

Deep kernel process and machines

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Neural
Networks



Kernel Methods

shallow

deep

feature

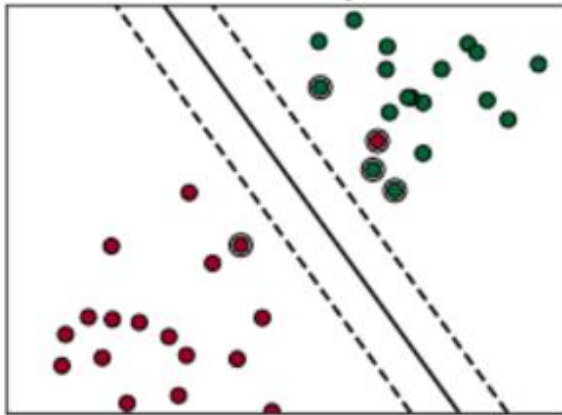
linear
regression

kernel

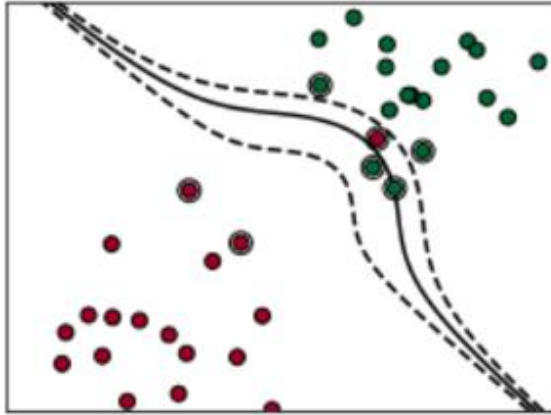
kernel ridge
regression

For good performance, we need to choose a
choosing a good feature extractor / kernel

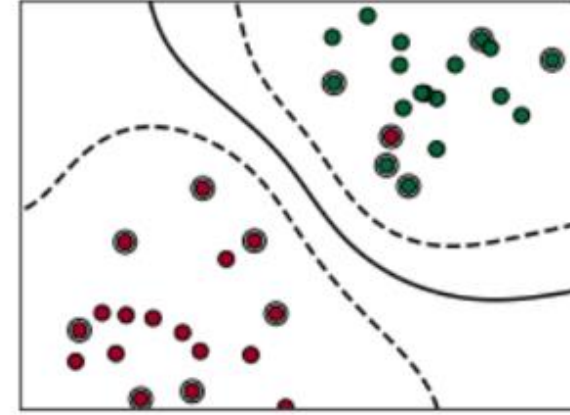
linear kernel



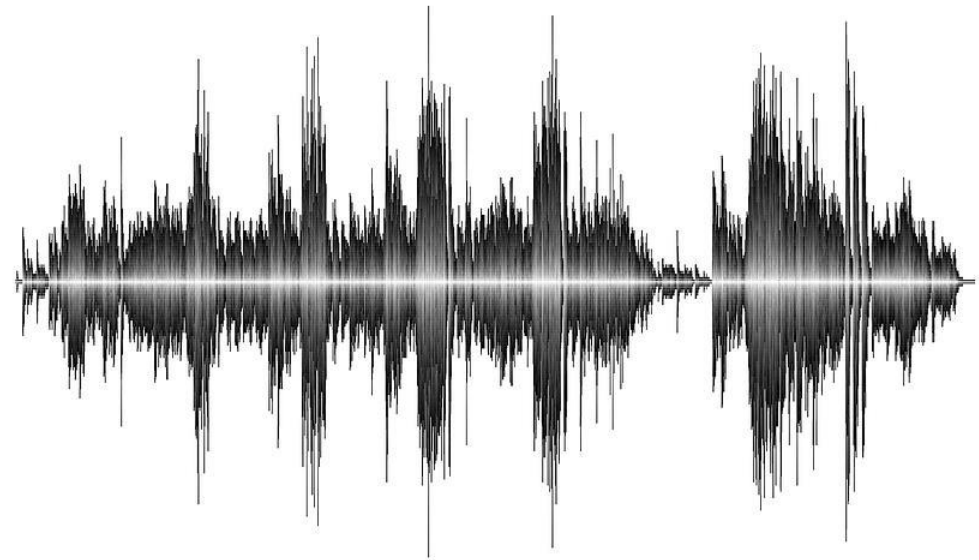
polynomial kernel



RBF kernel



Problem: can't choose a good feature extractor/kernel for complex data like images



shallow

feature

linear
regression

kernel

kernel ridge
regression

shallow

deep

feature

linear
regression



neural net

Multiple layers

Flexibility at each layer

kernel

kernel ridge
regression

shallow

deep

feature

linear
regression



neural net

Multiple layers

Flexibility at each layer

kernel

kernel ridge
regression



**deep kernel
methods**

Summary



Part 1



In deep-kernel methods, we switch to working entirely with Gram matrices

P = number of datapoints
 N_ℓ = width of layer ℓ

What are Gram matrices?

