Spatial Statistics Areal Data Unit 2

PM569 Spatial Statistics

Lecture 6: October 21, 2016

Areal Data

- Spatial similarity
- ► Global indexes of spatial autocorrelation
- ► Local indexes of spatial autocorrelation (LISA)
- ► Spatial autoregressive models (CAR, SAR)

- ► The goal of global indexes of spatial autocorrelation is to summarize the degree to which similar observations tend to occur near each other
- Global indexes are summaries over the entire study area, akin to testing clustering rather than a test to detect individual clusters
- Indexes share a common structure: calculate the similarity of values at locations i and j then weight the similarity by the proximity of locations i and j
- High similarities with high weight indicate similar values that are close together; low similarities with high weight indicate dissimilar values that are close together

Indexes of spatial autocorrelation

- ▶ We want to summarize similarity between nearby areal units
- Spatial autocorrelation is the the correlation of the same measurement taken at different areal units
- ► The similarity of values at locations B_i and B_j are weighted by the proximity of i and j
- ► The weight *w_{ij}* defines proximity
- In general the extent of similarity is represented by the weighted average of similarity between areal units: indexes of spatial autocorrelation are built on this basic form:

$$\frac{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n}\sum\limits_{j=1}^{n}w_{ij}sim_{ij}}{\sum\limits_{i=1}^{n}\sum\limits_{j=1}^{n}w_{ij}}$$

Moran's I

- ▶ Moran's I (1950) follows the basic form for global indexes of spatial autocorrelation with similarity between areal units i and j defined as the product of the respective difference between y_i and y_j with the overall mean
- Similarity $sim_{ij} = (y_i \bar{y})(y_j \bar{y})$
- Where $\bar{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i / n$
- Divide the basic form by the sample variance to get the Moran's I statistic:
- $I = \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\sum_i \sum_j (y_i \bar{y})(y_j \bar{y})}{\sum_i \sum_j w_{ij}}$
- Where $s^2 = \frac{\sum_i (y_i \bar{y})^2}{n}$

Moran's I

- ▶ I is a random variable having a distribution defined by the distributions of and interactions between the y_i
- When neighbouring regions have similar values (pattern is clustered), I will be positive
- When neighbouring regions have different values (pattern is regular), I will be negative
- When there is no correlation between neighbouring values: $E(I) = -\frac{1}{n-1}$
- ▶ When $n\rightarrow \infty$, $E(I)\rightarrow 0$
- I is asymptotically normally distributed where $\frac{I + \frac{1}{n-1}}{\sqrt{Var(I)}} \sim N(0,1)$

Moran's I

- ► Moran's I is similar to Pearson's correlation but it is not bounded on [-1,1] because of the spatial weights
- ▶ Null hypothesis: NO spatial association, i.e. *y_i* iid
- Compare the z-score to a standard normal distribution
- ► The z-score that we compare to the standard normal is $z = \frac{I E(I)}{\sqrt{Var(I)}}$ where $E(I) = -\frac{1}{n-1}$ and V(I) is a little complicated (shown later)

Moran's I in R using North Carolina SIDS data

```
# Define neighbours. Choose k=2 NN
IDs<-row.names(as(nc, "data.frame"))
sids.kn2<-knn2nb(knearneigh(coordinates(nc), k=2,
RANN=FALSE), row.names=IDs)
# Convert to weight matrix (row standardized)
sids.kn2.w<-nb2listw(sids.kn2, style="W")
# Use moran.test for Moran's I
moranSIDS<-moran.test(sids79.rate,sids.kn2.w)</pre>
```

Moran's I in R using North Carolina SIDS data

Result:

data: sids79.rate weights: sids.kn2.w

Moran I statistic standard deviate = 2.4465, p-value = 0.007213

alternative hypothesis: greater

sample estimates:

Moran I statistic Expectation Variance 0.214682382 -0.010101010 0.008442014

The null hypothesis of no spatial correlation is rejected.

