Deep Gaussian Processes

Neil D. Lawrence

#### 30th April 2015 KTH Royal Institute of Technology



Introduction

Deep Gaussian Process Models

Variational Approximation

Samples and Results



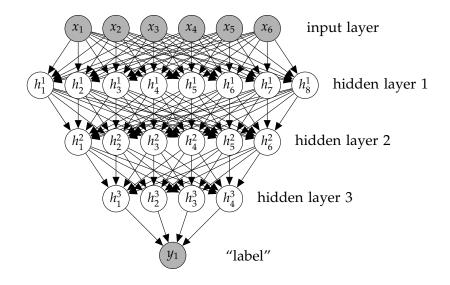
#### Introduction

Deep Gaussian Process Models

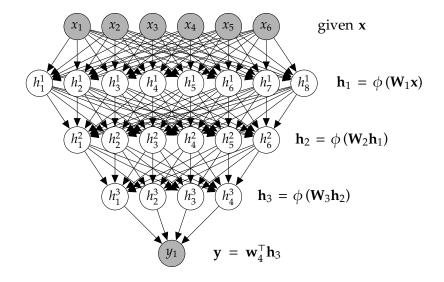
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# Deep Neural Network



## Deep Neural Network



# Mathematically

$$h_1 = \phi (W_1 x)$$
$$h_2 = \phi (W_2 h_1)$$
$$h_3 = \phi (W_3 h_2)$$
$$y = w_4^\top h_3$$

# Overfitting

- Potential problem: if number of nodes in two adjacent layers is big, corresponding W is also very big and there is the potential to overfit.
- Proposed solution: "dropout".
- Alternative solution: parameterize **W** with its SVD.

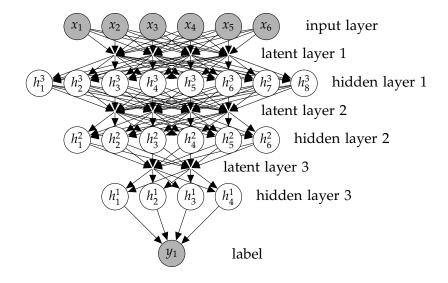
$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^{\top}$$

or

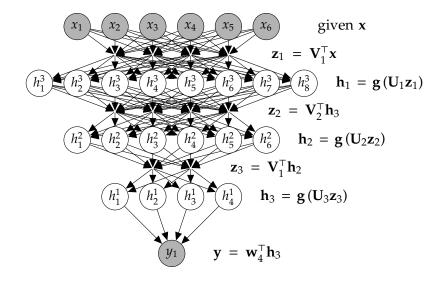
$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{V}^{\top}$$

where if  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{k_1 \times k_2}$  then  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{k_1 \times q}$  and  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{k_2 \times q}$ , i.e. we have a low rank matrix factorization for the weights.

# Deep Neural Network



## Deep Neural Network



# Mathematically

$$\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{V}_1^\top \mathbf{x}$$
  

$$\mathbf{h}_1 = \phi (\mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{z}_1)$$
  

$$\mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{V}_2^\top \mathbf{h}_1$$
  

$$\mathbf{h}_2 = \phi (\mathbf{U}_2 \mathbf{z}_2)$$
  

$$\mathbf{z}_3 = \mathbf{V}_3^\top \mathbf{h}_2$$
  

$$\mathbf{h}_3 = \phi (\mathbf{U}_3 \mathbf{z}_3)$$
  

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}_4^\top \mathbf{h}_3$$

## A Cascade of Neural Networks

$$\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{V}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$$
$$\mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{V}_2^{\mathsf{T}} \phi (\mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{z}_1)$$
$$\mathbf{z}_3 = \mathbf{V}_3^{\mathsf{T}} \phi (\mathbf{U}_2 \mathbf{z}_2)$$
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{w}_4^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z}_3$$

# Replace Each Neural Network with a Gaussian Process

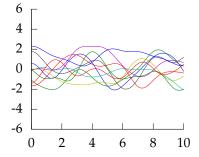
$$z_1 = f(x)$$
  

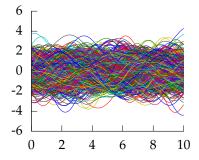
$$z_2 = f(z_1)$$
  

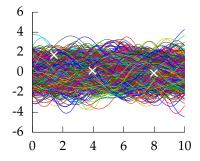
$$z_3 = f(z_2)$$
  

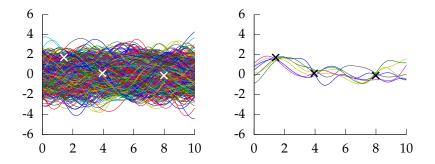
$$y = f(z_3)$$

This is equivalent to Gaussian prior over weights and integrating out all parameters and taking width of each layer to infinity.









