Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes for Large Spatial Data

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Consider again the spatially-varying intercept model for generic location ${\bf s}$

$$y(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + w(\mathbf{s}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{s}), \quad \mathbf{s} \in \mathscr{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d,$$

where

 $y(\mathbf{s})$ is the outcome,

 $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})$ is $p \times 1$ set of predictors including an intercept,

 β is a vector of p regression parameters,

 $w(\mathbf{s})$ is a spatial random effect,

 $\epsilon(\mathbf{s})$ is the independent noise process with variance τ^2 .

Likelihood from (full rank) GP models

 Assuming w(s) ~ GP(0, K_θ(·, ·)) implies that for a set of n locations¹

$$\mathbf{w} = (w(\mathbf{s}_1), w(\mathbf{s}_2), \dots, w(\mathbf{s}_n))^\top \sim MVN(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{ heta})$$

Estimating process parameters from the likelihood involves:

$$p(\mathbf{w}) \propto -rac{1}{2} \log \det(\mathbf{K}_{\theta}) - rac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{K}_{\theta}^{-1} \mathbf{w}$$

 Bayesian inference: priors on θ and many Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) iterations

 ${}^{1}K_{\theta}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is any valid spatial covariance function, e.g., $\sigma^{2}R(\cdot, \cdot; \phi)$, with $\theta = (\sigma^{2}, \phi)$.

Computation issues

- Storage: n^2 pairwise distances to compute K_{θ}
- \mathbf{K}_{θ} is dense; Need to solve $\mathbf{K}_{\theta}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ and need det (\mathbf{K}_{θ})
- This is best achieved using $chol(K_{\theta}) = LDL^{\top}$
- Complexity: roughly $O(n^3)$ flops

Computationally infeasible for large datasets

Burgeoning literature on spatial big data

- Low-rank models: (Wahba, 1990; Higdon, 2002; Rasmussen and Williams, 2006; Cressie and Johannesson, 2008; Banerjee et al., 2008, 2010; Gramacy and Lee, 2008; Finley et al., 2009; Lemos and Sansó, 2009; Sang et al., 2011; Sang and Huang, 2012; Guhaniyogi et al., 2011; Katzfuss and Hammerling, 2017)
- Spectral approximations and composite likelihoods: (Fuentes, 2007; Paciorek, 2007; Eidsvik et al., 2014)
- Multi-resolution approaches: (Nychka et al., 2015; Johannesson et al., 2007; Katzfuss, 2017; Guhaniyogi and Sanso, 2020)
- Sparsity: (Solve Ax = b by (i) sparse A, or (ii) sparse A^{-1})
 - Covariance tapering (Furrer et al., 2006; Du et al., 2009; Kaufman et al., 2008; Stein, 2013; Shaby and Ruppert, 2012)
 - 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 Gaussian Process (NNGP) models (Datta et al., 2016a,c,b; Finley et al., 2019a) builds on Vecchia (1988).

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Reduced (Low) rank models

- $\mathbf{K}_{\theta} \approx \mathbf{J}_{\theta} \mathbf{K}_{\theta}^* \mathbf{J}_{\theta}^\top + \mathbf{D}_{\theta}$
- \mathbf{J}_{θ} is $n \times r$ matrix of spatial basis functions, $r \ll n$
- \mathbf{K}_{θ}^* is $r \times r$ spatial covariance matrix
- \mathbf{D}_{θ} is either diagonal or sparse
- Examples: Kernel projections, Splines, Predictive process, FRK, spectral basis . . .
- Computations exploit above structure: roughly O(nr²) << O(n³) flops

Reduced (Low) rank models (cont'd)

Low-rank models: hierarchical approach

 $N(\mathbf{w}^* \,|\, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}^*_{ heta}) imes N(\mathbf{w} \,|\, \mathbf{J}_{ heta} \mathbf{w}^*, \mathbf{D})$

