# GaSP: Train and Apply a Gaussian Stochastic Process Model

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### 1. Introduction

Controlled physical experiments for complex phenomena may be expensive and time-consuming or, in some cases, impossible. Thus, the need for computer models to emulate such physical systems arises. Generally, computer experiments using statistical models will take a vector of d inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  and produce a corresponding scalar output response  $y(\mathbf{x})$ . One distinction from physical experiments is that computer experiments may be deterministic: the same set of inputs will generate the same results. Hence there is need for special statistical methods.

Among these models is the popular model archetype called a Gaussian Stochastic Process (GaSP) or simply a Gaussian Process (GP). The core components are the mean function  $\mu(\mathbf{x})$ , the zero-mean stochastic process  $Z(\mathbf{x})$ , and an optional random error  $\epsilon$  (absent if  $y(\mathbf{x})$  is deterministic). The stochastic process will have a correlation function denoted as  $R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$ , it quantifies the relationship of the two response variables y and y' from the inputs  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}'$ . The objective of package GaSP is to train a GaSP model via maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) or maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation, run model diagnostics, and make predictions following Sacks et al. (1989). It can also perform sensitivity analysis and visualize low-order effects following Schonlau and Welch (2006).

The regression model is fairly flexible as defined by a model formula, and GaSP implements two popular correlation function families for the stochastic process: the Matérn and the power-exponential families. These families will be detailed in Section 3.3, but we note that the smoothness can be optimized in both cases. Following the prediction method described in Sacks et al. (1989), GaSP uses the "plug-in" estimated parameters obtained from the fitting method to calculate the best linear unbiased predictor of the response at any untried input vector  $\mathbf{x}$  along with a standard error. Leave-one-out cross-validation (CV) predictions are also available along with many model diagnostic plots such as residual plots, standardized residual plots, and normal quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plots for both CV and out-of-sample predictions.

For sensitivity analysis and visualization of low-order effects, GaSP has the capability to perform functional analysis of variance (FANOVA) decomposition and plot estimated main and two-factor joint effects. This will be detailed in Section 9.

The package has little R overhead: all computationally intense matrix calculations are coded in C for efficiency.

This vignette aims to explain how to utilize GaSP in a research setting and help users to interpret the results. The authors have inevitably made implementation choices, some different from other packages, and those details need to be emphasized. The vignette will be divided into sections that follow the standard workflow order. Each section will feature code examples, interpretation of the results, and implementation details. Use help(package = GaSP) in R to access the full documentation.

# 2. Data Setup

GaSP uses training data passed in by two arguments:

• x is a dataframe containing n runs in the rows and the values of d input variables in the columns;

• y is a vector or dataframe containing the corresponding n values of a single output variable in the rows.

A matrix type is also allowed instead of a dataframe.

We will use the borehole data provided in GaSP for the data setup as follows:

```
library(GaSP)
x <- borehole$x
y <- borehole$y
x_pred <- borehole$x_pred
y_true <- borehole$y_true</pre>
```

If we look at the first three rows of inputs in x and the corresponding outputs in y

```
head(borehole$x, n = 3)
                                      Hıı
                                                Tl
                                                         Η٦
                                                                    T.
                                                                            Kw
         rw
                   r
                            Tu
1 0.0730769 14174.34 64416.92 1057.692 116.00000 733.8461 1191.795 12045.00
2 0.0961539 6497.43 112906.16 1048.461 98.36668 813.8462 1421.539 11595.77
3 0.0935897 38484.63 107518.47 1066.923 106.50514 798.4616 1148.718 11090.39
head(borehole\$y, n = 3)
1 54.75499
2 55.35180
3 70.95713
```

we see that the variables in x are on the original scales of the application. For the user's convenience and scientific interpretability (especially in plots), the columns of x need not be scaled by the user to [0,1]. Similarly, y need not be rescaled to have, say, mean zero or standard deviation 1. Where necessary, GaSP will perform scaling internally but report back results on the original scales.

For brevity, unless otherwise stated, x and y will be refer to borehole\$x and borehole\$y in further examples of this vignette.

Similarly, x\_pred is a dataset of the inputs for untried runs where we want to predict y, and y\_true contains true values for benchmarking of prediction accuracy; x\_pred and y\_true are set up analogously to x and y. For more details of the borehole function, please refer to the website in the citations by Surjanovic and Bingham (2013).

Currently GaSP does not handle missing values. If one or more inputs or the response is missing from an observation, that observation should be deleted.

#### 3. GaSP Model Formulation

GaSP functions communicate through what we call a GaSPModel object, because it can be generated by the function GaSPModel. It contains the model formulation as well as quantities computed by GaSP. The function GaSPModel is described further in Section 4, but often the user will rely on Fit in Section 5 to implicitly create the same object from the model specification, along with parameter estimates. Either way, the components of the model need to be defined; their descriptions in this section will also help interpretation of the model parameters and their estimates.

#### 3.1 GaSP model components

Following the approach of Sacks et al. (1989), GaSP treats observations of an unknown function  $Y(\mathbf{x})$  as arising from the data model

$$Y(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + Z(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon.$$

It comprises a mean function  $\mu(\mathbf{x})$ , a Gaussian stochastic process  $Z(\mathbf{x})$  and an optional random error  $\epsilon$ . The random error term is in principle absent for evaluations of a deterministic function, as from a computer experiment, but even here we need to think of a random function  $Y(\mathbf{x})$  to provide a framework for quantifying uncertainty about the value of the function where it has not been observed. We now explain the details of the model components; those details will aid the interpretation of parameter estimates, etc.

