

Stochastic Linear Algebra for Scalable Gaussian Processes

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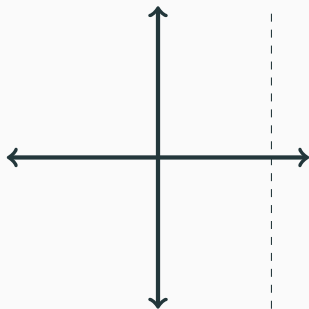
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Collaborators

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Kernel and GP basics

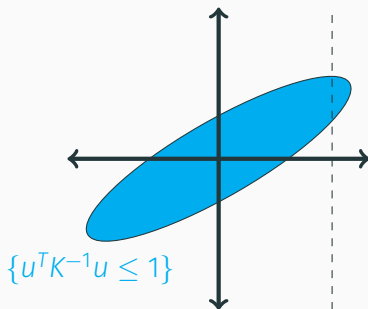
Simple and impossible



Let $u = (u_1, u_2)$. Given u_1 , what is u_2 ?

We need an assumption! Two different standard takes.

Being bounded

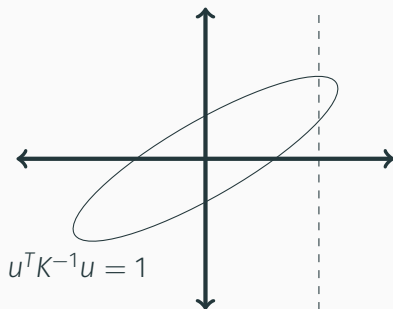


Let $u = (u_1, u_2)$ s.t. $\|u\|_{K^{-1}}^2 \leq 1$. Given u_1 , what is u_2 ?

Optimal recovery: $\|u_2 - w\|_{S^{-1}}^2 \leq 1 - \|u_1\|_{(K_{11})^{-1}}^2$

$$w = K_{21}K_{11}^{-1}u_1$$

$$S = K_{22} - K_{21}K_{11}^{-1}K_{12}$$



Let $U = (U_1, U_2) \sim N(0, K)$. Given $U_1 = u_1$, what is U_2 ?

Posterior distribution: $(U_2|U_1 = u_1) \sim N(w, S)$ where

$$w = K_{21}K_{11}^{-1}u_1$$

$$S = K_{22} - K_{21}K_{11}^{-1}K_{12}$$

Kernel functions four ways

Generalizations where K matrix turns into kernel $k(x, y)$:

- Feature maps: $\phi : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathcal{H}$, $k(x, y) = \langle \phi(x), \phi(y) \rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$.
Approx scheme: $f(x) \approx w^* \phi(x)$ with $\|w\|_{\mathcal{H}}$ minimal.
- Defining a RKHS norm (equiv to $\|w\|_{\mathcal{H}}$).
- Shape functions: $f(x) \approx \sum_j c_j k(x, x_j)$.
Equivalent to feature map picture (“kernel trick”).
- Covariance for Gaussian process.

RBf / kernel ridge regression / GP differ mainly in regularization, interpretation of error analysis.

Common issues: kernel choice and linear algebra.

Today I will use GP language.

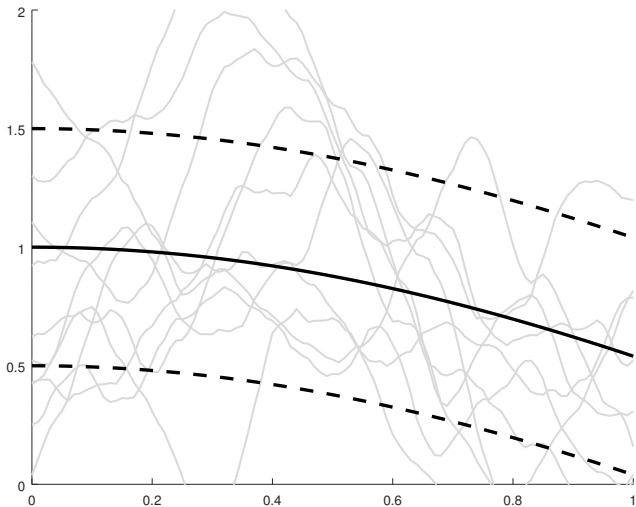
The Big Picture

Gaussian processes (GPs) are

- Key building block for ML and spatio-temporal statistics
- Tightly connected to integral equations, kernel regression
- Straightforward to reason about (just linear algebra)
- But hard to scale to big data (because of dense LA)

Goal today: Make these methods scale!

