Advanced Bayesian Computation Weeks 6 & 7

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Linear Model Co-regionalization

- Let A = ((a_{ij}))^m_{i,j=1}, such that the entries above lower triangle are all zero.
- Assign $a_{ij} \sim N(0,1)$ and $\log(a_{ii}) \sim N(0,1)$ for i > j.
- Assume $v_k(s) \sim GP(0, C_{1,\phi_k})$ independently.
- ϕ_k 's are assigned uniform priors as before.
- It is customarily assumed that $\Psi = diag(\psi_1, ..., \psi_m)$, $\psi_1, ..., \psi_m > 0$.
- $\psi_k \sim IG(a, b)$ a-priori, for k = 1, ..., m.
- Entries of **B** are assigned normal priors.

Multivariate Matern

- Need to define Cov(w(s), w(s')), where h = ||s s'||.
- Amounts to defining $Cov(w_k(s), w_k(s'))$ and $Cov(w_k(s), w_j(s'))$.
- $Cov(w_k(s), w_k(s')) = M(h|\nu_k, a_k),$ $Cov(w_k(s), w_j(s')) = \alpha_{kj}M(h|\nu_{kj}, a_{kj}).$
- Parsimonious Matern kernel defines $a_{kj} = a_k = a$ and $\nu_{kj} = \frac{\nu_k + \nu_j}{2}$.

•
$$\alpha_{kj} = \zeta_{kj} \lambda_k \lambda_j, \ \lambda_k, \lambda_j > 0$$

•
$$\zeta_{kj} = \eta_{kj} \frac{\Gamma(\nu_k + d/2)^{1/2}}{\Gamma(\nu_k)^{1/2}} \frac{\Gamma(\nu_j + d/2)^{1/2}}{\Gamma(\nu_j)^{1/2}} \frac{\Gamma((\nu_k + \nu_j)/2)}{\Gamma((\nu_k + \nu_j)/2 + d/2)}$$

- $\eta_{kk} = 1$ and $((\eta_{kj}))_{k,j=1}^m$ is non-negative definite.
- This ensures a valid multivariate cross covariance matrix.

Gaussian process High Dimensional Regression

- Consider modeling the situation $y = f(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p$ where p is large.
- We have already seen in the theoretical study of Gaussian process that the convergence rate of the fitted function to the truth is n^{-s/(2s+p)}(log(n))^c, where c is a constant, s is the smoothness of the true surface, p is the number of predictors and n is the sample size.
- When *p* is large, convergence rate suffers a lot.
- We land in a hopeless situation (similar to the linear regression case) where we need to add some assumption in the true regression model to be able to recover it.
- Assumption: The regression function is affected only by a few covariates.
- Alternatively, one assumes that the covariates lie in a lower dimensional noisy manifold.

- Variable selection in Gaussian process is a very hard and unsolved problem.
- One idea was to employ a variant of the squared exponential covariance kernel.
- They define the covariance kernel $C_{\sigma^2,\phi,\lambda}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}') = \sigma^2 \exp(-\sum_{j=1}^p \lambda_j (x_j - x'_j)^2).$
- Use some penalty to select important λ_j 's.
- This is known as the automatic relevance determination (ARD).
- Full Bayesian updating of λ_j's by adding a spike and slab prior and computing the posterior does not seems to work very well.

- In many machine learning or environmental applications number of predictors is small.
- Sample size is massive.
- Important data applications.
- It is a wide area with different strategies applied to different models.
- We will see a few strategies.



- Biomass is the biological material in a living or recently dead organism.
- Prediction of forest biomass is important to understand current carbon stock and flux, bio-feedstock for emerging bio-economies, and impact of deforestation.
- Forest Inventory and Analysis (FIA) under USDA collects data on Biomass regurlarly.

Spatio-temporal Modeling: Environmental Science

Depth of water table data between 1935 to 2013.