## 3.2 Mean (regression) function

We can write the mean (regression) function as:

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \beta_j f_j(\mathbf{x})$$

Here, the  $\beta_j$  are unknown linear model regression coefficients to be estimated by GaSP, and the  $f_j(\mathbf{x})$  are user-defined functions. In a GaSPModel, the mean function formula is specified by parameter reg\_model using syntax that is similar to the formula parameter in say lm(). There is a restriction, however, to only polynomial models, i.e., powers of the inputs and interaction terms.

The simplest model is a constant regression  $\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_1 1 = \beta_1$ , i.e., k = 1 and  $f_1(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ , where GaSP functions would have the argument

```
reg_model = ~ 1
```

Note first that the formula has no left-hand side, like in y ~ 1: the response variable is always the single variable appearing in the training data, say borehole\$y. Secondly, while this simple model often works well, as demonstrated by Chen et al. (2016), and is very widely used, it is not a default. The regression model must always be specified.

As a slightly more complicated illustration, a regression model with first-order terms in the first three borehole inputs, plus a constant or intercept, is given by

```
reg_model_first = ~ 1 + r + rw + Tu
```

and passed to functions via reg\_model = reg\_model\_first. Mathematically, we can express this model as:

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_r + \beta_3 x_{rw} + \beta_4 x_{Tu}$$

A more complicated model such as

```
reg_model_bizarre <- ~ 1 + (r + rw + Tu)^2 + I(Hu^2)
```

could also be passed to the reg\_model argument. Mathematically, the regression model is

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_r + \beta_3 x_{rw} + \beta_4 x_{Tu} + \beta_5 x_r^2 + \beta_6 x_{rw}^2 + \beta_7 x_{Tu}^2 + \beta_8 x_r x_{rw} + \beta_9 x_r x_{Tu} + \beta_{10} x_{rw} x_{Tu} + \beta_{11} x_{Hu}^2$$

which is bizarre and definitely not recommended but demonstrates the flexibility. As usual, Hu^2 has to be protected by I().

#### 3.3 Stochastic process component

The random process  $Z(\mathbf{x})$  is assumed to have mean zero, variance  $\sigma_Z^2$ , and correlation function  $R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')$  for the correlation between  $Z(\mathbf{x})$  and  $Z(\mathbf{x}')$  at any two input vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{x}'$ . The correlation structure is important in predicting at untried inputs not in the training data.

Mathematically, GaSP uses a so-called product correlation structure,

$$R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \prod_{j=1}^{d} R_j(h_j),$$

where the product is over the d inputs,  $h_j = |x_j - x_j'|$  is a distance in the input j dimension, and  $R_j(h_j)$  is a correlation function on [0, 1]

We next show that the variables called  $x_j$  here can be derived from the original inputs, before moving on to the important topic of the choice of correlation function.

The variables in the stochastic process component are specified by the parameter  $sp_{model}$ . The default  $sp_{model} = NULL$  uses in the above product all of the original inputs  $x_j$  appearing in the training data, and the user does not need to do anything in this typical case. If for some reason in the borehole application the  $sp_{model}$  argument is say

then the product would only be over the inputs r, rw and Tu. Note there is no constant term in sp\_model as the correlation function works on differences, and a constant cancels; a warning would be generated but there is no need for alarm. Note also that different variables or derived variables can appear in the regression and stochastic-process components.

Similar to reg\_model, powers and interaction terms are allowed. For example, a set of variables in the stochastic process component of the model could be specified by

$$sp_model_bizarre = (r + rw + Tu)^2 + I(Hu^2)$$

whereupon the variables

$$x_{\rm r}, x_{\rm rw}, x_{\rm Tu}, x_{\rm r}^2, x_{\rm rw}^2, x_{\rm Tu}^2, x_{\rm r}x_{\rm rw}, x_{\rm r}x_{\rm Tu}, x_{\rm rw}x_{\rm Tu}, x_{\rm Hu}^2$$

are the 10 "inputs" used in the correlation function. Again, the choice here is not recommended but shows the flexibility.

Next we describe the two families of correlation functions implemented by GaSP for the  $R_j(\cdot)$  in the product correlation structure.

• Power-exponential. We parameterize the power-exponential correlation function as

$$R_j(h_j) = \exp(-\theta_j h_j^{2-\alpha_j}).$$

Here  $R_j(h_j)$  depends on a distance-scale parameter  $\theta_j \geq 0$ , controlling the rate of correlation decay as the distance  $h_j$  (from  $x_j$ ) increases. Different from some other packages,  $\theta_j$  is in the numerator. Thus  $\theta_j = 0$  implies perfect correlation, making  $x_j$  an inactive input. The smoothness parameter  $0 \leq \alpha_j \leq 1$  defines the power as  $2 - \alpha_j$ , and again the specification is different from some other implementations. Hence,  $\alpha_j = 0$  gives the extremely smooth squared-exponential (Gaussian) special case. Similarly,  $\alpha_j = 1$  gives the special case known as the exponential correlation. Power-exponential is a generalization of these special cases and is much more flexible, though we will also describle later how to impose such special cases. Subject to any user constraints, GaSP will estimate the  $\theta_j$  and  $\alpha_j$  parameters separately for each input for a so-called anisotropic correlation function.