- same shape as the kernel
- Just like the kernel, Gram matrices describe similarities of training points
- Gram matrix = “representation”
- Gram matrices centered on kernel
- Gram matrices have “noise”
- So Gram matrices represent prior variability in representations!

Gram matrices

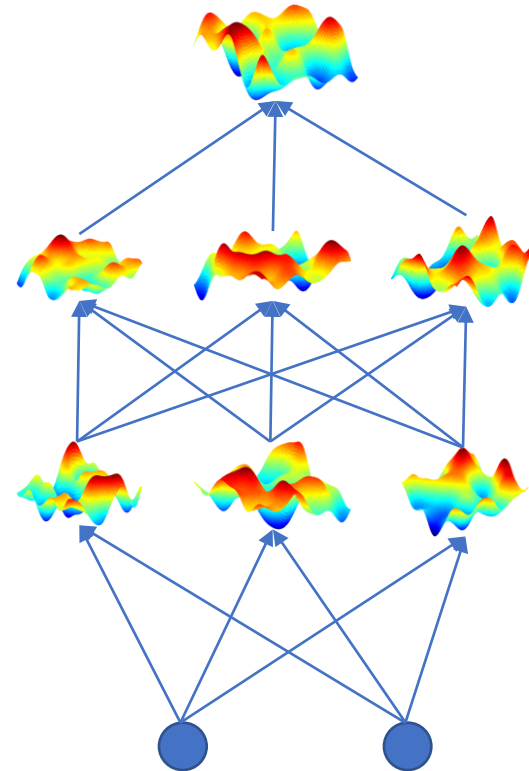
$$\mathbf{G}_2 = \frac{1}{N_2} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{N_2} \mathbf{f}_\lambda^2 (\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2)^T$$

$$E[\mathbf{G}_2] = \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_1)$$

$$\mathbf{G}_1 = \frac{1}{N_1} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{N_1} \mathbf{f}_\lambda^1 (\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1)^T$$

$$E[\mathbf{G}_1] = \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{X})$$

$$\mathbf{G}_0 = \frac{1}{N_0} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{N_0} \mathbf{x}_\lambda \mathbf{x}_\lambda^T$$



DGP

outputs,
 $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_2) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$
 $P \times P$ $P \times N_2$

hiddens,
 $\mathbf{f}_2^\lambda \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_1))$
 $P \times 1$ $P \times P$ $P \times N_1$

hiddens,
 $\mathbf{f}_1^\lambda \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{X}))$
 $P \times 1$ $P \times P$

batch of
input vectors, \mathbf{X}
 $P \times N_X$

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Gram matrices

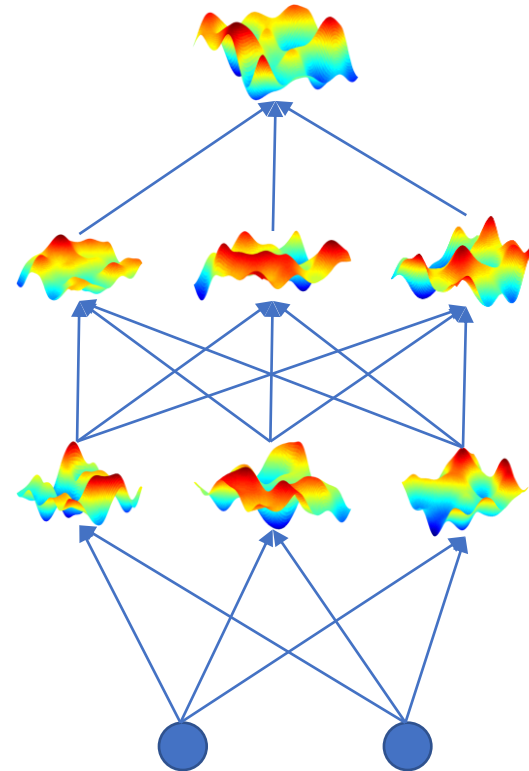
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$$E[\mathbf{G}_1] = \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{X})$$

$$\mathbf{G}_0 = \frac{1}{N_0} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T$$