Basic ingredient: Gaussian Processes (GPs)



Basic ingredient: Gaussian Processes (GPs)

Our favorite continuous distributions over

$$\mathbb{R}: \quad \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2), \quad \mu, \sigma^2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n: \quad \text{Normal}(\mu, C), \quad \mu \in \mathbb{R}^n, C \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

$$\mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}: \quad \text{GP}(\mu, k), \quad \mu: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, k: \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

More technically, define GPs by looking at finite sets of points:

$$\forall X = (x_1, \dots, x_n), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

have $f_X \sim N(\mu_X, K_{XX})$, where

$$f_X \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (f_X)_i \equiv f(x_i)$$

$$\mu_X \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (\mu_X)_i \equiv \mu(x_i)$$

$$K_{XX} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \quad (K_{XX})_{ij} \equiv k(x_i, x_j)$$

When X is unambiguous, we will sometimes just write K .

Basic ingredient: Kernel functions

Call the *kernel* (or *covariance*) function k . Required property:

- **Pos def:** K_{XX} is always positive definite

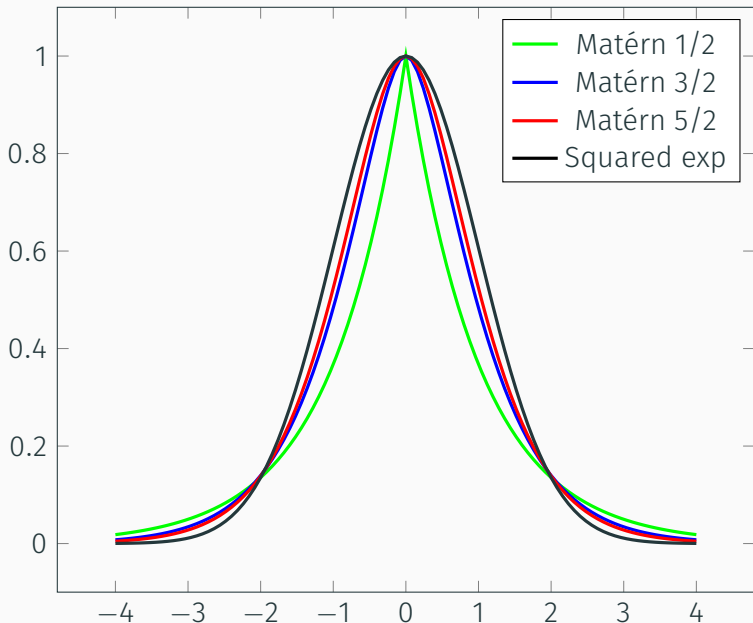
Often desirable:

- **Stationary:** $k(x, y)$ depends only on $x - y$
- **Isotropic:** $k(x, y)$ depends only on x and $\|x - y\|$

Often want both (sloppy notation: $k = k(r)$).

Common examples (e.g. Matérn, SE) also depend on *hyper-parameters* θ — suppressed in notation unless needed.

Matérn and SE kernels



Observations on kernel matrices

Kernel is *chosen by modeler*

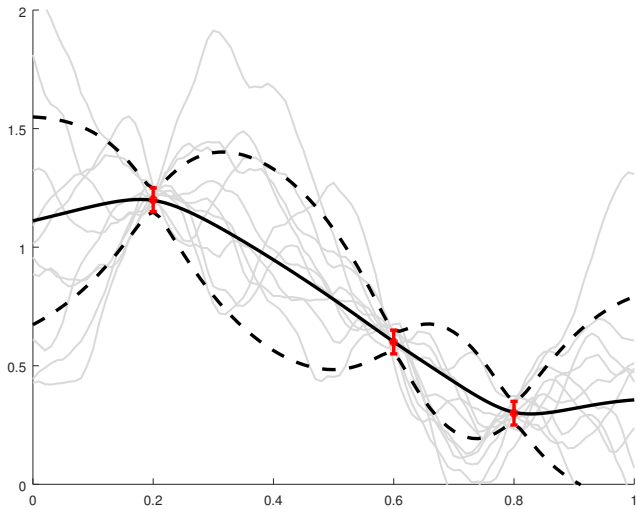
- Choose Matérn / SE for regularity and simplicity
- Rarely have the intuition to pick the “right” kernel
- Common choices are *universal* — can recover anything
 - ... with less data for “good” choice (inductive bias)
- Can combine with DNNs (“deep kernel learning”)