• Matérn. The parameterization of the Matérn correlation function follows Chen et al. (2016) and allows four discrete levels of smoothness controlled by the parameter  $\delta_j$ , which is the number of derivatives:

$$R_j(h_j) = \begin{cases} \exp(-\theta_j h_j) \text{ for } \delta_j = 0 \text{ (the exponential correlation)} \\ \exp(-\theta_j h_j)(\theta_j h_j + 1) \text{ for } \delta_j = 1 \\ \exp(-\theta_j h_j)((\theta_j h_j)^2/3 + \theta_j h_j + 1) \text{ for } \delta_j = 2 \\ \exp(-\theta_j h_j^2) \text{ for } \delta_j \to \infty \text{ (the squared-exponential correlation)} \end{cases}$$

In GaSP,  $\delta$  is called Derivatives taking values 0, 1, 2, or 3, with  $\delta_j \to \infty$  coded as 3. The setup here implies that  $\theta_j$  has the same interpretation for the exponential and squared-exponential special cases common to the power-exponential and Matérn families. Similar to the power-exponential case, GaSP will fit the  $\theta_j$  and  $\delta_j$  parameters separately for each input, though the user is again allowed to constrain their ranges, for example restricting to exactly one or two derivatives, as is sometimes done.

GaSP stores the values of the correlation parameters in a dataframe named cor\_par with one row for each term in the stochastic process model and two columns. The first column is named Theta, and the second is either Alpha for the power-exponential case or Derivatives for the Matérn case.

## 3.4 Random error component

The random error term  $\epsilon$  is independent "white noise" with variance  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2$ . Its main purpose is to represent genuine measurement error, but it is also sometimes used for computational stability as a so-called "nugget" term even when the input-output relationship is deterministic.

To understand the (possibly confusing) interplay of the two distinct roles of the random error term, it is helpful to know how GaSP handles variance parameters internally. Let  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_Z^2 + \sigma_\epsilon^2$  be the total variance, and let  $\gamma = \sigma_Z^2/\sigma^2$  be the proportion of the total variance due to the stochastic process. Internally GaSP optimizes  $\sigma^2$  and  $\gamma$  but reports back  $\sigma_Z^2 = \gamma \sigma^2$  and  $\sigma_\epsilon^2 = (1-\gamma)\sigma^2$  as sp\_var and error\_var, respectively.

For computational stability, the user argument nugget taking values in [0,1] is available to provide a ceiling on  $\gamma$ : for example, the default nugget = 1e-9 means that  $\gamma$  cannot exceed  $1-10^{-9}$ . Thus, no correlation can exceed that ceiling, ruling out correlations of 1 and singular matrices. (In practice, GaSP has few problems with ill-conditioning even with zero nugget: warnings may be issued but the final result is rarely an error flag.)

The boolean argument random\_error indicates whether GaSP should optimize  $\gamma$  and hence estimate a genuine  $\sigma_{\epsilon}^2=(1-\gamma)\sigma^2$ . If the user passes random\_error = TRUE,  $\gamma$  is optimized subject to not exceeding the complement of nugget as above.

Thus, we can think of four combinations of random\_error (TRUE / FALSE) and nugget (zero and non-zero).

- random\_error = FALSE and nugget = 0: the estimate of the proportion of the total variance due to the stochastic process will be 1, i.e., the pure deterministic model with only  $\sigma^2 = \sigma_Z^2$  to be estimated.
- random\_error = FALSE and nugget > 0: the proportion of the total variance due to the stochastic process is fixed at 1— nugget, usually to represent a deterministic model with a small amount of random error for numerical stability.
- random\_error = TRUE and nugget = 0: the estimate of the proportion of the total variance due to the stochastic process versus random error will be unbounded between 0 and 1 during optimization, i.e., the 'noisy data' model where  $\sigma_Z^2$  and  $\sigma_\epsilon^2$  are both estimated without any restriction.
- random\_error = TRUE and nugget > 0: again both variances are estimated but the proportion of the total variance due to the stochastic process will be upper bounded by 1— nugget during optimization.

It should be noted that when random\_error = FALSE and nugget > 0, the resulting error variance error\_var will be greater than 0, and we have a contradiction as random\_error = FALSE assumes error\_var = 0. For consistency with Fit, functions such as Predict that require a GaSPModel object as input will generate a warning that GaSP is assuming random\_error = TRUE in these cases. There is no need to be alarmed, as these functions simply will use random\_error = TRUE instead; the values of sp\_var and error\_var passed in will not be changed by the function.

# 4. GaSPModel object

After setting up our data and deciding on a model, GaSP provides two options to obtain a GaSPModel object: Fit and GaSPModel. Fit returns such an object with the model parameters trained via the MLE or MAP methods detailed in Section 5. Alternatively, the user can specify the model's parameters directly, perhaps

taking the results of another package, with the function GaSPModel. Either way the object is needed as input to the GaSP functions Predict, CrossValidate, and Visualize.

A GaSPModel object must have the following components:

- x and y: the input (explanatory variable) training data and output (response) training data.
- reg\_model and sp\_model: respectively the regression model and an optional stochastic process model, as specified in Sections 3.2 and 3.3.
- cor\_family and cor\_par: respectively the correlation family and the data frame containing the correlation parameters, as specified in Section 3.3.
- random\_error, sp\_var and error\_var: respectively the boolean to indicate presence of a random error term, the stochastic process variance, and the random error variance, as described in Section 3.4.

