

Optimal Designs for Gaussian Process Models via Spectral Decomposition

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- 1 Introduction
 - Gaussian Process Regression
 - Karhunen-Loève Decomposition of a GP
- 2 IMSPE-optimal Designs
 - Application of the K-L Decomposition
 - Approximate Minimum IMSPE Designs
 - Adaptive Designs
 - Extending to Models with Unknown Regression Parameters
- 3 Other Optimality Criteria
- 4 Concluding Remarks

Outline

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The Gaussian Process Model

- ◇ Suppose that we observe $\mathbf{y} = [y(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, y(\mathbf{x}_n)]^\top$, where

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} + Z(\mathbf{x}) .$$

- ◇ Here $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ is a vector of regression functions evaluated at \mathbf{x} and $Z(\mathbf{x})$ is a zero mean stationary Gaussian process with marginal variance σ^2 and correlation function $R(\cdot; \theta)$.
- ◇ An extremely popular modeling approach in spatial statistics, geostatistics, computer experiments and more.
- ◇ Sometimes measurement error (i.e. a *nugget term*) is added.

The Gaussian Process Model (cont.)

Notations:

$\mathbf{R}_{ij} = R(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_j)$ - the correlation matrix at the design $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$.

$\mathbf{y} = [y(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, y(\mathbf{x}_n)]^\top$ - the vector of observations at \mathcal{D} .

$\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) = [R(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_1), \dots, R(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_n)]^\top$ - the vector of correlations at site \mathbf{x} .

$\mathbf{F}_{ij} = f_j(\mathbf{x}_i)$ - the design matrix at \mathcal{D} .

The Gaussian Process Model (cont.)

Universal Kriging

Assuming $\pi(\beta) \propto 1$

$$\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E} \{y(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{y}\} = \mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}) \hat{\beta} + \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F} \hat{\beta}) \quad , \quad (1)$$

is the minimizer of the mean squared prediction error (MSPE), which will then be

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} \left[\left\{ \hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) - y(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \middle| \mathbf{y} \right] &= \text{var} \{y(\mathbf{x}) | \mathbf{y}\} \\ &= \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 - [\mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x})] \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{F}^T \\ \mathbf{F} & \mathbf{R} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} \right\} . \end{aligned}$$

- If the assumption of Gaussianity is dropped, (1) would still be the BLUP for $y(\mathbf{x})$.

Spectral Decomposition of a GP

Mercer's Theorem

If \mathcal{X} is compact and R (the covariance function of a GP) is continuous in \mathcal{X}^2 ,

$$\text{then } R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \lambda_i \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_i(\mathbf{y}) ,$$

where the φ_i 's and the λ_i 's are the solutions of the homogeneous Fredholm integral equation of the second kind

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \varphi_i(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} = \lambda_i \varphi_i(\mathbf{x})$$

and

$$\int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \delta_{ij} .$$

Spectral Decomposition of a GP (cont.)

The Karhunen-Loève Decomposition

Under the aforementioned conditions

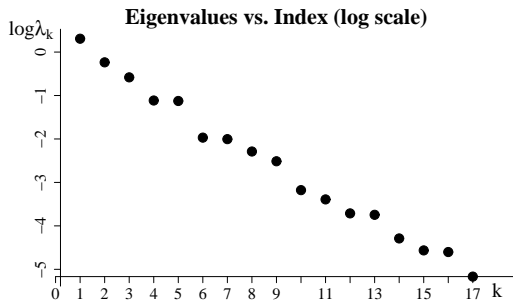
$$Z(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \alpha_i \varphi_i(\mathbf{x}) \quad (\text{in the MSE sense}),$$

where the α_i 's are independent $\mathcal{N}(0, \lambda_i)$ random variables.