Properties of kernel matrices:

- Positive definite by design, but not well conditioned!
- Weyl: $k(r) \in C^\nu \implies |\lambda_n| = o(n^{-\nu-1/2})$
- SE case: eigenvalues decay (super)exponentially
- Adding $\sigma^2 I$ “wipes out” small eigenvalues

Learning parameters and hyperparameters

Being Bayesian



Being Bayesian

Now consider prior of $f \sim \text{GP}(\mu, k)$, noisy measurements

$$f_X \sim y + \epsilon, \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, W), \quad \text{typically } W = \sigma^2 I$$

Posterior is $f \sim \text{GP}(\mu', k')$ with

$$\begin{aligned} \mu'(x) &= \mu(x) + K_{xx}c & \tilde{K} &= K_{xx} + W \\ k'(x, x') &= K_{xx'} - K_{xx}\tilde{K}^{-1}K_{xx'} & c &= \tilde{K}^{-1}(y - \mu_X) \end{aligned}$$

The expensive bit: solves with \tilde{K} .

Dealing with derivatives

Derivative information \implies multi-output GP:

$$\mu^\nabla(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \mu(x) \\ \partial_x \mu(x) \end{bmatrix}, \quad k^\nabla(x, x') = \begin{bmatrix} k(x, x') & \nabla'_x k(x, x') \\ \partial_x k(x, x') & \partial_{x, x'}^2 k(x, x') \end{bmatrix}$$

Requires a little care, but ideas in this talk generalize.

NB: Other (linear) measurements also allowed – e.g. integrals.

Kernel hyper-parameters

How to estimate *hyper-parameters* θ ?

- Bayesian approach? Expensive...
- Usually just do maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

Likelihood function is same as for a multivariate normal:

$$\ell(\theta|y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\det(2\pi\tilde{K})}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(y - \mu_X)^T \tilde{K}^{-1}(y - \mu_X)\right).$$

Of course, we usually work with *log-likelihood* and derivatives.

Kernel hyper-parameters

How to estimate *hyper-parameters* θ ?

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- Usually just do maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

Log-likelihood function for kernel hypers θ

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta|y) = \mathcal{L}_y + \mathcal{L}_{|K|} - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi)$$

where (again with $c = \tilde{K}^{-1}(y - \mu_X)$)

$$\mathcal{L}_y = -\frac{1}{2}(y - \mu_X)^T c, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_y}{\partial \theta_i} = \frac{1}{2} c^T \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{K}}{\partial \theta_i} \right) c$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{|K|} = -\frac{1}{2} \log \det \tilde{K}, \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{|K|}}{\partial \theta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left(\tilde{K}^{-1} \frac{\partial \tilde{K}}{\partial \theta_i} \right)$$

Learning parameters and hypers: small n

The diagram illustrates the Cholesky decomposition of a symmetric positive definite matrix \tilde{K} . It is represented as the product of a lower triangular matrix L and its transpose L^T . The matrix \tilde{K} is shown as a solid blue square. The matrix L is shown as a square with a blue lower triangular region and a white upper triangular region. The matrix L^T is shown as a square with a white lower triangular region and a blue upper triangular region. The equation is $\tilde{K} = L L^T$.

In an optimization loop:

```
1  L = chol(Ktilde(theta));  
2  c = L' \ (L \ (y - mu));  
3  liky   = -0.5 * ((y - mu)' * c);  
4  likK   = -sum(log(diag(L)));  
5  for i = 1:len(theta)  
6      dliky = 0.5 * (c' * dK(theta, i) * c);  
7      dlikK = -0.5 * trace(L' \ (L \ dk(theta, i)));  
8  end
```

Scalability bottlenecks

Consider n data points

- Straightforward regression: factor \tilde{K} at $O(n^3)$ cost
- Kernel hyper MLE requires multiple $O(n^3)$ ops
 - To compute $\log \det \tilde{K}$ is $O(n^3)$ per step
 - To compute $\text{tr} \left(\tilde{K}^{-1} \frac{\partial \tilde{K}}{\partial \theta_i} \right)$ is $O(n^3)$ per hyper per step