The following additional components are optional (and generated by Fit) in the sense that Predict, CrossValidate and Visualize will ignore the user's values (and compute them from scratch if necessary):

- beta: the regression parameters  $\beta_i$  for the mean function in Section 3.2.
- objective, cond\_num and CVRMSE: diagnostics from Fit, which are respectively the maximum objective found, the condition number of the matrix calculations, and the model's cross-validation root mean squared error (see Section 5).

To illustrate how the user can directly create a GaSPModel object:

```
theta <- c(
    5.767699e+01, 0.000000e+00, 0.000000e+00, 1.433571e-06,
    0.000000e+00, 2.366557e-06, 1.695619e-07, 2.454376e-09
)
alpha <- c(
    1.110223e-16, 0.000000e+00, 0.000000e+00, 0.000000e+00,
    0.000000e+00, 0.000000e+00, 2.494862e-03, 0.000000e+00
)
cor_par <- data.frame(Theta = theta, Alpha = alpha)
rownames(cor_par) <- colnames(borehole$x)
sp_var <- 38783.7
borehole_gasp <- GaSPModel(
    x = x, y = y,
    reg_model = ~1, cor_family = "PowerExponential",
    cor_par = cor_par, random_error = FALSE,
    sp_var = sp_var
)</pre>
```

The behavior of defaults is the same as with Fit in Section 5. Here the cor\_family will default to "PowerExponential", and sp\_model will by default use all variables in x. However, it should be noted that sp\_var needs to be specified, and error\_var will also require specification when random\_error = FALSE. Note also that cor\_par takes its row names for the variables in the stochastic process model from the column names of x, because of the use of default stochastic process model here. In general the row names of cor\_par should match the terms implied by sp\_mod, so that the results are easy to interpret. GaSP makes several compatibility checks of this kind, and issues helpful warning/error messages if there is a problem. Despite the plethora of parameter checks, GaSP has no way of knowing if the parameters will generate a good, stable result, and it is up to the user to ensure the values generate the desired model.

### 5. Fit

Following the methods introduced by Sacks et al. (1989), in GaSP we specify the objective that Fit attempts to maximize by setting fit\_objective to "Likelihood" for maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). Alternatively, fit\_objective = "Posterior" for Bayesian maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation.

#### 5.1 Maximum likelihood estimation

To train a model via MLE we can run Fit as in the following example:

```
borehole_fit <- Fit(
    reg_model = ~1, x = x, y = y, cor_family = "PowerExponential",
    random_error = TRUE, fit_objective = "Likelihood", model_comparison = "Objective"
)</pre>
```

Here x = x refers to the borehole x in Section 2, and similarly for y. We choose the power-exponential correlation family with random error and the default nugget value. The parameter model\_comparison is the criterion used to select from multiple solutions when there are multiple optimization tries from different starting points: either the objective function used in optimization "Objective" or leave-one-out cross validation "CV". With MLE the objective function is the profile log likelihood:

$$-\frac{n}{2}\ln(2\pi) - \frac{n}{2}\ln(\widehat{\sigma^2}) - \frac{1}{2}\ln(\det(\mathbf{R})) - \frac{n}{2}$$

We operate on the log-scale for numerical stability.

In the profile log likelihood,

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

is the generalized least squares estimate of the total variance  $\sigma^2$  in Section 3.4, which is available in closed form. The correlation parameters have to be numerically optimized, however. As well as the parameters in cor\_par, if random\_error = TRUE then  $\gamma$  in Section 3.4 is another correlation parameter to be simultaneously optimized. When Fit terminates it reports back

$$\widehat{\sigma_Z^2} = \frac{\gamma}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

and

$$\widehat{\sigma_{\epsilon}^2} = \frac{(1-\gamma)}{n} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

as sp\_var and error\_var, respectively.

Fit returns a GaSPModel class object, to be used in further calculations.

## 5.2 Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation

MAP estimation is chosen via fit\_objective = "Posterior", e.g.,

```
borehole_fit <- Fit(
  reg_model = ~1, x = x, y = y, cor_family = "Matern",
  random_error = FALSE, nugget = 0, fit_objective = "Posterior"
)</pre>
```

Again, it is actually the log of the profile objective, now the posterior, that is numerically maximized:

$$\lambda \sum_{j} \theta_{j} - \frac{n-k}{2} \ln(\widehat{\sigma^{2}}) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(\det(\mathbf{R})) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(\det((\mathbf{F}^{T} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{F}))).$$

This expression differs from the profile log likelihood in several ways. First, independent exponential priors with rate parameter  $\lambda$  on each correlation parameter  $\theta_j$  give the term  $\lambda \sum_j \theta_j$ . The user can set  $\lambda$  via lambda\_prior, which takes the default 0.1 here. (The same  $\lambda$  applies to all correlation parameters  $\theta_j$ , and this is the only place where the scaling of the inputs and hence the  $\theta_j$  matters.) Secondly, independent

limiting constant priors for the linear model regression coefficients  $\beta_j$  and a Jeffery's prior for  $\sigma^2$  proportional to  $1/\sigma^2$  generate a degrees of freedom adjustment

$$\widehat{\sigma^2} = \frac{1}{n-k} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$$

in the MAP estimate of  $\sigma^2$  as well as the multiplier (n-k)/2 in the log profile; see Handcock and Stein (1993).

