

Bayesian Optimization in High-Dimensional Spaces: A Brief Survey

Mohit Malu, Gautam Dasarathy, and Andreas Spanias
 SenSIP Center, School of ECEE, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ
 {mmalu,gautamd,spanias}@asu.edu

Abstract—Bayesian optimization (BO) has been widely applied to several modern science and engineering applications such as machine learning, neural networks, robotics, aerospace engineering, experimental design. BO has emerged as the *modus operandi* for global optimization of an arbitrary expensive to evaluate black box function f . Although BO has been very successful in low dimensions, scaling it to high dimensional spaces has been significantly challenging due to its exponentially increasing statistical and computational complexity with increasing dimensions. In this era of high dimensional data where the input features are of million dimensions scaling BO to higher dimensions is one of the important goals in the field. There has been a lot of work in recent years to scale BO to higher dimensions, in many of these methods some underlying structure on the objective function is exploited. In this paper, we review recent efforts in this area. In particular, we focus on the methods that exploit different underlying structures on the objective function to scale BO to high dimensions.

I. INTRODUCTION

Several modern science and engineering applications such as machine learning, neural networks, robotics, aerospace engineering, experimental design, require optimization of unknown, expensive to evaluate, black box function within a constrained budget of time and power. Bayesian optimization (BO) is a popular strategy to optimize these expensive to evaluate functions as it provides a sample efficient framework for global optimization as compared to other alternatives such as DIRECT [36], simulated annealing [46], latin hypercubes [62]. More formally, the goal of BO is to optimize an expensive to evaluate, black box objective function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, which can be mathematically formulated as follows:

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

where domain $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$ and typically $D \leq 20$. BO has been widely applied in a variety of optimization applications such as hyperparameter tuning [48,68,78], circuit optimization [57], gait learning in robotics [9,59], aerospace engineering [50], gene design [22], chemical design [24], and animation design [8].

The standard BO algorithm consists of two main components [17]: a statistical model, usually a Gaussian Process (GP) [72], from which the black box objective function is assumed to be sampled, and an acquisition function to efficiently navigate (sample) through the given input space. The key advantages of BO include (i) Sample efficient optimization of expensive to evaluate functions, (ii) Black box

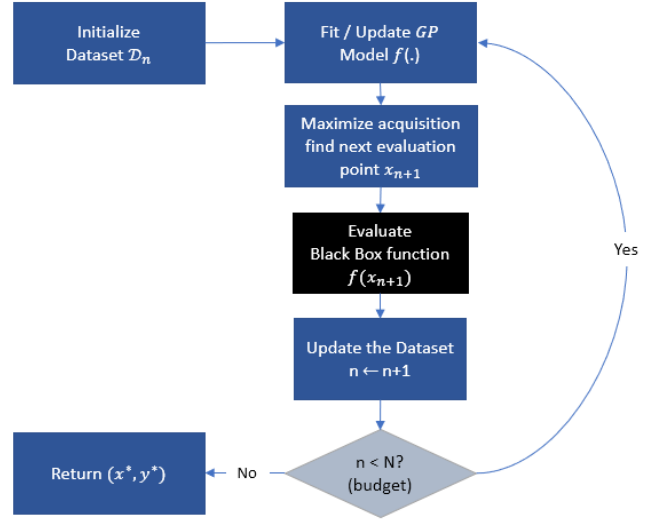


Fig. 1. A flow graph for Bayesian Optimization.

optimization which requires minimal knowledge of the function, (iii) Derivative free optimization unlike gradient descent. A comprehensive review of BO was done by Shahriari et al. [76], and Brochu et al. [7]. The extensions of standard BO with derivative information [14,95], multi-fidelity optimization [32,38,39,41,44,81], trust region based BO [15], and neural network architecture search [40,48] have also been studied.

