

# Distributed Variational Inference in Sparse Gaussian Process Regression and Latent Variable Models

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Gaussian process regression and latent variable models

Why do we want to scale these?

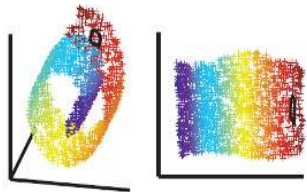
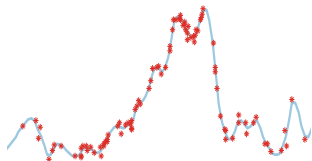
Distributed inference

Utility in scaling-up GPs

New horizons in big data

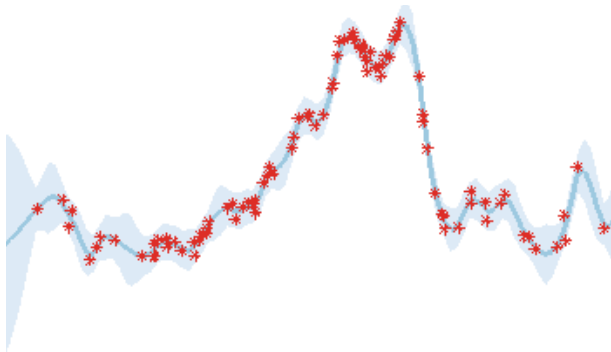
Gaussian processes (GPs) are a powerful tool for probabilistic inference over functions.

- ▶ GP regression captures non-linear functions
  - ▶ Can be seen as an infinite limit of *single layer neural networks*
- ▶ GP latent variable models are an *unsupervised* version of regression, used for manifold learning
  - ▶ Can be seen as a non-linear generalisation of PCA



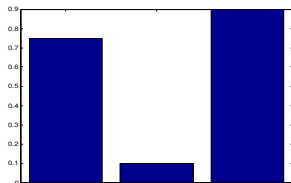
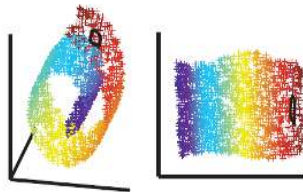
GPs offer:

- ▶ uncertainty estimates,
- ▶ robustness to over-fitting,
- ▶ and principled ways for tuning hyper-parameters



GP latent variable models are used for tasks such as...

- ▶ Dimensionality reduction
- ▶ Face reconstruction
- ▶ Human pose estimation and tracking
- ▶ Matching silhouettes
- ▶ Animation deformation and segmentation
- ▶ WiFi localisation
- ▶ State-of-the-art results for face recognition



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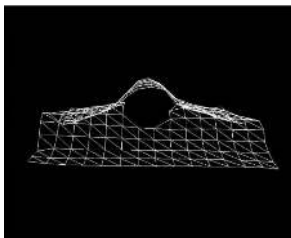
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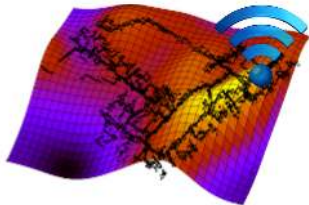
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## Regression setting:

- ▶ Training dataset with  $N$  inputs  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times Q}$  ( $Q$  dimensional)
- ▶ Corresponding  $D$  dimensional outputs  $F_n = \mathbf{f}(X_n)$
- ▶ We place a *Gaussian process prior* over the space of functions

$$\mathbf{f} \sim \mathcal{GP}(\text{mean } \mu(\mathbf{x}), \text{covariance } k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'))$$

- ▶ This implies a joint Gaussian distribution over function values:

$$p(F|X) = \mathcal{N}(F; \mu(X), K), \quad K_{ij} = k(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

- ▶  $Y$  consists of noisy observations, making the functions  $F$  latent:

$$p(Y|F) = \mathcal{N}(Y; F, \beta^{-1} I_n)$$

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## Latent variable models setting:

- ▶ Infer both the inputs, which are now latent, and the latent function mappings at the same time

- ▶ Model identical to regression, with a prior over now latents  $X$

$$X_n \sim \mathcal{N}(X_n; 0, I), \quad F(X_n) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, k(X, X)), \quad Y_n \sim \mathcal{N}(F_n, \beta^{-1}I)$$