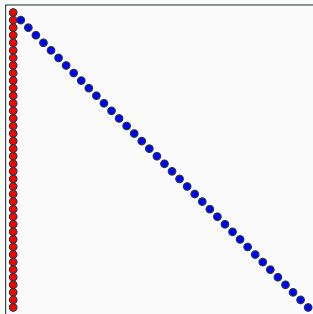
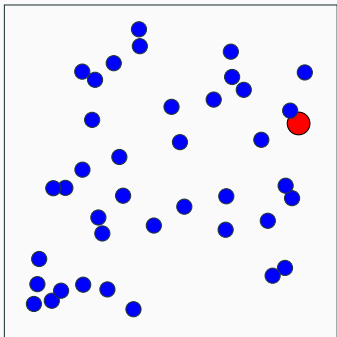
Two possible work-arounds

- Data-sparse factorization methods
- Methods that avoid factorization (e.g. iterative solvers)
 - Q: how to handle determinants and traces?

Scaling GPs: Factorization approach

Simplest data-sparse approach

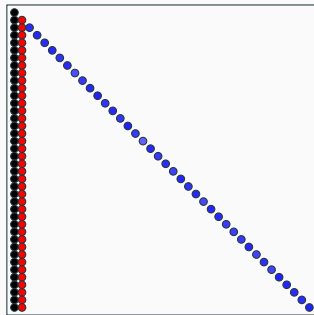
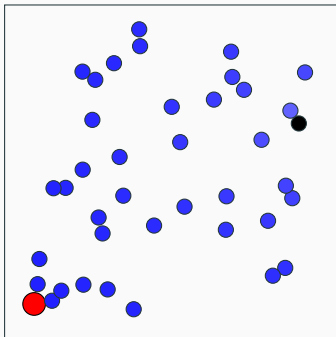
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 1.00e+00

Simplest data-sparse approach

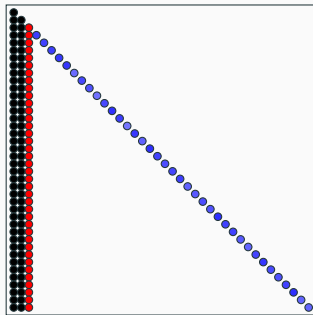
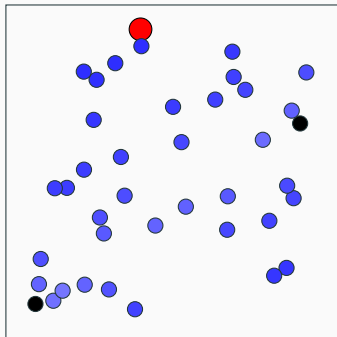
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 6.77e-02

Simplest data-sparse approach

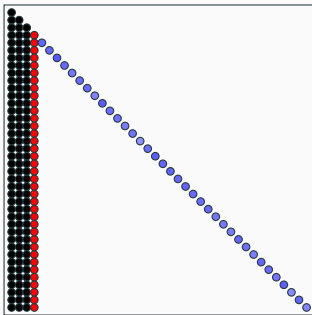
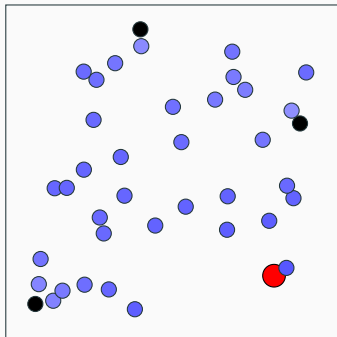
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 1.91e-02

Simplest data-sparse approach

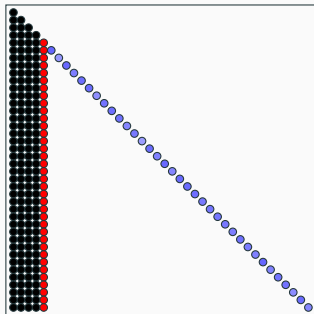
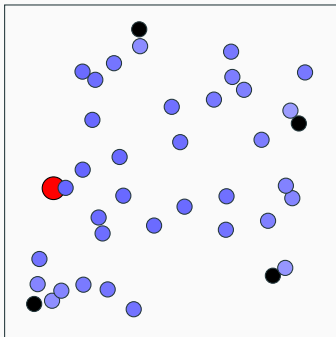
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 5.11e-04