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#### Composite *multivariate* function

 $g(x) = f_5(f_4(f_3(f_2(f_1(x)))))$ 

- Gaussian processes give priors over functions.
- Elegant properties:
  - e.g. *Derivatives* of process are also Gaussian distributed (if they exist).
- For particular covariance functions they are 'universal approximators', i.e. all functions can have support under the prior.
- Gaussian derivatives might ring alarm bells.
- E.g. a priori they don't believe in function 'jumps'.

# **Process Composition**



- From a process perspective: *process composition*.
- A (new?) way of constructing more complex *processes* based on simpler components.

*Note*: To retain *Kolmogorov consistency* introduce IBP priors over latent variables in each layer (Zhenwen Dai).

 Duvenaud et al. (2014) Duvenaud et al show that the derivative distribution of the process becomes more *heavy tailed* as number of layers increase.

# Difficulty for Probabilistic Approaches

- Propagate a probability distribution through a non-linear mapping.
- Normalisation of distribution becomes intractable.

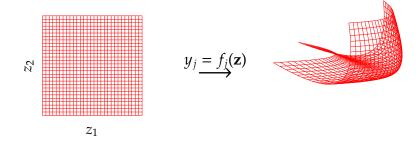


Figure : A three dimensional manifold formed by mapping from a two dimensional space to a three dimensional space.

## Difficulty for Probabilistic Approaches

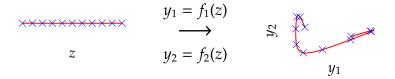


Figure : A string in two dimensions, formed by mapping from one dimension, *z*, line to a two dimensional space,  $[y_1, y_2]$  using nonlinear functions  $f_1(\cdot)$  and  $f_2(\cdot)$ .

### Difficulty for Probabilistic Approaches

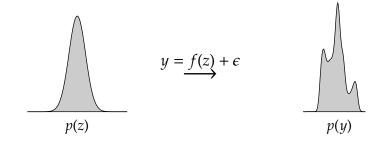


Figure : A Gaussian distribution propagated through a non-linear mapping.  $y_i = f(z_i) + \epsilon_i$ .  $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 0.2^2)$  and  $f(\cdot)$  uses RBF basis, 100 centres between -4 and 4 and  $\ell = 0.1$ . New distribution over *y* (right) is multimodal and difficult to normalize.

(Snelson and Ghahramani, 2006; Quiñonero Candela and Rasmussen, 2005; Lawrence,

2007; Titsias, 2009)

- Complexity of standard GP:
  - $O(n^3)$  in computation.
  - $O(n^2)$  in storage.

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  - *O*(*nm*) in storage.
- Where *m* is user chosen number of *inducing* variables. They give the rank of the resulting covariance.

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- Inducing variables are a compression of the real observations.
- They are like pseudo-data. They can be in space of f or a space that is related through a linear operator (Álvarez et al., 2010) — e.g. a gradient or convolution.
- There are inducing variables associated with each set of hidden variables, z<sup>i</sup>.

- Importantly conditioning on inducing variables renders the likelihood independent across the data.
- It turns out that this allows us to variationally handle uncertainty on the kernel (including the inputs to the kernel).
- It also allows standard scaling approaches: stochastic variational inference Hensman et al. (2013), parallelization Gal et al. (2014) and work by Zhenwen Dai on GPUs to be applied: an *engineering* challenge?

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Model for our data, y.

 $p(\mathbf{y})$ 



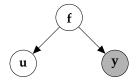
Prior density over **f**. Likelihood relates data, **y**, to **f**.

$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) p(\mathbf{f}) d\mathbf{f}$$

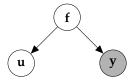


Augment standard model with a set of *m* new inducing variables, **u**.

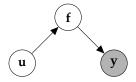
$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f})d\mathbf{f}d\mathbf{u}$$



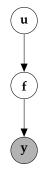
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$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{f}p(\mathbf{u})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}$$



$$p(\mathbf{y}) = \int \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f}) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{f} p(\mathbf{u}) \mathrm{d}\mathbf{u}$$

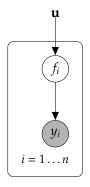


# Variational Compression

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) = \int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{f})p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})\mathrm{d}\mathbf{f}$$



# Variational Compression



$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) = \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|f_i) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{f}$$

Consider the conditional likelihood.

$$p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) = \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|f_i) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{f}$$

#### Consider the conditional log likelihood.

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) = \log \int \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|f_i) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{f}$$

#### Introduce variational lower bound

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) \ge \int q(\mathbf{f}) \log \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} p(y_i|f_i) p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})}{q(\mathbf{f})} d\mathbf{f}$$

