



# Hierarchical spatial modelling for applied population and community ecology

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Jeffrey W. Doser, Marc Kéry,  
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24-27 June 2024







# Introduction to hierarchical spatial modeling

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Any type of data that relates to a specific geographical area or location

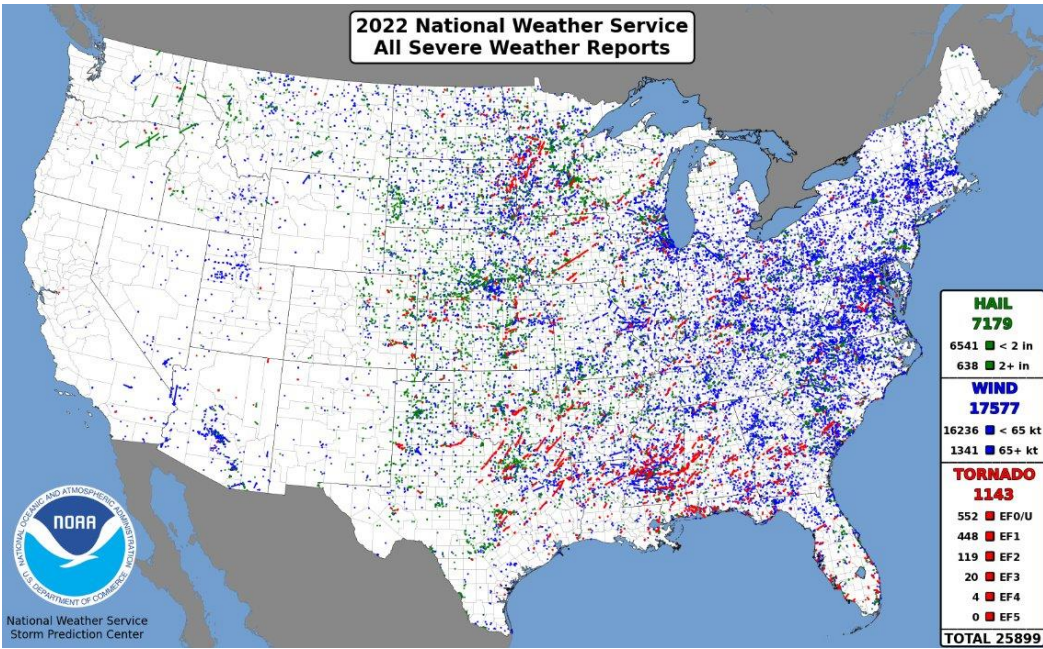
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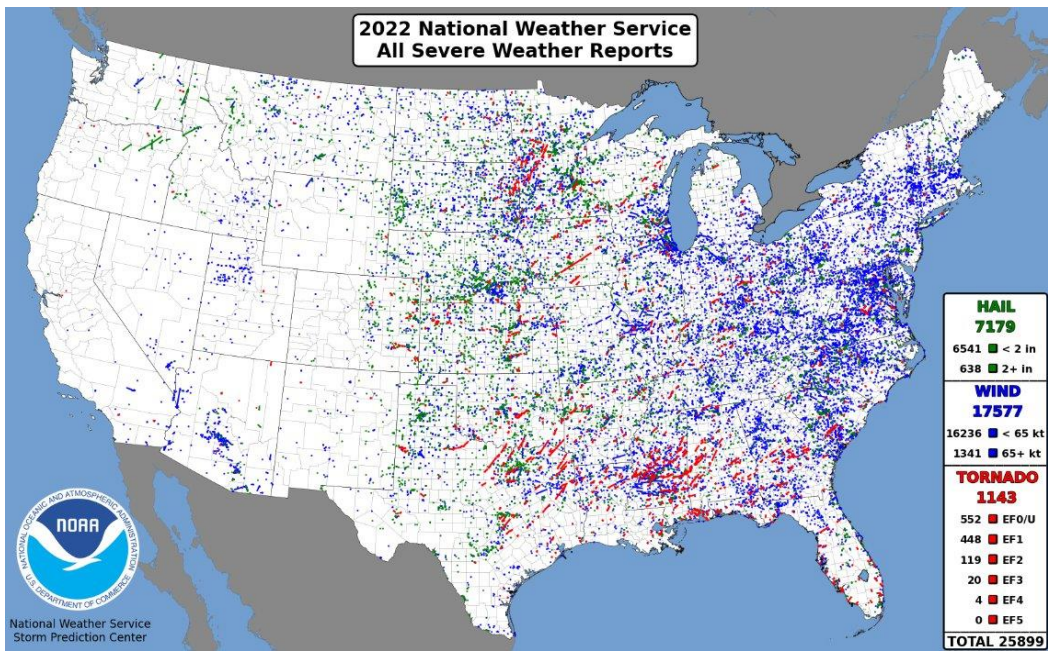
## ***First Law of Geography***

"Everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things." - Waldo Tobler

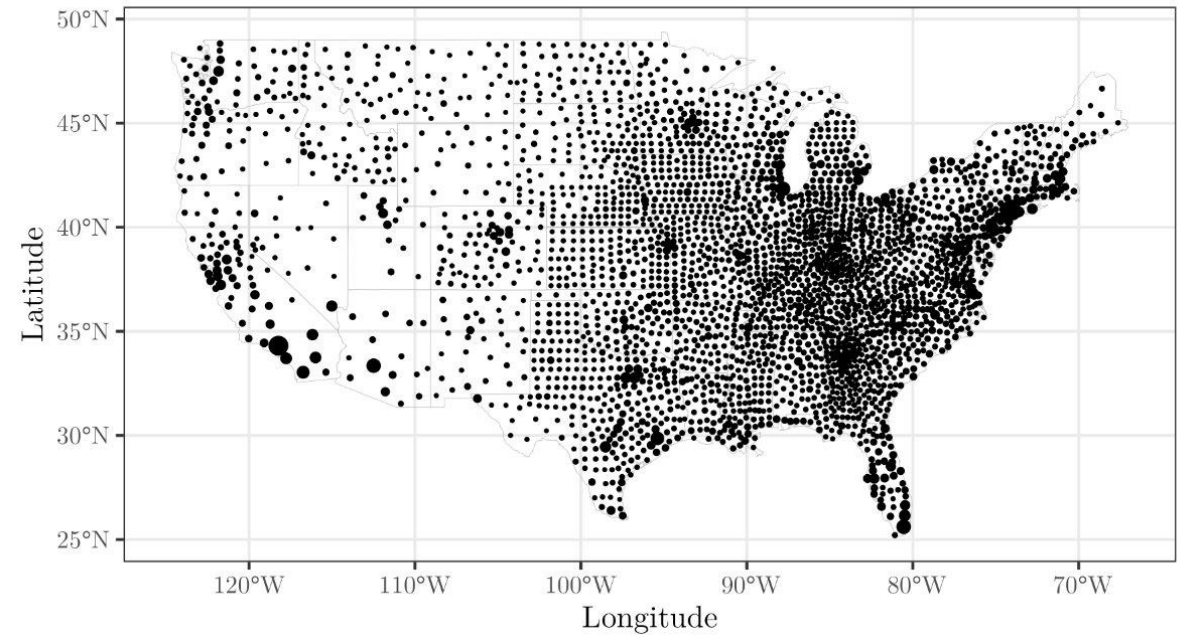
**2022 National Weather Service  
All Severe Weather Reports**