Simplest data-sparse approach

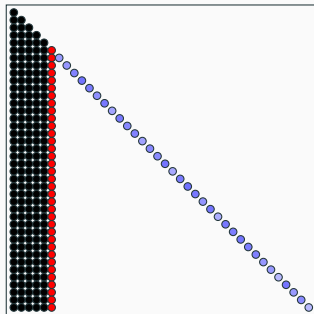
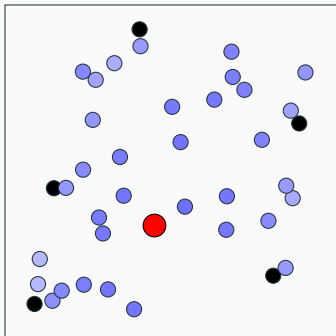
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 1.19e-04

Simplest data-sparse approach

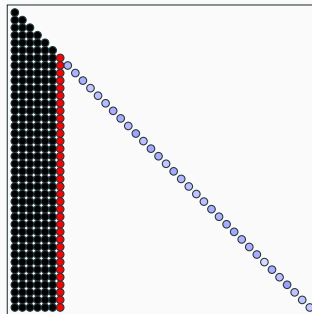
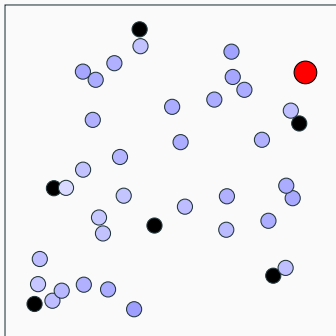
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 4.18e-05

Simplest data-sparse approach

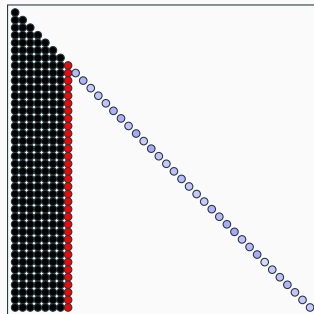
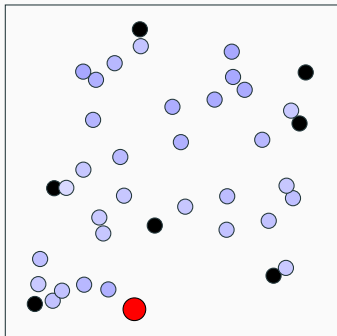
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: $8.54\text{e-}07$

Simplest data-sparse approach

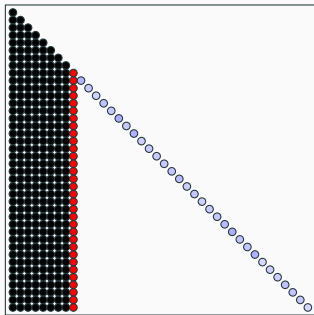
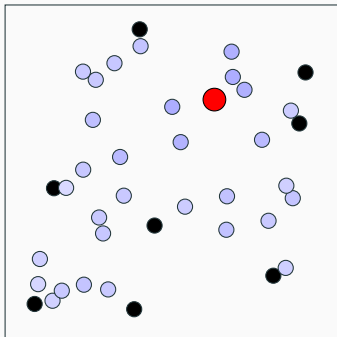
For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 3.58e-07

Simplest data-sparse approach

For K (nearly) low rank: *partial pivoted Cholesky*



Diagonal element: 1.92e-07

Simplest data-sparse approach

Smooth kernel and long length scales: K nearly rank $m \ll n$

- $P(LL^T)P^T$ = partial pivoted Cholesky (select m inducing points); does *not* require forming K_{XX}
- Solve $P(LL^T + \sigma^2 I)P^T c = f_X$ stably by reformulating c as a scaled regularized least squares residual:

$$\text{minimize } \|f_X - Lw\|^2 + \sigma^2 \|w\|^2, \quad c = \sigma^{-2} (f_X - Lw)$$

- Compute $\log \det \tilde{K} = \log \det(L^T L + \sigma^2 I) + 2(n - m) \log \sigma$; similar cheap rearrangement for derivatives.
- Prediction and predictive variance are also cheap.