Although BO has been very successful in moderate to low dimensions, scaling BO to high dimensional space is significantly challenging due to its exponentially increasing statistical and computational complexity with increasing dimensions. More specifically, (i) As the dimensionality of the objective function increases, number of points (queries) required to cover the input space increases exponentially. (ii) BO mandates finding the maximizer of the acquisition function, which in itself is a non-convex optimization problem over the input space that requires exponentially increasing computational power with increasing dimensionality. These factors inhibit the direct adoption of BO to high dimensional optimization.

Algorithm 1 Bayesian Optimization

- 1: Place a Bayesian prior on f (Typically Gaussian)
 - 2: Observe f at $n_0 > 0$ points.
 - 3: Set $n = n_0$, $\mathcal{D}_n = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$
 - 4: **while** $n \leq N$ **do**
 - 5: Compute the posterior $f|\mathcal{D}_n$ using Bayes Theorem
 - 6: Compute the acquisition function $a_n(\mathbf{x})$ based on the posterior.
 - 7: Find $\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} a_n(\mathbf{x})$.
 - 8: Observe $y_{n+1} = f(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}) + \epsilon_{n+1}$. ($\epsilon_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \eta^2)$)
 - 9: $\mathcal{D}_{n+1} = \mathcal{D}_n \cup \{(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, y_{n+1})\}$
 - 10: increment n
 - 11: **end while**
 - 12: Return the point \mathbf{x}_i with largest y_i
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Scaling BO to high dimensions is gaining more attentions in the field because in this age of high dimensional data and increasingly complex systems, high dimensional optimization problems are ubiquitous. For example, large scale hyperparameter tuning of neural networks [90], biology [22], computational astrophysics [69], and computer vision [5]. There has been a lot of effort in recent years to extend BO to higher dimensions, most of these works assume some underlying structure on the objective function. The structural assumptions constitute of two types: (i) Intrinsic low dimensionality of the objective function (ii) Additive structure i.e., decomposition of the objective function into sum of low dimensional functions. In this paper, we perform a comprehensive review of the existing approaches for high dimensional BO. In particular, we focus on the methods that exploit different underlying structures on the objective function to scale BO to high dimensions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows, in Section II we present an overview of Bayesian Optimization (BO), followed by challenges and methods to scale BO to high dimensions in section III and IV. Section V discusses the applications of BO, and the conclusion in section VI.

II. OVERVIEW OF BAYESIAN OPTIMIZATION

Bayesian Optimization is a sequential optimization technique with two key components: (i) a Bayesian statistical model for modeling the objective function f , and (ii) an acquisition function to decide where to sample next in the domain \mathcal{X} . Algorithm 1 above gives an overview of a typical BO procedure.

A. Bayesian Statistical Model - Gaussian Process

The statistical model translates the information gained from previous observations onto the entire domain of the function by forming a posterior over the objective function conditioned over the data. The posterior is updated every time the function is evaluated (queried). Typically, Gaussian processes (GP) are the go to statistical model for modeling objective function f , as GP offers flexibility in terms of it providing closed form solutions while evaluating the posterior distribution. Formally,

$$f \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu(\cdot), \kappa(\cdot, \cdot)).$$

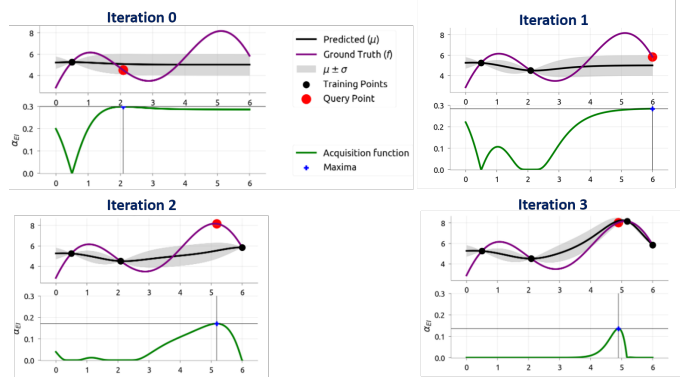


Fig. 2. A pictorial overview of Bayesian Optimization. The posterior mean (black curve) and the standard deviation from the GP regression is used to formulate the acquisition function (green curve). As the iterations increase, it can be observed that BO attempts to reach the maxima of the objective function f . Image source: <https://distill.pub/2020/bayesian-optimization/>.