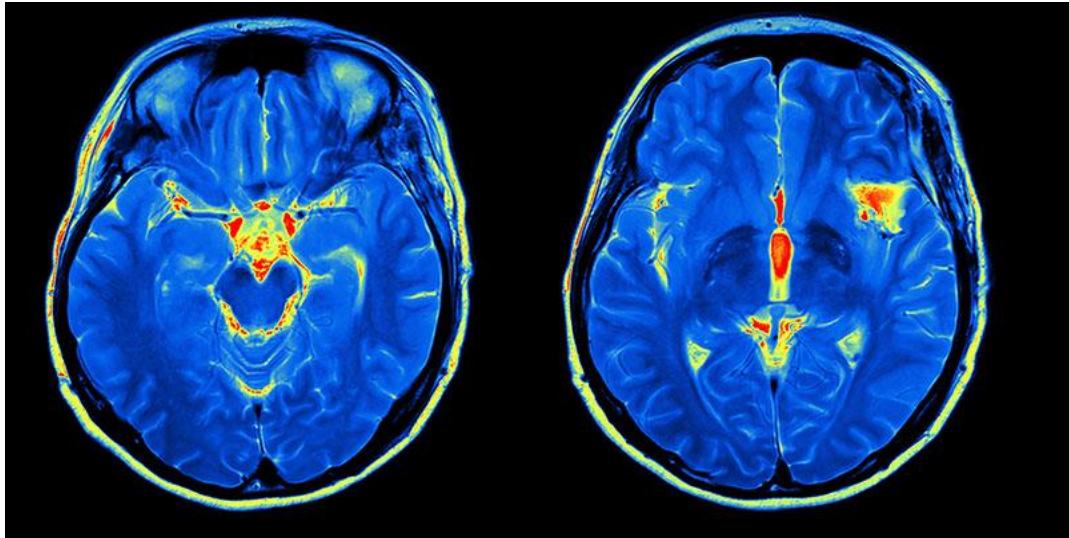
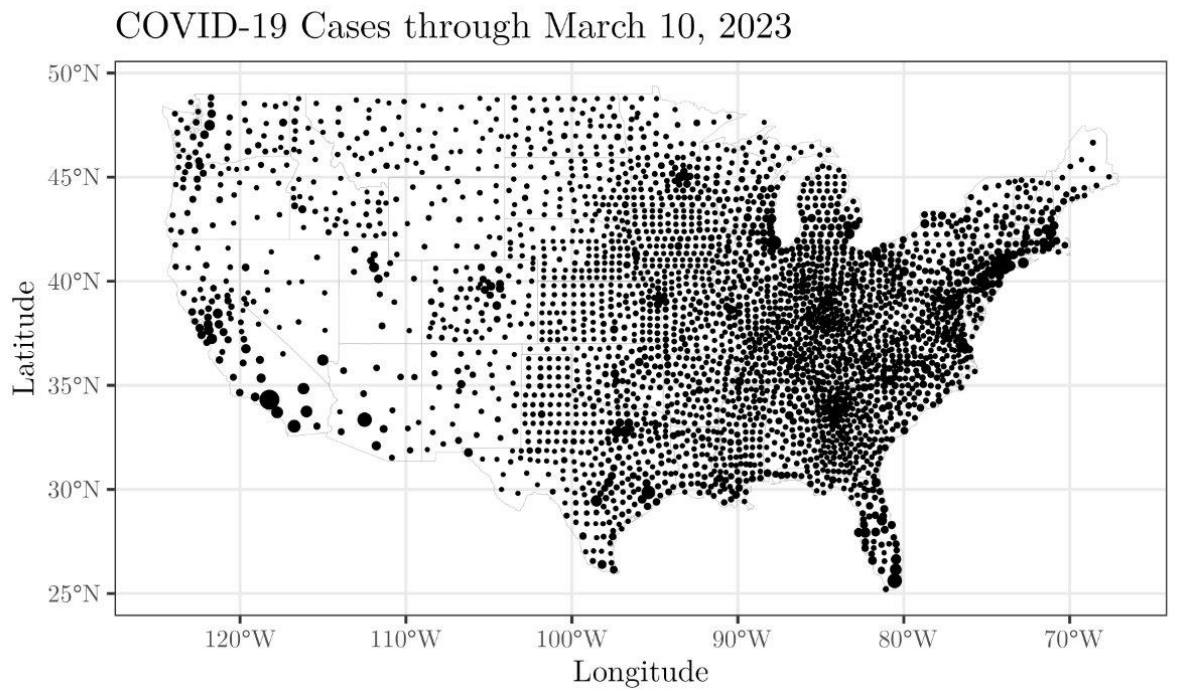
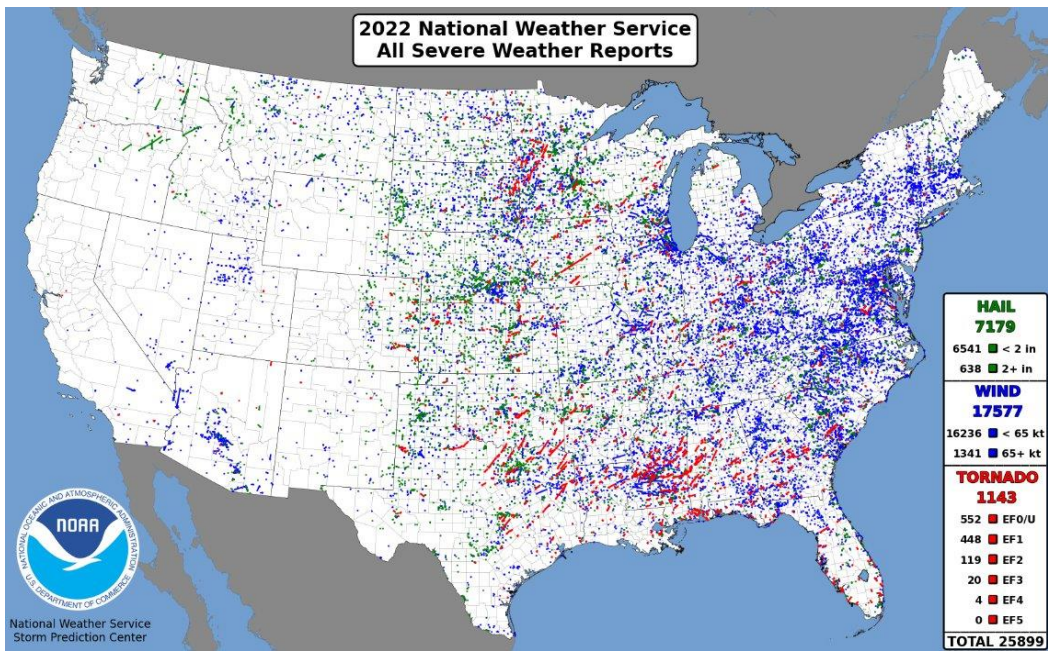




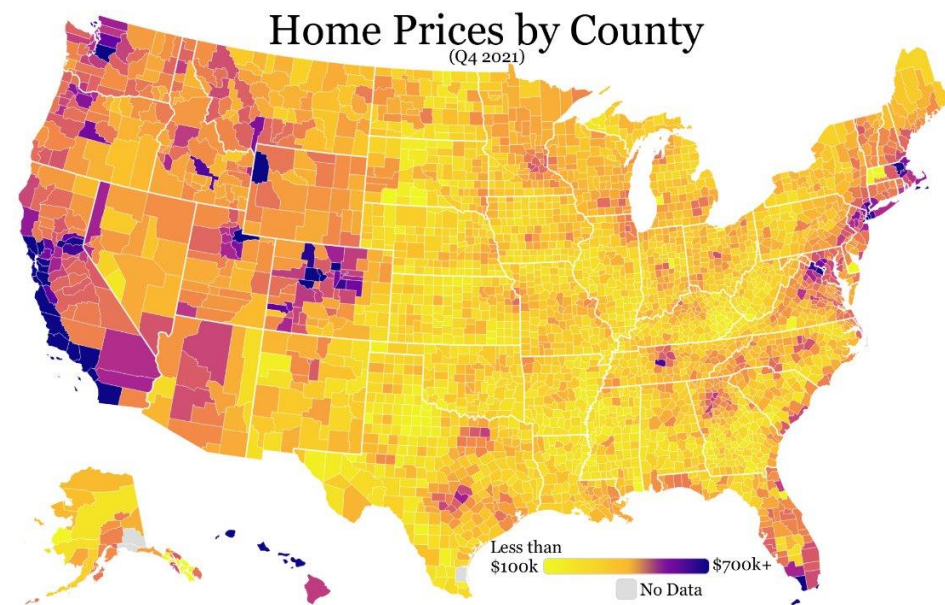
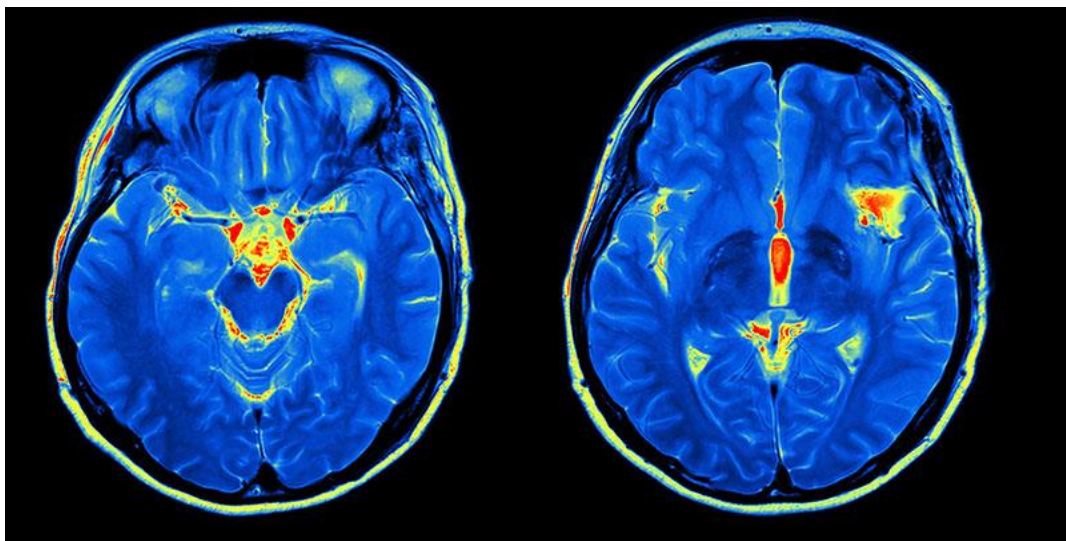
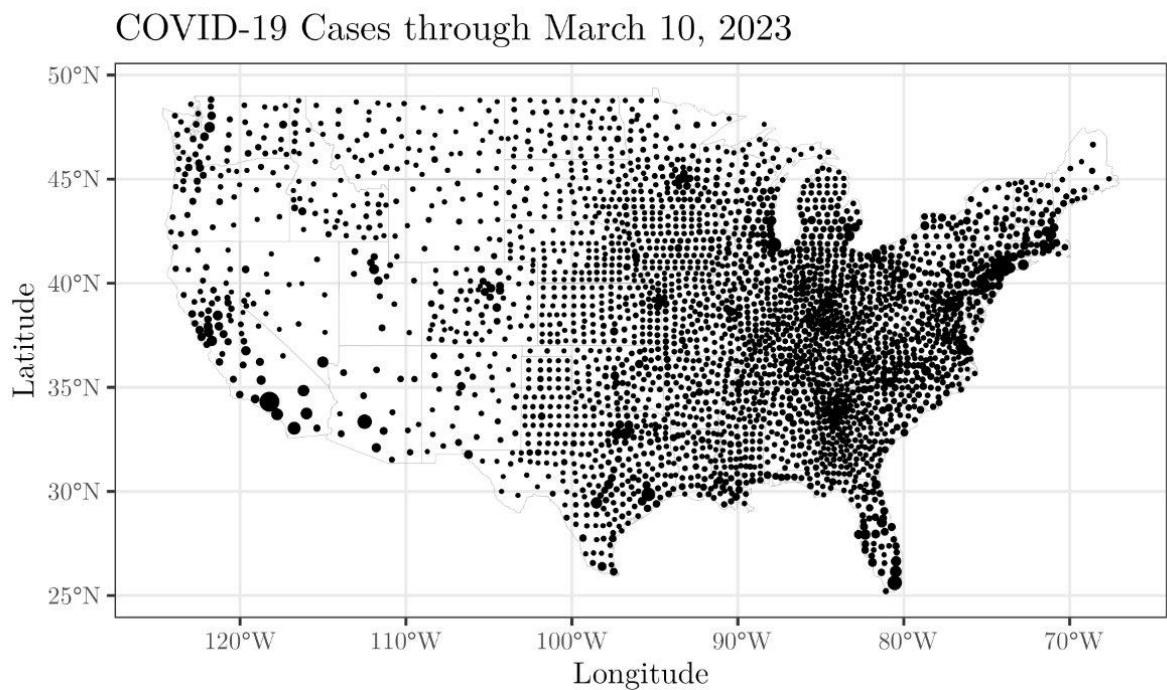
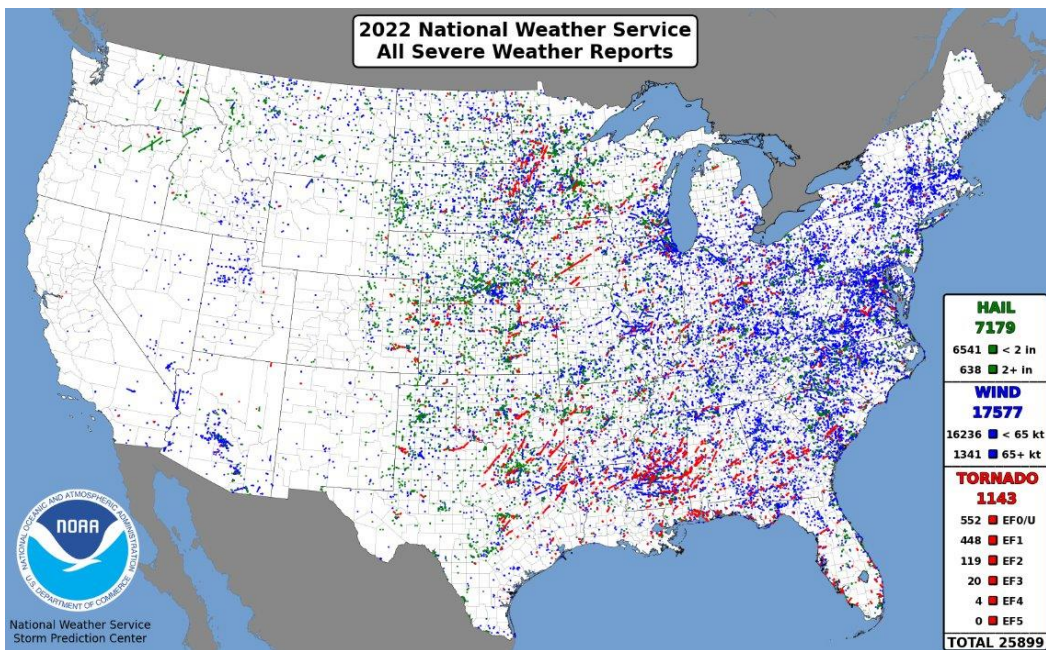