- w is $n \times 1$ and n is large
- w^{*} is r × 1, where r << n, defined over a user-defined set of locations, or knots, S^{*} = {s₁^{*}, s₂^{*}, ..., s_r^{*}}.
- \mathbf{J}_{θ} is $n \times r$ is a matrix of "basis" functions
- **D** is $n \times n$, but easy to invert (e.g., diagonal)
- Derive var(w) (or var(w* | y)) in alternate ways to obtain $(\mathbf{J}_{\theta}\mathbf{K}_{\theta}^{*}\mathbf{J}_{\theta}^{\top} + \mathbf{D})^{-1} = \mathbf{D}^{-1} - \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{J}_{\theta}(\mathbf{K}_{\theta}^{*-1} + \mathbf{J}_{\theta}^{\top}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{J}_{\theta})^{-1}\mathbf{J}_{\theta}^{\top}\mathbf{D}^{-1} .$

This is the famous Sherman-Woodbury-Morrison formula.

See, e.g., Finley et al. (2017) for implantation details and software for the Gaussian predictive process (GPP) model.

Simulation experiment

- 2500 locations on a unit square
- $y(\mathbf{s}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x(\mathbf{s}) + w(\mathbf{s}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{s})$
- Single covariate x(s) generated as iid N(0,1)
- Spatial effects generated from $GP(0, \sigma^2 R(\cdot, \cdot | \phi))$
- $R(\cdot,\cdot \,|\, \phi)$ is exponential correlation function with decay ϕ
- Candidate models: Full GP and Gaussian Predictive Process (GPP) with 64 knots

Oversmoothing due to reduced-rank models



True w

Full GP

GPP 64 knots

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

See Stein (2014) for very good reasons NOT to use reduced-rank spatial models.

Pros

- Proper Gaussian process
- Allows for coherent spatial interpolation at arbitrary resolution
- Can be used as prior for spatial random effects in any hierarchical setup for spatial data
- Computationally tractable

Low rank Gaussian Predictive Process

Cons



Figure: Comparing full GP vs low-rank GP with 2500 locations

- Low rank models, like the GPP, tend to oversmooth
- Increasing the number of knots can fix this but will lead to heavy computation

- Idea: Use a sparse matrix instead of a low rank matrix to approximate the dense full GP covariance matrix
- Goals:
 - Scalability: Both in terms of storage and computing inverse and determinant
 - Closely approximate full GP inference
 - Proper Gaussian process model like the GPP

• Write a joint density $p(\mathbf{w}) = p(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ as:

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

• For Gaussian distribution $\mathbf{w} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{ heta})$ this \Rightarrow

 $w_1 = 0 + \eta_1;$ $w_2 = a_{21}w_1 + \eta_2;$

 $w_n = a_{n1}w_1 + a_{n2}w_2 + \cdots + a_{n,n-1}w_{n-1} + \eta_n;$

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• For Gaussian distribution $\mathbf{w} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{ heta})$ this \Rightarrow

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \dots & a_{n,n-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \vdots \\ \eta_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{Aw} + \eta; \quad \eta \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}).$$

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- For Gaussian distribution $\mathbf{w} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\theta})$ this \Rightarrow

$$\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & a_{n3} & \dots & a_{n,n-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \eta_1 \\ \eta_2 \\ \eta_3 \\ \vdots \\ \eta_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{Aw} + \eta; \quad \eta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}).$$

Cholesky factorization:

=

$$\mathbf{K}_{\theta} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A})^{-\top}, \text{ where } \mathbf{D} = \text{diag}(\text{var}\{w_i \mid w_{\{j < i\}}\})$$

• For Gaussian distribution $N(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\theta})$,

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

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

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

• Non-zero elements of **A** and **D** are computed:

D[1,1] = K[1,1] and first row of A is zero.
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])
}

Cholesky Factors and Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs)



- Number of non-zero entries (sparsity) of A equals number of arrows in the graph
- In particular: Sparsity of the *ith* row of **A** is same as the number of arrows towards *i* in the DAG



