

High-dimensional Bayesian Geostatistics

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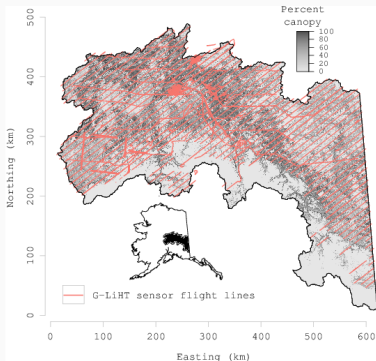
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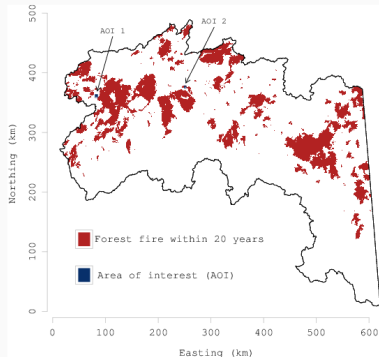
Based upon projects involving:

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- Lu Zhang (UCLA)
- Andrew O. Finley (Michigan State University)
- Alan. E. Gelfand (Duke University)

Case Study: Alaska Tanana Valley Forest Height Dataset



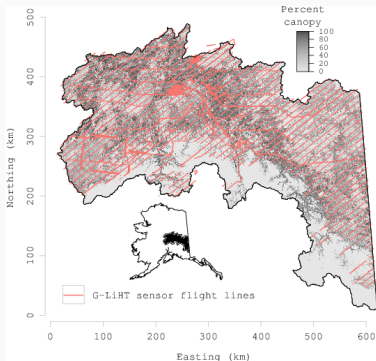
Forest height and tree cover



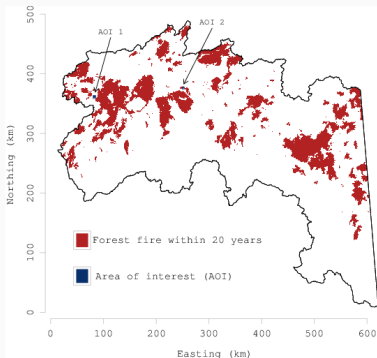
Forest fire history

- Forest height (red lines) data from LiDAR at 5×10^6 locations
- Knowledge of forest height is important for biomass assessment, carbon management etc

Case Study: Alaska Tanana Valley Forest Height Dataset



Forest height and tree cover



Forest fire history

- Goal: High-resolution domainwide prediction maps of forest height
- Covariates: Domainwide tree cover (grey) and forest fire history (red patches) in the last 20 years

Analyzing the data

Models used:

- Non-spatial regression: $y_{FH} = \beta_0 + \beta_{tree}x_{tree} + \beta_{fire}x_{fire} + \epsilon$

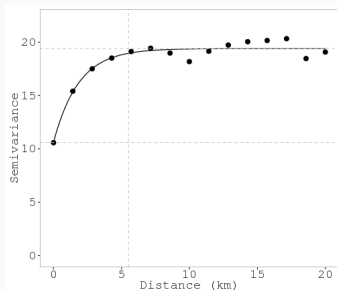


Figure: Variogram of the residuals from non-spatial regression indicates **strong spatial pattern**

- $y_{FH}(\ell) = \beta_0 + \beta_{tree}x_{tree}(\ell) + \beta_{fire}x_{fire}(\ell) + w(\ell) + \epsilon(\ell)$
- $w(\ell) \sim GP(0, C(\cdot, \cdot | \sigma^2, \phi))$
- $y_{FH} \sim N(X\beta, K_\theta)$ where K_θ is the spatial covariance matrix:

$$K_\theta = C_{(\sigma, \phi)} + \tau^2 I, \quad \text{where } \theta = \{\sigma, \phi, \tau\}$$

where $C_{(\sigma^2, \phi)}$ is the GP covariance matrix derived from $C(\cdot, \cdot | \sigma^2, \phi)$.

Likelihood from (full rank) GP models

- $\mathcal{L} = \{\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_n\}$ are locations where data is observed
- $y(\ell_i)$ is outcome at the i^{th} location, $y = (y(\ell_1), y(\ell_2), \dots, y(\ell_n))^{\top}$
- Model: $y \sim N(X\beta, K_{\theta})$
- Estimating process parameters from the likelihood:

$$-\frac{1}{2} \log \det(K_{\theta}) - \frac{1}{2} (y - X\beta)^{\top} K_{\theta}^{-1} (y - X\beta)$$

- Customary: $K_{\theta} = C_{(\sigma, \phi)} + D_{\tau}$, where $\theta = \{\sigma, \phi, \tau\}$
- Bayesian inference: Priors on $\{\beta, \theta\}$
- Challenges: Storage and $\text{chol}(K_{\theta}) = LDL^{\top}$.