where the GP is completely given by its mean $\mu(\cdot)$ and covariance $\kappa(\cdot, \cdot)$ functions. Let $\mathcal{D}_n : \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1) \dots (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)\}$ be the initial set of data samples (noisy observations) of the true objective function f . The posterior of the function f on the observed data \mathcal{D}_n is also Gaussian. i.e. $f(\mathbf{x})|\mathcal{D}_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_n(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}))$, where the mean $\mu_n(\mathbf{x})$ and covariance $\sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x})$ are given as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_n(\mathbf{x}) &= \mu(\mathbf{x}) + k^T (K + \eta^2 I_n)^{-1} Y \\ \sigma_n^2(\mathbf{x}) &= \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) - k^T (K + \eta^2 I_n)^{-1} k \end{aligned}$$

Here, Y is the vector of observations, k is a vector with $k_i = \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)$. The matrix K is such that $K_{i,j} = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$ $i, j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Choice of covariance kernel function mainly depends on the degree of smoothness warranted for the modeled function and is most often selected to be square exponential (SE) kernel or Matérn kernel.

B. Acquisition Function

Acquisition function utilizes the information from previously observed data to navigate through the domain. Typical choice of acquisition function includes Upper Confidence Bound (UCB) [2,79] and Expected Improvement (EI) [63]. The acquisition functions quantify the potential of finding a maximizer of the objective function in the entire domain. Hence, in every iteration of BO the function f is queried at that maximizer of the acquisition function. Acquisition function is usually formulated based on the parameters of the posterior distribution. The *Upper confidence Bound* (UCB) is defined as follows:

$$a_n(\mathbf{x}) := \mu_n(\mathbf{x}) + \beta^{1/2} \sigma_n(\mathbf{x})$$

Here, β is a hyperparameter that controls the trade-off between exploration - Domain of f where f has high variance $\sigma_n(\mathbf{x})^2$ and exploitation - Domain of f where f has a high mean $\mu_n(\mathbf{x})$. Figure 2 demonstrates the BO algorithm. As it can be observed, the acquisition function provides the samples from the domain of f that either provide the maximum information

(high uncertainty) about the function or is close to optimal (high mean). The maximization of acquisition function is assumed to be an inexpensive task and is optimized using off the shelf methods such as Dividing Rectangles (DIRECT) algorithm [36], CMA-ES [27], L-BFGS [56]. In the following section we will look at the challenges in scaling BO to high dimensions.

III. CHALLENGES IN SCALING BO TO HIGH DIMENSIONS

BO has been a successful approach for finding the global optima of an unknown function f when the dimensionality of domain of is moderate or low. However, scaling it to higher dimensions is challenging due to its increasing statistical and computational complexity with increase in dimensions. The reasons for this are discussed in detail below:

1) *Coverage of the Domain*: To ensure that the global optimum is found, we require good coverage of the domain of f , but as dimensionality D increases, the number of evaluations needed to effectively cover the domain increase exponentially.

2) *Computation and Storage Cost*: The computation of posterior requires the computation of the inverse of the kernel matrix, whose size depends on the number of function evaluations made so far i.e., $\mathcal{O}(N^3)$, where N is the number of evaluations. Hence, as the number of evaluations of the function increase exponentially with increase in dimensions, computational and storage costs for computing posterior distribution also increases exponentially with dimensions.

3) *Maximizing the Acquisition Function*: Acquisition function is maximized by using standard global optimization algorithms such as DIRECT or L-BFGS. These methods have query complexity that exponentially depends on the dimensions D i.e., it requires $\mathcal{O}(\zeta^{-D})$ iterations to maximize the function within ζ accuracy. Hence, these algorithms work efficiently only when the input space is moderate or low dimensional. However, increase in dimensionality of the input leads to slower convergence.