$p(y_1)p(y_2 | y_1)p(y_3 | y_1, y_2)p(y_4 | y_1, y_2, y_3)$ $\times p(y_5 | y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4)p(y_6 | y_1, y_2, \dots, y_5)p(y_7 | y_1, y_2, \dots, y_6).$



$p(y_1)p(y_2 | y_1)p(y_3 | y_1, y_2)p(y_4 | y_1, y_2, y_3)$ $p(y_5 | y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4)p(y_6 | y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5)p(y_7 | y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5, y_6)$



- Create a sparse DAG by keeping at most *m* arrows pointing to each node
- Set $a_{ij} = 0$ for all i, j which has no arrow between them
- Fixing a_{ij} = 0 introduces conditional independence and w_j drops out from the conditional set in p(w_i | {w_k : k < i})



- N(i) denote *neighbor set* of i, i.e., the set of nodes from which there are arrows to i
- $a_{ij} = 0$ for $j \notin N(i)$ and nonzero a_{ij} 's obtained by solving:

$$\mathsf{E}[w_i \mid w_{\mathcal{N}(i)}] = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} a_{ij} w_j$$

The above linear system is only m × m

• Non-zero elements of sparse **A** and **D** are computed:

```
D[1,1] = K[1,1] and first row of A is zero.
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 $m \times m$.
- We effectively model a (sparse) Cholesky factor instead of computing it.

Choosing neighbor sets

Matern Covariance Function:

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{s}_i,\mathbf{s}_j) = \frac{1}{2^{\nu-1}\Gamma(\nu)}(||\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_j||\phi)^{\nu}\mathscr{K}_{\nu}(||\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_j||\phi); \ \phi > 0, \nu > 0,$$



Choosing neighbor sets

- Spatial covariance functions decay with distance
- Vecchia (1988): N(s_i) = m-nearest neighbors of s_i in s₁, s₂,..., s_{i-1}
 - Nearest points have highest correlations
 - Theory: "Screening effect" Stein, 2002
- We use Vecchia's choice of *m*-nearest neighbor
- Other choices proposed in Stein et al. (2004); Gramacy and Apley (2015); Guinness (2018) can also be used, with additional discussion in Finley et al. (2019) and Katzfuzz and Guinness (2021)

Sparse precision matrices

- The neighbor sets and the covariance function K(·, ·) define a sparse Cholesky factor A
- $N(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{K}_{\theta}) \approx N(\mathbf{w} \mid \mathbf{0}, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta})$; $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta}^{-1} = (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{A})^{\top} \mathbf{D}^{-1} (\mathbf{I} \mathbf{A})$



Explore some A and \tilde{K}_{θ}^{-1} sparsity patterns https://github.com/finleya/NNGP_LDL 20

Extension to a Process

- We have defined $\mathbf{w} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta})$ over the set of data locations $S = {\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2, \dots, \mathbf{s}_n}$
- For $\mathbf{s} \notin S$, define $N(\mathbf{s})$ as set of *m*-nearest neighbors of \mathbf{s} in S
- Define $w(\mathbf{s}) = \sum_{i:\mathbf{s}_i \in N(\mathbf{s})} a_i(\mathbf{s})w(\mathbf{s}_i) + \eta(\mathbf{s})$ where $\eta(\mathbf{s}) \stackrel{ind}{\sim} N(0, d(\mathbf{s}))$
 - *a_i*(**s**) and *d*(**s**) are once again obtained by solving *m* × *m* system
- Well-defined GP over entire domain
 - Nearest Neighbor GP (NNGP) Datta et al., JASA, (2016)

Spatial linear model

$$y(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta} + w(\mathbf{s}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{s})$$

- w(s) modeled as NNGP derived from a GP(0, (·, ·, | σ², φ))
- $\epsilon(\mathbf{s}) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \tau^2)$ contributes to the nugget
- Priors for the parameters β , σ^2 , τ^2 and ϕ
- Only difference from a full GP model is the NNGP prior w(s)

