# Spatial Reading Group Optional Subtitle

February 15, 2017

### Outline

Motivation

Classical Frequentist Spatial Stats Spatial Relationships Variograms

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Kriging

Extension - Preferential Sampling

Bayesian Estimation and Prediction

### Motivation

Why Spatial Data needs Spatial Stats

- Spatial Data are continuous but measured discretely.
- The data tend to be correlated.
- ▶ The measurements are rarely taken at random

# Assumptions

- Smooth data
- Stationary data
  - Does a trend extend beyond the bounds of the study?
  - Is the covariance consistent in the bounds of the study?

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### Covariance

- Smooth data
- Stationary data
  - Does a trend extend beyond the bounds of the study?
  - ▶ Is the covariance consistent in the bounds of the study?

### Mattern Function

$$\rho(x) = \{2^{\kappa - 1} \Gamma(\kappa)\}^{-1} \frac{u}{\phi} {}^{\kappa} K_{\kappa}(\frac{u}{\phi})$$

- $\triangleright$   $\kappa$  is order of differentiation, smoothness
- ► *φisscale*, *degreeofdecayovertime*
- ightharpoonup and  $\phi$  are not orthogonal.

### Outline

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Classical Frequentist Spatial Stats Spatial Relationships Variograms

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Kriging

Extension - Preferential Sampling

Bayesian Estimation and Prediction

► First item.

- ► First item.
- Second item.

- ► First item.
- Second item.
- ► Third item.

- First item.
- Second item.
- ► Third item.
- ► Fourth item.

- First item.
- Second item.
- ► Third item.
- ► Fourth item.
- Fifth item.

- First item.
- Second item.
- ► Third item.
- ► Fourth item.
- ▶ Fifth item. Extra text in the fifth item.

Gaussian model

$$Y \sim N(D\beta, \sigma^2 R(\phi) + \tau^2 I)$$

with covariates matrix  $D_{n \times p}$ , regression coefficients  $\beta$  , covariance of a parametric model for S(x), and nugget variance  $\tau^2$ .

▶ The log-likelihood function is

$$L(\beta, \tau^2, \sigma^2, \phi) = -0.5\{n\log(2\pi) + \log\{|(\sigma^2 R(\phi) + \tau^2 I)|\} + (y - D\beta)^T(\sigma^2 R(\phi) + \tau^2 I)^{-1}(y - D\beta)\}$$



Let  $\nu^2 = (\tau^2/\sigma^2)$ ,  $V = R(\phi) + \nu I$ , then  $L(\beta, \tau^2, \sigma^2, \phi)$  is maximized at

$$\hat{\beta}(V) = (D^T V^{-1} D)^{-1} D^T V^{-1} y \tag{1}$$

$$\hat{\sigma}^{2}(V) = n^{-1} \{ y - D\hat{\beta}(V) \}^{T} V^{-1} \{ y - D\hat{\beta}(V) \}$$
 (2)

- ▶ Plug (1) and (2) into  $L(\beta, \tau^2, \sigma^2, \phi)$  and obtain the concentrated log-likelihood:  $L_0(\nu^2, \phi) = -0.5\{n\log(2\pi) + n\log\hat{\sigma}^2(V) + \log|V| + n\}$
- ▶ Optimize  $L_0(\nu^2, \phi)$  numerically with respect to  $\nu$  and  $\phi$ ; back substitution to obtain  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  and  $\hat{\beta}$

- ▶ Re-parameterisation of V can be used to obtain more stable estimation, e.g the ratio  $\sigma^2/\phi$  is more stable than  $\sigma^2$  and  $\phi$
- ► Computational tool: profile log-likelihood: Assume a model with parameters  $(\alpha, \psi)$ ,

$$L_p(\alpha) = L(\alpha, \hat{\psi}(\alpha)) = \max_{\psi}(L(\alpha, \psi))$$

- ► Non-Gaussian data:
  - (1): transformation to Gaussian (2) generalized linear model
- ▶ (1) E.g. Box-Cox transformation; denote the transformed responses  $Y^* = (Y_1^*, ..., Y_n^*)$ , and fit a Gaussian model

$$Y^* \sim N(D\beta, \sigma^2\{R(\phi) + \tau^2 I\})$$

Computationally demanding, transformation may impede scientific interpretation

▶ (2) Generalized linear model

$$L(\theta|S) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_i(y_i|S,\theta)$$

$$L(\theta,\phi) = \int_{S} \prod_{i=1}^{n} f_i(y_i|s,\theta)g(s|\phi)ds$$

Involve high dimensional integration; need MCMC/Hierarchical likelihood/Generalized estimating equations

