## Bayesian Kernel Methods

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http://mlg.anu.edu.au/~smola/summer2002/

## Overview of Unit 5: Low Rank Methods

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## A Simple Implementation

## Idea

Minimize the negative log-likelihood with the Newton method.

## Basic Algorithm

To minimize a function $\mathcal{L}(f)$ which is twice differentiable in $f$ approximate

$$
\mathcal{L}(f+\Delta f) \approx \mathcal{L}(f)+\Delta f \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(f)+\frac{1}{2} \Delta f^{\top} \mathcal{L}^{\prime \prime}(f) \Delta f
$$

Hence we may approximately compute the minimum via

$$
f \leftarrow f-\left(\mathcal{L}^{\prime \prime}(f)\right)^{-1} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(f)
$$

## Practical Consequence

From $\mathcal{L}(f)=\sum_{i=1}^{m}-\log p\left(y_{i} \mid[K \alpha]_{i}, x_{i}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top} K \alpha$ (with the usual parameterization $f=K \alpha)$ we obtain

$$
\alpha \leftarrow \alpha-\left(K+K^{\top} C^{\prime \prime} K\right)^{-1} K c^{\prime}
$$

where $c_{i}^{\prime}=\partial_{[K \alpha]_{i}}^{1}-\log p\left(y_{i} \mid[K \alpha]_{i}, x_{i}\right)$ and $C_{i i}^{\prime \prime}=\partial_{[K \alpha]_{i}}^{2}-\log p\left(y_{i} \mid[K \alpha]_{i}, x_{i}\right)$.

## Spectrum of Covariance Matrix



## Practical Consequences

## Ill conditioned matrix

Inverting $K$ or products thereof is numerically unstable procedure.

## Observation

Removing the smallest eigenvalues/eigenvectors, we obtain almost the same solution.

## Computational Speed

Smaller matrices mean that we can solve each Newton step more efficiently (in a nutshell, from $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ cost we go to $O\left(m n^{2}\right)$ )

## Prediction

If we could compute the functions corresponding to the eigensystem of $K$ directly, this would speed prediction up from $O(m)$ to $O(n)$.

## Plan (for today)

Replace the PCA with something more efficient, where we only need to compute $n$ covariance functions $k\left(x_{i}, \cdot\right)$.

## Recall: Gaussian Process Regression

## Goal

Find distribution of $y$ at location $x$ (i.e. mean and variance of the normal distribution) by integrating out the normal distribution in the rest.
Solution: Denote by $\mathbf{k}=\left(k\left(x_{1}, x\right), \ldots, k\left(x_{m}, x\right)\right)$. Then we have

$$
\mathbf{E}[y]=\mathbf{k}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \text { and } \operatorname{Var}[y]=k(x, x)+\sigma^{2}-\mathbf{k}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{k}
$$

Modified Solution
If we have to predict at several points it pays to compute $\alpha^{*}:=\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$ and predict the mean of $y$ by $\mathbf{k}^{\top} \alpha$.

Idea: Find $\alpha$ and $\mathbf{k}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{k}$ by minimizing quadratic forms:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha^{*} & =\underset{\alpha}{\operatorname{argmin}}\left[-\mathbf{y}^{\top} K \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(K^{\top} K+\sigma^{2} K\right) \alpha\right] \\
\mathbf{k}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{k} & =2 \cdot \min _{\alpha}\left[-\mathbf{k}^{\top} \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right) \alpha\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Approximating Quadratic Forms

## Theorem

Denote by $K \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ a positive semidefinite matrix, $\mathbf{y}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ and define the two quadratic forms

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(\alpha) & :=-\mathbf{y}^{\top} K \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} K+K^{\top} K\right) \alpha, \\
Q^{*}(\alpha) & :=-\mathbf{y}^{\top} \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}+K\right) \alpha .
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose $Q$ and $Q^{*}$ have minima $Q_{\min }$ and $Q_{\min }^{*}$. Then for all $\alpha, \alpha^{*} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(\alpha) & \geq Q_{\min }
\end{aligned} \geq-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}-\sigma^{2} Q^{*}\left(\alpha^{*}\right), ~=\sigma^{-2}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}-Q(\alpha)\right),
$$

with equalities throughout when $Q(\alpha)=Q_{\min }$ and $Q^{*}\left(\alpha^{*}\right)=Q_{\min }^{*}$.