COVID-19 Cases through March 10, 2023









# Three types of spatial data

Point-referenced  
data

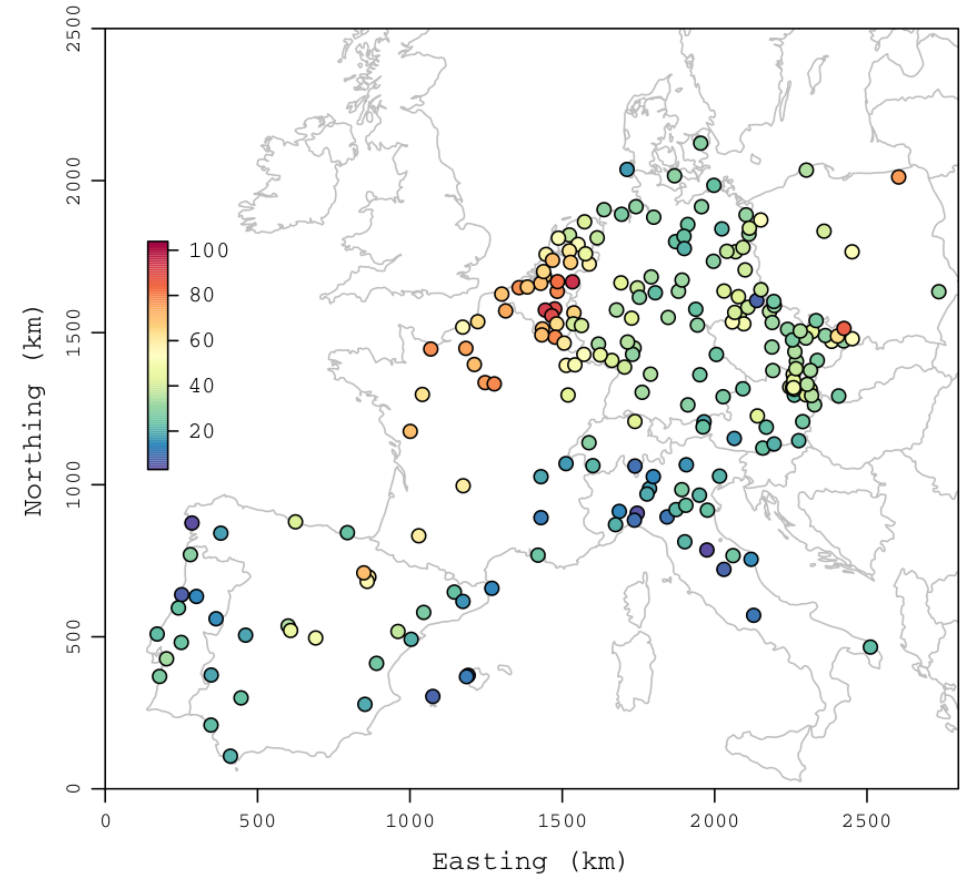
Areal data

Point pattern  
data



# Point-referenced data

- Each observation is associated with a location (point)
- Data represents a sample from a continuous spatial domain
- Also referred to as **geocoded** or **geostatistical** data

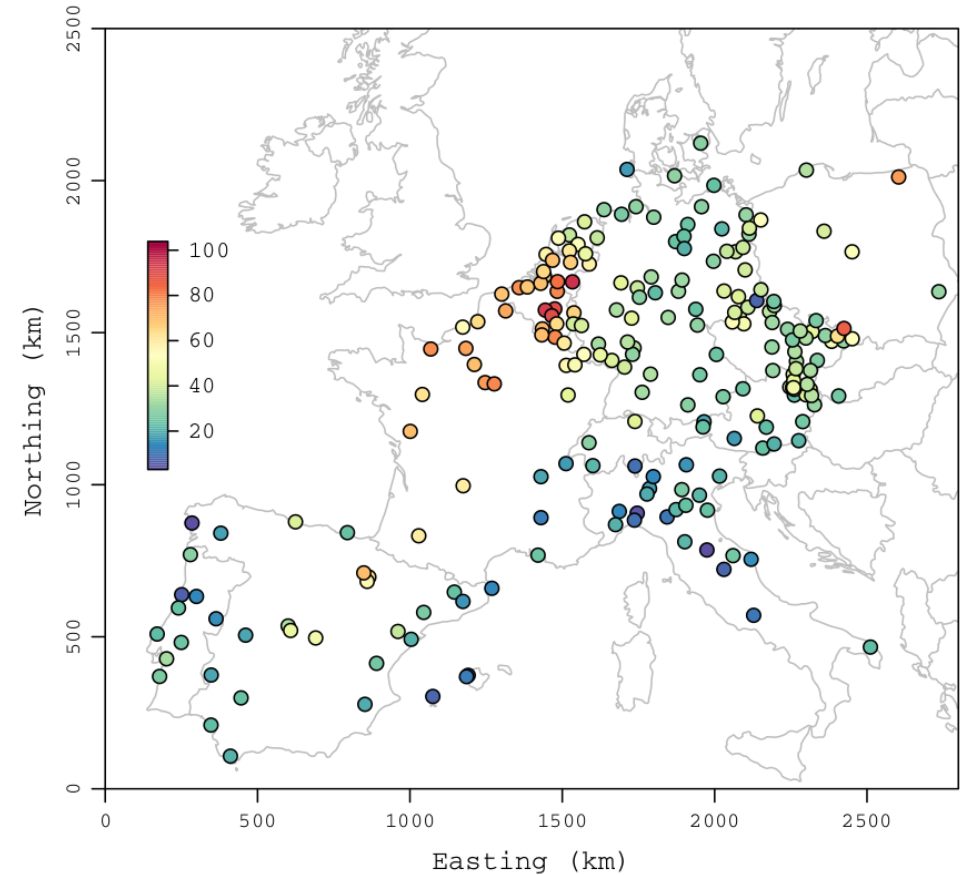


Pollutant levels in Europe in March 2009

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We will focus on methods for point-referenced data.