4) *Function Estimation*: Non-parametric regression becomes difficult in high dimensions. Provable lower bounds in [26] demonstrate the exponential dependence on the dimension D . This is often referred to as *curse of dimensionality* for non-parametric regression problems.

IV. METHODS TO SCALE BO TO HIGH DIMENSIONS

There has been a lot of effort in recent years to scale BO to high dimensions. In this section we'll look at these methods that overcome the said challenges either by exploiting the structure of the objective function or by trading off between convergence and computational complexity.

A. Exploiting Structure

BO can be scaled to higher dimensions by imposing reasonable structural assumptions on the objective functions such as low dimensionality or additive structure.

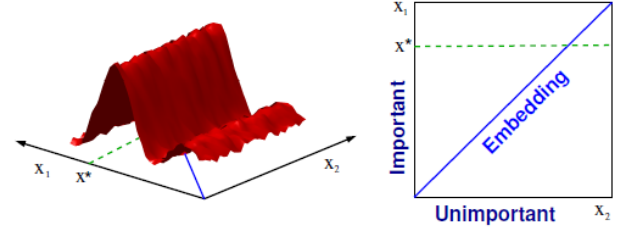


Fig. 3. The function in $D=2$ dimensions only has one effective (active) dimension. Hence performing BO on the random embedding can still find the optimum [89].

1) *Intrinsic Low Dimensionality*: In many applications, the objective function depends only on low dimensional subspace, examples include hyperparameter optimization for neural networks [4] and automatic configuration of a mixed integer linear programming solver [33].

Wang et al. [89] laid the foundations for BO with random linear embeddings and came up with an algorithm 2 random embedding Bayesian Optimization (REMBO) that exploits the low effective dimensionality of the objective function. The intuition behind the algorithm lies mainly in proving that there exists a low dimensional vector $\mathbf{y}^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ with probability 1 such that $f(\mathbf{x}^*) = f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}^*)$ for a random projection matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times d}$. This allows BO to be performed in the low dimensional subspace to identify the next point of evaluation which is then projected back to original dimensions using a random projection matrix to evaluate the objective function.

Although REMBO performs well, it can sometimes perform poorly even for some synthetic problems due to over-exploration of boundary and distortions in embedding due to projections from low dimensions to high dimensions lying outside the box bounds. Letham et al. [52] addressed these drawbacks and presents a new algorithm called adaptive linear embedding Bayesian Optimization (ALEBO) which defines an embedding matrix that re-projects the points from embedded space to original space and uses the pseudo inverse to project the bounds in the original space to the embedded space, thereby, avoiding the distortions from clipping of projected points.

Some other works that exploit the low dimensionality to scale BO include: (i) Subspace Identification Bayesian Optimization (SI-BO) [12] which involves estimation of the subspace on which the function is supported using low rank matrix recovery [87] and executes BO on the learned subspace. (ii) Sliced Inverse Regression Bayesian Optimization (SIR-BO) [102] which utilizes sliced inverse regression technique for dimension reduction [53] to find the effective subspace and performs BO on the learned effective subspace, this method is also extended to nonlinear dimension reduction using kernel trick. (iii) Hashing enhanced Subspace BO (HeSBO) [67] performs BO on the low dimensional space and uses two hash functions [10] to construct the inverse subspace embedding to recover the vector in original space from the low dimensional

Algorithm 2 REMBO

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1: Generate a random matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ 
2: Place a Gaussian prior on  $g(\mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y})$ 
3: Choose the domain  $\mathcal{Y}$  such that  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}$ 
4: for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  do
5:   Compute the posterior  $f|\mathcal{D}_n$ 
6:   Find  $\mathbf{y}_{n+1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $\mathbf{y}_{n+1} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} a_n(\mathbf{y})$ .
7:    $\mathcal{D}_{n+1} = \mathcal{D}_n \cup \{(\mathbf{y}_{n+1}, f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{y}_{n+1}))\}$ 
8:   increment  $n$ 
9: end for

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vectors. (iv) Non linear embedding method [65] that learns the nonlinear embedding using the feed forward neural network to reduce the dimensionality of the input, applies BO with manifold Gaussian Process in the embedding space and then uses the reconstruction mapping generated using multi-output GP to project back to the original space for function evaluation.