- ▶ In approximate inference we look for variational lower bound to:

$$p(Y) = \int p(Y|F)p(F|X)p(X)d(F, X)$$

- ▶ This leads to Gaussian approximation to the posterior over  $X$

$$q(X) : \approx p(X|Y)$$

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- ▶ Naive models are often used with big data (linear regression, ridge regression, random forests, etc.)
- ▶ These don't offer many of the desirable properties of GPs (non-linearity, robustness, uncertainty, etc.)
- ▶ Scaling GP regression and latent variable models allows for *non-linear regression, density estimation, data imputation, dimensionality reduction, etc.* on big datasets

## Problem – time and space complexity

- ▶ Evaluating  $p(Y|X)$  directly is an expensive operation
- ▶ Involves the inversion of the  $n$  by  $n$  matrix  $K$
- ▶ requiring  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  time complexity



## Solution – sparse approximation!

- ▶ A collection of  $M$  “inducing inputs” – a set of points in the same input space with corresponding values in the output space.
- ▶ These summarise the characteristics of the function using less points than the training data.
- ▶ Given the dataset, we want to learn an optimal subset of inducing inputs.
- ▶ Requires  $\mathcal{O}(nm^2 + m^3)$  time complexity.

[Quiñonero-Candela and Rasmussen, 2005]

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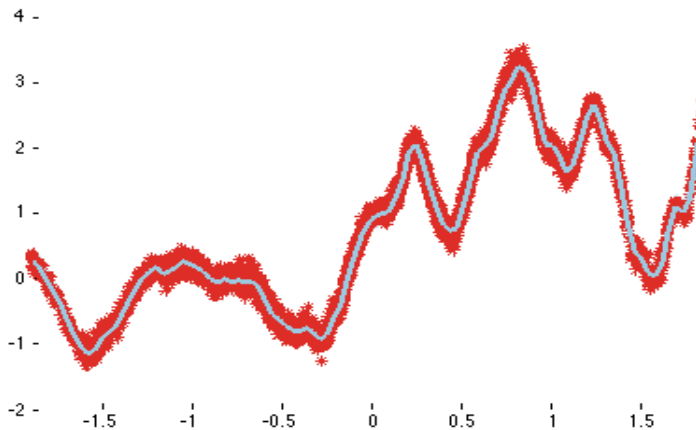
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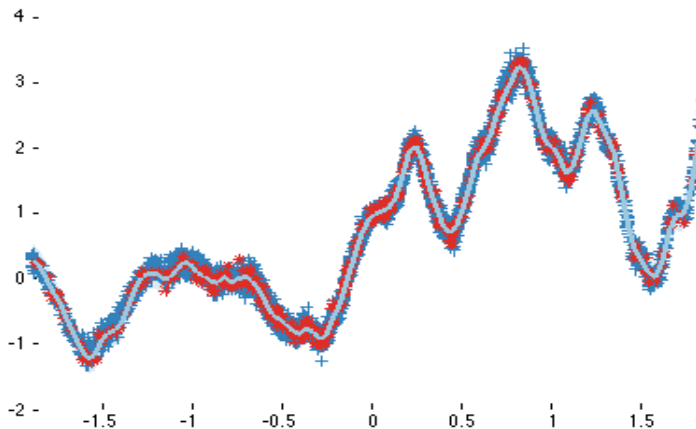
Sparse approximation in pictures:



Regression on 5000 points dataset

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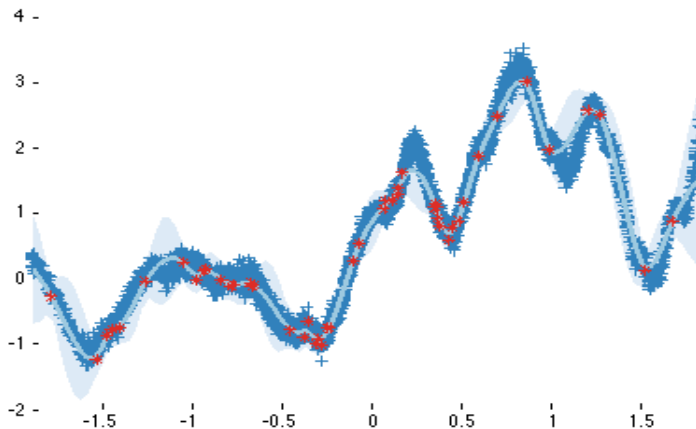
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Regression on 500 points subset (in red)