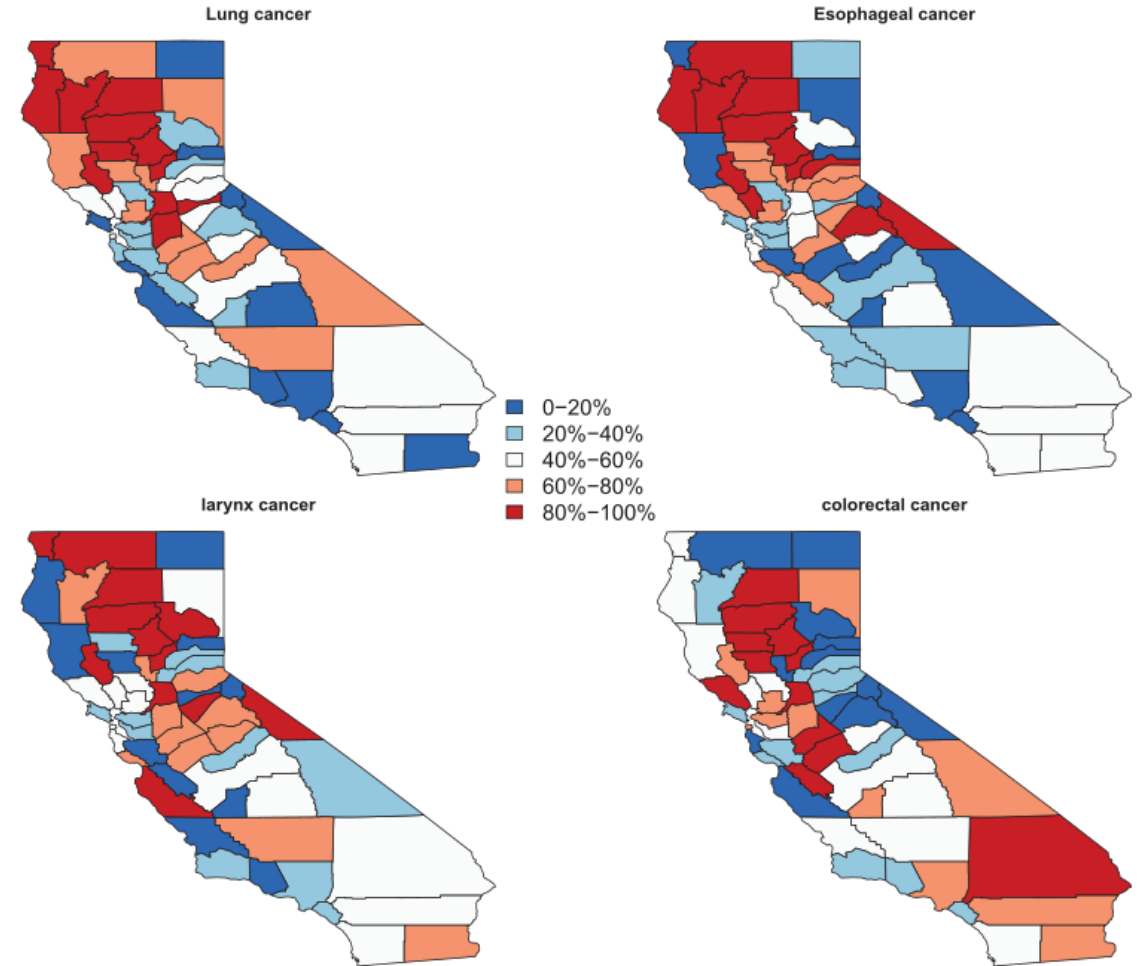


Pollutant levels in Europe in March 2009



# Areal data

- Each observation is associated with an areal unit (of regular or irregular shape)
- Data represents a sample from a discrete spatial domain
- Also referred to as **lattice** data
- Example: disease incidence rates in California, USA



Gao, Banerjee, Ritz (2022)

# Point pattern data

- Locations of the data points themselves are random
- Data set is often just the locations of the points
- Also called **point process data**
- If there is covariate information along with the points, called a **marked point process**
- Example: most presence-only data sets



Gelfand and Shirota (2022) *Ecological Monographs*



# Point-referenced spatial modelling

- Modelling of point-referenced data collected at locations referenced by coordinates (e.g., lat-long, Easting-Northing).
- Also relevant for modelling of areal data (e.g., use the areal unit centroid), but not always ideal.
- We will model detection-nondetection and count data using point-referenced spatial regression models

# Why point-referenced modelling?

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  4. Area of interest is often large relative to the actual sampled area.

# Introduction to Bayesian geostatistics

Let's start with a simple linear model

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$$y(\mathbf{s}_j) \sim \text{Normal}(\mu(\mathbf{s}_j), \tau^2)$$

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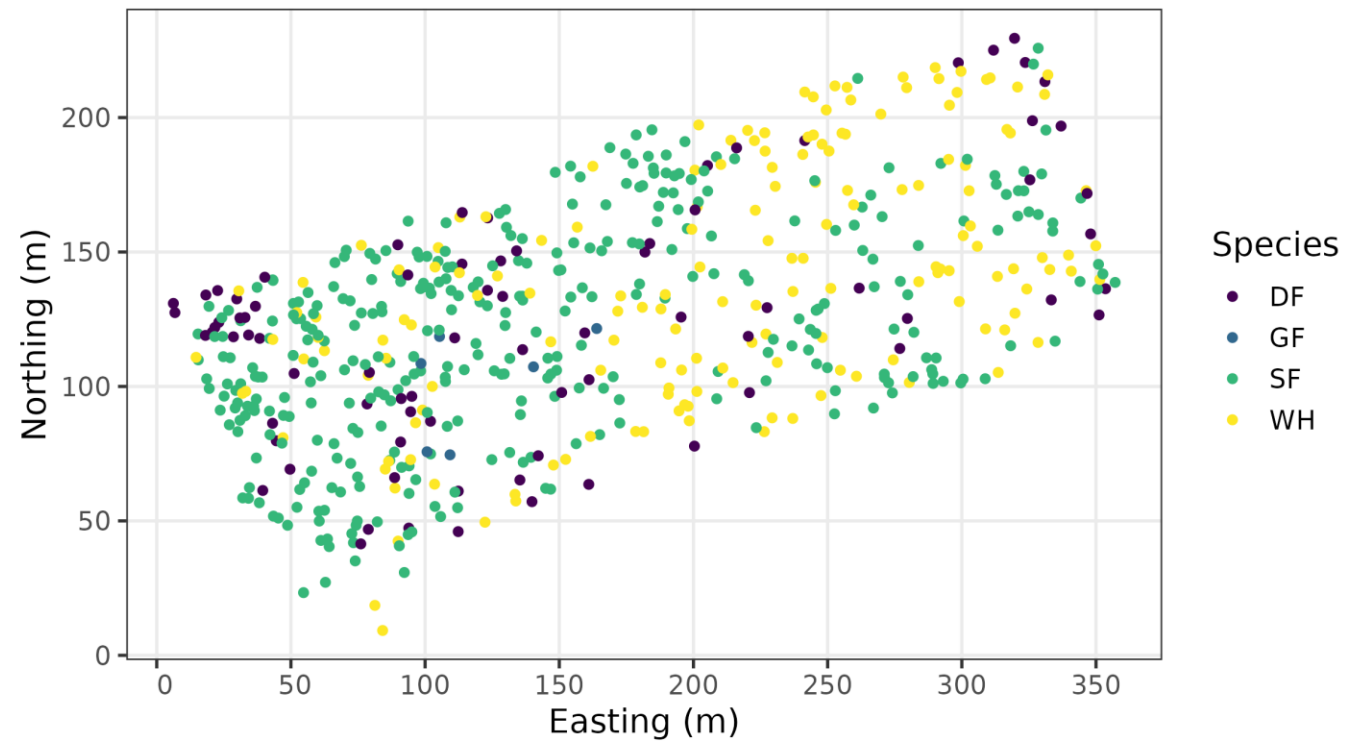
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- Recall our basic assumption that the residuals in a linear model are IID (independent and identically distributed).
- Alternatively, can say that  $y(\mathbf{s}_j)$  are conditionally independent given the covariates included in the model.

# Example: Western Experimental Forest (WEF) data

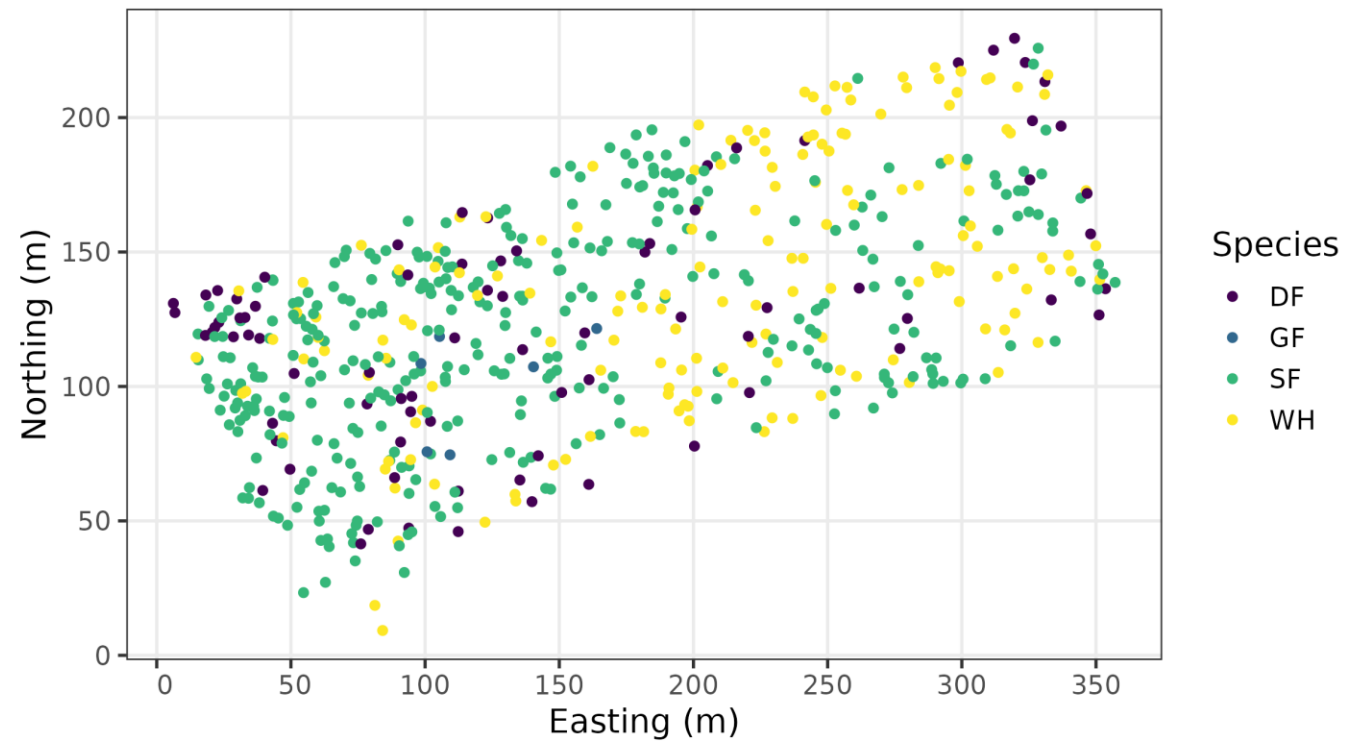
- 600 trees measured across a 10 ha forest stand in Oregon, USA
- Objective: Predict diameter at breast height (DBH) of all trees across the stand
- Covariate: Tree species (categorical variable)