The example also specifies the Matérn correlation family via cor\_family = "Matern", a choice that could also be made for MLE.

#### 5.3 Further details of Fit

In both estimation methods we did not address two parameters log\_obj\_tol and log\_obj\_diff as they relate to details of the optimization process. Here are their definitions:

- log\_obj\_tol: An absolute tolerance for terminating the maximization of the log of the objective. It is the stopping criterion for Fit.
- log\_obj\_diff: The default value is 0 and will have no effect on the maximization. However, if set to a value greater than 0, during iterations of the optimization an informal hypothesis test of  $\theta_j = 0$  is repeatedly carried out to try to simplify the model. The test compares the difference in the log objective with and without the hypothesis imposed against log\_obj\_diff.

In summary, here are all the parameters for Fit that always need to be specified.

- x and y: the user has to specify the training data.
- reg\_model: the user has to specify the mean function.
- random\_error: the user has to specify whether there is random error.

In contrast, most parameters for Fit have defaults.

- $sp_model$ : the default is NULL and all variables in x will be used.
- cor\_family: the default is "PowerExponential".
- cor\_par: user-specified starting values for the first try to maximize the objective; the default empty dataframe simply communicates to the optimizer that Fit always generates its own starting values.
- sp\_var and error\_var: user-specified starting values for the first try to maximize the objective; the defaults of -1, which are clearly illegal for variances, communicate to the optimizer that Fit always generates its own starting values. Note the values are not used at all if random\_error = FALSE.
- nugget: the default for the random error nugget is 1e-9.
- tries: the number of tries to optimize the objective from different starts; the default is 10.
- seed: the default for the random seed number is 500.
- fit\_objective: the default is "Likelihood".
- theta\_standardized\_min and theta\_standardized\_max: the lower and upper bound on each  $\theta_j$ , standardized for the scale of the corresponding stochastic-process term. They take the defaults 0 and  $\infty$ , respectively.
- alpha\_min and alpha\_max: the lower and upper bound on each  $\alpha_j$  in the power-exponential correlation family, with defaults 0 and 1.
- derivatives\_min and derivatives\_max: These are the ranges for the number of derivative in the Matérn correlation family, with defaults 0 (no derivatives) and 3 (a code for the infinitely differentiable squared-exponential).
- log\_obj\_tol: the default is 1e-5.
- log\_obj\_diff: the default is 0 (no attempt to simplify the model).
- lambda\_prior: the default is 0.1.
- model\_comparison: the default is "Objective".

One parameter often manipulated is alpha\_max: setting it to zero will give the squared-exponential correlation family. Similarly, the Matérn correlation function with 2 derivatives, another popular choice, is specified by cor\_family = "Matern", derivatives\_min = 2 and derivatives\_max = 2.

This list is just to get a general idea of why many variables are not specified in our examples. Furthermore, GaSP performs thorough parameter checks, for example:

```
borehole_fit <- Fit(x = x, y = y,
    reg_model = ~ 1 + a, sp_model = ~ 1 + r, random_error = FALSE
)
Warning: intercept term in 'sp_model' will not be used.
Error:
1: components of 'reg_model' terms must be column names in 'x'.</pre>
```

The error occurs because a is not a variable in the (borehole) inputs x.

Warnings will be printed as soon as one is detected, and Errors will be compiled into a list before quitting gracefully.

As stated in Section 4, Fit will generate a GaSPModel object with some summaries from the optimization:

- objective: the maximum value found for the objective function, i.e., the log likelihood for fit objective = "Likelihood" or the log posterior for fit objective = "Posterior".
- cond\_num: the worst condition number arising in the matrix calculations for the returned object.
- CVRMSE: The leave-one-out cross-validation root mean squared error.

To see the values of these parameters, or any parameter of a GaSPModel object, use the \$ symbol, e.g., borehole\_fit\$cor\_par to access the estimated correlation parameters. The user can also type borehole\_fit to print the whole object on the console.

Sometimes the R console will print an error matrix with the header: "The following warning/error messages were generated:". This matrix is feedback generated by the underlying C code. There is no need for alarm as long as there are no errors (just warnings).

## 6 Predict

We can use a trained GaSPModel to predict the response  $y(\mathbf{x}')$  for untried input vectors  $\mathbf{x}'$  in a test set. Specifically, we can obtain the estimated predictive means (or best linear unbiased predictors) and the predictive variances, with the latter incorporating the uncertainty inherent in a GaSP model because it is a stochastic process, as well as that from estimating the coefficients  $\beta$ . Uncertainty from estimating the correlation parameters is not included, however. For the details of the derivation refer to Sacks et al. (1989).