# Variational Compression

Set  $q(\mathbf{f}) = p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})$ 

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) \ge \int p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(y_i|f_i) d\mathbf{f}$$

# Variational Compression

Set  $q(\mathbf{f}) = p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})$ 

$$\log p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u}) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left\langle \log p(y_i|f_i) \right\rangle_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})}$$

Difference between bound and truth is KL divergence:

$$\operatorname{KL}(p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) || p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y})) = \int p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}) \log \frac{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})}{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y})} d\mathbf{f}$$

This is why we call it variational compression, information in  ${\boldsymbol{y}}$  is compressed into  ${\boldsymbol{u}}$ 

For Gaussian likelihoods:

$$\left\langle \log p(y_i|f_i) \right\rangle_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})} = -\frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi\sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left( y_i - \left\langle f_i \right\rangle \right)^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left( \left\langle f_i^2 \right\rangle - \left\langle f_i \right\rangle^2 \right)$$

For Gaussian likelihoods:

$$\langle \log p(y_i|f_i) \rangle_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})} = -\frac{1}{2} \log 2\pi\sigma^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - \langle f_i \rangle)^2 - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left( \langle f_i^2 \rangle - \langle f_i \rangle^2 \right)$$
  
Implying:  
$$p(y_i|\mathbf{u}) \ge \exp \left\langle \log c_i \right\rangle \mathcal{N} \left( y_i | \langle f_i \rangle, \sigma^2 \right)$$

#### Gaussian Process Over f and u

Define:

$$q_{i,i} = \operatorname{var}_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})}(f_i) = \left\langle f_i^2 \right\rangle_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})} - \left\langle f_i \right\rangle_{p(f_i|\mathbf{u})}^2$$

We can write:

$$c_i = \exp\left(-\frac{q_{i,i}}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

If joint distribution of  $p(\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{u})$  is Gaussian then:

$$q_{i,i} = k_{i,i} - \mathbf{k}_{i,\mathbf{u}}^{\top} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{k}_{i,\mathbf{u}}$$

 $c_i$  is not a function of **u** but *is* a function of **X**<sub>**u**</sub>.

#### Substitute variational bound into marginal likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{y}) \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \int \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y} | \langle \mathbf{f} \rangle, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}) p(\mathbf{u}) d\mathbf{u}$$

Note that:

$$\langle \mathbf{f} \rangle_{p(\mathbf{f}|\mathbf{u})} = \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{u}$$

is *linearly* dependent on **u**.

Making the marginalization of  $\mathbf{u}$  straightforward. In the Gaussian case:

$$p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}})$$
$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \ge \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \int \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \sigma^{2}\right) \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}\right) d\mathbf{u}$$

Making the marginalization of **u** straightforward. In the Gaussian case:

$$p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}})$$

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f}}\right)$$

Making the marginalization of **u** straightforward. In the Gaussian case:

 $p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}\right)$ 

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Maximize log of the bound to find covariance function parameters,

$$L \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log c_i + \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f},\mathbf{h}}\right)$$

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Making the marginalization of **u** straightforward. In the Gaussian case:

 $p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}})$ 

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f}}\right)$$

Maximize log of the bound to find covariance function parameters,

$$L \approx \log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f}}\right)$$

► If the bound is normalized, the *c*<sup>*i*</sup> terms are removed.

Making the marginalization of **u** straightforward. In the Gaussian case:

 $p(\mathbf{u}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}})$ 

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_i \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{f}}\right)$$

Maximize log of the bound to find covariance function parameters,

- ▶ If the bound is normalized, the *c*<sup>*i*</sup> terms are removed.
- This results in the projected process approximation (Rasmussen and Williams, 2006) or DTC (Quiñonero Candela and Rasmussen, 2005). Proposed by (Smola and Bartlett, 2001; Seeger et al., 2003; Csató and Opper, 2002; Csató, 2002).

## Relationship to Nyström Approximation

 Variational lower bound leads to Nyström style approximation (Williams and Seeger, 2001; Seeger et al., 2003). Relations to subset of regressors (Poggio and Girosi, 1990; Williams et al., 2002).

$$\mathbf{K} \approx \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{fu}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{uu}}^{-1} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{uf}}$$

Has probabilistic interpretation of

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{u} &\sim \mathcal{N}\left(0, \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}}\right) \\ \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{u} &\sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u}, \sigma^{2}\mathbf{I}\right) \end{split}$$

cf

$$\mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N} (0, \alpha \mathbf{I})$$
$$\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w} \sim \mathcal{N} \left( \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{w}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \right)$$
$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N} \left( 0, \alpha \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{\Phi}^\top + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I} \right)$$

 Integrating out Z becomes possible variationally, because Gaussian expectations of

$$\log \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{f} | \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f}\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}}^{-1} \mathbf{u}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}\right)$$

are now *tractable* 

 Relies on computing expectations of K<sub>fu</sub> and K<sub>uf</sub>K<sub>fu</sub> under Gaussian density over Z.