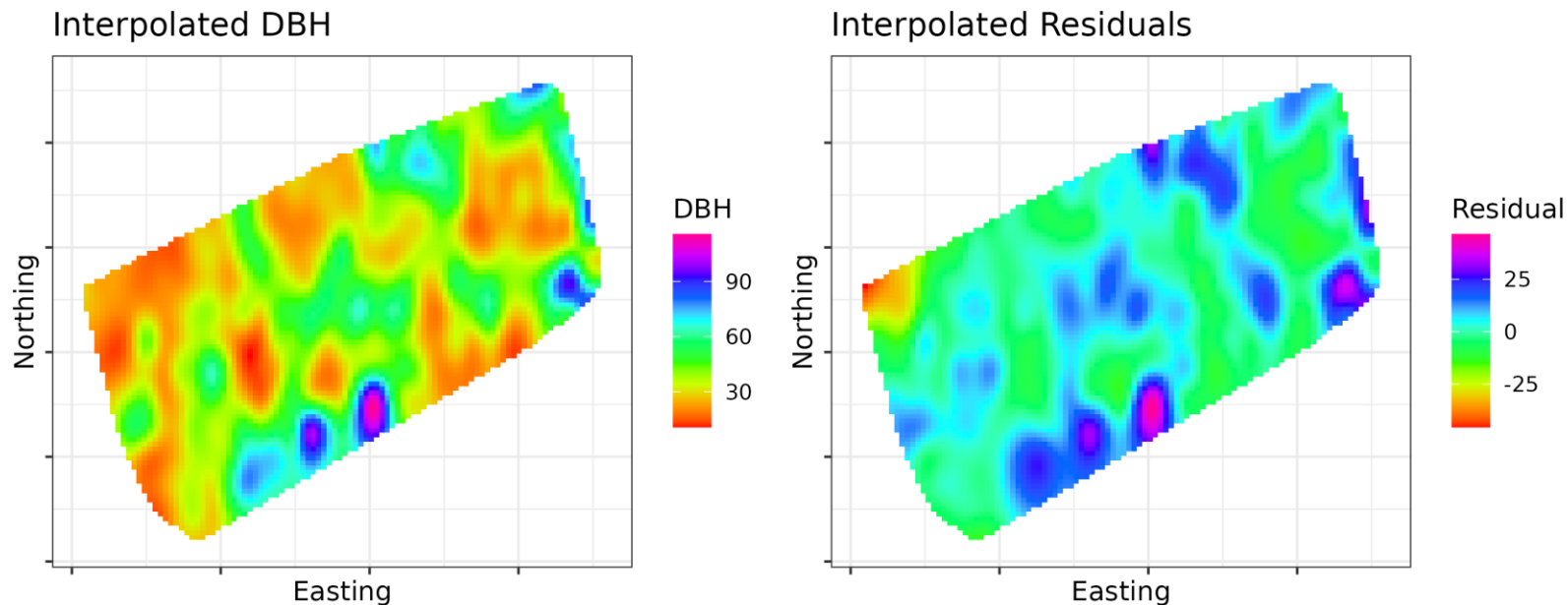
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# Classical geostatistics: residual plots

- Surface plots of the residuals help to identify any spatial patterns left unexplained by the covariates
- Local spatial patterns are still evident in residual plots. Basic linear model does not seem sufficient



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$$(y(\mathbf{s}_j) - y(\mathbf{s}_k))^2$$

If the value on the left gets larger as the distance between  $\mathbf{s}_j$  and  $\mathbf{s}_k$  increases, there is spatial correlation.

# Classical geostatistics: empirical semivariogram

1. Define a set of intervals based on distances between points



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2. Assign each pair of points to the associated distance interval
3. Calculate the average squared difference between points within each interval
4. Repeat for all intervals to give a set of values across distances that you can use for plotting

# Classical geostatistics: empirical semivariogram

Midpoint of the  $r^{\text{th}}$  distance bin

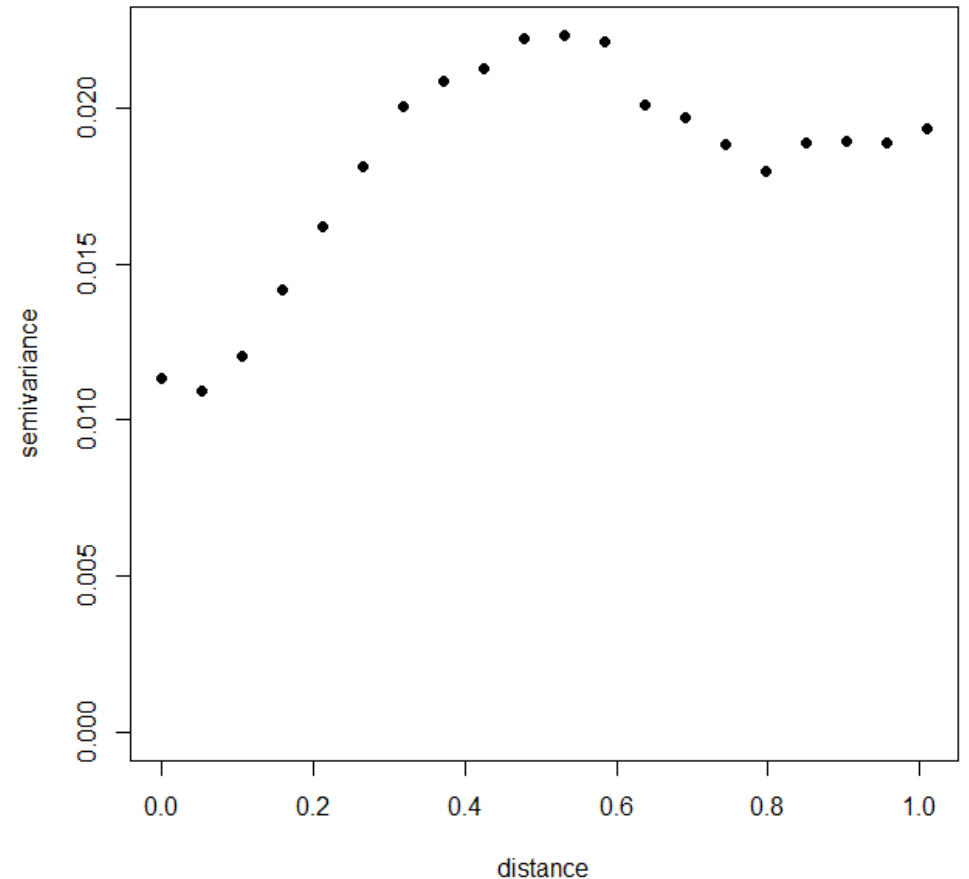
$$\gamma(t_r) = \frac{1}{2 |N(t_r)|} \sum_{\mathbf{s}_j, \mathbf{s}_k \in N(t_r)} (y(\mathbf{s}_j) - y(\mathbf{s}_k))^2$$

Number of point pairs in the  $r^{\text{th}}$  distance bin

The "in" symbol. We are summing over all pairs of points in  $N(t_r)$

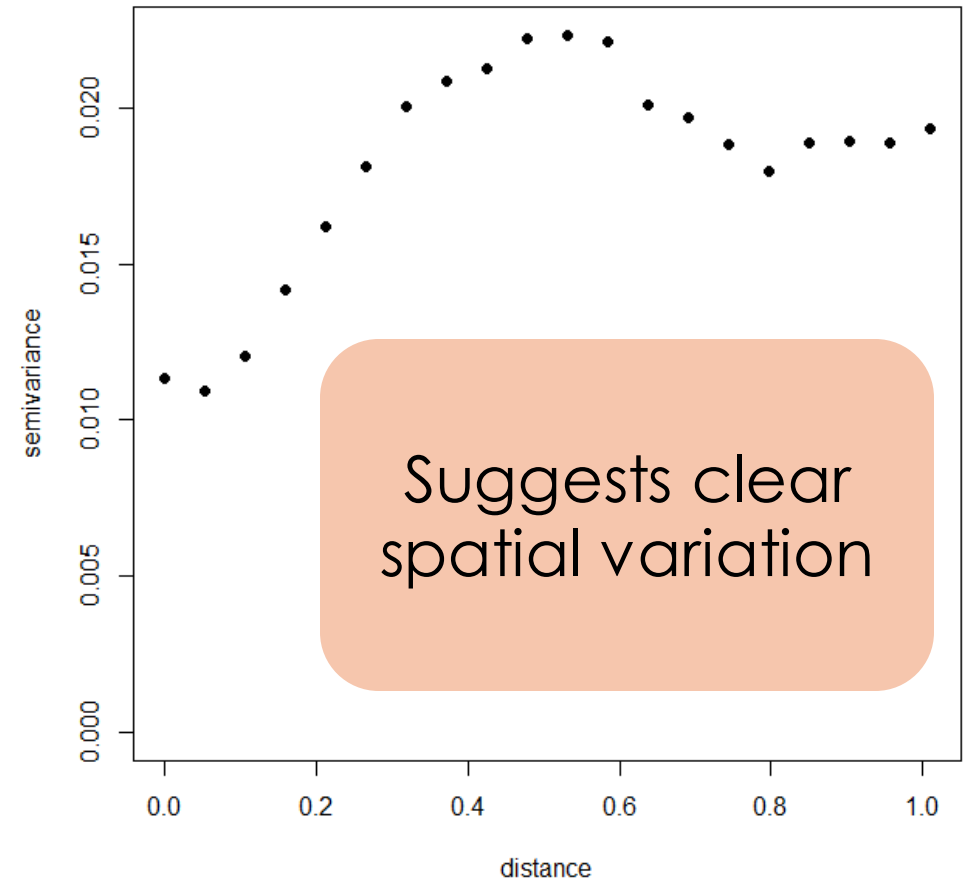
# Classical geostatistics: empirical semivariogram