2) *Additive Structure*: A promising alternative to scale BO to high dimension that can also model richer class of functions as compared to low dimensionality assumption was proposed by Kandasamy et al. [37] which adopts to the method introduced by Duvenaud et al. [13]. Here, the objective function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ w.l.o.g $\mathcal{X} = [0, 1]^D$ with additive structure decomposes as the sum of independent low dimensional functions each of which depends on disjoint subset of dimensions i.e.,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) + f^{(2)}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) + \dots + f^{(M)}(\mathbf{x}^{(M)}) \quad (1)$$

where, each $\mathbf{x}^{(j)} \in \mathcal{X}^{(j)} = [0, 1]^{d_j}$ are disjoint low dimensional components (groups) and $d_j \leq d \ll D$. Each of these low dimensional function $f^{(j)}$ is assumed to be sampled from a Gaussian Process, $\mathcal{GP}(\mu^{(j)}, \kappa^{(j)})$ where the $f^{(j)}$'s are independent. This implies that f itself is sampled from a Gaussian Process, $\mathcal{GP}(\mu, \kappa)$ where,

$$\begin{aligned} \mu(\mathbf{x}) &= \mu^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) + \dots + \mu^{(M)}(\mathbf{x}^{(M)}) \\ \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') &= \kappa^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}'^{(1)}) + \dots + \kappa^{(M)}(\mathbf{x}^{(M)}, \mathbf{x}'^{(M)})'. \end{aligned}$$

Given the above structure, the paper [37] proposes an alternative acquisition function *Additive Gaussian Process Upper Confidence Bound (ADD-GP-UCB)* which applies to additive kernel and is defined as follows:

$$\tilde{a}_n(\mathbf{x}) = \mu_n(\mathbf{x}) + \beta^{1/2} \sum_{j=1}^M \sigma_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}^{(j)}). \quad (2)$$

This can further be written as a sum of functions on orthogonal domains: $\tilde{a}_n(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_j \tilde{a}_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}^{(j)})$ where $\tilde{a}_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}^{(j)}) = \mu_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}^{(j)}) + \beta^{1/2} \sigma_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{x}^{(j)})$. Hence, \tilde{a}_n can be maximized by maximising each $\tilde{a}_n^{(j)}$ separately on $\mathcal{X}^{(j)}$.

The ADD-GP-UCB algorithm (Algorithm 3) has two main components. First, compute the posterior for each $f^{(j)}$, then maximize an atmost d dimension GP-UCB like acquisition function on each low dimensional GP to construct the next query point. Though this approach models the richer class of functions, it is still restrictive in terms of requiring the decomposition to be axis aligned. Li et al. [54] addressed this

Algorithm 3 ADD-GP-UCB

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1: Kernels  $\kappa^{(1)}, \dots, \kappa^{(M)}$ , Decomposition  $(\mathcal{X}^{(j)})_{j=1}^M$ 
2: Place a Gaussian prior on each  $f^{(j)} \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mathbf{0}, \kappa^{(j)})$ 
3: for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  do
4:   for  $j = 1, \dots, M$  do
5:     Compute the posterior  $f^{(j)}|\mathcal{D}_n$ 
6:      $\mathbf{x}_{n+1}^{(j)} = \arg \max_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{X}^{(j)}} \tilde{a}_n^{(j)}(\mathbf{z}^{(j)})$ 
7:   end for
8:    $\mathbf{x}_{n+1} = \cup_{j=1}^M \mathbf{x}_{n+1}^{(j)}$ 
9:    $\mathbf{y}_{n+1} = f(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}) + \epsilon_{n+1}$ 
10:   $\mathcal{D}_{n+1} = \mathcal{D}_n \cup \{(\mathbf{x}_{n+1}, \mathbf{y}_{n+1})\}$ 
11:  increment  $n$ 
12: end for

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by considering the additive model on the projected data [21]. Hence, generalizing the additive assumption to projected additive assumption [28].