Sparse approximation in pictures:

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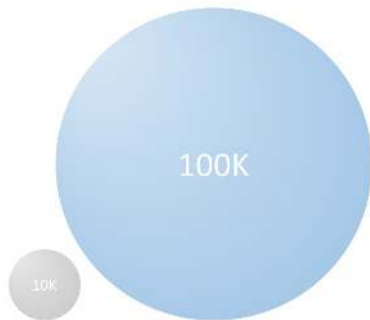


Regression on 50 points subset (in red)

# Distributed Inference in GPs



Usual datasets used with full GPs [ $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ ]

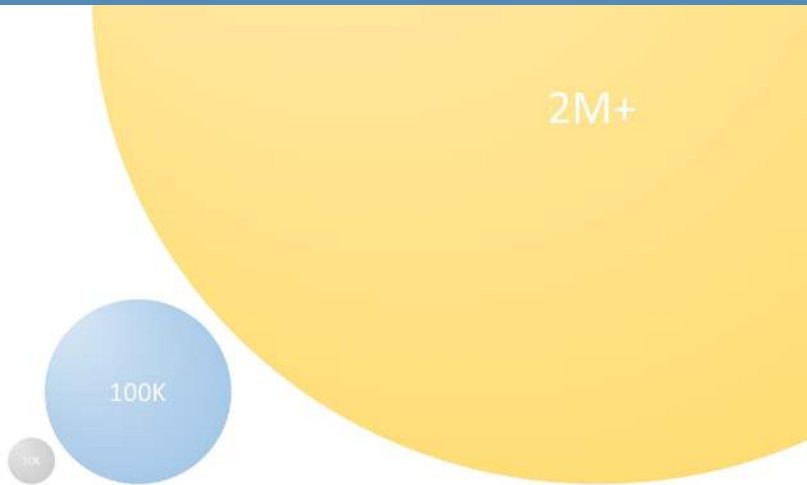


Usual datasets used with Sparse GPs [ $\mathcal{O}(nm^2 + m^3)$ ,  $m \ll n$ ]

# Why do we want distributed inference?



Big data



**Distributed Sparse GPs** –  $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{nm^2}{T} + m^3\right) = \mathcal{O}(n + m^3)$ ,  
for  $T = m^2$  nodes,  $m \ll n$



- ▶ The data points become independent of one another given the inducing inputs
- ▶ We can write the evidence lower bound as:

$$\log p(Y) \geq \sum_{i=1}^n \int q(\mathbf{u}) q(X_i) p(F_i | X_i, \mathbf{u}) \log p(Y_i | F_i) d(F_i, X_i, \mathbf{u}) \\ - KL(q(\mathbf{u}) || p(\mathbf{u})) - KL(q(X) || p(X))$$

with inducing inputs  $\mathbf{u}$  and approximating distributions  $q(\cdot)$

- ▶ We can analytically integrate out  $q(\mathbf{u})$  and still keep a factorised form
- ▶ We can compute each term in the factorised form independently of the others with the *Map-Reduce framework*.