- For spatial data, the empirical variogram is expected to roughly increase with distance
- A flat semivariogram would suggest little spatial variation



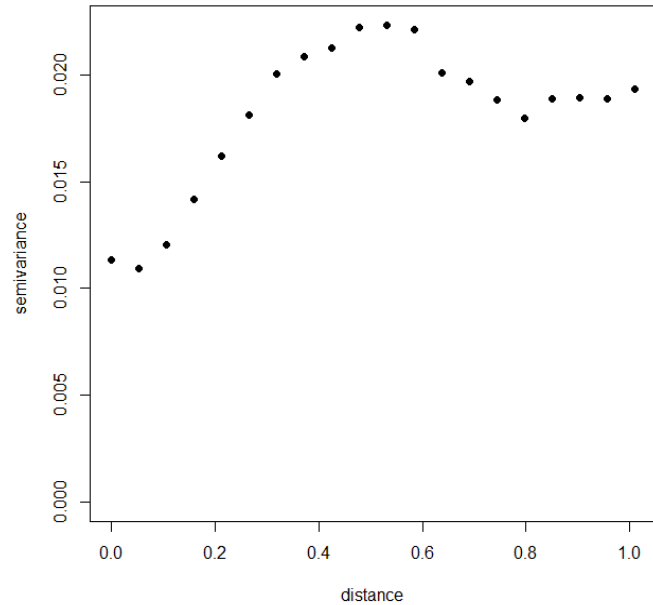
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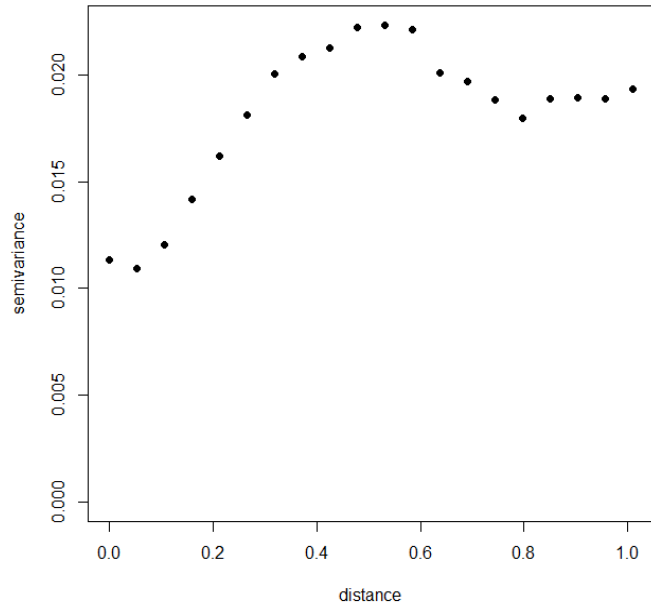


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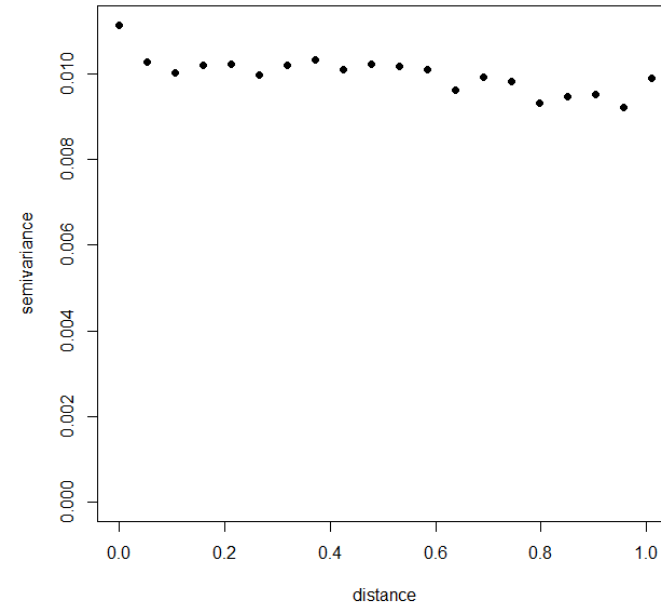


Response variable

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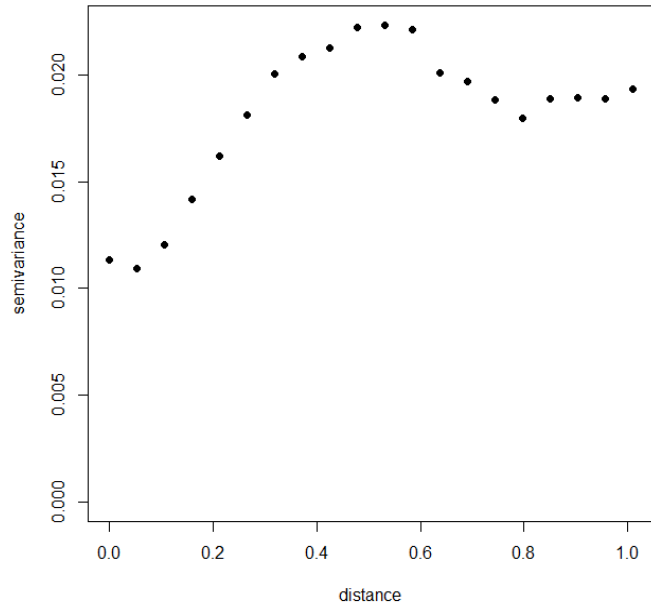


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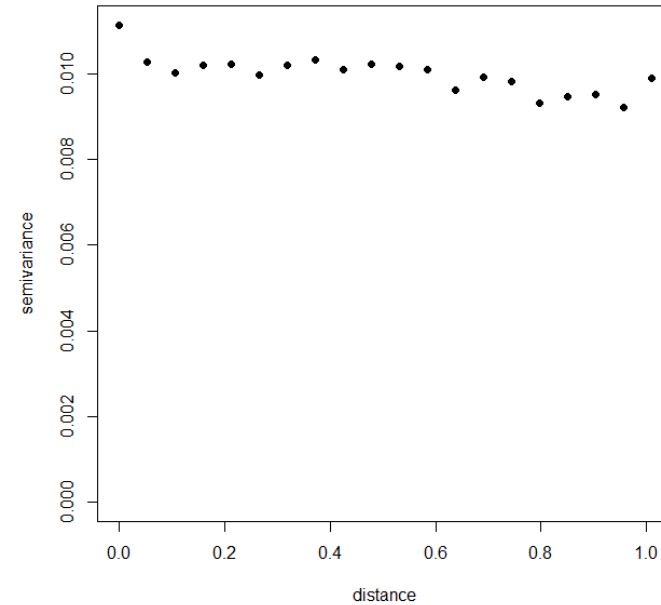


Residuals

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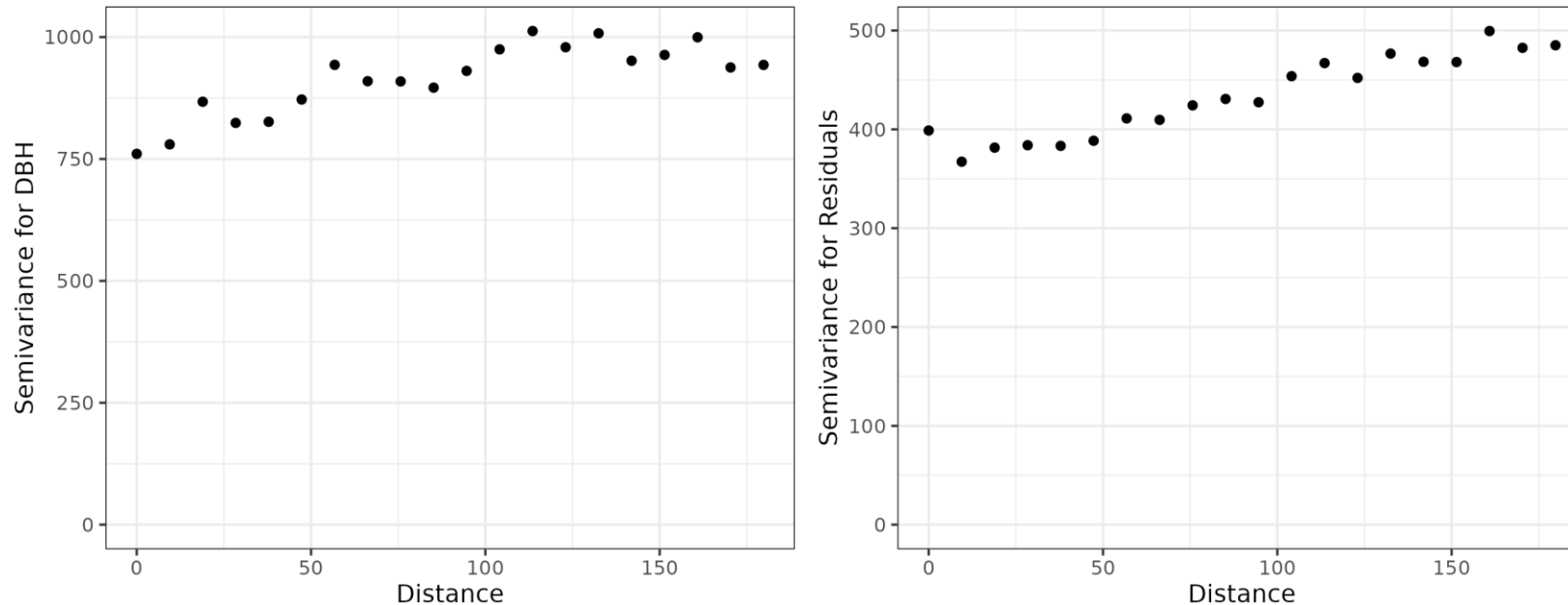
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Residuals

Residuals show little pattern. A simple linear model is adequate.