Computational Details

- Compute the quadratic form and determinant (for any given $\{\beta, \theta\}$):

Solve for u : $K_\theta u = y - X\beta$ (expensive) ;

Quadratic form: $(y - X\beta)^\top u$;

Determinant: $\det(K_\theta)$ (expensive) .

- Compute the quadratic form and determinant (for any given $\{\beta, \theta\}$):

Cholesky: $\text{chol}(K_\theta) = LDL^\top$ (expensive) ;

Solve for v : $v = \text{trsolve}(L, y - X\beta)$;

Quadratic form: $v^\top D^{-1}v = \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 / d_{ii}$;

Determinant: $\log \det(K_\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log d_{ii}$.

- Log-likelihood (up to a constant):

$$-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \log d_{ii} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 / d_{ii}$$

Prediction and interpolation

- Conditional predictive density

$$p(y(\ell_0) | y, \theta, \beta) = N(y(\ell_0) | \mu(\ell_0), \sigma^2(\ell_0)) .$$

- “Kriging” (spatial prediction/interpolation)

$$\begin{aligned}\mu(\ell_0) &= E[y(\ell_0) | y, \theta] = x^\top(\ell_0)\beta + k_\theta^\top(\ell_0)K_\theta^{-1}(y - X\beta) , \\ \sigma^2(\ell_0) &= \text{var}[y(\ell_0) | y, \theta] = K_\theta(\ell_0, \ell_0) - k_\theta^\top(\ell_0)K_\theta^{-1}k_\theta(\ell_0) .\end{aligned}$$

- Bayesian “kriging” computes (simulates) posterior predictive density:

$$p(y(\ell_0) | y) = \int p(y(\ell_0) | y, \theta, \beta)p(\beta, \theta | y)d\beta d\theta$$

Computational Details for Prediction

- Compute the mean and variance (for any given $\{\beta, \theta\}$ and l_0):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solve for } u: & \quad K_\theta u = k_\theta(l_0); \\ \text{Predictive mean:} & \quad x^\top(l_0)\beta + u^\top(y - X\beta); \\ \text{Predictive variance:} & \quad K_\theta(l_0, l_0) - u^\top k_\theta(l_0). \end{aligned}$$

- Compute the mean and variance (for any given $\{\beta, \theta\}$ and l_0):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cholesky:} & \quad \text{chol}(K_\theta) = LDL^\top; \\ \text{Solve for } v: & \quad v = \text{trsolve}(L, k_\theta(l_0)); \\ \text{Solve for } u: & \quad u = \text{trsolve}(L^\top, D^{-1}v); \\ \text{Predictive mean:} & \quad x^\top(l_0)\beta + u^\top(y - X\beta); \\ \text{Predictive variance:} & \quad K_\theta(l_0, l_0) - u^\top k_\theta(l_0). \end{aligned}$$

- Primary bottleneck is $\text{chol}(\cdot)$

Burgeoning literature on spatial big data

- Low-rank models (Wahba, 1990; Higdon, 2002; Kamman & Wand, 2003; Paciorek, 2007; Rasmussen & Williams, 2006; Stein 2007, 2008; Cressie & Johannesson, 2008; Banerjee et al., 2008; 2010; Gramacy & Lee 2008; Sang et al., 2011, 2012; Lemos et al., 2011; Guhaniyogi et al., 2011, 2013; Salazar et al., 2013; Katzfuss, 2016)
- Sparsity: (Solve $Ax = b$ by (i) sparse A , or (ii) sparse A^{-1})
 1. Covariance tapering (Furrer et al. 2006; Du et al. 2009; Kaufman et al., 2009; Shaby and Ruppert, 2013)
 2. GMRFs to GPs: INLA (Rue et al. 2009; Lindgren et al., 2011)
 3. LAGP (Gramacy et al. 2014; Gramacy and Apley, 2015)
 4. Nearest-neighbor models (Vecchia 1988; Stein et al. 2004; Stroud et al 2014; Datta et al., 2016)
- Spectral approximations and composite likelihoods: (Fuentes 2007; Paciorek, 2007; Eidsvik et al. 2016)
- Multi-resolution approaches (Nychka, 2002; Johannesson et al., 2007; Matsuo et al., 2010; Tzeng & Huang, 2015; Katzfuss, 2016)