The performance of the mentioned additive model based algorithms depend on the knowledge of the groups of decomposition and learning them is computationally challenging. [37,54] learn the decomposition by randomly sampling the decompositions and selecting the one that maximizes the marginal likelihood, whereas [19,91] introduce efficient approaches to learn decompositions based on Gibbs sampling and Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods respectively.

The additive model with disjoint decomposition was further generalized to have the overlapping groups by Rolland et al., [73] and Hoang et al., [31] where the overlapping decomposition is represented by a dependency graph or sparse factor graph and acquisition function is optimized by using message passing protocol. Further work to improve on additive models include batched BO techniques by [91,92], and deterministic fourier feature approximation of the stationary kernel for efficient optimization by [66].

B. Non-Structure based Methods

Li et al. [55] explored dropout strategy (similar to the dropout strategy used in neural network hyperparameter tuning) to scale BO to high dimensions, wherein BO is performed over randomly selected d out of D dimensions in every iteration, and rest of the dimensions are filled using different strategies such as random values, values from the best found solution so far and a mixture of random and best values. The theoretical analysis and experimental results show that the regret gap increases with the increase in the number of parameters dropped. Hence, this algorithm trades off between computational complexity and convergence to the optimal solution.

Gupta et al. [25] proposed a method on the similar idea as that of dropout strategy [55], wherein the acquisition function is maximized over the restricted space consisting of multiple low dimensional subspaces of the high dimensional space. Theoretical analysis of the algorithm shows that the bounds on the cumulative regret gets tighter as the number of subspaces increase, in turn increasing the computational complexity.

Rana et al. [70] proposed an elastic Gaussian Process model to efficiently traverse through zero gradient regions while optimizing acquisition function in high dimensions. Though this gives an improved solution for acquisition optimization, it still does not tackle other scalability issues of BO.

V. APPLICATIONS IN MACHINE LEARNING AND OTHER AREAS

Bayesian Optimization has been employed in several applications including machine learning, deep learning, autonomous vehicles, biomedical and radar. In the following we briefly describe select applications of BO with the emphasis on machine learning.

1) *Machine Learning*: While machine learning algorithms have been covered in survey papers [77,80] and text books [3,6,83,85], our coverage here focuses specially on methods where BO is part of the model hyperparameter estimation process.

More specifically we concentrate on hyperparameter tuning in machine learning and deep learning applications. For example, [78] discussed the automatic tuning of hyperparameter in the BO framework, where the generalization performance of machine learning or deep learning algorithm can be viewed as a black box function with hyperparameters as the input. The application of BO to this function leads to finding an optimal set of hyperparameters to better generalize the model. Figure 4 shows flow graph of application of BO for hyperparameter tuning. [48] proposed a fast hyperparameter tuning method that uses multi task BO technique [81] on SVM and CNN models to select the hyperparameters and also subset of entire data that yields the most information about the performance of the given algorithm configuration on entire data. This reduces the model training time which in turn reduces overall hyperparameter tuning time. [11] provided a guide for using BO techniques in machine learning. They also apply BO for tuning hyperparameters of CNN for image classification and show that BO outperforms the random search over the parameter space. [96] applied BO to random forests and neural networks, and empirically show the superior performance of BO as compared to random search and brute force methods. [94] proposed a promising strategy for network architecture search using BO coupled with neural predictor. Some other machine learning applications of BO include accelerated hyperparameter search [68,82], automated hyperparameter tuning [88], tuning of network security based machine learning models [35], and hyperparameter optimization in computer vision architecture [5].