We illustrate Predict using the first three rows of the borehole x\_pred data frame and the true response values y\_true (see Section 2):

```
head(borehole$x_pred, n = 3)

rw r Tu Hu Tl Hl L Kw

1 0.1266540 4737.606 71057.92 1075.227 105.06737 781.0703 1316.775 10763.67

2 0.1345655 31551.870 113416.59 1085.278 109.88709 761.2122 1527.622 10303.86

3 0.1427761 18935.703 103624.42 1073.503 71.53184 783.3706 1414.381 12044.93

head(borehole$y_true, n = 3)

y

1 120.3835

2 123.4973

3 155.9978
```

We apply the Predict function as follows:

```
borehole_pred <- Predict(
   GaSP_model = borehole_gasp,</pre>
```

```
x_pred = x_pred,
generate_coefficients = TRUE
)
```

Here, borehole\_gasp is from the GaSPModel function in Section 4, but use of the Predict function is the same for GaSPModel objects generated by either the MLE and MAP training methods. The first three rows of the resulting y\_pred data frame are:

```
head(borehole_pred$y_pred, n = 3)

Pred SE

1 119.6256 0.2442234

2 123.5648 0.7313592

3 156.4542 1.1220239
```

It can be seen that the estimated predictive means (Pred) match the true response values in y\_true fairly well. For the MLE method, a prediction follows a normal distribution with the given predictive mean and estimated standard deviation (SE), whereas for the MAP method the prediction will follow a t-distribution instead. Both these results are conditional on the correlation parameters, i.e., their fitted values are taken as true.

generate\_coefficients is an option for generating a vector of prediction coefficients  $pred_coeffs$ . They can be used as follows. Let  $\mathbf{c}$  denote the coefficients and let  $\mathbf{r}$  denote a vector with element i containing the correlation between the output at a given new point and the output at training point i. Then the prediction of the output at the new point is the dot product of  $\mathbf{c}$  and  $\mathbf{r}$ . The vector  $\mathbf{c}$  is obtained as borehole predpred coeffs here.

## 7 CrossValidate

We can apply the CrossValidate function to a GaSPModel object as follows:

It computes a "fast" version of leave-one-out cross-validation where the correlation parameters are not re-optimized every time a training observation is removed. The output is similar to that of Predict: cross-validated predictions and standard errors are in the columns Pred and SE. The first three predictions track well the training data shown in Section 2.

# 8 Plots and diagnostics for Predict and CrossValidate

One of the main strengths of GaSP is its wide variety of plots. Here we introduce diagnostics based on Predict and CrossValidate:

- PlotPredictions: plot the true output (response) versus predictions generated by Predict or CrossValidate.
- PlotResiduals: plot residuals versus each input variable.
- PlotStdResiduals: plot the standardized residuals versus predictions made by Predict or CrossValidate. Here, a standardized residual is the residual divided by an estimate of its standard deviation.

ullet PlotQQ: make a normal quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plot of the standardized residuals of predictions from Predict or CrossValidate.

The same plotting functions are used for predictions from Predict or CrossValidate, with slight differences in the setup as described in the following two sections.

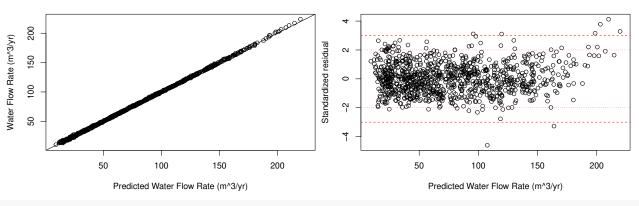
### 8.1 Plots for Predict

Here we showcase plots from Predict results:

```
PlotPredictions(borehole_pred$y_pred, y_true,
    y_name = "Water Flow Rate", y_units = "m^3/yr", title = "Predict")
PlotStdResiduals(borehole_pred$y_pred, y_true,
    y_name = "Water Flow Rate", y_units = "m^3/yr", title = "Predict")
```

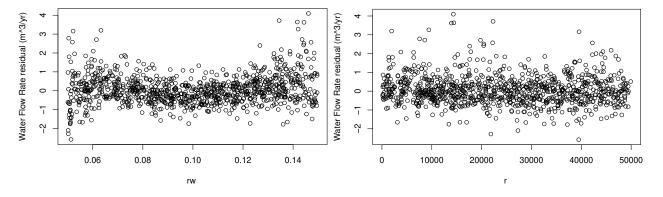
#### True Water Flow Rate versus prediction

#### Water Flow Rate standardized residual versus prediction



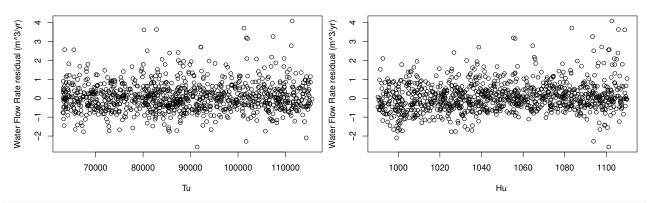
#### Water Flow Rate residual versus rw

#### Water Flow Rate residual versus r

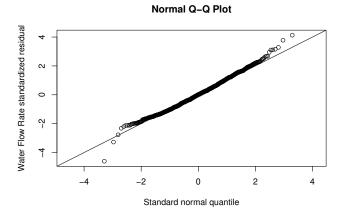




#### Water Flow Rate residual versus Hu



PlotQQ(borehole\_pred\$y\_pred, y\_true, y\_name = "Water Flow Rate")



Note that we need to specify the y\_pred component from the borehole\_pred object returned by Predict. A value for the title parameter is mandatory ("Predict", "CrossValidate", or "") for the first two functions to distinguish the possible purposes. The call to PlotResiduals passes only the first four columns of x\_pred here just to reduce plotting space; usually, all input columns would be of interest. The parameters y\_name and y\_units are only used for label construction in all these functions and do not need to be specified.