Full Bayesian Model

$$\begin{split} & \mathsf{N}(\mathbf{y} \,|\, \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{w}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \times \mathsf{N}(\mathbf{w} \,|\, \mathbf{0}, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta}) \times \mathsf{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta} \,|\, \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\beta}, \mathbf{V}_{\beta}) \\ & \times \mathit{IG}(\tau^2 \,|\, \boldsymbol{a}_{\tau}, \boldsymbol{b}_{\tau}) \times \mathit{IG}(\sigma^2 \,|\, \boldsymbol{a}_{\sigma}, \boldsymbol{b}_{\sigma}) \times \mathit{Unif}(\phi \,|\, \boldsymbol{a}_{\phi}, \boldsymbol{b}_{\phi}) \end{split}$$

Gibbs sampler:

- Full conditionals for β , τ^2 , σ^2 and $w(\mathbf{s}_i)$'s
- Metropolis step for updating ϕ
- Posterior predictive distribution at any location using composition sampling

Choosing *m*



- Run NNGP in parallel for few values of m
- Choose *m* based on model evaluation metrics
- Our results suggested that typically $m \approx 20$ yielded excellent approximations to the full GP

Storage and computation

- Storage:
 - Never needs to store n × n distance matrix
 - Stores smaller m × m matrices
 - Total storage requirements O(nm²)
- Computation:
 - Only involves inverting small m × m matrices
 - Total flop count per iteration of Gibbs sampler is $O(nm^3)$
- Since $m \ll n$, NNGP offers great scalability for large datasets

Simulation experiment

- 2500 locations on a unit square
- $y(\mathbf{s}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x(\mathbf{s}) + w(\mathbf{s}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{s})$
- Single covariate x(s) generated as iid N(0,1)
- Spatial effects generated from $GP(0, \sigma^2 R(\cdot, \cdot | \phi))$
- $R(\cdot,\cdot \,|\, \phi)$ is exponential correlation function with decay ϕ
- Candidate models: Full GP, Gaussian Predictive Process (GPP) with 64 knots and NNGP

Fitted Surfaces



True w





NNGP, m = 10 NNGP, m = 20

Figure: Univariate synthetic data analysis

		NN	GP	Predictive Process	Full
	True	m = 10	<i>m</i> = 20	64 knots	Gaussian Process
β_0	1	1.00 (0.62, 1.31)	1.03 (0.65, 1.34)	1.30 (0.54, 2.03)	1.03 (0.69, 1.34)
β_1	5	5.01 (4.99, 5.03)	5.01 (4.99, 5.03)	5.03 (4.99, 5.06)	5.01 (4.99, 5.03)
σ^2	1	0.96 (0.78, 1.23)	0.94 (0.77, 1.20)	1.29 (0.96, 2.00)	0.94 (0.76, 1.23)
τ^2	0.1	0.10 (0.08, 0.13)	0.10 (0.08, 0.13)	0.08 (0.04, 0.13)	0.10 (0.08, 0.12)
ϕ	12	12.93 (9.70, 16.77)	13.36 (9.99, 17.15)	5.61 (3.48, 8.09)	13.52 (9.92, 17.50)

	NNGP		Predictive Process	Full
	m = 10	m = 20	64 knots	Gaussian Process
DIC score	2390	2377	13678	2364
RMSPE	1.2	1.2	1.68	1.2
Run time (Minutes)	14.40	46.47	43.36	560.31

- NNGP performs at par with Full GP
- GPP oversmooths and performs much worse both in terms of parameter estimation and model comparison
- NNGP yields huge computational gains

- Spatial linear model for *q*-variate spatial data: $y_i(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{x}_i^{\top}(\mathbf{s})\beta_i + w_i(s) + \epsilon_i(s)$ for i = 1, 2, ..., q
- $\epsilon(s) = (\epsilon_1(s), \epsilon_2(s), \dots, \epsilon_q(s))^\top \sim N(0, E)$ where E is the $q \times q$ noise matrix
- w(s) = (w₁(s), w₂(s),..., w_q(s))[⊤] is modeled as a *q*-variate Gaussian process

- Cov(w(s_i), w(s_j)) = K(s_i, s_j | θ) a q × q cross-covariance matrix
- Choices for the function $K(\cdot, \cdot \mid \theta)$
 - Multivariate Matérn
 - Linear model of co-regionalization
- For data observed at *n* locations, all choices lead to a dense *nq* × *nq* matrix **K**_θ = Cov(w(s₁), w(s₂),..., w(s_n))
- Not scalable when *nq* is large

Multivariate NNGPs

Cholesky factor approach similar to the univariate case