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation (An Example)

Model with constant mean								
Model	$\hat{\mu}$			$\hat{\sigma}^2$	$\hat{\phi}$	$\hat{ au}^2$	logL	
$\kappa = 0.5$	863.71			4087.6	6.12	0	-244.6	
$\kappa = 1.5$	848.32			3510.1	1.2	48.16	-242.1	
$\kappa = 2.5$	844.63			3206.9	0.74	70.82	-242.33	
Model with linear trend								
Model	$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}_{0}$	$\hat{oldsymbol{eta}}_1$	$\hat{eta}_2$	$\hat{\sigma}^2$	$\hat{\phi}$	$\hat{ au}^2$	logL	
$\kappa = 0.5$	919.1	-5.58	-15.52	1731.8	2.49	0	-242.71	
$\kappa = 1.5$	912.49	-4.99	-16.46	1693.1	0.81	34.9	-240.08	
$\kappa = 2.5$	912.14	-4.81	-17.11	1595.1	0.54	54.72	-239.75	

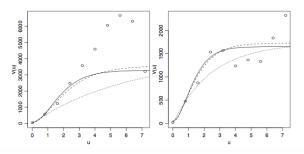


Figure: left: constant mean model; right: linear trend surface circle: sample variogram; solid line  $\kappa=2.5$ ; dashed line  $\kappa=1.5$ ; dotted line  $\kappa=0.5$ 

# Kriging

- ▶ Suppose our objective is to predict the value of the signal at an arbitrary location S(x).
- Note that (S(x), Y) is multivariate Gaussian with mean vector  $\mu \mathbf{1}$  and covariance matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma^2 & \sigma^2 r^T \\ \sigma^2 r & \sigma^2 V \end{pmatrix},$$

where r is a vector with elements  $r_i = \rho(||x - x_i||)$  and  $V = \sigma^2 R + \tau^2 I$ .

# Kriging

Conditional mean and variance:

$$E(S(x)|Y) = \mu + r^T V^{-1}(Y - \mu \mathbf{1}),$$
  
 $Var(S(x)|Y) = \sigma^2 (1 - r^T V^{-1} r).$ 

- Two types:
  - lacktriangleright Ordinary kriging: replace  $\mu$  by its weighted least squares estimator

$$\hat{\mu} = (\mathbf{1}^T V^{-1} \mathbf{1})^{-1} \mathbf{1}^T V^{-1} Y.$$

- Simple kriging: replace  $\mu$  by  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{y}$ .
- ▶ Both kriging predictors can be expressed as a linear combination:  $\hat{S}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i(x) Y_i$ , but  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i(x) = 1$  only for ordinary kriging.

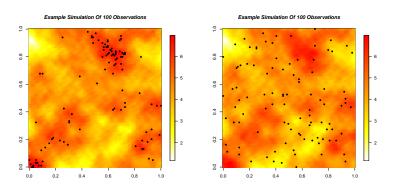
### The Problem

- So far we have assumed the sampling locations X are fixed, or assumed known.
- What if the sampling locations depend on the underlying field S?

### Example

- Pollution data from measuring stations
- Ocean temperature data from marine mammals
- ► Lead concentration in Galicia (to be shown)

Figure: Example of a single realisation of S and corresponding 100 sampling locations selected using a spatial Poisson Process with intensity  $\lambda(x) = \exp(\beta S(x))$ .