## Proof

## Minimum of $Q(\alpha)$

The minimum of $Q(\alpha)$ is obtained for $\alpha_{\text {opt }}=\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y}$ (which also minimizes
$Q^{*}$ ), hence

$$
Q_{\min }=-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^{\top} K\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y} \text { and } Q_{\min }^{*}=-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{y}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{y}
$$

Combining $Q$ and $Q^{*}$
This allows us to combine the minima to

$$
Q_{\min }+\sigma^{2} Q_{\min }^{*}=-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2} .
$$

Minimum Property of $Q, Q^{*}$
Since by definition $Q(\alpha) \geq Q_{\min }$ for all $\alpha$ (and likewise $Q^{*}\left(\alpha^{*}\right) \geq Q_{\min }^{*}$ for all $\alpha^{*}$ ), we may solve $Q_{\min }+\sigma^{2} Q_{\min }^{*}$ for either $Q$ or $Q^{*}$ to obtain lower bounds for each of the two quantities.

## Decomposition and Update

## Recall: Objective Functions

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(\alpha) & :=-\mathbf{y}^{\top} K \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} K+K^{\top} K\right) \alpha, \\
Q^{*}(\alpha) & :=-\mathbf{y}^{\top} \alpha+\frac{1}{2} \alpha^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}+K\right) \alpha .
\end{aligned}
$$

Ansatz
Use $P \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ (as an extension matrix) to approximate $\alpha$ by $P \beta$. In particular, $P$ contains only one nonzero entry per column.

Optimal solution in $\beta$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \beta_{\mathrm{opt}}=\left(P^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} K+K^{\top} K\right) P\right)^{-1} P^{\top} K^{\top} \mathbf{y} \\
& \beta_{\mathrm{opt}}^{*}=\left(P^{\top}\left(\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}+K\right) P\right)^{-1} P^{\top} \mathbf{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Decomposition and Update

## Idea

We can obtain the inverse matrices by a rank 1 update at $O(m n)$ cost if we know the inverse for $P_{\text {old }}$ where $P=\left[P_{\text {old }}, \mathbf{e}_{j}\right]$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
P^{\top} K^{\top} \mathbf{y} & =\left[P_{\text {old }}, \mathbf{e}_{i}\right]^{\top} K^{\top} \mathbf{y}=\left(P_{\text {old }}^{\top} K^{\top} \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{k}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{y}\right) \\
P^{\top}\left(K^{\top} K+\sigma^{2} K\right) P & =\left[\begin{array}{cc}
P_{\text {old }}^{\top}\left(K^{\top} K+\sigma^{2} K\right) P_{\text {old }} & P_{\text {old }}^{\top}\left(K^{\top}+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right) \mathbf{k}_{i} \\
\mathbf{k}_{i}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right) P_{\text {old }} & \mathbf{k}_{i}^{\top} \mathbf{k}_{i}+\sigma^{2} K_{i i}
\end{array}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Strategy

Try out several new randomly chosen basis functions at each iteration and pick the one which minimizes the objective function most.

## Performance Guarantee

With high probability we will find one of the best basis functions (e.g., with a subset of 59 we'll get a $95 \%$ guarantee).

## Why do random subsets work?

## Theorem

Given a random variable $\xi$ with cumulative distribution function $F(\xi)$, then for $n$ instances $\xi_{1}, \ldots \xi_{m}$ of $\xi$ and $\xi_{i} \sim \partial_{\xi} F(\xi)$

$$
\zeta:=\max \left\{\xi_{1}, \ldots, \xi_{n}\right\} \text { we have } F(\zeta)=F^{n}(\xi) \text {. }
$$

## Corollary

The cumulative distribution of percentiles $\chi$ (i.e. fraction of samples larger than $\chi$ ) for $\zeta$ is bounded from below by $F(\chi)=\chi^{n}$.

## Practical Consequence

We only need at most $\left[\frac{\log \delta}{\log (1-\eta)}\right\rceil$ samples in order to obtain a sample among the best $\delta$ with $1-\eta$ confidence.
In particular 59 samples suffice to obtain with $95 \%$ probability a sample that is better than $95 \%$ of the rest.