#### Apply Variational Inference Before Integration of **u**

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})d\mathbf{u} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{n} c_{i} \int \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u},\sigma^{2}\right) \mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}\right) d\mathbf{u}$$

#### Apply Variational Inference Before Integration of **u**

$$\int p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{u})p(\mathbf{z})d\mathbf{u}d\mathbf{z} \geq \int q(\mathbf{z})\log\frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n}c_{i}\mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{f},\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}^{-1}\mathbf{u},\sigma^{2}\right)\mathcal{N}\left(\mathbf{u}|\mathbf{0},\mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{u},\mathbf{u}}\right)}{q(\mathbf{z})}d\mathbf{u}$$

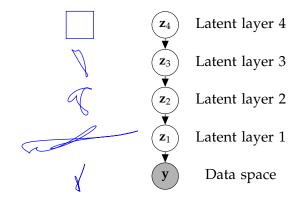
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## Structures for Extracting Information from Data





#### Damianou and Lawrence (2013)

#### **Deep Gaussian Processes**

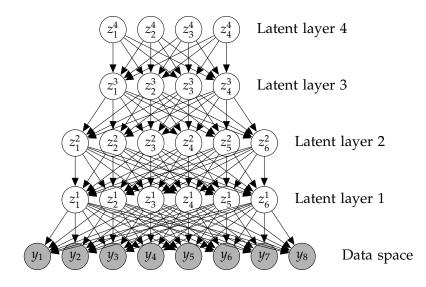
Andreas C. Damianou Neil D. Lawrence Dept. of Computer Science & Sheffield Institute for Translational Neuroscience, University of Sheffield, UK

#### Abstract

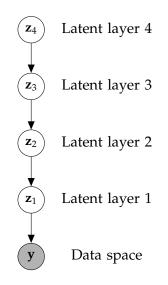
In this paper we introduce deep Gaussian process (GP) models. Deep GPs are a deep belief network based on Gaussian process mappings. The data is modeled as the output of a multivariate GP. The inputs to that Gaussian process are then governed by another GP. A single layer model is equivalent to a standard GP or the GP latent variable model (GP-1VM). We nerform inference in the question as to whether deep structures and the learning of abstract structure can be undertaken in *smaller* data sets. For smaller data sets, questions of generalization arise: to demonstrate such structures are justified it is useful to have an objective measure of the model's applicability.

The traditional approach to deep learning is based around binary latent variables and the restricted Boltzmann machine (RBM) [Hinton, 2010]. Deep hierarchies are constructed by stacking these models and various approximate inference techniques (such as contrastive divergence)

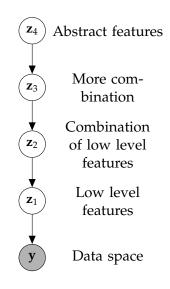
## Deep Models



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## Deep Gaussian Processes

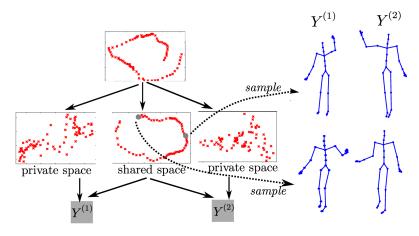


Damianou and Lawrence (2013)

- Deep architectures allow abstraction of features (Bengio, 2009; Hinton and Osindero, 2006; Salakhutdinov and Murray, 2008).
- We use variational approach to stack GP models.

- 'High five' data.
- Model learns structure between two interacting subjects.

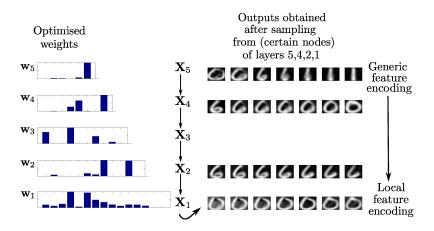
#### Deep hierarchies – motion capture



Deep Gaussian processes

- Are deep hierarchies justified for small data sets?
- We can lower bound the evidence for different depths.
- ► For 150 6s, 0s and 1s from MNIST we found at least 5 layers are required.

#### Deep hierarchies - MNIST



- Deep Gaussian Processes allow unsupervised and supervised deep learning.
- They can be easily adapted to handle multitask learning.
- Data dimensionality turns out to not be a computational bottleneck.
- Variational compression algorithms show promise for scaling these models to *massive* data sets.

#### References I

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