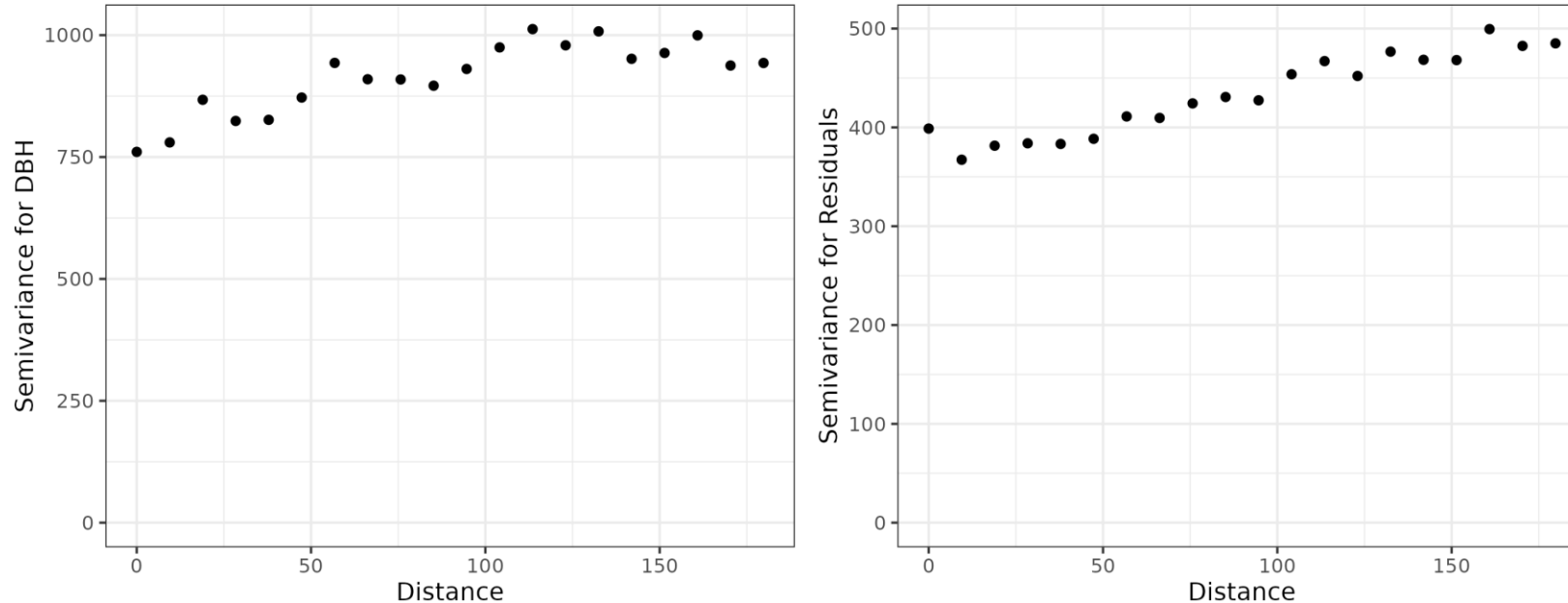
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Semivariogram of the residuals shows unexplained spatial variation. We need a spatial model!

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2-spatial-linear-model-wef.R



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- When purely covariate-based models do not suffice, we should leverage the spatial information of the points.
- Allow us to account for **Residual Spatial Autocorrelation** (i.e., spatial correlation in the response that is not explained by the covariates)


# Spatial linear model

Spatial random effect

$$y(\mathbf{s}_j) \sim \text{Normal}(\mu(\mathbf{s}_j), \tau^2)$$
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- How to choose the form of  $w(\mathbf{s})$ ?
- We want to choose  $w(\mathbf{s})$  such that we can easily predict and make smooth maps.
- We will choose  $w(\mathbf{s})$  to be a *surface*.

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- So, what does all this mean for our random effects?

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$$\mathbf{w} \sim \text{Multivariate Normal}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{C}(d, \sigma^2, \phi))$$

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- Four covariance functions supported in `spOccupancy` and `spAbundance`: exponential, spherical, Gaussian, Matérn
- We will focus primarily on using the exponential covariance function

# Exponential covariance function

- Covariance between site A and site B using exponential covariance function:

$$\mathbf{C}(d_{A,B}, \sigma^2, \phi) = \sigma^2 \exp(-\phi d_{A,B})$$



# Intuition on exponential spatial covariance

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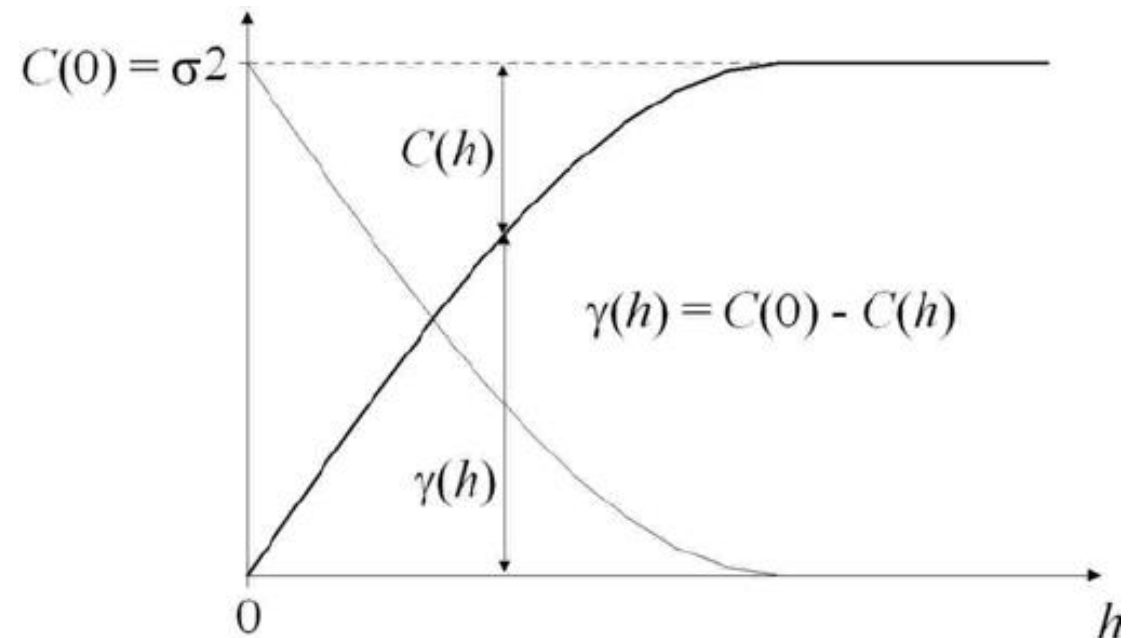
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- $\sigma^2$  Spatial variance. Controls magnitude of random effects.
- $\phi$  Spatial decay. Controls how quickly the correlation between sites decays across space.
- $\frac{3}{\phi}$  "Effective spatial range" when using an exponential covariance function. This is the distance at which the spatial correlation between two sites is essentially negligible (0.05)