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{1}) \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{2}) \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{3}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{n}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \mathbf{A}_{31} & \mathbf{A}_{32} & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{A}_{n1} & \mathbf{A}_{n2} & \mathbf{A}_{n3} & \dots & \mathbf{A}_{n,n-1} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{1}) \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{2}) \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{3}) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{n}) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \eta(\mathbf{s}_{1}) \\ \eta(\mathbf{s}_{2}) \\ \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{s}_{n}) \\ \vdots \\ \eta(\mathbf{s}_{n}) \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w} + \eta; \quad \eta \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{D}), \ \mathbf{D} = diag(\mathbf{D}_{1}, \mathbf{D}_{2}, \dots, \mathbf{D}_{n}).$$

Only differences:

- w(s_i) and n(s_i)'s are q × 1 vectors and A_{ij} and D_i's are q × q matrix
- we must solve n-1 at most $mq \times mq$ linear systems (challenging when q gets large, e.g., q > 5).

U.S. Forest biomass data



- Forest biomass data from measurements at 114,371 plots
- NDVI (greenness) is used to predict forest biomass

Non Spatial Model Biomass = $\beta_0 + \beta_1 NDVI + error$, $\hat{\beta}_0 = 1.043$, $\hat{\beta}_1 = 0.0093$



Residuals

Variogram of residuals

Strong spatial pattern among residuals

Forest biomass dataset

- $n \approx 10^5$ (Forest Biomass) \Rightarrow full GP requires storage $\approx 40 Gb$ and time ≈ 140 hrs per iteration.
- We use a spatially varying coefficients NNGP model

Model

- $Biomass(s) = \beta_0(s) + \beta_1(s)NDVI(s) + \epsilon(s)$
- $\mathbf{w}(s) = (\beta_0(s), \beta_1(s))^\top \sim \text{Bivariate } NNGP(0, \tilde{K}(\cdot, \cdot \mid \theta)),$ m = 5
- Time \approx 6 seconds per iteration
- Full inferential output: 41 hours (25000 MCMC iterations)

Forest biomass data



Observed biomass

Fitted biomass



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Reducing parameter dimensionality

- The Gibbs sampler algorithm for the NNGP updates w(s₁), w(s₂),..., w(s_n) sequentially
- Dimension of the MCMC for this sequential algorithm is O(n)
- If the number of data locations n is very large, this high-dimensional MCMC can converge slowly
- Although each iteration for the NNGP model will be very fast, many more MCMC iterations may be required

Same model:

$$\begin{split} y(\mathbf{s}) &= \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})^\top \beta + w(\mathbf{s}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{s}) \\ w(\mathbf{s}) &\sim NNGP(0, K(\cdot, \cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ \epsilon(\mathbf{s}) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \tau^2) \end{split}$$

- Latent model: $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{w}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I})$; $\mathbf{w} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta})$
- Collapsed model: Marginalizing out w, $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I} + \tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta})$

$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathit{N}(\mathbf{X}m{eta}, au^2\mathbf{I} + m{ ilde{K}}_{ heta})$

- Only involves few parameters ${\cal B}$, τ^2 and ${\cal \theta}=(\sigma^2,\phi)$
- Drastically reduces the MCMC dimensionality
- Gibbs sampler updates are based on sparse linear systems using $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}_{\theta}^{-1}$ (e.g., use CHOLMOD)
- Improved MCMC convergence
- Can recover posterior distribution of w | y
- Complexity of the algorithm depends on the design of the data locations and is not guaranteed to be O(n)