DGP

outputs,
 $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_2) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$
 $P \times P$ $P \times N_2$

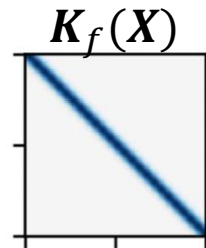
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 $P \times 1$ $P \times P$

batch of
input vectors, \mathbf{X}
 $P \times N_x$

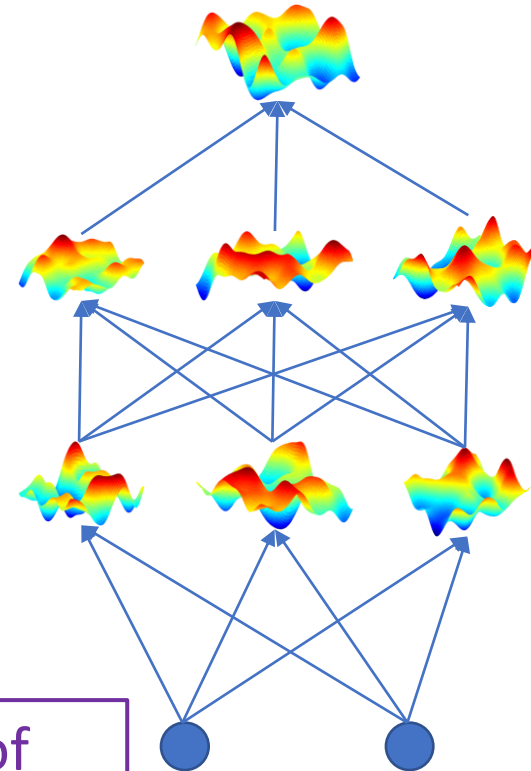
A Gram matrix view on sampling from the prior in a DGPs

P = number of datapoints
 N_ℓ = width of layer ℓ



$$\mathbf{G}_1 = \mathbf{F}_1 \mathbf{F}_1^T / N_1$$

$$\mathbf{G}_2 = \mathbf{F}_2 \mathbf{F}_2^T / N_2$$



DGP

outputs,
 $\mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_2) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$
 $P \times P \quad P \times N_2$

hiddens,
 $\mathbf{f}_2^\lambda \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_1))$
 $P \times 1 \quad P \times P \quad P \times N_1$

hiddens,
 $\mathbf{f}_1^\lambda \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{X}))$
 $P \times 1 \quad P \times P$

batch of
input vectors, \mathbf{X}
 $P \times N_X$

So can we write the DGP prior entirely in terms of Gram matrices? Yes! But we need two tricks.

Trick 1: most kernels of interest can be computed from the Gram matrix

- True for e.g. arccos kernels used in infinite NNs (Cho and Saul 2009)
- Also true for standard GP kernels that only depend on distance between datapoints i and j , because we can recover distance from the Gram matrix, (Duvenaud et al. 2014)

$$\begin{aligned} R_{ij}(\mathbf{G}) &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N (F_{i\lambda} - F_{j\lambda})^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{\lambda=1}^N ((F_{i\lambda})^2 - 2F_{i\lambda}F_{j\lambda} + (F_{j\lambda})^2) \\ &= G_{ii} - 2G_{ij} + G_{jj} \end{aligned}$$

- Overall:

$$\mathbf{K}_f(\mathbf{F}_\ell) = \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_\ell)$$