If K is not low rank, can still use *rank-structured* factorization.

Scaling GPs: Black box approach

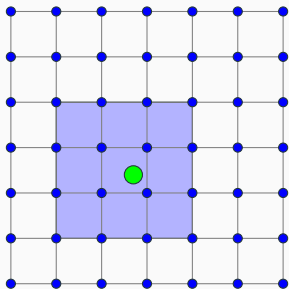
Basic ingredients for “black box” approach

- Fast MVMs with kernel matrices
- Krylov methods for linear solves and matrix functions
- Stochastic estimators: trace, diagonal, and other

Kernel approximations

- Low-rank approximation (via *inducing variables*)
 - Non-smooth kernels, small length scales \implies large rank
 - Only semi-definite
- Sparse approximation
 - OK with SE kernels and short length scales
 - Less good with heavy tails or long length scales
 - May again lose definiteness
- More sophisticated: fast multipole, Fourier transforms
 - Same picture as in integral eq world (FMM, PFFT)
 - Main restriction: low dimensional spaces (2-3D)
- Kernel a model choice — how does approx affect results?

Example: Structured Kernel Interpolation (SKI)



Write $K_{XX} \approx W^T K_{UU} W$ where

- U is a uniform mesh of m points
- K_{UU} has Toeplitz or block Toeplitz structure
- Sparse W interpolates values from X to U

Apply K_{UU} via FFTs in $O(m \log m)$ time.

The power of fast MVMs

With MVMs alone, natural to explore nested *Krylov subspaces*:

$$\mathcal{K}_{d+1}(\tilde{K}, b) = \text{span}\{b, \tilde{K}b, \tilde{K}^2b, \dots, \tilde{K}^db\} = \{p(\tilde{K})b : p \in \mathcal{P}_k\}$$

Lanczos process: *expansion + Gram-Schmidt*

$$\beta_j q_{j+1} = \tilde{K}q_j - \alpha_j q_j - \beta_{j-1} q_{j-1}$$

Lanczos factorization: $\tilde{K}Q_k = Q_k \bar{T}_k$ where

$$Q_k = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_k \end{bmatrix},$$
$$\bar{T}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 & \beta_1 & & & \\ \beta_1 & \alpha_2 & \beta_2 & & \\ & \beta_2 & \alpha_3 & \beta_3 & \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ & & & \beta_{k-1} & \alpha_k \\ \hline & & & & \beta_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} T_k \\ \beta_k e_k^T \end{bmatrix}$$

The power of fast MVMs

Fast MVM with symmetric $\tilde{K} \implies$ try Lanczos!

- Incrementally computes $\tilde{K}Q = QT$ where
 - Q has orthonormal columns
 - Leading k columns span k -dim Krylov space
 - T is tridiagonal
- Building block for
 - Solving linear systems (CG)
 - Approximating eigenvalues
 - Approximating matrix functions: $f(\tilde{K})b$
 - Quadrature vs spectral measure for \tilde{K}
- Fast (three-term recurrence) and elegant...
- ... but not forward stable in finite precision

Function application via Lanczos

A computational kernel: $f(\tilde{K})b$

- Run Lanczos from starting vector $b/\|b\|$
- At n steps in exact arithmetic,

$$f(\tilde{K})b = Qf(T)Q^Tb = \|b\|Qf(T)e_1$$

- Truncate at $k \ll n$ steps, use

$$f(\tilde{K})b \approx \|b\|Q_kf(T_k)e_1$$

- Error analysis hinges on quality of poly approx

$$\min_{f \in P_k} \max_{\lambda \in \Lambda(\tilde{K})} |f(\lambda) - \hat{f}(\lambda)|$$

- Compare: Chebyshev methods just use $[\lambda_{\min}, \lambda_{\max}]$

CG is a special case corresponding to $f(z) = z^{-1}$.

CG solves systems with \tilde{K} ; problem terms are

$$\mathcal{L}_{|K|} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left(\log \tilde{K} \right) \quad \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{|K|}}{\partial \theta_i} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} \left(\tilde{K}^{-1} \frac{\partial \tilde{K}}{\partial \theta_i} \right)$$

Q: How do we parley fast MVMs into trace computations?

