})$ has not been changed, but there is no speed-up, $\mathbf{K}_{ff} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ in $\mathbf{K}_{ff} - \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}$.
- The FITC approximation assumes

$$\tilde{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{\Lambda} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right),$$

where $\mathbf{\Lambda} = (\mathbf{K}_{ff} - \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top}) \circ \mathbf{I}$.

FITC approximation (2)

- Marginalize $\mathbf{u}$ from the model definition:

$$\tilde{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|0, \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top} + \mathbf{\Lambda} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right)$$

- Woodbury formula can be applied in the sam way as in Nyström approximation:

$$(\mathbf{K}_z\mathbf{K}_{zz}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_z^{\top} + \mathbf{\Lambda} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I})^{-1} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}_z(\mathbf{K}_{zz} + \mathbf{K}_z^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{K}_z)^{-1}\mathbf{K}_z^{\top}\mathbf{A},$$

where $\mathbf{A} = (\mathbf{\Lambda} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I})^{-1}$.

FITC approximation (3)

- FITC allows the pseudo data not being a subset of training data.
- The inducing inputs $\mathbf{Z}$ can be optimized via gradient optimization.
- Like Nyström approximation, when taking all the training data as inducing inputs, the FITC approximation is equivalent to the original GP:

$$\tilde{p}(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|0, \mathbf{K}_{ff} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right)$$

- FITC can be combined easily with expectation propagation (EP).
- (Bui, Yan, and Turner 2017) provides an overview and a nice connection with variational sparse GP.

Model Approximation vs. Approximate Inference

When the exact model/inference is intractable, typically there are two types of approaches:

- Approximate the original model with a simpler one such that inference becomes tractable, like Nyström approximation, FITC.
- Keep the original model but derive an approximate inference method which is often *not* able to return the true answer, like variational inference.

Model Approximation vs. Approximate Inference

A problem with model approximation is that

- when an approximated model requires some tuning, e.g., for hyper-parameters, it is unclear how to improve it based on training data.
- In the case of FITC, we know the model is correct if $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}$, however, optimizing $\mathbf{Z}$ will not necessarily lead to a better location.
- In fact, optimizing $\mathbf{Z}$ can lead to overfitting. (Quiñonero-Candela and Rasmussen 2005)

Variational Sparse Gaussian Process (1)

- (Titsias 2009) introduces a variational approach for sparse GP.
- It follows the same concept of pseudo data:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) = \int_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z})p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})$$

where $p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|0,\mathbf{K}_{uu})$,
$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{K}_{ff} - \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right)$.

Variational Sparse Gaussian Process (2)

- Instead of approximate the model, (Titsias 2009) derives a variational lower bound.
- Normally, a variational lower bound of a marginal likelihood, also known as evidence lower bound (ELBO), looks like

$$\begin{aligned}\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}) &= \log \int_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z}) p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z}) \\ &\geq \int_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} q(\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z}) p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})}{q(\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u})}.\end{aligned}$$

Special Variational Posterior

- (Titsias 2009) defines an unusual variational posterior:

$$q(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u}) = p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})q(\mathbf{u}), \quad \text{where } q(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mu, \Sigma).$$

- Plug it into the lower bound:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{L} &= \int_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})q(\mathbf{u}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})}{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z})q(\mathbf{u})} \\
&= \langle \log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u},\mathbf{X},\mathbf{Z})q(\mathbf{u})} - \mathsf{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{u}) \,\|\, p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})\right) \\
&= \left\langle \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right) \right\rangle_{q(\mathbf{u})} - \mathsf{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{u}) \,\|\, p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{Z})\right)
\end{aligned}$$

Tighten the Bound

- Find the optimal parameters of $q(\mathbf{u})$:

$$\mu^*, \Sigma^* = \arg\max_{\mu,\Sigma} \mathcal{L}(\mu, \Sigma).$$

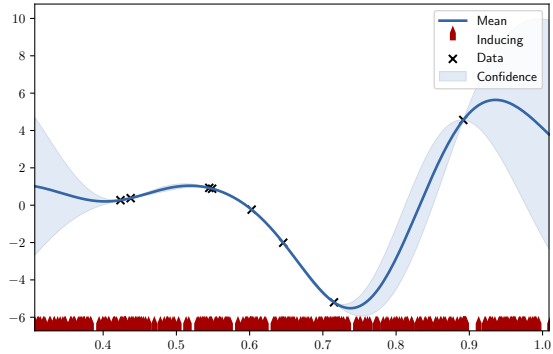
- Make the bound as tight as possible by plugging in μ^* and Σ^*:

$$\mathcal{L} = \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|0, \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top} + \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\text{tr}\left(\mathbf{K}_{ff} - \mathbf{K}_{fu}\mathbf{K}_{uu}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{fu}^{\top}\right).$$

- The overall complexity of the lower bound remains $O(NM^2)$.

Variational sparse GP

- Note that $\mathcal{L}$ is not a valid log-pdf, $\int_{\mathbf{y}} \exp(\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y})) \leq 1$, due to the trace term.
- As inducing points are variational parameters, optimizing the inducing inputs $\mathbf{Z}$ always leads to a better bound.
- The model does not "overfit" with too many inducing points.