Bayesian low rank models

- A *low rank* or *reduced rank* process approximates a *parent* process over a smaller set of points (*knots*).
- Start with a *parent process* $w(\ell)$ and construct $\tilde{w}(\ell)$

$$w(\ell) \approx \tilde{w}(\ell) = \sum_{j=1}^r b_{\theta}(\ell, \ell_j^*) z(\ell_j^*) = b_{\theta}^{\top}(\ell) z,$$

where

- $z(\ell)$ is *any* well-defined process (could be same as $w(\ell)$);
- $b_{\theta}(\ell, \ell')$ is a family of basis functions indexed by parameters θ ;
- $\{\ell_1^*, \ell_2^*, \dots, \ell_r^*\}$ are the knots;
- $b_{\theta}(\ell)$ and z are $r \times 1$ vectors with components $b_{\theta}(\ell, \ell_j^*)$ and $z(\ell_j^*)$, respectively.

Bayesian low rank models (contd.)

- $\tilde{w} = (\tilde{w}(\ell_1), \tilde{w}(\ell_2), \dots, \tilde{w}(\ell_n))^T$ is represented as $\tilde{w} = B_\theta z$
- B_θ is $n \times r$ with (i, j) -th element $b_\theta(\ell_i, \ell_j^*)$
- Irrespective of how big n is, we now have to work with the r (instead of n) $z(\ell_j^*)$'s and the $n \times r$ matrix B_θ .
- Since $r \ll n$, the consequential dimension reduction is evident.
- \tilde{w} is a valid stochastic process in r -dimensions space with covariance:

$$\text{cov}(\tilde{w}(\ell), \tilde{w}(\ell')) = b_\theta^T(\ell) V_z b_\theta(\ell'),$$

where V_z is the variance-covariance matrix (also depends upon parameter θ) for z .

- When $n > r$, the joint distribution of \tilde{w} is singular.

The Sherman-Woodbury-Morrison formulas

- Low-rank dimension reduction is similar to Bayesian linear regression
- Consider a simple hierarchical model (with $\beta = 0$):

$$N(z | 0, V_z) \times N(y | B_\theta z, D_\tau),$$

where y is $n \times 1$, z is $r \times 1$, D_τ and V_z are positive definite matrices of sizes $n \times n$ and $r \times r$, respectively, and B_θ is $n \times r$.

- The low rank specification is $B_\theta z$ and the prior on z .
- D_τ (usually diagonal) has the residual variance components.
- Computing $\text{var}(y)$ in two different ways yields

$$(D_\tau + B_\theta V_z B_\theta^\top)^{-1} = D_\tau^{-1} - D_\tau^{-1} B_\theta (V_z^{-1} + B_\theta^\top D_\tau^{-1} B_\theta)^{-1} B_\theta^\top D_\tau^{-1}.$$

- A companion formula for the determinant:

$$\det(D_\tau + B_\theta V_z B_\theta^\top) = \det(V_z) \det(D_\tau) \det(V_z^{-1} + B_\theta^\top D_\tau^{-1} B_\theta).$$

Practical implementation for Bayesian low rank models

- In practical implementation, better to avoid SWM formulas.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} D_\tau^{-1/2} y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{y_*} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} D_\tau^{-1/2} B_\theta \\ V_z^{-1/2} \end{bmatrix}}_{B_*} z + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{e_*} .$$

- $e_* \sim N(0, I_{n+r})$.
- $V_z^{1/2}$ and $D_\tau^{1/2}$ are matrix square roots of V_z and D_τ , respectively.
- If D_τ is diagonal (as is common), then $D_\tau^{1/2}$ is simply the square root of the diagonal elements of D_τ .
- $V_z^{1/2} = \text{chol}(V_z)$ is the triangular (upper or lower) Cholesky factor of the $r \times r$ matrix V_z .
- Use `backsolve` to efficiently obtain $V_z^{-1/2} z$

Practical implementation for Bayesian low rank models (contd.)

- The marginal density of $p(y_* | \theta, \tau)$ after integrating out z now corresponds to the normal linear model

$$y_* = B_* \hat{z} + e_*,$$

where \hat{z} is the ordinary least-square estimate of z .