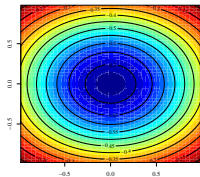
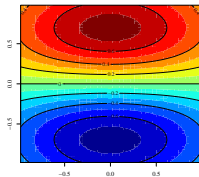
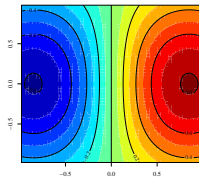
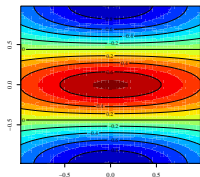
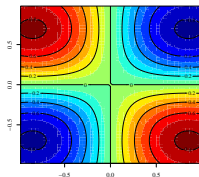
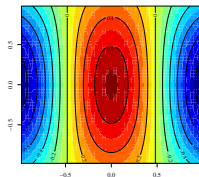
- The best approximation (in the MSE sense) of $Z(\mathbf{x})$ is the truncated series in which the eigenvalues are arranged in decreasing order.
- For piecewise analytic $R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$, $\lambda_k \leq c_1 \exp(-c_2 k^{1/d})$ for some constants c_1 and c_2 (Frauenfelder *et al.* 2005).
- Numerical solutions involve Galerkin-type methods.

A Worked Example

$$R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \exp \left\{ - (x_1 - w_1)^2 - 2 (x_2 - w_2)^2 \right\} ,$$

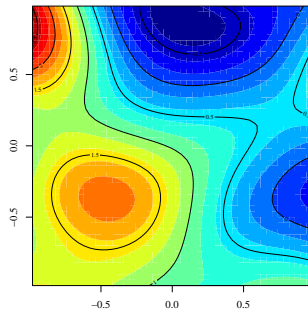
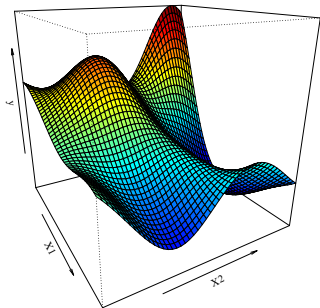


A Worked Example (cont.)

Eigenfunction #1, $\lambda = 1.3597$ Eigenfunction #2, $\lambda = 0.7893$ Eigenfunction #3, $\lambda = 0.5588$ Eigenfunction #4, $\lambda = 0.328$ Eigenfunction #5, $\lambda = 0.3244$ Eigenfunction #6, $\lambda = 0.1396$ 

A Worked Example (cont.)

A single realization based on the first 17 K-L terms ($\approx 99.5\%$ of the process' energy)



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Minimum IMSPE Designs

Integrated Mean Squared Prediction Error

Sacks *et al.* (1989b) suggested a suitable design for computer experiments should minimize

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{D}, \hat{y})}{\sigma^2} &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \mathbb{E} \left[\left\{ \hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) - y(\mathbf{x}) \right\}^2 \middle| \mathbf{y} \right] d\mathbf{x} \\ &= \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - \text{tr} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{F}^T \\ \mathbf{F} & \mathbf{R} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}) & \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}) & \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} d\mathbf{x} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

where $\text{vol}(\mathcal{X})$ is the volume of \mathcal{X} .

Application of the K-L Decomposition

Consider the standard Gaussian process

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + Z(\mathbf{x}) \text{ ,}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is (for now) a known vector.

- The Kriging predictor would now be $\hat{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{R}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{F}\boldsymbol{\beta})$.

Proposition

For any compact \mathcal{X} and continuous covariance kernel R ,

$$\frac{\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})}{\sigma^2} = \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^2 \boldsymbol{\phi}_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\phi}_k \text{ ,} \quad (2)$$

where $\boldsymbol{\phi}_p = [\varphi_p(\mathbf{x}_1), \dots, \varphi_p(\mathbf{x}_n)]^T$.

Application of the K-L Decomposition (cont.)

