High-performance sampling of Determinantal Point Processes

Jack Poulson



HODGE STAR hodgestar.com

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- Will draw strong connection between techniques for efficiently factoring matrices and for sampling structured subsets of a ground set.
- The basic bridge: forming a **Schur complement** equates to forming a representation of a **conditional distribution**.
- One can import HPC techniques, such as DAG-scheduled dense and sparse-direct blocked algorithms, from factorizations to Determinantal Point Processes [Macchi-1975, Burton/Pemantle-1993, Benjamini/Lyons/Peres/Schramm-2001].
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Sampling a DPP can be reinterpreted as 'factoring' a class of matrices such that the j'th pivot is the probability of including the j'th item.

Flip a coin weighted by the pivot to determine inclusion:

- If the item is kept, proceed as in an *LU/LDL* factorization.
- If the item is dropped, take the pivot's complement in [0, 1] and negate i.e., subtract one and proceed as normal.

The likelihood of the sample is thus the product of the absolute value of the diagonal of the 'factorization'.

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The basic mechanism of a (finite) **Point Process** is to define a probability distribution over the power set of a ground set [n] = [0, ..., n - 1].

A **determinantal** point process sets the probability of a subset $J \subseteq [n]$ being in the sample equal to the *J*-minor of a fixed **marginal kernel matrix**.

The kernel matrix is often assumed Hermitian positive semi-definite – with spectrum in [0,1], but Hermiticity does not hold in some important cases.

Inadmissible combinations of members of the set can therefore be encoded through linear dependencies in the kernel matrix.

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\$./aztec_diamond --diamond_size=5



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\$./uniform_spanning_tree --x_size=10 --y_size=10



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\$./uniform_spanning_tree --x_size=10 --y_size=10



\$./uniform_spanning_tree --x_size=40 --y_size=40



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\$./uniform_spanning_tree --x_size=40 --y_size=40



\$./uniform_spanning_tree --x_size=100 --y_size=100



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\$./uniform_spanning_tree ----------------y_size=10 -----hexagonal=true



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Hermitian Determinantal Point Processes

Definition 1. A (Hermitian) marginal kernel matrix is a (real or complex) Hermitian matrix whose eigenvalues live in [0, 1].

Definition 2. A (finite, Hermitian) Determinantal Point Process (DPP) is a random variable Y over the power set of $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, ..., n-1\} = [n]$ generated by a $n \times n$ (Hermitian) marginal kernel matrix K via the rule

 $\mathbb{P}_{K}[Y \subseteq \mathbf{Y}] = \det(K_{Y}),$

where K_Y is the $|Y| \times |Y|$ submatrix of K formed by restricting to the rows and columns in the index set Y.

Definition 3. A (Hermitian) DPP is called **elementary** if the eigenvalues of its marginal kernel matrix all lie in $\{0, 1\}$.

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Non-Hermitian DPP kernels

Definition 4. A (finite) Determinantal Point Process is a random variable **Y** over the power set of $\mathcal{Y} = [n]$ generated by an **admissible** $\mathcal{K} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ that is consistent with the rule:

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Proposition 1 (Brunel-2018). A matrix $K \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is admissible as a DPP marginal kernel iff

$$(-1)^{|J|}\det(K-I_J)\geq 0, \ \forall J\subseteq [n].$$

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Equivalence classes of DPP kernels

Proposition 2 (P-2019). The equivalence class of a structurally symmetric DPP kernel $K \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is its orbit under the group of diagonal similarity transformations, i.e.,

$$\{D^{-1}KD : D = \operatorname{diag}(d), d \in (\mathbb{C}^{\times})^n\}.$$

For complex Hermitian and real symmetric K, the entries of D must respectively lie in U(1) and O(1).

Proposition 3 (P-2019). The equivalence class of a structurally nonsymmetric DPP kernel K strictly contains the its orbit under the group of diagonal similarity transformations.

Proof.

If structural symmetry is broken at a 2×2 submatrix, we need only observe that:

$$\mathsf{DPP}(egin{pmatrix} lpha & 0 \ eta & \gamma \end{pmatrix}) \equiv \mathsf{DPP}(egin{pmatrix} lpha & 0 \ 0 & \gamma \end{pmatrix}),$$

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Proposition 4. Given disjoint subsets $A, B \subset \mathcal{Y}$,

$$\mathbb{P}[B \subseteq \mathbf{Y} | A \subseteq \mathbf{Y}] = \det(K_B - K_{B,A}K_A^{-1}K_{A,B}).$$

Proof.

$$det(K_{A\cup B}) = det(K_A)det(K_B - K_{B,A}K_A^{-1}K_{A,B})$$

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The claim follows from repeated application of the case where A is a single element, *a*:

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Lemma 5 (Hough et al.-2006). Given any $\mathbf{Y} \sim \text{DPP}(K)$, where K has spectral decomposition $Q \wedge Q^*$, sampling from \mathbf{Y} is equivalent to sampling from the random elementary DPP with kernel $P(Q_Z)$, where $P(U) \equiv UU^*$ and Q_Z consists of the columns of Q with indices from $\mathbf{Z} \sim \text{DPP}(\Lambda)$.

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"Alg. 1 runs in time $O(Nk^3)$, where k is the number of eigenvectors selected [...] the initial eigendecomposition of [K] is often the computational bottleneck, requiring $O(N^3)$ time. Modern multi-core machines can compute eigendecompositions up to $N \approx 1,000$ at interactive speeds of a few seconds, or larger problems up to $N \approx 10,000$ in around ten minutes." [Kulesza/Taskar-2012]

[Gillenwater-2014] reduced the factored elementary DPP sampling down to cubic complexity via what is equivalent to diagonally-pivoted Cholesky.¹

¹[Gillenwater-2014] Approximate inference for determinantal point processes

Recently, authors are noticing connections to LDL^{H} factorizations.²³

In [Launay et al.-2018], timings are provided for the spectrally-preprocessed and "sequentially thinned" algorithm for elementary real symmetric kernels of rank 20 and varying size (left) and varying rank and size 5000 (right):



This talk decreases runtimes by 100-1000x, for more general kernels, by importing dense factorization techniques. We then extend to non-Hermitian and sparse-direct analogues.