- Use `lm` function to compute \hat{z} applying the QR decomposition to B_* .
- Thus, we estimate the Bayesian linear model

$$p(\theta, \tau) \times N(y_* | B_* \hat{z}, I_{n+r})$$

- MCMC will generate posterior samples for $\{\theta, \tau\}$.
- *Recover* the posterior samples for z from those of $\{\theta, \tau\}$:

$$p(z | y) = \int N(z | \hat{z}, M) \times p(\theta, \tau | y) d\theta d\tau$$

where $M^{-1} = V_z^{-1} + B_\theta^\top D_\tau^{-1} B_\theta$.

- A particular low-rank model emerges by taking
 - $z(\ell) = w(\ell)$
 - $z = (w(\ell_1^*), w(\ell_2^*), \dots, w(\ell_r^*))^\top$ as the realizations of the parent process $w(\ell)$ over the set of knots $\mathcal{L}^* = \{\ell_1^*, \ell_2^*, \dots, \ell_r^*\}$,and then taking the conditional expectation:

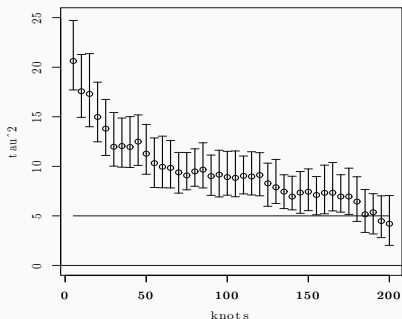
$$\tilde{w}(\ell) = E[w(\ell) | w^*] = b_\theta^\top(\ell)z .$$

- The basis functions are *automatically* derived from the spatial covariance structure of the parent process $w(\ell)$:

$$b_\theta^\top(\ell) = \text{cov}\{w(\ell), w^*\} \text{var}^{-1}\{w^*\} = K_\theta(\ell, \mathcal{L}^*) K_\theta^{-1}(\mathcal{L}^*, \mathcal{L}^*) .$$

Biases in low-rank models

- In low-rank processes, $w(\ell) = \tilde{w}(\ell) + \eta(\ell)$. What is lost in $\eta(\ell)$?



- For the predictive process,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}\{w(\ell)\} &= \text{var}\{\mathbb{E}[w(\ell) \mid w^*]\} + \mathbb{E}\{\text{var}[w(\ell) \mid w^*]\} \\ &\geq \text{var}\{\mathbb{E}[w(\ell) \mid w^*]\} .\end{aligned}$$

Bias-adjusted or modified predictive processes

- $\eta(\ell)$ is a Gaussian process with covariance structure

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Cov}\{\eta(\ell), \eta(\ell')\} &= K_{\eta, \theta}(\ell, \ell') \\ &= K_{\theta}(\ell, \ell') - K_{\theta}(\ell, \mathcal{L}^*)K_{\theta}^{-1}(\mathcal{L}^*, \mathcal{L}^*)K_{\theta}(\mathcal{L}^*, \ell') .\end{aligned}$$

- Remedy:

$$\tilde{w}_{\epsilon}(\ell) = \tilde{w}(\ell) + \tilde{\epsilon}(\ell) ,$$

where $\tilde{\epsilon}(\ell) \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(0, \delta^2(\ell))$ and

$$\delta^2(\ell) = \text{var}\{\eta(\ell)\} = K_{\theta}(\ell, \ell) - K_{\theta}(\ell, \mathcal{L}^*)K_{\theta}^{-1}(\mathcal{L}^*, \mathcal{L}^*)K_{\theta}(\mathcal{L}^*, \ell) .$$

- Other improvements suggested by Sang et al. (2011, 2012) and Katzfuss (2017).

Oversmoothing in low rank models

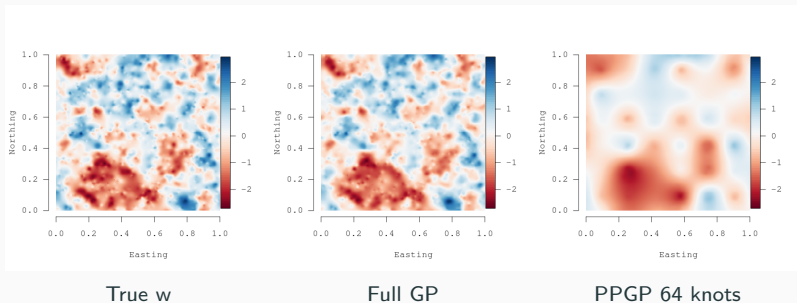
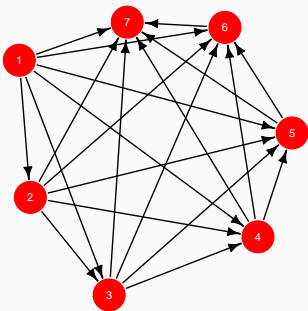