Theorem

1. For any design $\mathcal{D} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$,

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) \geq \sigma_z^2 \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \lambda_k \quad (3)$$

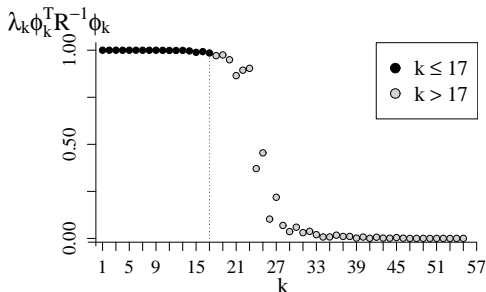
2. The lower bound (3) will be achieved if \mathcal{D} satisfies

$$\lambda_k \phi_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \phi_k = \begin{cases} 1 & k \leq n \\ 0 & k > n \end{cases}$$

3. If such an ideal \mathcal{D} exists, the prediction $\hat{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{x})$ at any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ would be identical to the prediction based on the finite dimensional Bayesian linear regression model $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \alpha_1 \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}) + \dots + \alpha_n \varphi_n(\mathbf{x})$ where $\alpha_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \lambda_j)$ are independent.

Application of the K-L Decomposition (cont.)

- ◇ By definition, IMSPE-optimal designs are prediction-oriented. What the Theorem tells us is that in some sense, they are also useful for variable selection (w.r.t the K-L basis functions).
- ◇ In reality, such ideal designs do not exist - but IMSPE-optimal designs get pretty close:



Approximate Minimum IMSPE Designs

Approximate IMSPE

$$\frac{\tilde{\mathcal{J}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})}{\sigma^2} = \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - \sum_{k=1}^M \lambda_k^2 \phi_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \phi_k = \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - \text{tr} \{ \Lambda^2 \Phi^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \Phi \} ,$$

where

$$\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M) \quad \text{and} \quad \Phi_{ij} = \varphi_j(\mathbf{x}_i) \quad , \quad 1 \leq i \leq n \quad , \quad 1 \leq j \leq M .$$

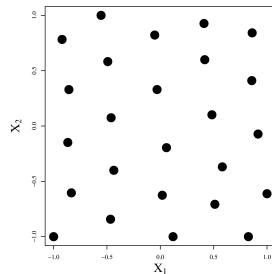
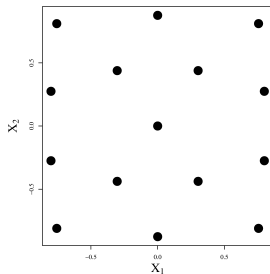
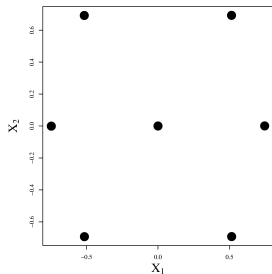
Approximate Minimum IMSPE Designs

$$\mathcal{D}^* = \underset{\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{X}}{\text{argmin}} \tilde{\mathcal{J}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \underset{\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{X}}{\text{argmax}} \text{tr} \{ \Lambda^2 \Phi^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \Phi \}$$

A Worked Example (cont.)

Size 7, 15 and 25 approximate Minimum IMSPE designs for

$$R(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = \exp \left\{ - (x_1 - w_1)^2 - 2 (x_2 - w_2)^2 \right\}$$



Controlling the Relative Truncation Error

Proposition

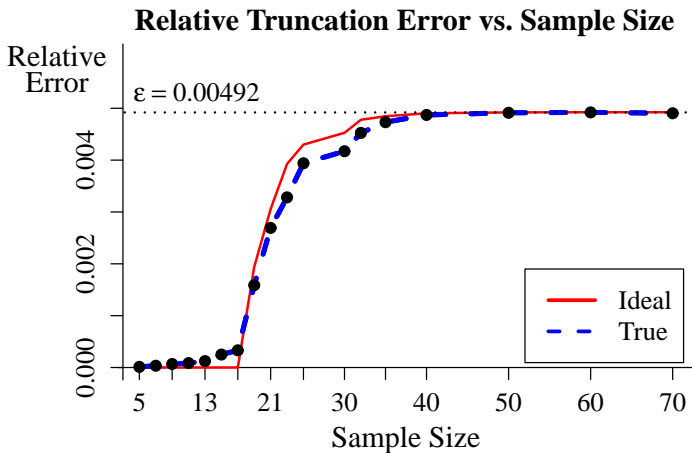
Under some conditions (which are easily met),

$$r_M = \frac{\sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^2 \phi_k^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \phi_k}{\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j^2 \phi_j^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \phi_j} \leq \frac{\sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} \lambda_k}{\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \lambda_j} .$$

- ◇ By conserving enough of the process' energy, we are guaranteed to have a design as close to optimal as we wish.