²[Chen et al.-2017] Fast Greedy MAP inference for Det' Point Processes ³[Launay et al.-2018] Exact sampling of determinantal point processes without eigendecomposition. arxiv.org/abs/1802.08429v3

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sample = []
for j in range(n):
    J2 = [j+1:n]
    if Bernoulli(K(j,j)):
        sample.append(j)
    else:
        K(j,j) -= 1
        K(J2,j) /= K(j,j)
        K(J2,J2) -= K(J2,j) * K(j,J2)
return sample
```

This is a small tweak of unblocked, unpivoted LU factorization – readily specializable to LDL^{H} and LDL^{T} for Hermitian and complex symmetric matrices.

The majority of the work is in rank-1 updates. And the standard optimizations apply (e.g., blocking and sparse-direct factorization)!

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sample = []
J1_beg = 0
while J1_beg < n:
    J1_end = min(n, J1_beg+blocksize)
    J1 = [J1_beg:J1_end]; J2 = [J1_end:n]
    subsample, K(J1,J1) = unblocked_dpp(K(J1,J1))
    sample.append(subsample + J1_beg)
    K(J2,J1) /= triu(K(J1,J1))
    K(J1,J2) \= unit_tril(K(J1,J1))
    K(J2,J2) -= K(J2,J1) * K(J1,J2)
    J1_beg = J1_end
return sample</pre>
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OpenMP 4.0 tasks – say, with tile sizes of 128 – can be readily used to provide shared-memory, DAG-scheduled parallelism [Agullo/Langou/Luszczek-2010, Yarkhan et al.-2011, Chan et al.-2007].

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Unblocked, greedy, MAP DPP sampling

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sample = []
for j in range(n):
    J2 = [j+1:n]
    if K(j,j) >= 0.5:
        sample.append(j)
    else:
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Greedy MAP sampling is a trivial tweak of the standard sampler, and the blocked extension is essentially identical.

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Full-rank real symmetric DPP on i9-7960x (16-core)

Dense, real *LDL^H*-based DPP sampler [P-2019].

\$ OMP_NUM_THREADS=16 ./dense_dpp





*Generated from the Kenyon formula over the Kasteleyn matrix [Chhita et al.-2015].

\mathbb{Z}^2 UST DPP on i9-7960x (16-core)



*Over the Gramian of the star space basis [Lyons/Peres-2016].



Hexagonal UST DPP on i9-7960x (16-core)

Dense, real LDL^H-based DPP sampler [P-2019].*



*Over the Gramian of the star space basis [Lyons/Peres-2016].

Low precision corrupting sampling

\$./aztec_diamond --diamond_size=80



Basic questions for DPP factorizations

Given the close connection between DPP sampling and dense factorization:

- One should be able to probabilistically generalize element growth and numerical stability bounds.
- Use maximum-entropy diagonal pivot selection? Minimizes worst case pivot.
- High-performance techniques for backpropagating through Cholesky are now known [Murray-2016].⁴ Do these blocked algorithms extend to DPPs?

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Sparse-direct DPP factorizations

We have so-far discussed analogues of **dense** factorizations, and **sparse-direct** analogues are a natural extension.



Catamari implements templated, real and complex, Cholesky / LDL^H / LDL^T – switching between DAG-scheduled, **right-looking supernodal** and **up-looking simplicial** based upon arithmetic intensity [Chen/Davis/Hager/Rajamanickam-2008].

A variant of the sparse-direct LDL^{H} is provided for sparse DPPs. (Unpivoted) sparse-direct LU and LDL^{T} DPP sampling is a straight-forward extension.

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Complex sparse LDL^{T} on i9-7960x (16-core)

3D Helmholtz w/ PML and trilinear, hexahedral elements

\$ OMP_NUM_THREADS=16 ./helmholtz_3d_pml



(MAP) Sampling from 2D $-\sigma\Delta$

\$./dpp_shifted_2d_negative_laplacian \
 --x_size=200 --y_size=200 --scale=0.72



Log-likelihood: -27472.2 Sample time: 0.0107 seconds



Log-likelihood: -26058 Sample time: 0.0112 seconds

(MAP) Sampling from 2D $-\sigma\Delta$

\$./dpp_shifted_2d_negative_laplacian \
 --x_size=200 --y_size=200 --scale=0.75



Log-likelihood: -27612.6 Sample time: 0.0124 seconds



Log-likelihood: -26009 Sample time: 0.0114 seconds

(MAP) Sampling from 2D $-\sigma\Delta$

\$./dpp_shifted_2d_negative_laplacian \
 --x_size=200 --y_size=200 --scale=0.85



Log-likelihood: -27581.7 Sample time: 0.0114 seconds



Log-likelihood: -25765 Sample time: 0.0118 seconds

Closing

Availability:

Quotient is available under the Mozilla Public License 2.0 at hodgestar.com/quotient/ and gitlab.com/hodge_star/quotient. This talk is based on version 0.2.

Catamari is available under the Mozilla Public License 2.0 at hodgestar.com/catamari/ and gitlab.com/hodge_star/catamari. This talk is based on version 0.2.3.

These slides are available at: hodgestar.com/catamari/April8-2019-RoyalSociety.pdf

Acknowledgements:

• Alex Kulesza and Jenny Gillenwater: For answering my initial DPP sampling questions.

Questions/comments?