Figure: Comparing full GP vs low-rank GP with 2500 locations. Figure (1c) exhibits oversmoothing by a low-rank process (predictive process with 64 knots)

Introducing sparsity through conditional independence

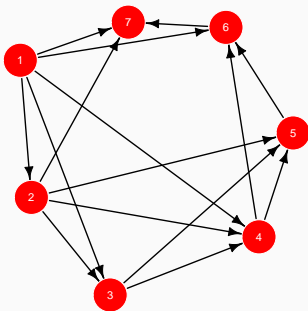
Full dependency graph



$$p(w_1)p(w_2 | w_1)p(w_3 | w_1, w_2)p(w_4 | w_1, w_2, w_3) \\ \times p(w_5 | w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4)p(w_6 | w_1, w_2, \dots, w_5)p(w_7 | w_1, w_2, \dots, w_6) .$$

Simple method of introducing sparsity (e.g. graphical models)

3-Nearest neighbor dependency graph



$$p(w_1)p(w_2 | w_1)p(w_3 | w_1, w_2)p(w_4 | w_1, w_2, w_3)$$

$$p(w_5 | \cancel{w_1}, w_2, w_3, w_4)p(w_6 | w_1, \cancel{w_2}, \cancel{w_3}, w_4, w_5)p(w_7 | w_1, w_2, \cancel{w_3}, \cancel{w_4}, \cancel{w_5}, w_6)$$

Gaussian graphical models: linearity

- Write a joint density $p(w) = p(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ as:

$$p(w_1)p(w_2 | w_1)p(w_3 | w_1, w_2) \cdots p(w_n | w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{n-1})$$

- Example: For Gaussian distribution $N(w | 0, K_\theta)$, we have a linear model

$$w_1 = 0 + \eta_1;$$

$$w_2 = a_{21}w_1 + \eta_2;$$

$$w_3 = a_{31}w_1 + a_{32}w_2 + \eta_3;$$

$$w_i = a_{i1}w_1 + a_{i2}w_2 + \cdots + a_{i,i-1}w_{i-1} + \eta_i; \quad i = 4, \dots, n.$$

- More compactly: $w = Aw + \eta$; $\eta \sim N(0, D)$.

Simple method of introducing sparsity (e.g. graphical models)

- Assume $w \sim N(0, K_\theta)$. Introduce sparsity by modeling $\text{chol}(K_\theta)$

$$K_\theta = (I - A)^{-1} D (I - A)^{-\top}; \quad D = \text{diag}(\text{var}\{w_i \mid w_{\{j < i\}}\})$$

- If L is from $\text{chol}(K_\theta) = LDL^\top$, then $L^{-1} = I - A$.
- a_{ij} 's obtained from $n - 1$ linear systems by comparing coefficients of w_j 's in

$$\sum_{j < i} a_{ij} w_j = E[w_i \mid w_{\{j < i\}}] \quad i = 2, \dots, n$$

- Example:

```
for(i in 1:(n-1)) {  
  a[i+1,1:i] = solve(K[1:i,1:i], K[1:i,i+1])  
  d[i+1,i+1] = K[i+1,i+1] - dot(K[i+1,1:i], a[i+1,1:i])  
}
```


- Let $a_{ij} = 0$ for all but m nearest neighbors of node i implies solving

$$\sum_{j \in N[i]} a_{ij} w_j = E[w_i | w_{\{j \in N[i]\}}] \quad i = 2, \dots, n,$$

where $N[i] = \{j < i : j \sim i\}$ are indices for neighbors of i .