Trick 2: Gram matrices are Wishart distributed

To get next Gram matrix, we first sample a bunch of features,

$$\mathbf{F}_\ell \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1}))$$

And then compute the Gram matrix

$$\mathbf{G}_\ell = \frac{1}{N_\ell} \mathbf{F}_\ell \mathbf{F}_\ell^T$$

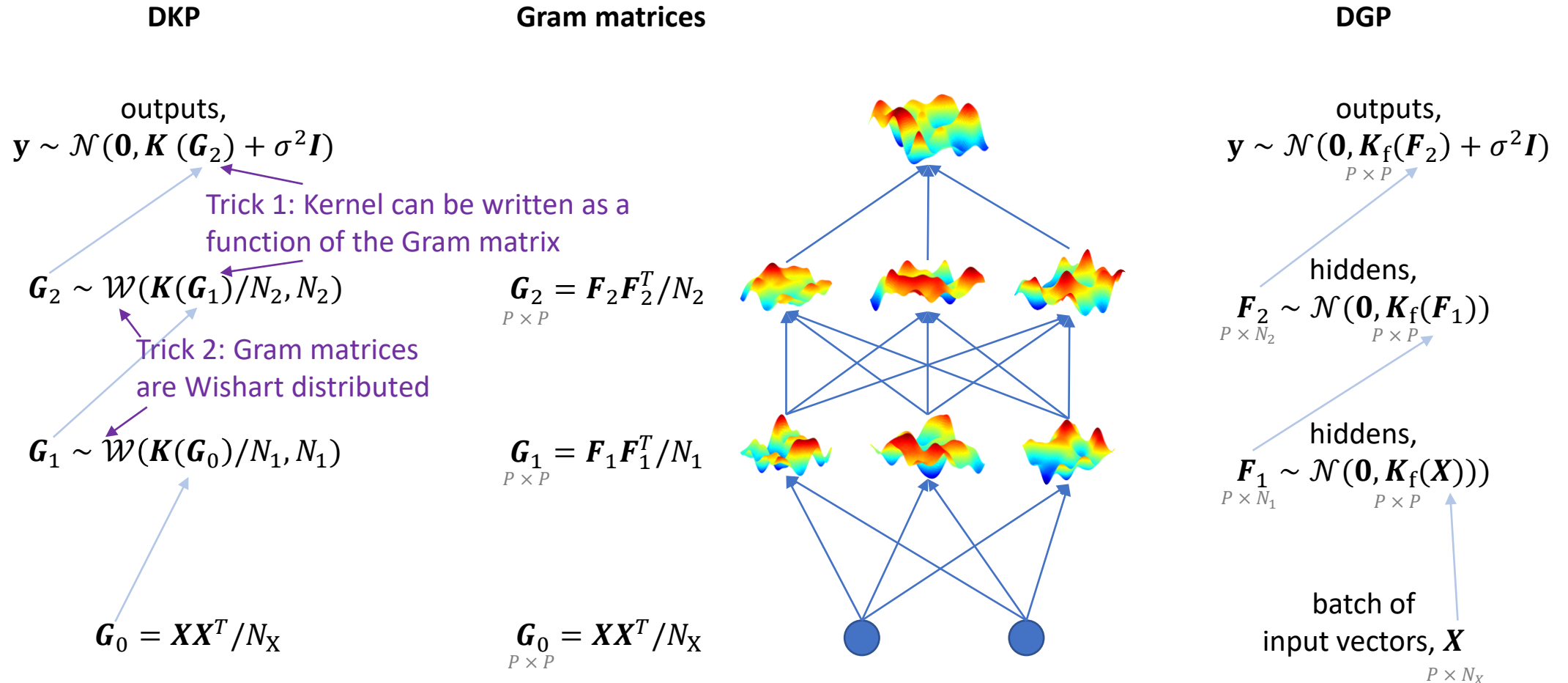
But this exactly matches the definition of the Wishart distribution!

$$\mathbf{G}_\ell \sim \mathcal{W}(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})/N_\ell, N_\ell)$$