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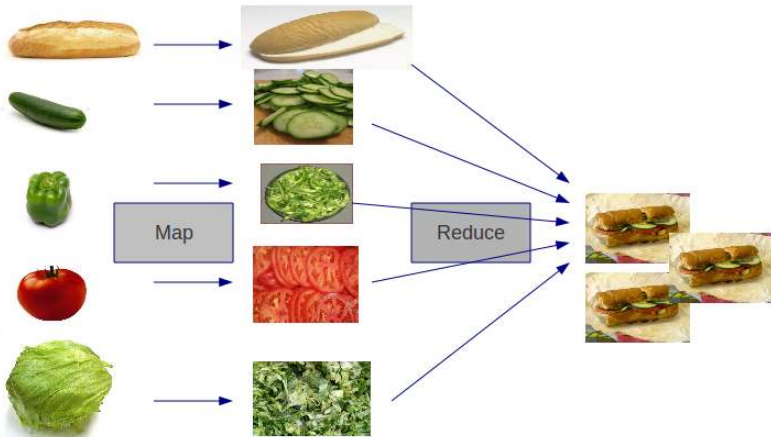
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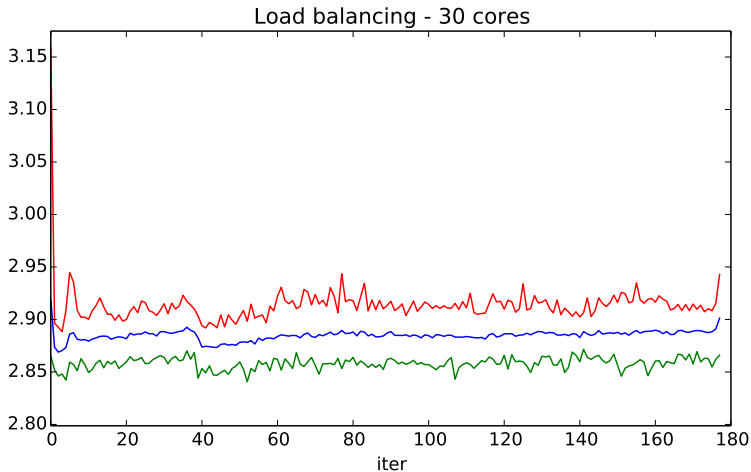


[<http://mohamednabeel.blogspot.co.uk/>]

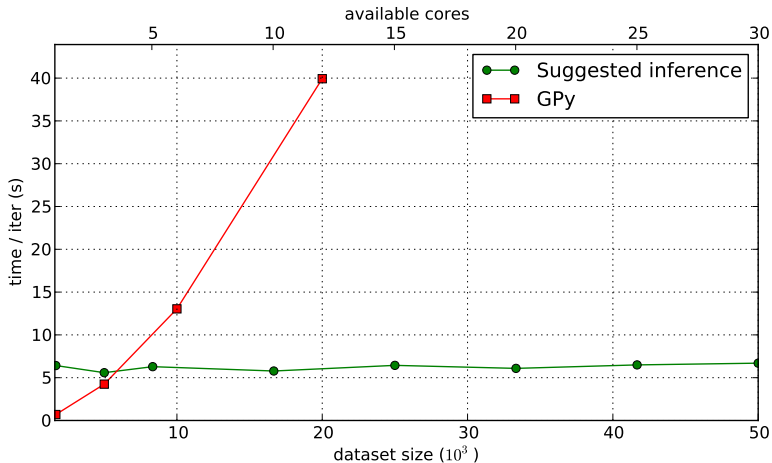
The inference procedure should:

- ▶ distribute the computational load evenly across nodes,
- ▶ scale favourably with the number of nodes,
- ▶ and have low overhead in the global steps.





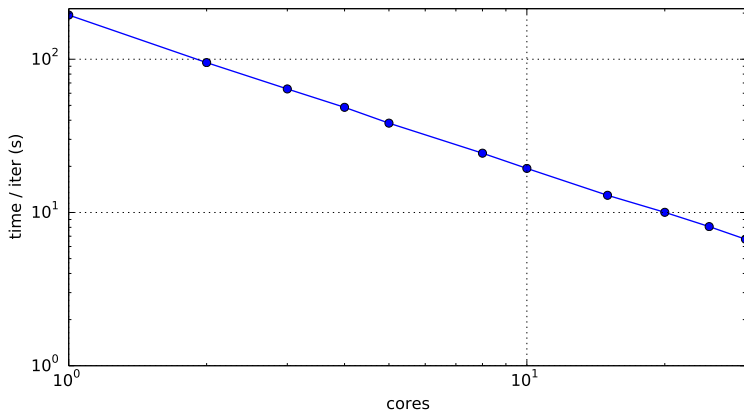
Distribution of computational load



Scalability with the number of nodes



Time scaling with cores



Negligible overhead in the global steps (constant time –  $\mathcal{O}(m^3)$ )