## Comparison with Other Methods

|  | Exact <br> Solution | Conjugate <br> Gradient | Sparse <br> Decomposition | Sparse Greedy <br> Approximation |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Memory | $O\left(m^{2}\right)$ | $O\left(m^{2}\right)$ | $O(n m)$ | $O(n m)$ |
| Initialization | $O\left(m^{3}\right)$ | $O\left(n m^{2}\right)$ | $O\left(n^{2} m\right)$ | $O\left(\kappa n^{2} m\right)$ |
| Prediction: |  |  |  | $O(n)$ |
| Mean | $O(m)$ | $O(m)$ | $O(n)$ | $O\left(n^{2} m\right)$ or $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ |
| Error Bars | $O\left(m^{2}\right)$ | $O\left(n m^{2}\right)$ | $O\left(n^{2} m\right)$ or $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ |  |

## Optimal Rate

The sparse decomposition rates would be optimal but can only be obtained after an NP hard search for the best basis.

Note that $n \ll m$ and that the $n$ used in CG, SD, and SGA methods will differ, with $n_{\mathrm{CG}} \leq n_{\mathrm{SD}} \leq n_{\mathrm{SGA}}$ since the search spaces are more restricted.

## Speed of Convergence



Size of the gap between upper and lower bound of the $\log$ posterior, i.e. $Q(\alpha)$ for the first 4000 samples from the
Abalone dataset. From top to bottom: subsets of size $1,2,5,10,20$, 50, 100, 200.

## Basis Functions and Performance

Generalization Performance of Greedy Gaussian Processes

|  | Generalization Error | Log Posterior |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Optimal Solution | $1.782 \pm 0.33$ | $-1.571 \cdot 10^{5}(1 \pm 0.005)$ |
| Sparse Greedy Approximation | $1.785 \pm 0.32$ | $-1.572 \cdot 10^{5}(1 \pm 0.005)$ |

Kernels needed to minimize the log posterior, depending on the width of the Gaussian kernel $\omega$. Also, number of basis functions required to approximate $\mathbf{k}^{\top}\left(K+\sigma^{2} \mathbf{1}\right)^{-1} \mathbf{k}$ which is needed to compute the error bars.

| Kernel width $2 \omega^{2}$ | 1 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 20 | 50 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Kernels for $\log$-posterior | 373 | 287 | 255 | 257 | 251 | 270 |
| Kernels for error bars | $79 \pm 61$ | $49 \pm 43$ | $26 \pm 27$ | $17 \pm 16$ | $12 \pm 9$ | $8 \pm 5$ |

## Projections on Subspace

## Basic Idea

Even for arbitrary posteriors, using only a subset of coefficients, i.e., $P \beta$ instead of $\alpha$, will allow us to find rather good approximations. We then minimize

$$
-\log \mathcal{L}(P \beta, X, Y)=\sum_{i=1}^{m}-\log p\left(y_{i} \mid x_{i},[K P \beta]_{i}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \beta^{\top} P^{\top} K P \beta
$$

Now we can minimize a smaller optimization problem which costs $O\left(m n^{2}\right)$ (details on this later).

## Parameter Transformation

We now switch to a parameter space in which the GP prior will become diagonal. Without loss of generality assume that $P$ picks the first $n$ coefficients: $P=\left[\begin{array}{l}1 \\ 0\end{array}\right]$. Note: in numerical mathematics this process arises from Gauss elimination of the the rows of the covariance matrix .

## Projections on Subspace, Part II

## Gauss Elimination

Transform $K=\left[\begin{array}{cc}K^{n n} & K^{m n} \\ \left(K^{m n}\right)^{\top} & K^{m m}\end{array}\right]$ into $\tilde{K}=\left[\begin{array}{lc}\mathbf{1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & K^{m m}-\left(K^{m n}\right)^{\top}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-1} K^{m n}\end{array}\right]$
by $\left[\begin{array}{cc}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} & -\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-1} K^{m n} \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right]$.
The term $\tilde{K}:=K^{m m}-\left(K^{m n}\right)^{\top}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-1} K^{m n}$ is often referred to as the Schur complement.

Terms of the Optimization Problem

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Reparameterizing by } \alpha=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}-\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-1} K^{m n} \\
1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
\beta_{n} \\
\beta_{m}
\end{array}\right] \text { yields } \\
& \qquad \alpha^{\top} K \alpha \rightarrow\left\|\beta_{n}\right\|^{2}+\beta_{m}^{\top} \tilde{K} \beta_{m} \text { and } K \alpha \rightarrow\left[\begin{array}{c}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
K^{m n}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\end{array}\right] \beta_{n}+\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\tilde{K}
\end{array}\right] \beta_{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Projections on Subspace, Part III