Modeling of spatio-temporal trend of water table

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Problem with Gaussian processes with big data

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, ..., y_n)'$ are observed data and $\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_n$ are the corresponding predictors.
- Let $\boldsymbol{X} = [\boldsymbol{x}_1 : \cdots : \boldsymbol{x}_n]'$ be the predictor matrix.
- Model: $\boldsymbol{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu \boldsymbol{1}_n, \boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}).$
- Estimating parameters heta from the likelihood

$$-\frac{1}{2}\log(\det(\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\tau^{2}\boldsymbol{I}))-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{y}-\mu\boldsymbol{1}_{n})'(\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}+\tau^{2}\boldsymbol{I})^{-1}(\boldsymbol{y}-\mu\boldsymbol{1}_{n})$$

Challenges

- Store $\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}$
- Compute $Chol(\boldsymbol{C}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}) = \boldsymbol{L} \boldsymbol{L}'.$

- Approximate $m{C}_{m{ heta}} pprox m{B}_{m{ heta}} m{C}_{m{ heta}}^{*-1} m{B}_{m{ heta}}' + m{D}_{m{ heta}}$
- B_{θ} is the $n \times r$ spatial basis matrix $r \ll n$.
- C_{θ}^* is an $r \times r$ spatial covariance matrix.
- D_{θ} is either sparse or diagonal.
- Different choices of basis functions leads to different low rank models.
- The computational complexity $O(r^3 + nr^2) \le O(n^3)$.

Kernel Convolution

- Use a finite basis representation to approximate a Gaussian process.
- $f(\mathbf{x}) = \int K(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{z}, \theta) du(\mathbf{z})$, where $u(\mathbf{z})$ is a white noise process.
- This is called Kernel convolution of white noise processes and is widely used in environmental applications.
- An approximation of the f(x) by a finite sum is given by

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \sum_{j=1}^{J} K(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}_{j}^{*}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) u_{j},$$

 $m{z}_1^*,...,m{z}_J^*$ are "knot" points in \mathbb{R}^p and $u_1,...,u_J\sim N(0,\sigma^2).$

- J << n, i.e. number knots is much lesser than the sample size.
- Choice of $K(\cdot, \theta)$ is important for the method to work.
- In the spatial context this idea was proposed in 2001 by David Higdon.

Kernel Convolution

Model

$$y = \mu + \sum_{j=1}^{J} K(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}_{j}^{*}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) u_{j} + \epsilon, \ \epsilon \sim N(0, \tau^{2}).$$

• With data $(y_1, \boldsymbol{x}_1), ..., (y_n, \boldsymbol{x}_n)$, the data equation is given by

$$\mathbf{y} = \mu \mathbf{1}_n + K \mathbf{u} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \ \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I})$$

where the *i*th row of \boldsymbol{K} is given by $(K(\boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{z}_1^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}), ..., K(\boldsymbol{x}_i - \boldsymbol{z}_J^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}))'$.

- $\boldsymbol{u} = (u_1, ..., u_J)' \sim N(0\sigma^2 \boldsymbol{I}).$
- Marginalizing over \boldsymbol{u} , the likelihood is $N(\boldsymbol{y}|\mu \boldsymbol{1}_n, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{K}' + \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}).$
- More generally, if one assumes $u_1, ..., u_J$ are correlated and $\boldsymbol{u} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{D})$ then the likelihood is $N(\boldsymbol{y}|\mu \boldsymbol{1}_n, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{K}' + \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}).$

$$p(\mu, \sigma^2, \tau^2) \propto N((\mathbf{y}|\mu \mathbf{1}_n, \sigma^2 \mathbf{K} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{K}' + \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \times p(\mu)$$

 $\times p(\tau^2) \times p(\sigma^2).$

• **K** is a $n \times J$ matrix.

- Inverting the $n \times n$ matrix $H = \sigma^2 K D K' + \tau^2 I$ can be made easy with simple trick.
- This technique is called Sherman-Woodbury-Morrison matrix identity.
- The main computational cost comes from inverting a *J* × *J* matrix.