# Covariance functions and semivariograms

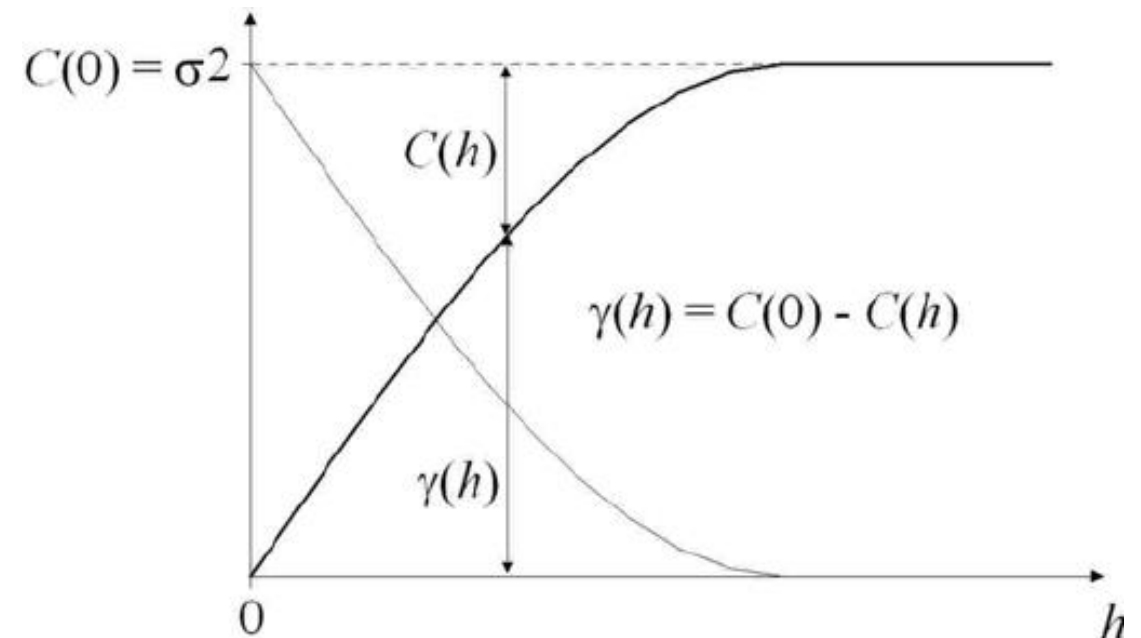
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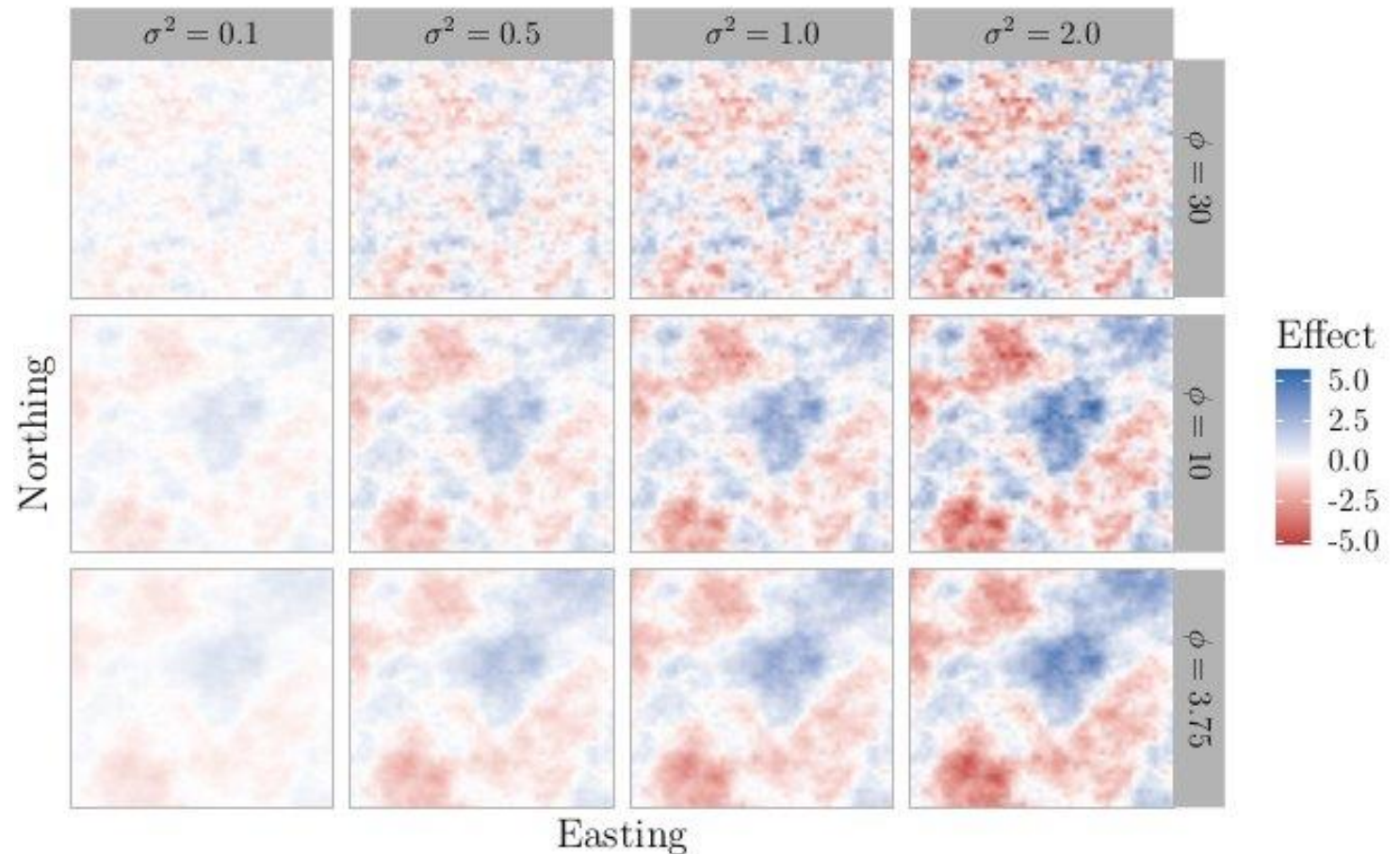
Covariance functions are intuitive: things closer together have higher correlation, things farther away have lower correlation.



# Spatial Gaussian processes

$$\mathbf{C}(d_{A,B}, \sigma^2, \phi) = \sigma^2 \exp(-\phi d_{A,B})$$

Maps of the resulting spatial random effects ( $\mathbf{w}$ ) under different parameter values



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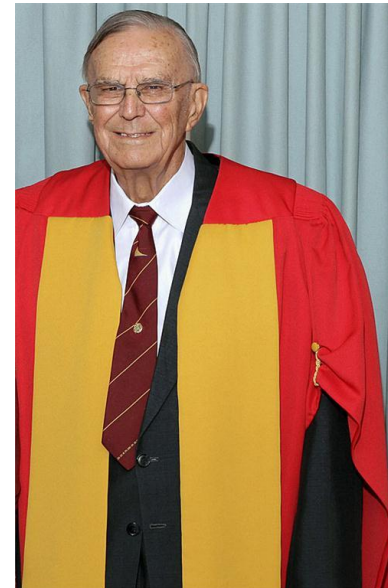
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- Predicting using spatial models (particularly frequentist models) is often called **kriging**.

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Danie  
Krige



# How to estimate spatial models?

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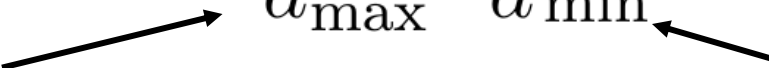
- As per usual, we can go a Bayesian route or a frequentist route.
- The Bayesian approach is highly preferred (and I promise it's not just me saying that!).
- Frequentist approaches (ML, REML) do not adequately account for uncertainty in the estimates of the spatial variance and spatial decay parameters. Leads to overly precise predictions



# Bayesian spatial linear model

- Assign prior distributions to all parameters and fit the model using MCMC.
- The two spatial parameters ( $\phi$  and  $\sigma^2$ ) are notoriously difficult to estimate separately from each other (Zhang, 2004 *JASA*).
- Priors become important. In `spOccupancy` and `spAbundance`, we use the following:
  - $\phi$ : A mildly informative uniform prior
  - $\sigma^2$ : A vague inverse-gamma prior

# Default priors on spatial parameters


$$\phi \sim \text{Uniform}\left(\frac{3}{d_{\max}}, \frac{3}{d_{\min}}\right)$$


Maximum inter-site distance

Minimum inter-site distance

- Default priors allow the effective spatial range to be anywhere from the maximum inter-site distance in the data set to the minimum inter-site distance.
- Fairly uninformative: allows for broad-scale and fine-scale spatial autocorrelation
- Can be made more informative by changing  $d_{\max}$  and  $d_{\min}$  to other values.

# Default priors on spatial parameters



The diagram shows the words "Shape" and "Scale" positioned above the parameters "2" and "1" of the inverse-gamma distribution. An arrow points from "Shape" to "2", and another arrow points from "Scale" to "1".

$$\sigma^2 \sim \text{inverse-gamma}(2, 1)$$

- Sets the prior mean of the spatial variance to 1 (moderate amount of spatial variation) with an infinite variance.
- When the shape = 2, the prior variance is infinite and the prior mean is equal to the scale.

# Exercise: Western Experimental Forest

2-spatial-linear-model-wef.R





# Pros to fitting spatial models

- More accurate predictions at new locations (i.e., more accurate maps)
- More accurate uncertainty estimates
- Visualizing spatial random effects can provide insight on underlying drivers
- Help to generate new hypotheses



# Cons to fitting spatial models

- Substantially slower (we will address this shortly).
- Convergence can be difficult to achieve without informative priors on spatial parameters.
- Generally requires more data (i.e., spatial replication) than non-spatial models.
- Spatial confounding



# Spatial confounding

- Covariates in your spatial model may be highly correlated with the spatial random effects, which can lead to difficulties when interpreting the covariate effect.
- Same concept as checking correlation between covariates between fitting a model (except one covariate is the spatial random effect).
- Some spatial models try to explicitly eliminate this problem (i.e., restricted spatial regression), but the benefits of this approach are highly debated.

# Literature on spatial confounding

General

## **Adding Spatially-Correlated Errors Can Mess Up the Fixed Effect You Love**

[James S. Hodges](#) & [Brian J. Reich](#)

Pages 325-334 | Received 01 Mar 2010, Published online: 01 Jan 2012



Statistical Practice

## **On Deconfounding Spatial Confounding in Linear Models**

[Dale L. Zimmerman](#) & [Jay M. Ver Hoef](#)

Pages 159-167 | Received 26 Feb 2021, Accepted 12 Jun 2021, Published online: 26 Jul 2021

# ECOGRAPHY

*Research article*

**Spatial confounding in Bayesian species distribution modeling**

[Jussi Mäkinen](#), [Elina Numminen](#), [Pekka Niittynen](#), [Miska Luoto](#) and [Jarno Vanhatalo](#)



# Things to consider when focusing on covariate effects in spatial models

1. Consider the range of spatial autocorrelation in the covariate. Covariates with long-range spatial autocorrelation are more likely to show spatial confounding than those with short-range autocorrelation (Mäkinen et al. 2022).

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2. Plot the estimates of the spatial random effect and compare with the covariates. Are they highly correlated?
3. Compare estimated effects in spatial model to those in non-spatial model. Are there drastic differences?
4. Use more informative priors to reduce the spatial confounding. Read Mäkinen et al. 2022 for specific details.