Gradients of Log-Posterior

$$
\begin{aligned}
\partial_{\beta_{n}}-\log \mathcal{L} & =\left[\begin{array}{r}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
K^{m n}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\end{array}\right] \mathbf{c}^{\prime}+\beta_{n} \\
\partial_{\beta_{m}}-\log \mathcal{L} & =\left[\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{0} \\
\tilde{K}
\end{array}\right] \mathbf{c}^{\prime}+\tilde{K} \beta_{m}
\end{aligned}
$$

Hessian

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \partial_{\beta_{n}}^{2}-\log \mathcal{L}=\left[\begin{array}{r}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
K^{m n}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\end{array}\right]^{\top} \mathbf{c}^{\prime \prime}\left[\begin{array}{r}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
K^{m n}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\end{array}\right]+\mathbf{1} \\
& \partial_{\beta_{m}}^{2}-\log \mathcal{L}=\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\tilde{K}
\end{array}\right]^{\top} \mathbf{c}^{\prime \prime}\left[\begin{array}{c}
0 \\
\tilde{K}
\end{array}\right]+\tilde{K}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $c_{i}=-\log p\left(y_{i} \mid x_{i}, f\left(x_{i}\right)\right.$ and the derivatives are taken wrt. $f\left(x_{i}\right)$.

## Newton Method

## Recall

We have updates $f \leftarrow f-\left(\mathcal{L}^{\prime \prime}(f)\right)^{-1} \mathcal{L}^{\prime}(f)$.
Updates in $\beta_{n}$
To optimize over the subspace spanned by the first $n$ covariance functions, we only need to compute

$$
\beta_{n} \leftarrow \beta_{n}-\left(Z \mathbf{c}^{\prime \prime} Z^{\top}\right)^{-1}\left(Z \mathbf{c}^{\prime}+\beta_{n}\right) \text { where } Z:=\left[\begin{array}{r}
\left(K^{n n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\
K^{m n}\left(K^{n n}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

## Computational Cost

Storage requirement is $O(m n)$ for $Z$ and $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ for $K^{n n}$. CPU cost per inversion is $O\left(m n^{2}\right)$ to compute ( $Z \mathbf{c}^{\prime \prime} Z^{\top}$ ), plus $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ for the inversion. That is, if the space is spanned by a small number of basis functions, the estimation process is linear in the number of observations.

## A Gradient Lemma

## Problem

We need to know when to stop the optimization. For this purpose we use a bound in terms of the gradient of the log likelihood.

## Lemma

Denote by $\mathcal{P}(\beta)$ a differentiable convex functions with $\mathcal{P}(\beta)=\mathcal{L}(\beta)+\frac{1}{2} \beta^{\top} M \beta$. Then we have

$$
\min _{\beta} \mathcal{P}(\beta) \geq \mathcal{P}(\tilde{\beta})-\frac{1}{2}\left[\partial_{\beta} \mathcal{P}(\tilde{\beta})\right]^{\top} M^{-1}\left[\partial_{\beta} \mathcal{P}(\tilde{\beta})\right] .
$$

## Proof Idea

A linear approximation of $\mathcal{L}(\beta)$ at $\mathcal{L}(\tilde{\beta})$ is a lower bound on $\mathcal{L}(\beta)$. This allows us to compute lower bound the minimum of $\mathcal{P}(\beta)$.

## Selection Rule

## Application of the Bound

If the gradients and the Hessian in $\beta$ factorize as in the previous case, we obtain

$$
\Delta[-\log p(\beta \mid X, Y)] \leq \frac{1}{2}\left\|Z \mathbf{c}^{\prime}+\beta_{n}\right\|^{2}+\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}+\beta_{m}\right)^{\top} \tilde{K}\left(\mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}+\beta_{m}\right)
$$

Here $\mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}$ is the part of $\mathbf{c}^{\prime}$ corresponding to $\beta_{m}$.

## Problem

Which basis function to add to $\beta_{n}$ (after the gradient on $\beta_{n}$ vanishes)?

## Approximate Solution

Since $\beta_{m}=0$ we can rewrite the $\beta_{m}$ term as $\frac{1}{2}\left(\mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\top} \tilde{K} \mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}$. Computing this is expensive, the diagonal terms, however, are cheap. We bound

$$
\sqrt{\left(\mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}\right)^{\top} \tilde{K} \mathbf{c}_{m}^{\prime}} \leq \sum_{i=n+1}^{m} \sqrt{\tilde{K}_{i i}}\left|c_{i}^{\prime}\right|
$$

Hence, pivoting for $i$ with large $\tilde{K}_{i i}\left(c_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{2}$ is a good idea.