Posterior predictive distribution and estimation of regression function

- Posterior distribution of *u* can be obtained easily.
- Note that $p(\boldsymbol{u}|-) \propto N(\boldsymbol{y}|\mu \boldsymbol{1}_n + \boldsymbol{K}\boldsymbol{u}, \tau^2 \boldsymbol{I}) \times N(\boldsymbol{u}|\boldsymbol{0}, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{D}).$
- **u** | follows a multivariate normal distribution.
- Prediction at new predictor x can be obtained as before.
- y ~ N(μ + ∑_{j=1}^J K(x − z_j^{*}, θ)u_j, τ²). Draw posterior predictive samples from this distribution corresponding to every posterior sample of the parameters.

- Choice of the kernel function plays important role in the kernel convolution method.
- Popular choices are radial basis functions, wavelet basis functions etc.
- There can be drastic differences with different choices of the basis function.
- Can the kernel choice be automated?

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- Correlation between w(s) and w^* : $r(s) = [\rho(s, s_i^*; \phi)]$.

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predictive process model

$$y(\boldsymbol{s}) = \boldsymbol{x}(\boldsymbol{s})' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \tilde{w}(\boldsymbol{s}) + \epsilon(\boldsymbol{s}), \ \epsilon(\boldsymbol{s}) \sim N(0, \tau^2)$$

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Dimension reduction comes from applying Sherman-Woodbury-Morrison matrix identity

Only inverting an $n^* \times n^*$ matrix inversion is required at each stage of MCMC.

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Issues with PP: Overestimated Nugget & Smoothed Spatial Surface



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$$y(s) = x(s)'\beta + \tilde{w}(s) + \tilde{\epsilon}(s) + \epsilon(s)$$

Modified predictive process (Finley et al., 2009)

$$\widetilde{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{s}_i) \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \mathsf{N}(0, \delta^2(\boldsymbol{s}_i; \boldsymbol{ heta})); \quad \delta^2(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) = C_{\widetilde{\epsilon}}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) \;.$$

	True	Non-spatial	PP	Modified PP
8-	0 DE	0.26 (0.15 0.27)	10.92 (0.20 12.60)	0.01 (7.92 10.07)
ρ_0	0.25	0.20 (0.15 , 0.27)	10.05 (9.29 , 12.00)	9.21 (1.03, 10.97)
σ^2	6	-	8.95 (2.68 , 15.81)	5.07 (3.44 , 7.32)
τ^2	0.5	3.59 (3.30 , 3.88)	2.20 (2.02 , 2.40)	.73 (.39 , 1.17)
ϕ	4	-	2.78 (2.32 , 3.62)	2.73 (2.23 , 5.38)
G	-	3959.95	2397.21	347.16
Р	-	3943.83	2502.70	1471.05
D	-	7903.79	4899.91	1818.22
PD	-	1.95	31.79	731.42
DIC	-	2509.32	2000.50	1628.88

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Knots are Learning from The Data



- Observed data \circ drawn from normal distribution with varying frequency sine function mean and .01 variance
- knots are assigned U(0,1) prior.

+ naive knot starting locations

• posterior predictive means of 100 new locations

Hierarchical adaptive predictive process model with random knots

$$\begin{split} [\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \mathscr{S}^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2 \,|\, \boldsymbol{y}, \mathscr{S}, n^*] &\propto \times [\boldsymbol{\theta}_1] \times \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta} \,|\, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \\ & \times \mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{y} \,|\, \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{y}}\left(\mathscr{S}^*, \mathscr{S}; \,\boldsymbol{\theta}_1\right)\right) \,. \end{split}$$

Process parameter in data likelihood

Hierarchical adaptive predictive process model with random knots

$$egin{aligned} & [eta, eta_1, \mathscr{S}^*, eta_2 \,|\, m{y}, \mathscr{S}, n^*] \propto [eta_2] imes [eta_1] imes N(eta \,|\, m{\mu}_eta, \Sigma_eta) \ & imes [\mathscr{S}^* \,|\, eta_2] imes N\left(m{y} \,|\, m{X}eta, \Sigma_m{y}\left(\mathscr{S}^*, \mathscr{S};\, m{ heta}_1
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Parameters in the intensity surface for the knots.