Controlling the Relative Truncation Error (cont.)

Relative truncation error vs. sample size for $M = 17$ ($\Leftrightarrow 0.492\%$ energy loss):



Adaptive Designs

- Suppose now that we have the opportunity (or we are forced) to run a multi-stage experiment: n_1 runs at stage 1, n_2 runs at stage 2 and so on.
- We can use that to learn/re-estimate the essential parameters and plug-in the new estimates, to hopefully improve the design from one stage to another.
- Such designs are called “adaptive” or “batch-sequential” designs.

Adaptive Designs (cont.)

Denote

$$\mathbf{R}_{\text{aug}} = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{R}_{n_2 \times n_2}^{\text{new}} & \mathbf{R}_{n_2 \times n_1}^{\text{cross}} \\ \hline \mathbf{R}_{n_1 \times n_2}^{\text{cross}\top} & \mathbf{R}_{n_1 \times n_1}^{\text{old}} \end{array} \right],$$

where \mathbf{R}_{aug} , \mathbf{R}^{new} , \mathbf{R}^{old} and $\mathbf{R}^{\text{cross}}$ are the augmented correlation matrix, the matrix of correlations within the new inputs, the matrix of correlations within the original design and the cross correlation matrix, and

$$\Phi_{\text{aug}} = \left[\begin{array}{c} \Phi_{n_2 \times M}^{\text{new}} \\ \hline \Phi_{n_1 \times M}^{\text{old}} \end{array} \right].$$

- Parameters may be re-estimated in between batches.

Adaptive Designs (cont.)

Using basic block matrix properties, we look to maximize

$$\begin{aligned} \text{tr} \{ \Lambda^2 \Phi_{\text{aug}}^T \mathbf{R}_{\text{aug}}^{-1} \Phi_{\text{aug}} \} &= \\ &= \text{tr} \left[\Lambda^2 \left\{ (\Phi_{\text{new}}^T - \Phi_{\text{old}}^T \mathbf{R}_{\text{old}}^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}}^T) \mathbf{Q}_1^{-1} \Phi_{\text{new}} + (\Phi_{\text{old}}^T - \Phi_{\text{new}}^T \mathbf{R}_{\text{new}}^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}}) \mathbf{Q}_2^{-1} \Phi_{\text{old}} \right\} \right], \end{aligned}$$

where

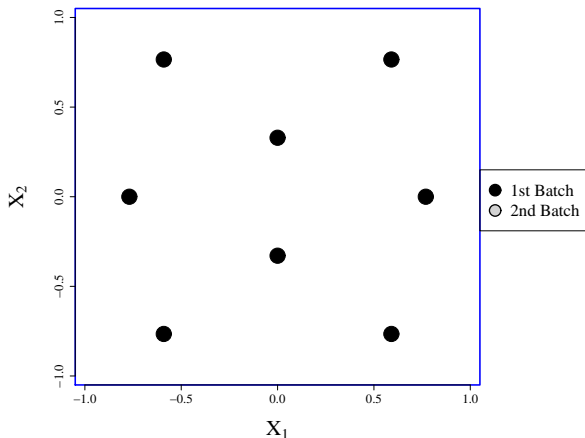
$$\mathbf{Q}_1 = \mathbf{R}_{\text{new}} - \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}}^T \mathbf{R}_{\text{old}}^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{Q}_2 = \mathbf{R}_{\text{old}} - \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}} \mathbf{R}_{\text{new}}^{-1} \mathbf{R}_{\text{cross}}^T,$$

and \mathbf{R}_{old} and Φ_{old} remain unchanged.