- Example:

```
for(i in 1:(n-1) {
  Pa = N[i+1] # neighbors of i+1
  a[i+1,Pa] = solve(K[Pa,Pa], K[i+1, Pa])
  d[i+1,i+1] = K[i+1,i+1] - dot(K[i+1, Pa], a[i+1,Pa])
}
```

- We need to solve $n - 1$ linear systems of size at most $m \times m$.
Trivially parallelizable!
- **Storage and flops linear in n .**

Sparse likelihood approximations (Vecchia, 1988)

- Let $\mathcal{R} = \{\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_r\}$
- With $w(\ell) \sim GP(0, K_\theta(\cdot))$, write the joint density $p(w_{\mathcal{R}})$ as:

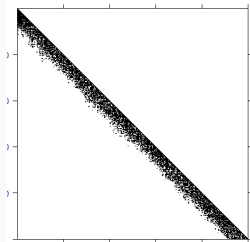
$$\begin{aligned} N(w_{\mathcal{R}} | 0, K_\theta) &= \prod_{i=1}^r p(w(\ell_i) | w_{H(\ell_i)}) \\ &\approx \prod_{i=1}^r p(w(\ell_i) | w_{N(\ell_i)}) = N(w_{\mathcal{R}} | 0, \tilde{K}_\theta) . \end{aligned}$$

where $N(\ell_i) \subseteq H(\ell_i)$.

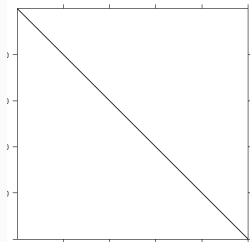
- Shrinkage: Choose $N(\ell)$ as the set of “ m nearest-neighbors” among $H(\ell_i)$. Theory: “Screening” effect (Stein, 2002).
- \tilde{K}_θ^{-1} depends on K_θ , but is *sparser* with at most nm^2 non-zero entries

Sparse precision matrices (e.g., graphical Gaussian models)

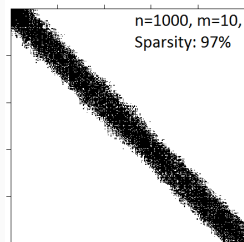
$$N(w | 0, K_\theta) \approx N(w | 0, \tilde{K}_\theta); \tilde{K}_\theta^{-1} = (I - A)^\top D^{-1} (I - A)$$



$I - A$



D^{-1}



\tilde{K}_θ^{-1}

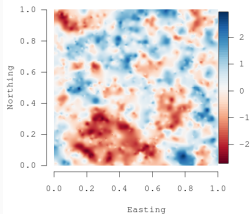
- $\det(\tilde{K}_\theta^{-1}) = \prod_{i=1}^n D_{ii}^{-1}$, \tilde{K}_θ^{-1} is sparse with $O(nm^2)$ entries

Extension to a GP (Datta et al., *JASA*, 2016)

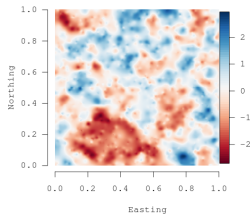
- Fix “reference” set $\mathcal{R} = \{\ell_1, \ell_2, \dots, \ell_r\}$ (e.g. observed points)
- $N(\ell)$ is the set of m -nearest neighbors of ℓ in \mathcal{R}
- This completes the consistent extension to a process $w(\ell) \sim GP$:

$$p(w_{\mathcal{R}}, w(\ell) | \theta) = N(w_{\mathcal{R}} | 0, \tilde{K}_{\theta}) \times p(w(\ell) | \{w(\ell_i) : \ell_i \in N(\ell)\}, \theta) .$$

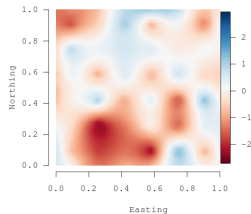
- For any $\ell, \ell' \notin \mathcal{R}$, conditional indep: $w(\ell) \perp w(\ell') | w_{\mathcal{R}}$
- Finite-dimensional realizations of $w(\ell)$ (given \mathcal{R}) will enjoy sparse precision matrices
- Call this NNGP. In hierarchical models, substitute NNGP for GP and achieve MASSIVE scalability.