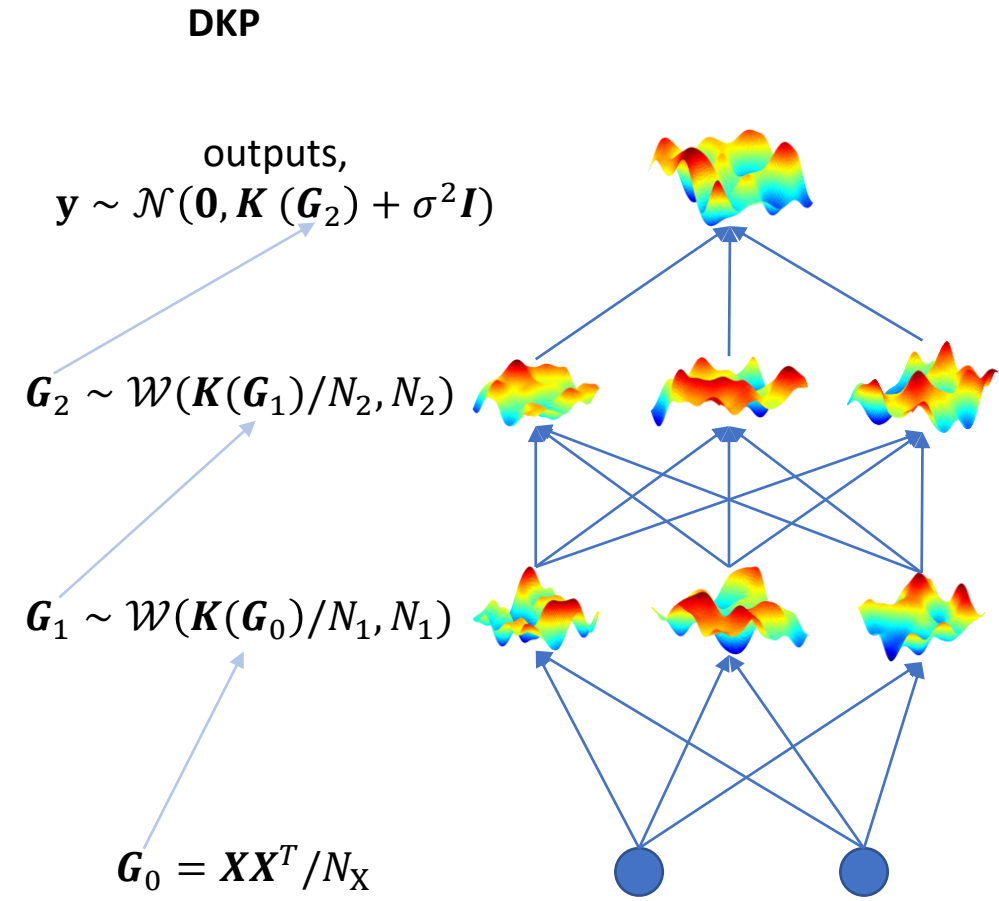
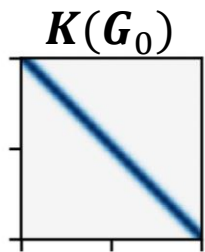
(e.g. see Wikipedia for pdf, moments etc.)

In deep-kernel methods, we switch to working entirely with Gram matrices

P = number of datapoints
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Sampling the prior in the kernelized DGP



Developing practical methods + our results

We developed:

- Two processes: “deep Wishart process” and “deep *inverse* Wishart process”
- VI with priors + approximate posteriors over Gram matrices, *not* features.
- a bunch of approximate posteriors (e.g. Q_{GW})

	Dataset	DGP	Q_{GW}	DWP Q_{A-GW}	Q_{AB-GW}
	BOSTON	-2.43 ± 0.04	-2.38 ± 0.04	-2.39 ± 0.05	-2.38 ± 0.04
	CONCRETE	-3.13 ± 0.02	-3.13 ± 0.02	-3.07 ± 0.02	-3.08 ± 0.02
	ENERGY	-0.71 ± 0.03	-0.71 ± 0.03	-0.70 ± 0.03	-0.70 ± 0.03
	KIN8NM	1.38 ± 0.00	1.40 ± 0.01	1.41 ± 0.01	1.41 ± 0.01
LL	NAVAL	8.28 ± 0.04	8.17 ± 0.07	8.40 ± 0.02	8.10 ± 0.19
	POWER	-2.78 ± 0.01	-2.77 ± 0.01	-2.76 ± 0.01	-2.76 ± 0.01
	PROTEIN	-2.73 ± 0.01	-2.72 ± 0.01	-2.71 ± 0.01	-2.70 ± 0.00
	WINE	-0.96 ± 0.01	-0.96 ± 0.01	-0.96 ± 0.01	-0.96 ± 0.01
	YACHT	-0.73 ± 0.07	-0.58 ± 0.06	-0.22 ± 0.09	-0.18 ± 0.07

[1] Aitchison, Yang and Ober. “Deep kernel processes” ICML (2021)

[2] Ober and Aitchison “An approximate posterior for the deep Wishart process” NeurIPS (2021)

[3] Ober, Anson, Milsom and Aitchison “An improved approximate posterior for the deep Wishart process” UAI (2023)

Part 1



Part 2



Why less(?) Bayesian deep kernel machines?