(a) Example of 100 preferentially (b) Example of 100 non-preferentially sampled locations ( $\beta=2$ ) sampled locations ( $\beta=0$ )

#### Solution

▶ We must account for the dependence between *X* and *S*.

$$L(\theta) = \int [X, Y, S] dS.$$
 (3)

- ▶ Diggle et al. 2010 Monte Carlo
- Integrated Nested Laplace Approximation (INLA) Joe
- Template Model Builder Danny

### Results

Model	Parameter	Standard MLE	TMB
Preferential	Bias	(0.77, 1.36)	(0.41, 0.94)
Preferential	Root-mean-square error	(0.86, 1.40)	(0.60, 1.05)

Table: Comparison of approximate 95% confidence intervals for the root-mean-square errors and bias between standard MLE and TMB over 50 independent simulations for preferential ( $\beta=2$ ) at location  $x_0=(0.49,0.49)$ .

# Problems with the MLE approach

- ▶ MLE method seperates parameter estimation and spatial prediction as two distinct problems.
- First the model is formulated, and it's parameters estimated.
- These estimated parameters are assumed true and spatial prediction equations are computed with these estimates plugged-in.
- Parameter uncertainty is ignored when making spatial prediction.
- ▶ Parameter uncertainty is often VERY HIGH. Even with seemingly large datasets (n > 10,000), the positive correlation dilutes the information present. Largely different values of correlation parameters  $\phi$  often fit the data equally well.

# Bayesian approach

 Account for parameter uncertainty when making spatial prediction and hence make more conservative estimates of prediction accuracy.

$$[S|Y] = \int [S|Y, \theta][\theta|Y]d\theta$$

- ▶ The Bayesian predictive distribution is a weighted average of plug-in predictive distributions  $[S|Y,\hat{\theta}]$ , weighted by the posterior uncertainty of the model values  $\theta$ .
- Arbitrary nonlinear functional T(S) of S can be estimated (along with credible intervals, standard errors etc.) by simple deterministic transformations of the posterior samples of S.

# Problems with Bayesian implementation

- ▶ Due to the flexibility of the Matern correlation function, many different combinations of the correlation parameters  $\phi$  fit the data equally well.
- A consequence of this is that the posterior distribution of  $[\theta|Y]$  has non-negligible probability mass across a wide range of the parameter space.
- ► The first consequence of this is that posterior distributions are extremely sensitive to prior distributions. Apparently 'diffuse' priors can still heavily affect the location and scale of the posterior distribution.
- ▶ Secondly, MCMC samplers must be formulated with large transition jumps to ensure the whole parameter space is explored. This leads to VERY LONG MCMC chains needing to be run (100,000 +).

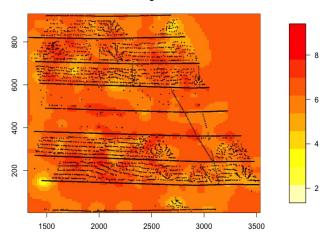
# The joy of INLA

- ▶ INLA enables **very** accurate deterministic approximations to both  $[\theta|Y]$  and  $\int [S|Y,\theta][\theta|Y]d\theta$  to be obtained.
- ► INLA handles most well-known response functions (Binomial, Poisson, Gamma etc), enabling Generalized Geostatistical Models to be fit.
- Through a combination of high-accuracy Laplace approximations and cubic spline interpolation, values from INLA are often indistinguishable from the 'true' values from an MCMC chain.
- ► INLA is FAST. Taking only seconds minutes to run compared with the hours - days that MCMC can take.
- Multiple responses can be fit to the same spatial process! (E.g poisson process and intensity process enabling preferential sampling to be investigated.)

# Real example: Predicting total Tin in Cornwall, UK

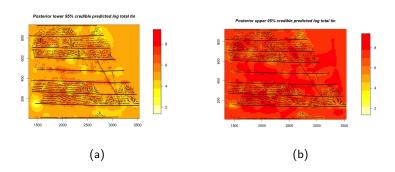
Figure: Predicted mean field .

#### Predicted log total tin



# Real example: Predicting total Tin in Cornwall, UK

Figure: Upper and lower 95% credible fields.



# Summary

- ► The first main message of your talk in one or two lines.
- ▶ The second main message of your talk in one or two lines.
- Perhaps a third message, but not more than that.
- Outlook
  - Something you haven't solved.
  - Something else you haven't solved.

# For Further Reading I



A. Author.

Handbook of Everything.

Some Press, 1990.



S. Someone.

On this and that.

Journal of This and That, 2(1):50-100, 2000.