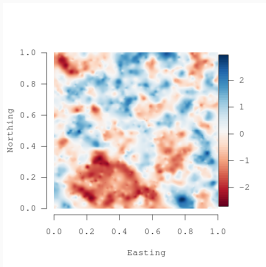
True w



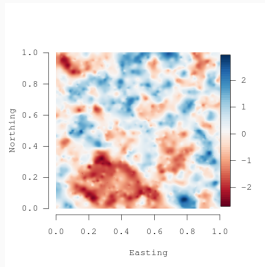
Full GP



PPGP 64 knots



NNGP, $m = 10$



NNGP, $m = 20$

- Collapsed NNGP:

- $y_{FH}(\ell) = \beta_0 + \beta_{tree}x_{tree}(\ell) + \beta_{fire}x_{fire}(\ell) + w(\ell) + \epsilon(\ell)$

- $w(\ell) \sim NNGP(0, C(\cdot, \cdot | \sigma^2, \phi))$

- $y_{FH} \sim N(X\beta, \tilde{C} + \tau^2 I)$ where \tilde{C} is the NNGP covariance matrix derived from C

- Response NNGP:

- $y_{FH}(\ell) \sim NNGP(\beta_0 + \beta_{tree}x_{tree}(\ell) + \beta_{fire}x_{fire}(\ell), \Sigma(\cdot, \cdot | \sigma^2, \phi, \tau^2))$

- $y_{FH} \sim N(X\beta, \tilde{\Sigma})$ where $\tilde{\Sigma}$ is the NNGP covariance matrix derived from $\Sigma = C + \tau^2 I$

NNGP models

	Non-spatial regression	Collapsed NNGP	Response NNGP
CRPS	2.3	0.86	0.86
RMSPE	4.2	1.73	1.72
CP	93%	94%	94%
CIW	16.3	6.6	6.6

Table: Model comparison metrics for the Tanana valley dataset

- NNGP models perform significantly better than the non-spatial model
- MCMC run time for the NNGP models:
 - Collapsed model: 319 hours
 - Response model: 38 hours
- For massive spatial data, full Bayesian output for even NNGP models require substantial time

Another look at the response model

- Original full GP model: $y(\ell) \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} N(x^\top(\ell)\beta + w(\ell), \tau^2)$
- $w(\ell) \sim GP$ with a stationary covariance function $C(\cdot, \cdot | \sigma^2, \phi)$
- $\text{Cov}(w) = \sigma^2 R(\phi)$
- Full GP model: $y \sim N(X\beta, \Sigma)$ where $\Sigma = \sigma^2 M$
- $M = R(\phi) + \alpha I$
- $\alpha = \tau^2 / \sigma^2$ is the ratio of the **noise to signal variance**
- Response NNGP model: $y \sim N(X\beta, \tilde{\Sigma})$
- $\tilde{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \tilde{M}$ where \tilde{M} is the NNGP approximation for M

Conjugate NNGP

- $y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 \tilde{M})$
- If ϕ and α are known, M , and hence \tilde{M} , are known matrices
- The model becomes a standard Bayesian linear model
- Assume a *Normal Inverse Gamma (NIG)* prior for $\{\beta, \sigma^2\}$
- $\{\beta, \sigma^2\} \sim NIG(\mu_\beta, V_\beta, a_\sigma, b_\sigma)$, i.e.,

$$\beta | \sigma^2 \sim N(\mu_\beta, \sigma^2 V_\beta) \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma^2 \sim IG(a_\sigma, b_\sigma).$$

Conjugate NNGP

- $y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 \tilde{M})$, \tilde{M} is known

Joint likelihood:

$$N(y | X\beta, \sigma^2 \tilde{M}) \times N(\beta | \mu_\beta, \sigma^2 V_\beta) \times IG(\sigma^2 | a_\sigma, b_\sigma)$$

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- $y \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 \tilde{M})$, \tilde{M} is known

Joint likelihood:

$$N(y | X\beta, \sigma^2 \tilde{M}) \times N(\beta | \mu_\beta, \sigma^2 V_\beta) \times IG(\sigma^2 | a_\sigma, b_\sigma)$$

- **Conjugate posterior distribution** $\{\beta, \sigma^2\} | y \sim \text{NIG}(\mu_\beta^*, V_\beta^*, a_\sigma^*, b_\sigma^*)$
- Expressions for μ_β^* , V_β^* , a_σ^* and b_σ^* can be calculated in $O(n)$ time