- $w(\mathbf{s}) \sim GP(\mathbf{0}, K(\cdot, \cdot \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})) \Rightarrow y(\mathbf{s}) \sim GP(\mathbf{x}(s)^{\top} \boldsymbol{\beta}, \Sigma(\cdot, \cdot \mid \tau^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}))$
- $\Sigma(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j) = K(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j | \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \tau^2 \, \delta(\mathbf{s}_i = \mathbf{s}_j) \; (\delta \text{ is Kronecker delta})$
- We can directly derive the NNGP covariance function corresponding to $\Sigma(\cdot,\cdot)$
- $\tilde{\Sigma}$ is the NNGP covariance matrix for the *n* locations
- Response model: $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}})$
- Storage and computations are guaranteed to be O(n)
- Low dimensional MCMC \Rightarrow Improved convergence
- Cannot coherently recover w | y

Conjugate NNGP

- Full GP model: $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ where $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{M}$
- $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{R}(\phi) + \alpha \mathbf{I}$
- $\alpha = \tau^2/\sigma^2$ is the ratio of the noise to signal variance
- $\tilde{\mathbf{\Sigma}} = \sigma^2 \tilde{\mathbf{M}}$ where $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}$ is the NNGP approximation for \mathbf{M}

Conjugate NNGP

- Full GP model: $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{\Sigma})$ where $\mathbf{\Sigma} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{M}$
- $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{R}(\phi) + \alpha \mathbf{I}$
- $\alpha = \tau^2/\sigma^2$ is the ratio of the noise to signal variance
- $\tilde{\pmb{\Sigma}}=\sigma^2\tilde{\pmb{\mathsf{M}}}$ where $\tilde{\pmb{\mathsf{M}}}$ is the NNGP approximation for $\pmb{\mathsf{M}}$
- If ϕ and α are known, **M**, and hence $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}$, are known matrices
- The model becomes a standard Bayesian linear model
- Assume a *Normal Inverse Gamma* prior for $(\beta, \sigma^2)^{\top}$
- $(\beta, \sigma^2)^{\top} \sim NIG(\mu_{\beta}, \mathbf{V}_{\beta}, \mathbf{a}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{b}_{\sigma})$, i.e., $\beta \mid \sigma^2 \sim N(\mu_{\beta}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}_{\beta})$ and $\sigma^2 \sim IG(\mathbf{a}_{\sigma}, \mathbf{b}_{\sigma})$
- Exact posterior distributions of β and σ^2 are available

Can handle n in the 100s of millions!

	Latent	Collapsed	Response	Conjugate
O(n) time	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Recovery of w y	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Parameter	High	Low	Low	Low
dimensionality				
Inference on $ heta$	Yes	Yes	Yes	Partially

Comparison of NNGP models



Figure: (a) Runtime for 1000 MCMC iterations for n = 100000 and different number of cores. (b) Runtime for 1000 MCMC iterations using 40 cores and *n* from 1000 to 5 million. Model type (latent and response) refers to different NNGP parameterizations, see Finley et al. 2022.

Summary of Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes

- Sparsity inducing Gaussian process
- Constructed from sparse Cholesky factors based on *m* nearest neighbors
- Scalability in storage, inverse, and determinant of NNGP covariance matrix are all O(n)
- Proper Gaussian process, allows for inference using hierarchical spatial models and predictions at arbitrary spatial resolution
- Closely approximates full GP inference, does not oversmooth like low rank models
- Extension to multivariate NNGP
- Collapsed and response NNGP models with improved MCMC convergence
- R packages spNNGP (Finley et al. 2022) and spOccupancy (Doser et al., 2022) on CRAN