Geary's c

- Geary (1954) devides the contiguity ratio or Geary's c
- Similarity $sim_{ij} = (y_i y_j)^2$
- ▶ If regions i and j have similar values, sim_{ij} wil be small
- Like Moran's it is a weighted average, but here it is scaled by a measure of the overall variation around the mean, \bar{y}

Geary's c

- ► c ranges from 0 to 2 with 0 indicating perfect positive spatial correlation and 2 indicating perfect negative spatial correlation
- c is not a Pearson correlation (related to the Durbin-Watson statistic)
- Low values of Geary's c denote positive autocorrelation and high values indicate negative correlation
- ▶ Expected value, E(c) = 1 under spatial independence

Geary's c in R using North Carolina SIDS data

```
# Define neighbours. Choose k=2 NN
IDs<-row.names(as(nc, "data.frame"))
sids.kn2<-knn2nb(knearneigh(coordinates(nc), k=2,
RANN=FALSE), row.names=IDs)
# Convert to weight matrix (row standardized)
sids.kn2.w<-nb2listw(sids.kn2, style="W")
# Use geary.test for Geary's c
gearySIDS<-geary.test(sids79.rate,sids.kn2.w)</pre>
```

Geary's c in R using North Carolina SIDS data

data: sids79.rate
weights: sids.kn2.w

Result:

Geary C statistic standard deviate = 1.6166, p-value = 0.05299

alternative hypothesis: Expectation greater than statistic

sample estimates:

Geary C statistic Expectation Variance

0.83688116 1.00000000 0.01018165

We have a marginal p-value for negative spatial autocorrelation.

Moran's /

- ► Inference is performed on *I* under the randomization assumption or by Monte Carlo tests
- ▶ Null hypothesis is always that there is no spatial association
- We have a normality assumption of spatial independence such that all observations follow iid gaussian distribution
- Random permutations of the null distribution are computed

Moran's /

- ► Randomization means the observations are assigned at random in the *B_i* areal units
- ► Test statistic is z= (observed-expected)/s.d expected
- ▶ $E(I) = \frac{-1}{(n-1)}$ under null hypothesis of no autocorrelation
- ▶ *V(I)* is more complicated and is dependent upon the weight matrix. The normal approximation of the variance under randomization is (Cliff and Ord, 1981):

$$V(I) = \frac{ns_1 - s_2s_3}{(n-1)(n-2)(n-3)(\sum_i \sum_j w_{ij})^2}$$

$$s_1 = (n^2 - 3n + 3)(0.5 \sum_i \sum_j (w_{ij} + w_{ji})^2) - n(\sum_i (\sum_j w_{ij} + \sum_j w_{ji})^2) + 3(\sum_i \sum_j w_{ij})^2$$

$$s_2 = \frac{n^{-1} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^4}{(n^{-1} \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2)^2}$$

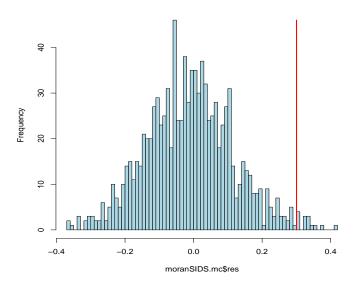
$$s_3 = 0.5 \sum_i \sum_i (w_{ij} + w_{ji})^2 - 2n(0.5 \sum_i \sum_i (w_{ij} + w_{ji})^2) + 6(\sum_i \sum_i w_{ij})^2$$

Moran's /

- Monte Carlo approach repeats randomization of the observations into the areal units a large number of times (e.g. $N_{sim} \sim 999$)
- ▶ For each randomization the Moran's I statistic is calculated
- ► Compare the observed Moran's / to the random set
- ▶ If the actual I falls at the 5th/95th percentile (or smaller/greater) then it is significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

- ▶ R output for monte carlo estimate of global Moran's I
- moran.mc(sids79.rate,sids.kn1.w,nsim=999)
 Monte-Carlo simulation of Moran's I
 data: sids79.rate
 weights: sids.kn1.w
 number of simulations + 1: 1000
 statistic = 0.3003, observed rank = 987, p-value
 = 0.013
 alternative hypothesis: greater
- ▶ The null hypothesis of no spatial correlation is rejected.