Less(?) Bayesian approach:

- simplifies implementation
- gives lower-variance updates that converge faster
- provides a cleaner link to NN / neuro-theory
- great preliminary results...

A “deep kernel machine” is an infinite-width DGP, trained using variational inference

DGP Approximate
Posterior

DGP Prior

$$Q(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2; \mathbf{0}, \Sigma_2)$$

$$Q(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1; \mathbf{0}, \Sigma_1)$$

$$P(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{F}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_2) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

$$P(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2 | \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_1))$$

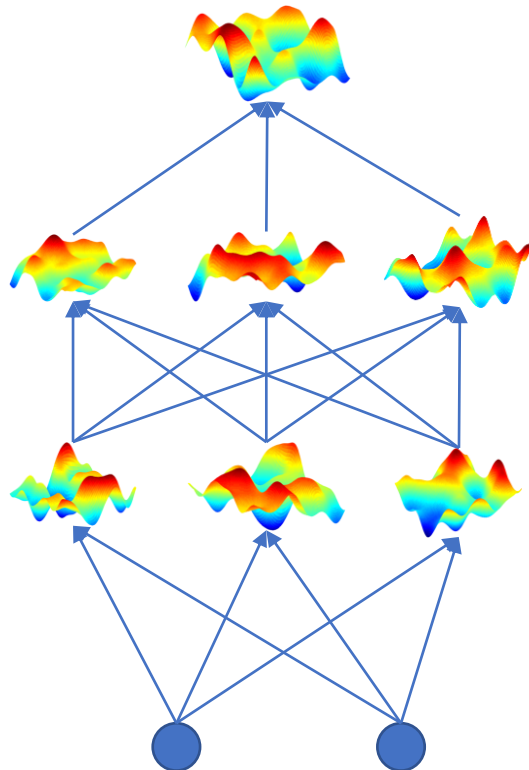
$$P(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1 | \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_0))$$

$$\mathbf{G}_2 = \mathbf{F}_2 \mathbf{F}_2^T / N_2$$

$$\mathbf{G}_1 = \mathbf{F}_1 \mathbf{F}_1^T / N_1$$

$$\mathbf{G}_0 = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T / N_X$$

true posterior is
in this family!



batch of
input vectors, \mathbf{X}

A “deep kernel machine” is an infinite-width DGP, trained using variational inference

DGP Approximate
Posterior

DGP Prior

$$Q(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{G}_2)$$

$$Q(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{G}_1)$$

$$P(\mathbf{y} | \mathbf{F}_2) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{y}; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_2) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})$$

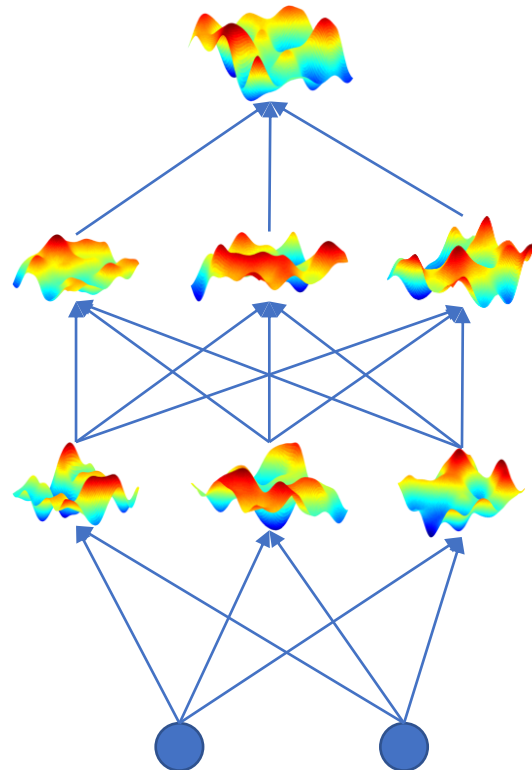
$$P(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2 | \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^2; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_1))$$

$$P(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1 | \mathbf{X}) = \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{f}_\lambda^1; \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_0))$$

$$\mathbf{G}_2 = \mathbf{F}_2 \mathbf{F}_2^T / N_2 = \mathbf{\Sigma}_2$$

$$\mathbf{G}_1 = \mathbf{F}_1 \mathbf{F}_1^T / N_1 = \mathbf{\Sigma}_1$$

$$\mathbf{G}_0 = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T / N_X$$



true posterior is
in this family!