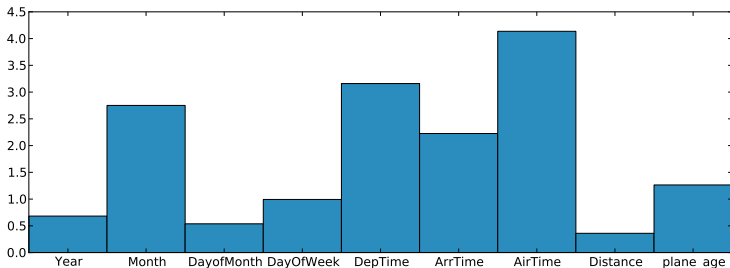
- ▶ We want to predict flight delays from various flight-record characteristics (flight date and time, flight distance, etc.)
- ▶ Can we improve on GP prediction using increasing amounts of data?
- ▶ We use different subset sizes of data: 7K, 70K, and 700K



Size	7K	70K	700K
Dist GP	<b>33.56</b>	<b>33.11</b>	<b>32.95</b>

Root mean square error (RMSE) on flight dataset 7K-700K

- ▶ With more data we can learn better inducing inputs!



ARD parameters for flight 700K

GP latent variable model on the full MNIST dataset (60K, 784 dim.):

- ▶ Used a density model for each digit
- ▶ No pre-processing (the model is non-specialised)
- ▶ Trained the models on 10K and all 60K points

Size	10K	60K
Dist GP	<b>8.98%</b>	<b>5.95%</b>

Classification error on a subset and full MNIST

- ▶ Improvement of 3.03 percentage points
- ▶ Training on the full MNIST dataset took 20 minutes for the longest running model

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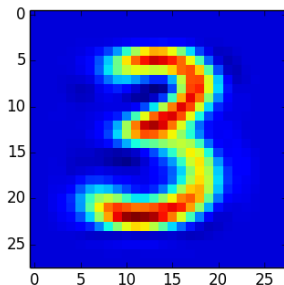
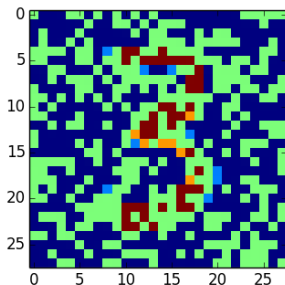
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But these models give us much more...

- ▶ The MNIST trained models are density estimation models
- ▶ They allow us to perform image imputation,
- ▶ Generate new digits by sampling from the posterior, etc.



Furthermore, real big data is complex and non-linear – and naive models may under-perform on it

- ▶ Back to flight regression –
- ▶ Flight 2M dataset compared to common approaches in big data:

Dataset	Mean	Linear	Ridge	RF	Dist GP
Flight 2M	38.92	37.65	37.65	37.33	<b>35.31</b>

RMSE of regression over flight data with 2M points

- ▶ These are just error rates – we can do much more with GPs
  - ▶ robust, offer uncertainty bounds, etc.

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- ▶ We showed that the inference scales well with data and computational resources
- ▶ We demonstrated the utility in scaling GPs to big data
- ▶ The results show that GPs perform better than many common models often used for big data

- ▶ Developing the inference we wrote an introductory tutorial [Gal and van der Wilk, 2014] with detailed derivations
- ▶ The code developed is open source<sup>1</sup>
  - ▶ 300 lines of Python with detailed and documented examples
- ▶ Pointers between equations in the tutorial and in code

## B.2.2 Partial derivatives with respect to $\sigma_j^2$

The partial derivative  $\frac{\partial K_{mm}}{\partial \sigma_j^2}$

$$\left( \frac{\partial K_{mm}}{\partial \sigma_j^2} \right)_{mm'} = \frac{k(Z_m, Z_{m'})}{\sigma_j^2} \quad (\text{B.54})$$

The partial derivative  $\frac{\partial \langle K_{ii}^{X_i} \rangle_{q(X_i)}}{\partial \sigma_j^2}$

$$\frac{\partial \langle K_{ii}^{X_i} \rangle_{q(X_i)}}{\partial \sigma_j^2} = 1 \quad (\text{B.55})$$

```
#####
# grad_sf2 and necessary functions
#####
def dKmm_dsf2(self):
    # Eqn (B.54)
    return self.Kmm / self.hyp.sf**2

def dexp_K_ii_dsf2(self):
    # Eqn (B.55)
    return self.local_N
```

<sup>1</sup>See <https://github.com/markvdw/GParML>