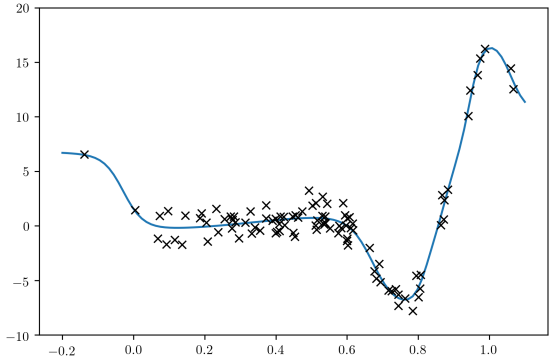


Recap approximation

- Inducing point approximation
- frequency approximation
- stochastic approximation
- distributed approximation
- approximation on matrix inversion (GPyTorch)
- approximation on banded precision matrix

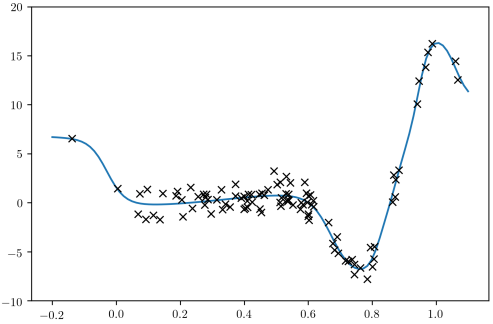
Why GP?

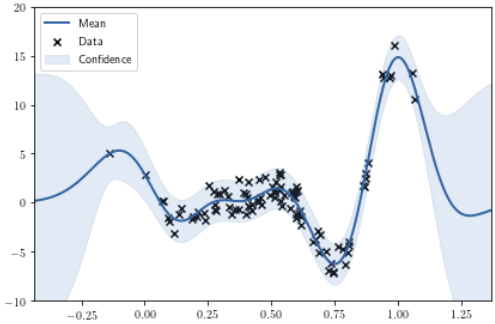
- Why do we spend all these energy on speeding up GP?
- Only for a non-parametric regressor?
- What about fitting a neural network?



What is the difference?

- The error bar!





Can we learn an error bar with NN?

- Of course, we can. Let's add a likelihood to the neural network:

$$p(y|x) = \mathcal{N}\left(y|f_\theta(x), \sigma^2\right)$$

- Now, we have an error bar for our neural network. Are they the same?

Two types of uncertainty

- In our GP regression model, we have two "layers" of distributions:

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}, \sigma^2\mathbf{I}\right), \quad p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f}|0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{X})\right)$$

Sampling from the two types of uncertainty

- The left one is independent and the right one is correlated.

Aleatoric and epistemic uncertainty

- Aleatoric uncertainty: the uncertainty about the noise in individual data points
- Epistemic uncertainty: the uncertainty in the model

$$p(\theta|\mathcal{D}) = \frac{p(\mathcal{D}|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(\mathcal{D})}$$

Automated decision making

- Under the model assumption, the epistemic uncertainty allows us to know what the model *does not* know.
- This enables us to trade-off among different choices with limited information.
- Example: Bayesian optimization

$$x^* = \arg\min_x f(x)$$

Bayesian optimization

A surrogate model guided search

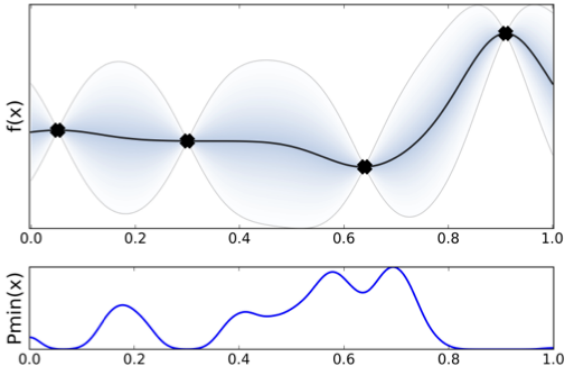


Figure 1: A 1D example

Possibility represented by uncertainty

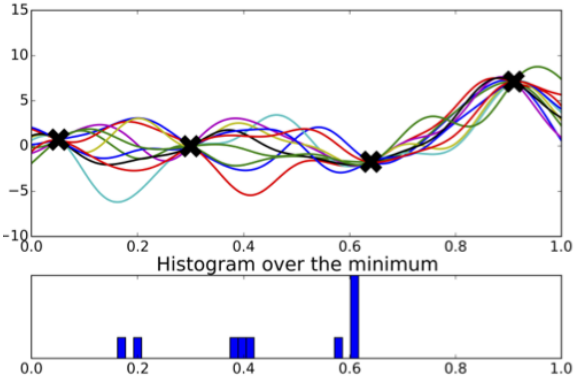


Figure 2: A 1D example

Balance exploitation and exploration

Acquisition function

- Formulate the policy of the exploitation and exploration tradeoff.
- The utility function about improvement:

$$u(f) = \max(0, f' - f)$$

- The expected improvement under our surrogate model:

$$a_{\mathsf{EI}}(x) = \int u(f) p(f|x, \mathcal{D}) \mathrm{d}f$$

A BO algorithm

Example

Challenges in Bayesian Optimization

- dimensionality
- non-stationarity
- under safety constraints
- warm-starting

- Thank you!

References I

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