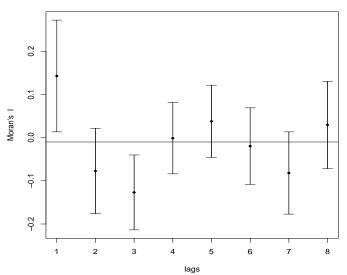


Issues with spatial autocorrelation tests:

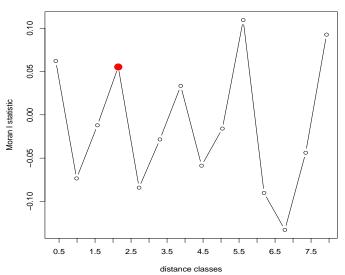
- they assume that the mean trend has been removed, for example elevation effect when examining spatial pattern in precipitation
- ▶ this assumption is in centering the mean $y_i \bar{y}$ as it's equivalent to saying the correct model has constant mean and the spatial pattern is represented in the spatial weights
- removing trend may be impossible if you don't have covariate data
- spatial weights may be misspecified for testing autocorrelation, for instance too few neighbour weights when spatial pattern is based on larger distances or vice versa
- ▶ they require min(N) ~ 20 to provide asymptotically accurate results

- ► We can look at correlograms of the Moran's I statistic to determine appropriate number of neighbours or distance
- ► Calculate *I* based on knn for a range of k (e.g. 1,...,8) or number of borders shared (e.g. queen, rook)
- \triangleright Calculate I based on d_{ij} for a range of distances

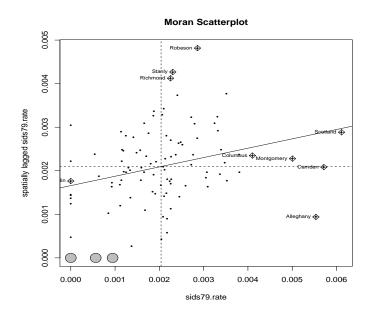








- Global tests of spatial autocorrelation can be broken down into components
- We can construct local tests that identify clusters
- One preliminary step is to construct a Moran's I scatterplot, where variable of interest (e.g. SIDS rate) is on the x-axis and their spatially lagged values on the y-axis



- ► This plot can be divided into quadrants of low-low, low-high, high-low and high-high
- ► The global Moran's *I* is the slope of this plot Im(wx x) where wx is the spatially lagged value of the values on the x-axis (e.g. SIDS rates)
- ► Can also detect outliers by testing for influence measures



- ► Global measures (Moran's I or Geary's c) are a single value that apply to the entire study area
- ► The same pattern or process occurs over the entire geographic area
- Global statistic suggests that there is clustering but does not identify areas of particular clusters
- Global test is often used first to determine if there is evidence of spatial association
- Want to detect local areas of similar values, need a local statistic
- ▶ LISAs are decompositions of global indicators into the contribution of each individual observation (i.e. $B_i \in D$)
- As a result the sum of LISAs is proportional to the equivalent global indicator
- ► Local Moran's I, Getis-Ord G*

- With LISAs, each observation gives an indication of the extent of significant spatial clustering of similar values located around that observation
- ► The locations "around" one particular observation is defined as a neighbourhood and is formalized with the spatial adjacency weights matrix, W
- Recall, W can be based on sharing a border (full or partial) or distance
- Row standardization of W helps with interpretation of the statistic

LISAs can be used to detect

- Clusters (areal units with similar neighbours): Local Moran's I
- ► Hotspots (areal units with dissimilar neighbours): Getis-Ord G*

Moran's / vs Local Moran's /

$$I = \frac{1}{s^2} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})(y_j - \bar{y})}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij}}$$
$$s^2 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}{n}$$
$$I_i = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s} \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{ij} \frac{(y_j - \bar{y})}{s}$$

I_i is calculated for each areal unit B_i

Local Moran's /

$$I_i = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s} \sum_{j}^{n} w_{ij} \frac{(y_j - \bar{y})}{s}$$