### 8.2 Plots for CrossValidate

The plots for predictions from CrossValidate are similar to those for Predict, and we therefore just give the syntax without showing the plots:

```
PlotPredictions(borehole_cv, y,
    y_name = "Water Flow Rate", y_units = "m^3/yr", title = "CrossValidate")
PlotStdResiduals(borehole_cv, y,
    y_name = "Water Flow Rate", y_units = "m^3/yr", title = "CrossValidate")
PlotResiduals(x, borehole_cv, y, y_name = "Water Flow Rate", y_units = "m^3/yr")
PlotQQ(borehole_cv, y, y_name = "Water Flow Rate")
```

Here borehole\_cv can be directly used, as it is a data frame like borehole\_pred\$y\_pred. And naturally for cross validation, we have y instead of y\_true.

## 8.3 Root mean squared error (RMSE)

We also provide a function RMSE that calculates the root mean squared error (RMSE) of prediction or the normalized RMSE. The RMSE formula we use is

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i-\hat{y_i})^2}{n}},$$

whereas the normalized version is

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \hat{y_i})^2}{n}} / \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n}},$$

i.e., relative to the sample standard deviation.

Here, n could be the size of the training data (the  $\hat{y}_i$  are from CrossValidate) or the size of a test set (the  $\hat{y}_i$  are from Predict).

For instance,

```
RMSE(borehole_pred$y_pred$Pred, y_true, normalized = FALSE)
[1] 0.7824142
RMSE(borehole_pred$y_pred$Pred, y_true, normalized = TRUE)
[1] 0.01738657
```

shows that the RMSE is small relative to the variability in the test data.

## 9. Visualize

Following Schonlau and Welch (2006), GaSP performs an analysis of variance (ANOVA) decomposition of the total function variability into contributions from main effects and 2-factor interactions, to assess how sensitive the response is to individual inputs and low-order effects. Furthermore, it can generate plotting coordinates to visualize the estimated main and 2-factor joint effects. As detailed by Schonlau and Welch (2006), the low-order effect of one or two inputs is obtained by integrating out all the other inputs. Hence, GaSP needs ranges of integration for all input variables. Optionally, integration over a continuous range for a given input can be replaced by summation over a grid. The first task, therefore, is to describe the input variables via DescribeX.

#### 9.1 DecribeX

The user must give the input names, as well as their minima and maxima. For the borehole application we can set up the usual engineering ranges:

```
borehole_x_names <- colnames(x)
borehole_min <- c(0.05, 100.00, 63070.00, 990.00, 63.10, 700.00, 1120.00, 9855.00)
borehole_max <- c(0.15, 50000.00, 115600.00, 1110.00, 116.00, 820.00, 1680.00, 12045.00)
borehole_x_desc <- DescribeX(borehole_x_names, borehole_min, borehole_max)
```

The result is a data frame that combines these vectors:

```
borehole_x_desc

Variable Min Max

1 rw 0.05 0.15

2 r 100.00 50000.00

3 Tu 63070.00 115600.00

4 Hu 990.00 1110.00
```

```
5 Tl 63.10 116.00
6 Hl 700.00 820.00
7 L 1120.00 1680.00
8 Kw 9855.00 12045.00
```

Optionally, we can include three further vectors:

- support: A vector of strings for additional description of the input-variable domains. Valid strings for the elements are:
  - "Continuous" to indicate the input is continuous over its range. This is the default assumption for all variables.
  - "Fixed" to indicate the input has a range of 0, i.e., its x\_min must equal its x\_max.
  - "Grid" to indicate a discrete grid for the variable, which requires the next argument.
- num\_levels: A vector of integers for the number of levels of each input. It must be present if the support argument includes at least one instance of "Grid". Set an input's number of levels to 0 if it is "Continuous", 1 if it is "Fixed", or to the appropriate number > 1 if it is "Grid" to define an equally spaced grid inclusive of the input's x\_min and x\_max.
- distribution: A vector of strings to define the weight distributions of the input variables. Valid strings are "Uniform" or "Normal", which will be ignored for "Fixed" inputs. The default is "Uniform" for all variables.

For the default behavior, GaSP will perform continuous integration on all variables with respect to uniform weight. When distribution is normal, automatically the mean is the middle of the range, and the standard deviation is 1/6 of the range.

### 9.2 Visualize

Here, we perform Visualize on borehole with the default input descriptions:

```
borehole_vis <- Visualize(borehole_gasp, borehole_x_desc)
```

Visualize returns a list with three components: anova\_percent, main\_effect, and joint\_effect. These are respectively the ANOVA percentages, the plotting coordinates for the main effects, and the coordinates for the joint effects.

The ANOVA percentages are estimates of the relative importances of low-order effects. For instance,

shows that input rw by itself accounts for 82.9% of the variability of the estimated prediction function over the entire 8-dimensional input space, whereas r as a main effect accounts for 0%. Interaction effects between two factors at a time typically have small contributions, and we see that the estimated interaction between L and Kw (denoted L:Kw) accounts for only 0.02% of the total variation.