Hierarchical adaptive predictive process model with random knots

$$\begin{split} [\boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \mathscr{S}^*, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2 \,|\, \boldsymbol{y}, \mathscr{S}, n^*] &\propto [\boldsymbol{\theta}_2] \times [\boldsymbol{\theta}_1] \times \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta} \,|\, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) \\ &\times [\mathscr{S}^* \,|\, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2] \times \mathcal{N}\left(\boldsymbol{y} \,|\, \boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{y}}\left(\mathscr{S}^*, \mathscr{S}; \, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1\right)\right). \end{split}$$

- Process parameter in data likelihood
 Parameters in the intensity surface for the knots.
- Idea of modeling knots is applicable to any knot based low rank model.

Strategies to Model Knots

Modelling the intensity surface for knots

$$[\mathscr{S}^* | \eta_D, n^*] = \prod_{i=1}^{n^*} \frac{\eta(\boldsymbol{s}_i^*)}{\int_D \eta(\boldsymbol{s}) d\boldsymbol{s}}$$

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• Parametric option:

$$\log \eta(\boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{\theta}_2) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^m N_{2D}(\boldsymbol{s} \mid \boldsymbol{u}_j, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_\eta) ,$$

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• A log-Gaussian approach:

$$\eta(s) = \exp\{\alpha w_2(s)\}; \ w_2(s) \sim GP(0, \rho_2(\cdot; \phi_2)),$$

Modelling the intensity surface for knots

$$[\mathscr{S}^* | \eta_D, n^*] = \prod_{i=1}^{n^*} \frac{\eta(\boldsymbol{s}_i^*)}{\int_D \eta(\boldsymbol{s}) d\boldsymbol{s}}$$

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• A log-Gaussian approach:

$$\eta(\mathbf{s}) = \exp\{\alpha w_2(\mathbf{s})\}; \ w_2(\mathbf{s}) \sim GP(0, \rho_2(\cdot; \phi_2)),$$

• Any other random measure on $[\mathscr{S}^* \mid n^*]$.

Estimated Spatial Surface: PP vs. APP



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Motivating Dataset on Soil Nutrients

▶ LMC



Correlations Between Soil Nutrients are Space Varying



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Multivariate Spatial Modeling

Figure:Soil Nutrients

$$Y(s) = \mu(s) + W(s) + \epsilon(s)$$



$$) = (c_1(3), ..., c_m(3)) + w(3)$$

In our case m = 3

Constructive approach following factor analysis ideas:



Space Varying Linear Model Coregionalization



• Big-N problem is encountered in updating $\mathbf{v}_i = (v_i(\mathbf{s}_1), ..., v_i(\mathbf{s}_n))', \ \mathbf{a}_{ij} = (a_{ij}(\mathbf{s}_1), ..., a_{ij}(\mathbf{s}_n))'.$

Dimension Reduction



Dimension Reduced Model

$$ilde{W}(s) = ilde{A}(s) ilde{v}(s)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \tilde{w}_{1}(s) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{w}_{m}(s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{a}_{11}(s) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \tilde{a}_{21}(s) & \tilde{a}_{22}(s) & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \tilde{a}_{m1}(s) & \cdots & \cdots & \tilde{a}_{mm}(s) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{v}_{1}(s) \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \tilde{v}_{m}(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

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 Modified predictive process models with varying number of knots are fitted.

	Stationary	Non-stationary full	Non-stationary MPP 26 knots
G	39.45	28.02	24.4
Ρ	92.62	79.9	77.28
D	132.07	107.92	101.68

Advantages over space varying full model

- 5 hours of running time for modified predictive process, 21 hours of running time for full model.
- Better model fit.





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- Observed points with statistically significant correlations given in blue.
- Left to right $\rho(\mathbf{s})_{P,SBC}$, $\rho(\mathbf{s})_{P,SN}$ and $\rho(\mathbf{s})_{SN,SBC}$.
- P, SN are highly correlated; so are P and SBC.