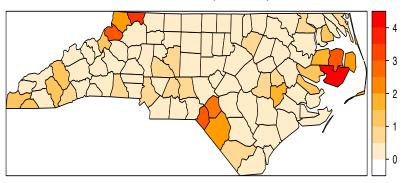
- ▶ Have a value of I for each B_i
- ► Sometimes the *I_i* are mapped to indicate units with high values indicating stronger local autocorrelation
- ▶ More often, z-score and significance of z-score is plotted
- ► As before, test statistics are generated under randomization
- Since in a local setting, there are multiple comparisons being made (neighbours sharing observations when calculating I_I) we need a Bonferroni adjustment

Local Moran's /

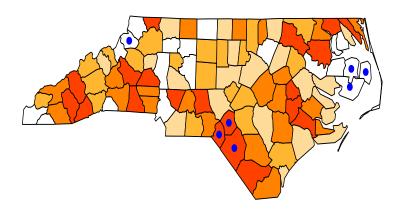
$$I_i = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{s} \sum_{j}^{n} w_{ij} \frac{(y_j - \bar{y})}{s}$$

- ▶ Have a value of I for each B_i
- ► Sometimes the *I_i* are mapped to indicate units with high values indicating stronger local autocorrelation
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Local Moran's I (Izl scores)



Statistically significant Local Moran's I as blue dots



Getis-Ord G vs Local Getis-Ord G*

$$G = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} y_{i} y_{j}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{i} y_{j}}$$

$$G_{i}* = \frac{\sum\limits_{j=1}^{n} w_{ij} y_{j}}{\sum\limits_{j=1}^{n} y_{j}}$$

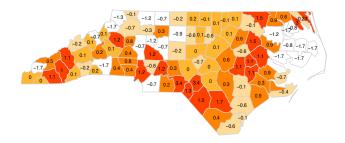
Getis-Ord G

- ► Again, we compute the z-score for spatially randomized G to determine if it is significantly different than our observed
- z=observed-expected/s.d. observed
- $\blacktriangleright E(G) = \frac{\sum_{i} \sum_{j} w_{ij}}{n(n-1)}$
- ▶ V(G) is complicated
- ▶ the sign of the z-score is important; positive z means high values cluster together, negative values means low values cluster together
- ▶ the p-value must be computed to determine significance of G

Local Getis-Ord G*

- ▶ Similar to local Moran's I_i , G_i^* is calculated for each areal unit
- ▶ A group of areal units with high G_i^* indicates a "hotspot" where as low G_i^* means a "coldspot"

Getis-Ord G* for SIDS79 rates



Areal Data

Issues with spatial autocorrelation tests:

- They assume that the mean trend has been removed, for example household income effect when examining spatial pattern in SIDS rate
- One solution is to run a linear model and then test for spatial association on residuals
- Use autoregressive models

Areal Data: Models

Simultaneous Autoregressive models

- Similar to universal kriging or regression kriging
- Use regression on values from neighbouring areal units to account for spatial dependence
- Autocorrelation reflects self regression where you use observations of the outcome at other locations as additional covariates in the model
- $Y(s) \sim MVN(X\beta, \Sigma)$
- ▶ In universal kriging we modeled Σ as a parametric function of distance
- In areal modeling, we restrict distances to those between our areal units

Areal Data: Models

Simultaneous Autoregressive models

▶ We represent Σ as our residual errors $\epsilon(s_i) = \sum_j b_{ij} \epsilon(s_j) + \nu(s_i)$ and apply spatial correlation to these residuals

$$Y(s_i) = x(s_i)\beta + \sum_j b_{ij}\epsilon(s_j) + \nu(s_i)$$

$$Y(s_i) = x(s_i)\beta + \sum_j b_{ij}[Y(s_j) - x(s_j)\beta] + \nu(s_i)$$

The degree of spatial dependence is through the term $\sum_j b_{ij} [Y(s_j) - x(s_j)\beta]$

Areal Data: Models

Simultaneous Autoregressive models

- ► SAR models are often represented in matrix form
- From the equation on the previous slide,

$$Y = X^T \beta + B(Y - X^T \beta) + \nu$$