2) *Circuit Design*: Circuit design / optimization involves simulation of multiple circuits which are computationally intensive for large scale complicated circuits. [57] proposed a weighted expected improvement based BO for automated circuit optimization. [86] utilized BO techniques to meet or exceed design specifications of high performance systems. [103] proposed a neural net based BO for analog circuit synthesis.

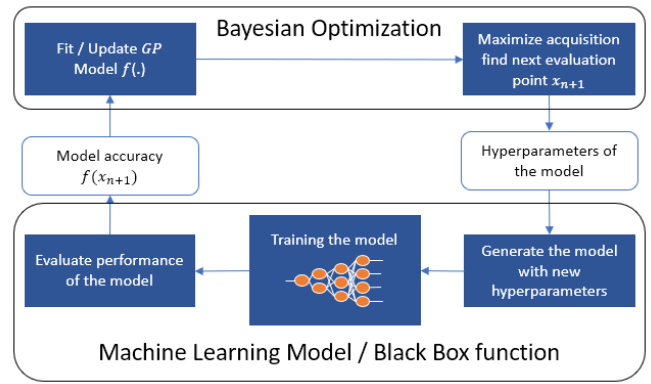


Fig. 4. A flow graph of hyperparameter tuning of machine learning model using BO.

3) *Robotics*: Many optimization problems in robotics can be tackled with BO framework. For example, [9] utilized BO for gait design and control, [59] proposed BO approach for online path planning for optimal sensing, and [60] applied BO with kernel functions for active policy search for robot control.

4) *Health Related Applications*: Chemical / drug synthesis involves various optimization tasks which typically require numerous experiments to obtain the optimal formulation, and we can reduce the number of experiments required using BO framework. [75] introduced application of BO for drug synthesis, [49] proposed ChemBO: a BO framework for generating and optimizing organic molecule with desired properties, [24] used constrained BO along with variational auto-encoders for automatic chemical design, [30] used BO to tune the parameters of the deep convolutional neural network (DCNN) for computer aided diagnosis scheme for distinguishing between benign and malignant masses.

5) *Other Applications*: Some other applications of BO include synthetic gene design [22], design of aerospace engineering systems [50], animation design [8], computational astrophysics [69], Transformer language models for speech recognition [98], material design [16], and experimental Design [23,34].

More reading and bibliography on applications of BO is given in the following: solar energy [71,93], autonomous vehicles [18], radar systems [51,97], data science [1,47], Internet of Things [42,58], sensors [20,101], health and wearable [43,45], stochastic optimization with adaptive restarts [61], multi-fidelity modelling in global optimization approaches [99], surveillance [29,84], environmental systems [64,74].

VI. CONCLUSION

In this review, we present an overview of Bayesian Optimization(BO) a sample efficient framework for optimizing expensive to evaluate black box objective function and it's increasing applications in recent years. We also briefly discuss the statistical and computational challenges faced in scaling BO to high dimensions and focused on recent efforts to over

come the said challenges. Further, we discuss various algorithms that exploit structure, dwelling more into the details of REMBO that exploits intrinsic low dimensionality and, ADD-GP-UCB which exploits additive structure for the objective function. We also give brief description of the algorithms that do not assume any structure on the objective function instead trade convergence for computational complexity to scale BO to higher dimensions. Finally, we conclude by describing select real world applications of BO with emphasis on machine learning applications.

Some possible directions of future work in this field are:

- (i) Exploiting graph structure to scale BO to high dimensions which would be useful under scenarios where the objective function has an underlying graph structure. Examples of such functions include traffic patterns as a function of road network.
- (ii) High dimensional multi-output BO, where few of the ideas from high dimensional BO can be applied to scale multi-output Bayesian Optimization to higher dimensions.

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