The data frames main\_effect and joint\_effect can be quite large. Thus we can add two parameters main\_percent and interaction\_percent to output results only for main and joint effects that have ANOVA

percentages greater than these thresholds. Here we set main\_percent = 1 and interaction\_percent = 1:

The main effect and joint effect data frames will look like the following:

```
head(borehole_vis\$main_effect, n = 3)
 Variable.x_i x_i
           rw 0.05 18.42223 0.5062615
1
2
           rw 0.06 25.76570 0.2033376
3
           rw 0.07 35.06013 0.1725205
head(borehole_vis = 3)
 Variable.x_i Variable.x_j x_i x_j
                        Hu 0.05 990 14.87616 1.0059070
1
           rw
                        Hu 0.05 1002 15.41472 0.7806689
2
           rw
3
                        Hu 0.05 1014 16.01475 0.6337129
```

where the first three rows are the first three plotting coordinates for the main effect of rw or the joint effect of rw and Hu, respectively. Typically the user will be uninterested in these large dataframes of plotting coordinates. Rather, they are plotted by special functions in the next section.

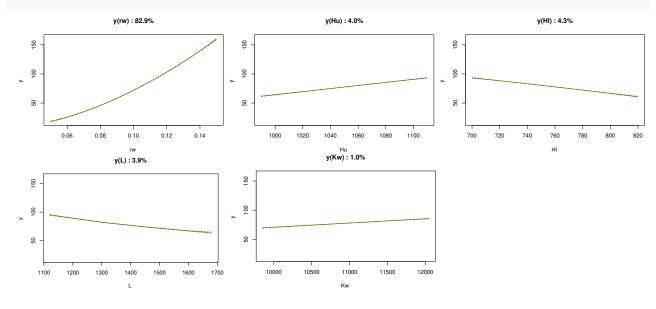
### 9.3 Plots for Visualize

GaSP also provides plotting functions for main effects and joint effects from Visualize:

- PlotMainEffects: Using the coordinates given by Visualize, we can generate main effect plots, with each plot showing an estimated main effect (red solid line) and point-wise approximate 95% confidence limits (green dashed lines).
- PlotJointEffects: Similar to PlotMainEffects, using the coordinates given by Visualize, we can make a contour plot of the two-way joint effects for two inputs at a time, as well as a contour plot of the estimated standard error.

Applying the first function to our Visualize results

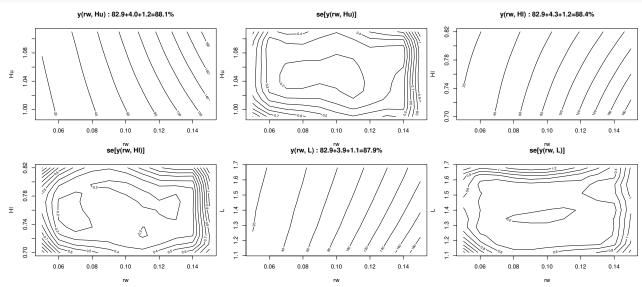
PlotMainEffects(borehole\_vis\$main\_effect, borehole\_vis\$anova\_percent)



we can see, for instance, in the first plot the main effect of  $\mathbf{rw}$ , which is the prediction of y with the other 7 variables integrated out. There are only five main effects plotted;  $\mathbf{r}$  does not appear, for example, because its ANOVA percentage did not meet the threshold of 1%. The red solid line in any of these plots is the estimated main effect, and the green dashed lines are the point wise approximate 95% confidence limits. Borehole is an easy modeling task for GaSP, and thus the three lines are tight.

Plotting the joint effects with

#### PlotJointEffects(borehole\_vis\$joint\_effect, borehole\_vis\$anova\_percent)



shows that only three of them satisfy the 1% interaction threshold. (If the interaction percentage is small it is sufficent to look at the respective main effects.) The first contour plot depicts the estimated joint effect of rw and Hu, i.e., the prediction as a function of these two inputs with the other six inputs integrated out. The title reports that the main effects of rw and Hu account for 82.9% and 4.0% of the total variation, respectively, with their interaction effect accounting for another 1.2%. The next plot shows the standard error of the estimated joint effect of rw and Hu. Two more pairs of plots follow, corresponding to the two further interactions exceeding the threshold.

## 10. PlotAll

Last but not least, if all methods are run, GaSP provides PlotAll to get a quick picture of the utility of the model. It executes PlotPredictions, PlotResiduals, PlotStdResiduals (all applied to CV only), PlotMainEffects, and PlotJointEffects.

#### PlotAll(borehole\_gasp, borehole\_cv, borehole\_vis)

The output will be the same as directly calling each method individually, as it includes all the parameters from all the plotting functions. Note that PlotAll will only generate cross-validation plots. Predictions on a test set would have to be performed and assessed in a follow-up.

Thus our workflow for the borehole illustration concludes.

## 11. Future

GaSP is currently under development of version 2.0.0 and will feature full Bayesian methods that have shown to give better estimates and uncertainty quantification. There will be backwards compatibility with the version described here, however.

## References

- Chen, H., Loeppky, J. L., Sacks, J., and Welch, W. J. (2016). Analysis methods for computer experiments: How to assess and what counts? *Statistical Science*, 31(1):40–60.
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- Sacks, J., Welch, W. J., Mitchell, T. J., and Wynn, H. P. (1989). Design and Analysis of Computer Experiments. Statistical Science, 4(4):409 423.
- Schonlau, M. and Welch, W. J. (2006). Screening the Input Variables to a Computer Model Via Analysis of Variance and Visualization, pages 308–327. Springer New York, New York, NY.
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