Adaptive Designs (cont.)

Adding 7 New Runs to an Existing 8 Run Design ($\lambda = 0.1$):

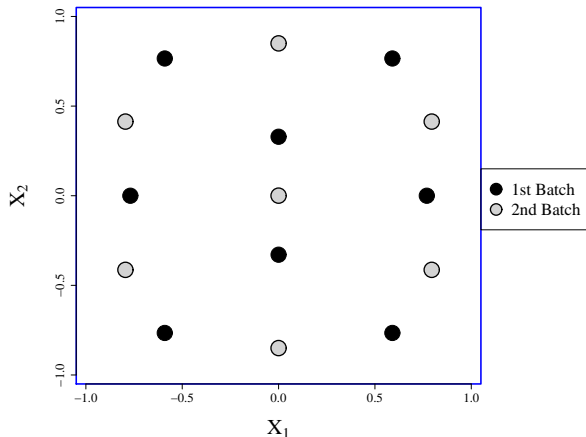
Size 8+7 design, IMSPE=0.77494



Adaptive Designs (cont.)

Adding 7 New Runs to an Existing 8 Run Design ($\lambda = 0.1$):

Size 8+7 design, IMSPE=0.77494



Approximate IMSPE Criterion for the Universal Kriging Model

Expanding the covariance kernel, using Mercer's Theorem, and truncating after the first M terms yields

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = & \tilde{\mathcal{J}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) \\ & + \text{tr} \left\{ (\mathbf{F}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{F})^{-1} \left[\int_{\mathcal{X}} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} - 2\mathbf{A}^T \int_{\mathcal{X}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{f}^T(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \right] \right\}, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $\tilde{\mathcal{J}}_M$ is the criterion previously derived for the simple Kriging model, $\mathbf{A} = \Lambda \Phi^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{F}$ and $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [\varphi_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \varphi_M(\mathbf{x})]^T$.

Approximate IMSPE Criterion for the Universal Kriging Model

Expression (4) is somewhat simplified by substituting $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = 1$ and $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{1}_n$ to

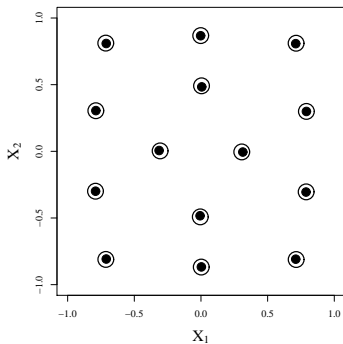
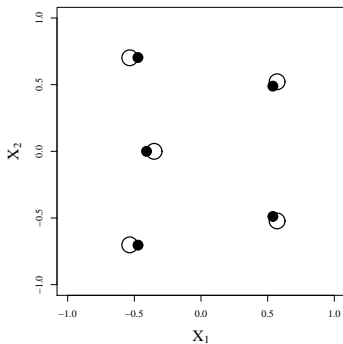
$$\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \tilde{\mathcal{J}}_M(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) + \frac{1}{\mathbf{1}_n^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{1}_n} \left\{ \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - 2\mathbf{a}^T \boldsymbol{\gamma} + \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} \right\},$$

where

$$\mathbf{a} = \boldsymbol{\Lambda} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{1}_n \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{\gamma} = \left[\int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi_1(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}, \dots, \int_{\mathcal{X}} \varphi_M(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} \right]^T.$$

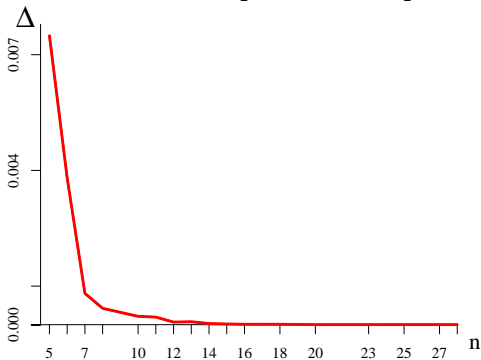
- The vector of integrals $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ only needs to be evaluated once.
- Almost identical designs to those obtained for the simple Kriging model, for a reasonably large n .