Tractable traces

Stochastic trace estimation trick:

- $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ has independent random entries
- $\mathbb{E}[z_i] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[z_i^2] = 1$

Then

$$\mathbb{E}[z^T A z] = \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} \mathbb{E}[z_i z_j] = \text{tr}(A).$$

NB: $\mathbb{E}[z \odot A z] = \text{diag}(A)$.

Standard choices for the probe vector z :

- Hutchinson: $z_i = \pm 1$ with probability 0.5
- Gaussian: $z_i \sim N(0, 1)$

See Avron and Toledo review, JACM 2011.

Putting it together

For each probe vector z until error bars small enough:

- Run Lanczos from $z/\|z\|$
- Use Lanczos to estimate $\tilde{K}^{-1}z$ and $\log(\tilde{K})z$
- Dot products yield estimators:

$$\mathcal{L}_{|K|} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\left[z^T \log(\tilde{K})z\right]$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{|K|}}{\partial \theta_i} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\left[(\tilde{K}^{-1}z)^T \left(\frac{\partial \tilde{K}}{\partial \theta_i} z\right)\right]$$

Cost per probe:

- One Lanczos process
- One matvec per parameter with derivative

Quite effective in practice! And amenable to preconditioning.

Pivoted Cholesky preconditioning

Let $M = P(LL^T + \sigma^t I)P^T \approx \tilde{K}$ with $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, $m \ll n$:

- *Preconditioned* CG: works (implicitly) with $M^{-1}\tilde{K}$
- Note $\log \det \tilde{K} = \log \det M + \log \det M^{-1}\tilde{K}$
- Know how to do fast direct solves and $\log \det$ with M
- All boils down to generalized Lanczos with (\tilde{K}, M)
- Smooth kernels (e.g. SE) and long length scales \implies convergence in few steps

Blocking for performance

Generalized Lanczos per probe vector involves

- One matvec with \tilde{K} per step
- One solve with M per step
- Barrier between steps
- Low *arithmetic intensity* (flops / memory access)
- Limited opportunities for parallelism

Idea: Lanczos for several probes in parallel

- Multiply \tilde{K} or M^{-1} by *panel* of vectors / step
- Improves cache use and parallelism

The whole package

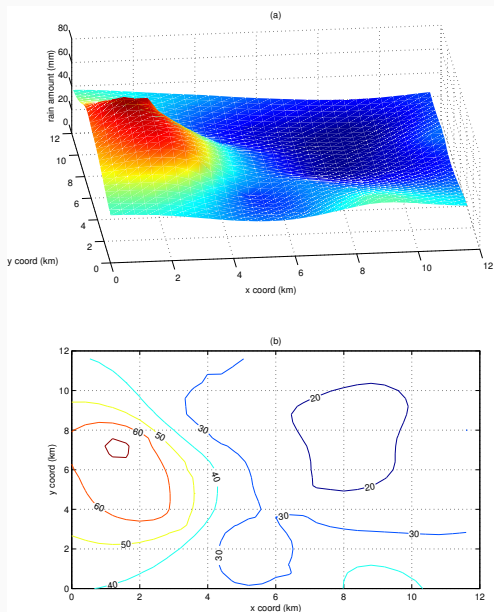
So we have

- Stochastic estimators + Krylov iterations
- Preconditioning to reduce steps to convergence
- Blocking to reduce time per step
- GPU acceleration speeds things up further

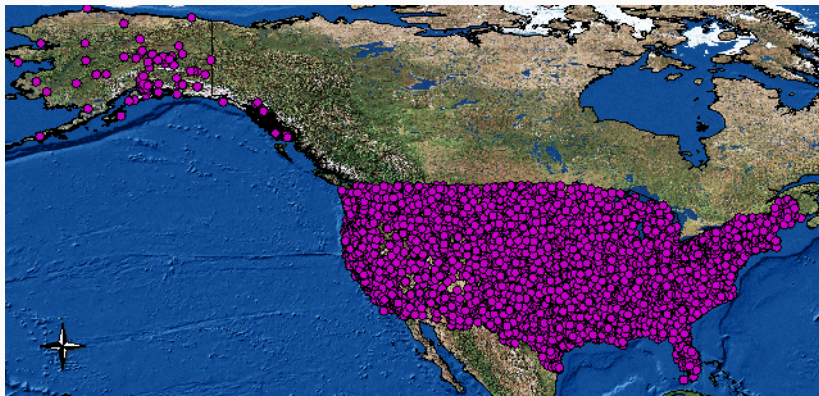
For all the tricks together: <https://gpytorch.ai>