Conjugate NNGP

- $\{\beta, \sigma^2\} | y \sim NIG(\mu_\beta^*, V_\beta^*, a_\sigma^*, b_\sigma^*)$
- **Marginal posterior:** $\beta | y \sim MVt_{2a_\sigma^*}(\mu_\beta^*, \frac{b_\sigma^*}{a_\sigma^*} V_\beta^*)$
- $MVt_k(m, V)$ is the *multivariate t* distribution with degrees of k , mean m and scale matrix V
- $E(\beta | y) = \mu_\beta^*$, $Var(\beta | y) = \frac{b_\sigma^*}{a_\sigma^* - 1} V_\beta^*$
- **Marginal posterior:** $\sigma^2 | y \sim IG(a_\sigma^*, b_\sigma^*)$
- $E(\sigma^2 | y) = \frac{b_\sigma^*}{a_\sigma^* - 1}$, $Var(\sigma^2 | y) = \frac{b_\sigma^{*2}}{(a_\sigma^* - 1)^2 (a_\sigma^* - 2)}$
- **Exact posterior distributions** of β and σ^2 are available

Predictive distributions

- $y(\ell) | y \sim t_{2a_\sigma^*}(m(\ell), \frac{b_\sigma^*}{a_\sigma^*} v(\ell))$
- $E(y(\ell) | y) = m(\ell), \text{Var}(y(\ell) | y) = \frac{b_\sigma^*}{a_\sigma^* - 1} v(\ell)$
- $m(\ell)$ and $v(\ell)$ can be computed using $O(m)$ flops
- Exact posterior predictive distributions of $y(\ell) | y$ for any ℓ
- No MCMC required for parameter estimation or prediction

Choosing α and ϕ

- ϕ and α are chosen using K -fold **cross validation** over a grid of possible values
- Unlike MCMC, cross-validation can be **completely parallelized**
- Resolution of the grid for ϕ and α can be decided based on computing resources available
- In practice, a reasonably coarse grid often suffices

Choosing α and ϕ

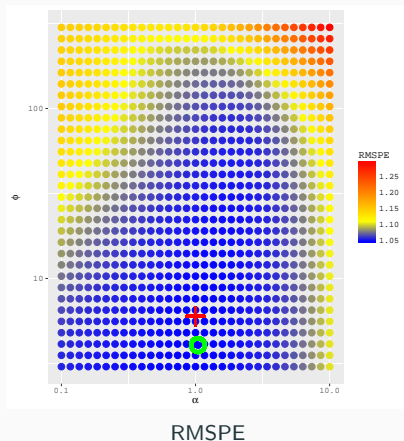


Figure: Simulation experiment: True value (+) of (α, ϕ) and estimated value (o) using 5-fold cross validation

- Computation and storage requirements are $O(n)$
- One evaluation time similar to the response NNGP model
- Unlike response NNGP, does not involve any serial MCMC iterations
- For K fold cross validation and G combinations of ϕ and α , total number of evaluations is KG
- **Embarassingly parallel:** Each of the KG evaluations can proceed in parallel

Alaska Tanana Valley dataset

	Conjugate NNGP	Collapsed NNGP	Response NNGP
β_0	2.51	2.41 (2.35, 2.47)	2.37 (2.31, 2.42)
β_{TC}	0.02	0.02 (0.02, 0.02)	0.02 (0.02, 0.02)
β_{Fire}	0.35	0.39 (0.34, 0.43)	0.43 (0.39, 0.48)
σ^2	23.21	18.67 (18.50, 18.81)	17.29 (17.13, 17.41)
τ^2	1.21	1.56 (1.55, 1.56)	1.55 (1.54, 1.55)
ϕ	3.83	3.73 (3.70, 3.77)	4.15 (4.13, 4.19)
CRPS	0.84	0.86	0.86
RMSPE	1.71	1.73	1.72
time (hrs.)	0.002	319	38

Table: Parameter estimates and model comparison metrics for the Tanana valley dataset

- Conjugate model produces estimates and model comparison numbers very similar to the MCMC based NNGP models
- For 5×10^6 locations, conjugate model takes 7 seconds

Summary

- **MCMC free** exact Bayesian approach by fixing some covariance parameters
- Conjugate posterior distributions of the parameters and posterior predictive distributions available in closed form
- **Embarassingly parallel** cross validation to identify best choices for fixed parameters
- Runs in **seconds** for massive spatial dataset with **millions** of locations
- Available in the **spNNGP** package in R

Concluding remarks

- Model-based solution for spatial “BIG DATA”
- Algorithms: Gibbs, RWM, HMC, VB, INLA. HMC-NUTS is especially promising on STAN.
- Compare with scalable multi-resolution frameworks (Katzfuss, 2016)
- Enhance scalability using META-KRIGING approaches (e.g., Rajarshi Guhaniyogi, 2017)
- Challenges: Nonstationary models; High-dimensional outcomes; High-dimensional domains; Smoother process approximations.