With and Without Estimating the Intercept



With and Without Estimating the Intercept (cont.)

Deviation from the optimum vs. sample size



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Bayesian A-optimal Designs

- In classical DOE, a design is called A-optimal if it minimizes $\text{tr} \left\{ \text{var} \left(\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \right) \right\}$, where $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}$ is the vector of estimators for the model parameters.
- For our model

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + Z(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k \varphi_k(\mathbf{x}) \quad , \quad \alpha_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \lambda_i) \quad ,$$

we may consider the Bayesian A-optimality criterion

$$\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{D}, \hat{\mathbf{y}}) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{var} \{ \alpha_k | \mathbf{y} \} \quad .$$

- When $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a known vector, the IMSPE and the A-optimality criteria coincide.

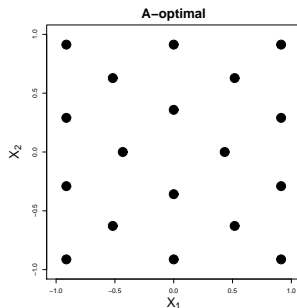
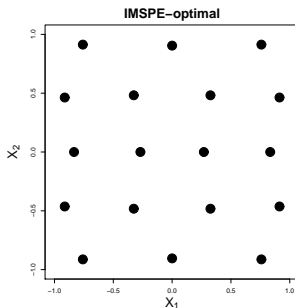
Bayesian A-optimal Designs (cont.)

Proposition

If $\pi(\beta) \propto 1$,

$$\mathcal{Q}(\mathcal{D}, \hat{y}) = \text{vol}(\mathcal{X}) - \text{tr} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{F}^T \\ \mathbf{F} & \mathbf{R} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \int_{\mathcal{X}} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{r}^T(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} d\mathbf{x} \right\}.$$

(and hence we don't even need to derive the Mercer expansion)



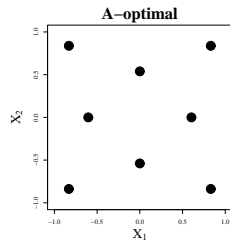
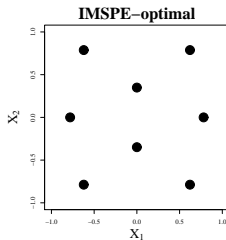
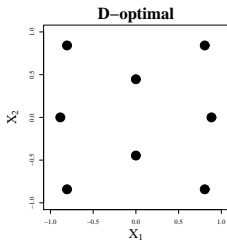
Bayesian D-optimal Designs

- In classical DOE, a design is called D-optimal if it minimizes the determinant of $\text{var}(\hat{\theta})$ (typically the inverse Fisher information).
- In our framework, an approximate Bayesian D-optimal design would be

$$D^* = \underset{D}{\text{argmin}} \det \left(\text{var} \left\{ \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M \mid \mathbf{y} \right\} \right)$$

Where

$$\text{var} \left\{ \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M \mid \mathbf{y} \right\} = \Lambda - \Lambda \Phi^T \left[R^{-1} - R^{-1} F (F^T R^{-1} F)^{-1} F^T R^{-1} \right] \Phi \Lambda .$$



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Few comments before we go

- If $Z(\mathbf{x})$ is a zero mean non-Gaussian, weakly-stationary process with the same correlation structure
 - the Kriging predictor will no longer be the posterior mean, but will still be the BLUP.
 - The MSPE will no longer be the posterior variance, but all the results still hold.
- Inclusion of measurement error (i.e. *Nugget Term*)

$$y(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + Z(\mathbf{x}) + \varepsilon(\mathbf{x}) \quad , \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}) \quad , \quad \lambda = \tau^2 / \sigma^2$$

will simply result in replacing \mathbf{R} with $\mathbf{R} + \lambda \mathbf{I}$ everywhere, but the theory will cease to apply.

- Great computational benefits for small values of λ .

Thank you!

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