batch of
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We're doing VI, so the objective is the ELBO

$$\text{ELBO}(\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_L) = \underbrace{\log P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{G}_L)}_{\text{likelihood}} - \underbrace{\beta}_{\text{temp}} \sum_{\ell=1}^L N_{\ell} D_{\text{KL}} \left(\underbrace{\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}_{\ell})}_{Q(\mathbf{f}_{\lambda}^{\ell})} \parallel \underbrace{\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1}))}_{P(\mathbf{f}_{\lambda}^{\ell} | \mathbf{F}_{\ell-1})} \right)$$

approx post covs

- Optimizes Gram matrices (equivalently, approximate posterior covariances)
- Likelihood encourages Gram matrices/representations that give good performance on the task
- KL keeps Gram matrices, \mathbf{G}_{ℓ} , similar to value we'd expect from previous layer, i.e. $\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})$

All the features have disappeared! The objective can be computed analytically, as a function of just the Gram matrices!

Taking the infinite-width limit of the ELBO gives the “deep kernel machine”

$$\text{ELBO}(\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_L) = \log P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{G}_L) - \beta \sum_{\ell=1}^L N_{\ell} D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}_{\ell}) \| \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})))$$

- We take the limit for all layer widths jointly, by sending $N \rightarrow \infty$, with
$$N_{\ell} = \nu_{\ell} N$$
- Problem: the ELBO blows up in the infinite-width limit.
- Solution: set $\beta = 1/N$
- That’s ... it! So the DKM objective is:

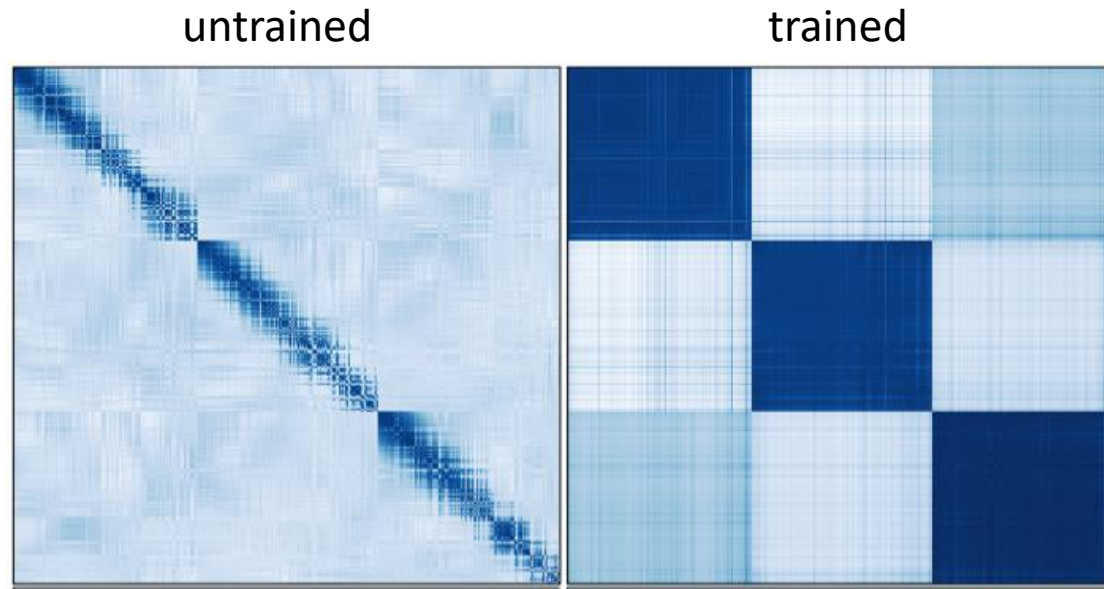
$$\text{DKM}(\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_L) = \log P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{G}_L) - \sum_{\ell=1}^L \nu_{\ell} D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}_{\ell}) \| \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})))$$

What is a deep kernel machine?

- A nonlinear function approximator
- With multiple layers
- Parameterised by *Gram matrices*, not features or weights
- Trained using the DKM objective:

$$\text{DKM}(\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_L) = \log P(\mathbf{Y} | \mathbf{G}_L) - \sum_{\ell=1}^L \nu_{\ell} D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}_{\ell}) \| \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})))$$

The deep kernel machine viewpoint helps us understand theory!