Examples

Example: Rainfall



Example: Rainfall



Map generated by NOAA's National Climatic Data Center, 2007

0 698mi

Example: Rainfall

Method	n	m	MSE	Time [min]
Lanczos	528k	3M	0.613	14.3
Scaled eigenvalues	528k	3M	0.621	15.9
Exact	12k	-	0.903	11.8

- Data: Hourly precipitation data at 5500 weather stations
- Aggregate into daily precipitation
- Total data: 628K entries
- Train on 100K data points, test on remainder
- Use SKI with 100 points per spatial dim, 300 in time
- Comparison: scaled eigenvalues approx, exact solve

NB: This is with an older MATLAB code (GPML), not GPyTorch

Example: Hickory data

Can build other stochastic processes via GPs

- Example: Log-Gaussian Cox process model
 - Models count data (e.g. events in spatial bins)
 - Poisson conditional on intensity function
 - Log intensity drawn from a GP
- Laplace approximation for posterior
- Data set is point pattern of 703 hickory trees in Michigan

Example: Hickory data

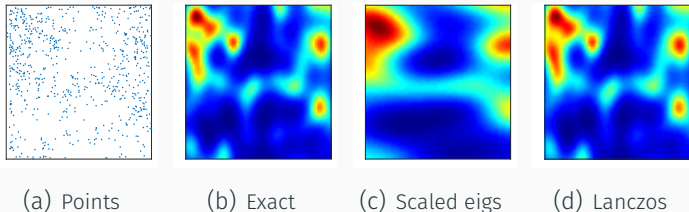
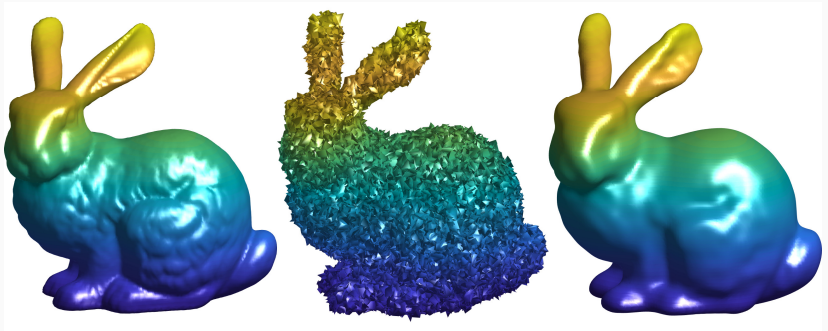


Figure 1: Prediction by different methods on the Hickory dataset.

Method	s_f	ℓ_1	ℓ_2	$-\log p(y \theta)$	Time [s]
Exact	0.696	0.063	0.085	1827.56	465.9
Lanczos	0.693	0.066	0.096	1828.07	21.4
Scaled eigs	0.543	0.237	0.112	1851.69	2.5

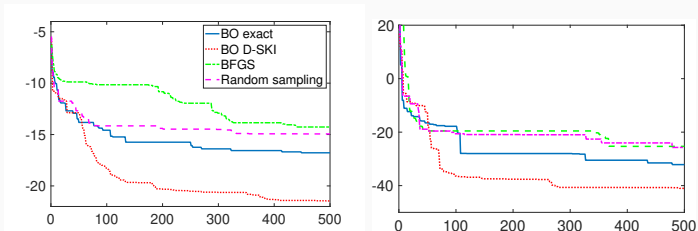
Table 1: Hyper-parameters recovered by different methods

Example: Surface reconstruction



Recovering the Stanford bunny model from 25K noisy normals.

Example: Bayesian optimization



- Learn active subspace of high-dimensional space
- Fit GP model with derivative in subspace
- Optimize expected improvement
 - Need predictive variance (use stochastic estimator)
 - Use low-rank approximation for control variate
- Works surprisingly well — still lots to do!

For more...



Eriksson, Dong, Lee, B., Wilson. Scaling Gaussian Process Regression with Derivatives. NeurIPS 2018.

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