For regression, the DKM objective can be written:

$$\text{DKM}(\mathbf{G}_1, \dots, \mathbf{G}_L) = D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{Y}^T / N_Y) \parallel \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_L) + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I})) \\ - \sum_{\ell=1}^L \nu_{\ell} D_{\text{KL}}(\mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}_{\ell}) \parallel \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{K}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell-1})))$$

Deep kernel machines work well in practice!

	Paper	Method	CIFAR-10
	This paper	DKM-DA-GAP	92.69%
Kernel methods without parameters	Novak et al (2018)	NNGP-GAP	77.43%
	Arora et al (2019)	NNGP-GAP	83.75%
	Lee et al (2020)	NNGP-GAP-DA	84.8%
	Li et al (2019)	NNGP-LAP-flip	88.92%
	Shankar et al (2020)	Myrtle10	89.80%
	Adlam et al (2023)	Tuned Myrtle10 DA CG	91.2%



Edward Milsom

Ed has pushed performance further, to better than 94%!

But how slow are DKMs? Surprisingly fast!

- We develop a novel inducing-point scheme
- Same FLOPs as CNN (computations ultimately look v. similar)
- Slower than a CNN, but orders of magnitude faster than “full” kernel methods in table.

Summary



Deep kernel landscape + our priorities

Our priorities

- More architectures for DKMs (GNNs + transformers).
- speed/scale-up:
 - memory efficiency
 - lower-precision
- user-friendly library (we can share preliminary work)

Huge future opportunities:

	shallow	deep
feature	linear regression	neural net
kernel	kernel ridge regression	deep kernel methods

If you're interested, get in touch:
laurence.aitchison@bristol.ac.uk

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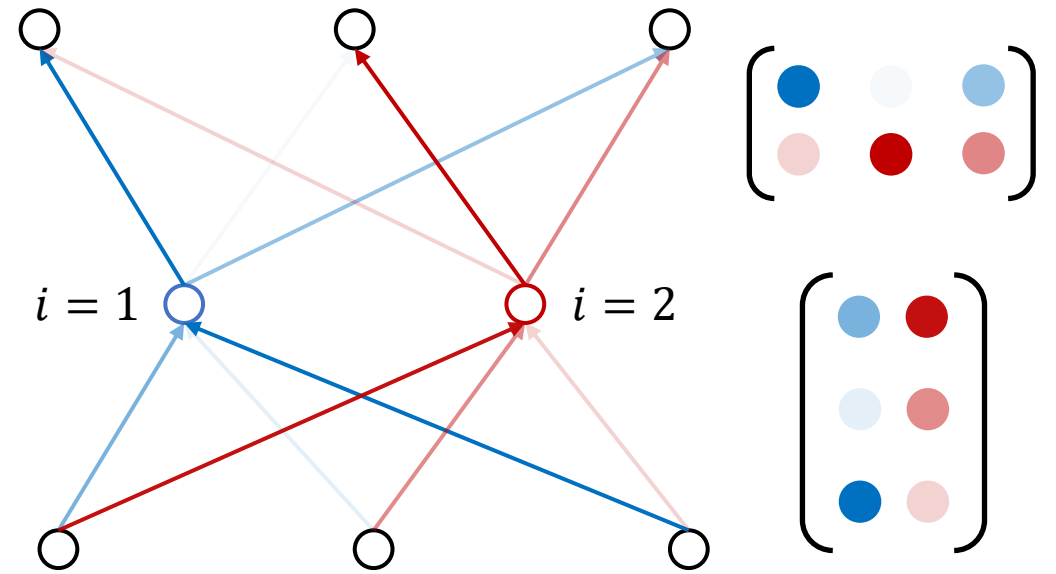
[3] Ober, Anson, Milsom and Aitchison "An improved approximate posterior for the deep Wishart process" UAI (2023)

[4] Yang, Robeyns, Milsom, Anson, Schoots, Aitchison "A theory of representation learning gives a deep generalisation of kernel methods" ICML (2023)

[5] Milsom, Anson, Aitchison "Convolutional deep kernel machines" ICLR (2024)

Appendix slides

Deep kernel processes should work better because they have fewer local optima



Deep kernel processes should work better because they have fewer local optima

- Implies loads of symmetric local optima...
- ...and local optima are bad if you have unimodal approximate posteriors.
- DKPs don't have these symmetries, so *far* fewer local optima!

