Introduction to Geostatistics

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- Common sources of spatial data: climatology, forestry, ecology, environmental health, disease epidemiology, real estate marketing etc
 - have many important predictors and response variables
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- Other examples where spatial need not refer to space on earth:
 - Neuroimaging (data for each voxel in the brain)
 - Genetics (position along a chromosome)

Point-referenced spatial 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

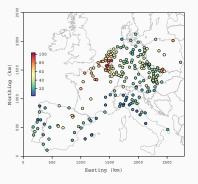


Figure: Pollutant levels in Europe in March, 2009

Point level modeling

- Point-level modeling refers to modeling of point-referenced data collected at locations referenced by coordinates (e.g., lat-long, Easting-Northing).
- Data from a spatial process $\{Y(s): s \in D\}$, D is a subset in Euclidean space.
- Example: Y(s) is a pollutant level at site s
- Conceptually: Pollutant level exists at all possible sites
- Practically: Data will be a partial realization of a spatial process observed at $\{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$
- Statistical objectives: Inference about the process Y(s);
 predict at new locations.
- Remarkable: Can learn about entire Y(s) surface. The key: Structured dependence

Exploratory data analysis (EDA): Plotting the data

- A typical setup: Data observed at n locations $\{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$
- At each s_i we observe the response $y(s_i)$ and a $p \times 1$ vector of covariates $x(s_i)'$
- Surface plots of the data often helps to understand spatial patterns

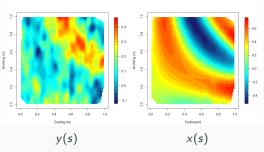


Figure: Response and covariate surface plots for Dataset 1

What's so special about spatial?

- Linear regression model: $y(s_i) = x(s_i)'\beta + \epsilon(s_i)$
- $\epsilon(s_i)$ are iid $N(0, \tau^2)$ errors
- $y = (y(s_1), y(s_2), \dots, y(s_n))'; X = (x(s_1)', x(s_2)', \dots, x(s_n)')'$
- Inference: $\hat{\beta} = (X'X)^{-1}X'Y \sim N(\beta, \tau^2(X'X)^{-1})$
- Prediction at new location s_0 : $\widehat{y(s_0)} = x(s_0)'\hat{\beta}$
- Although the data is spatial, this is an ordinary linear regression model

Residual plots

• Surface plots of the residuals (y(s) - y(s)) help to identify any spatial patterns left unexplained by the covariates

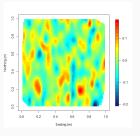


Figure: Residual plot for Dataset 1 after linear regression on x(s)

Residual plots

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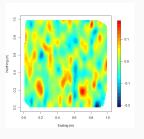
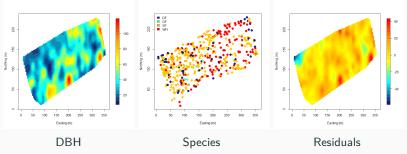


Figure: Residual plot for Dataset 1 after linear regression on x(s)

- No evident spatial pattern in plot of the residuals
- The covariate x(s) seem to explain all spatial variation in y(s)
- Does a non-spatial regression model always suffice?

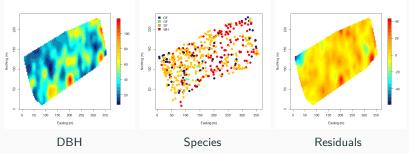
Western Experimental Forestry (WEF) data

- Data consist of a census of all trees in a 10 ha. stand in Oregon
- Response of interest: Diameter at breast height (DBH)
- Covariate: Tree species (Categorical variable)



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- Local spatial patterns in the residual plot
- Simple regression on species seems to be not sufficient

More EDA

Besides eyeballing residual surfaces, how to do more formal EDA to identify spatial pattern?

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First law of geography

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First law of geography

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- In general $(Y(s+h) Y(s))^2$ roughly increasing with ||h|| will imply a spatial correlation
- Can this be formalized to identify spatial pattern?

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Empirical semivariogram

■ Binning: Make intervals $I_1 = (0, m_1)$, $I_2 = (m_1, m_2)$, and so forth, up to $I_K = (m_{K-1}, m_K)$. Representing each interval by its midpoint t_K , we define:

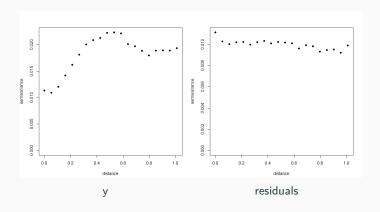
$$N(t_k) = \{(s_i, s_j) : ||s_i - s_j|| \in I_k\}, k = 1, \dots, K.$$

• Empirical semivariogram:

$$\gamma(t_k) = \frac{1}{2|N(t_k)|} \sum_{s_i, s_j \in N(t_k)} (Y(s_i) - Y(s_j))^2$$

- For spatial data, the $\gamma(t_k)$ is expected to roughly increase with t_k
- A flat semivariogram would suggest little spatial variation

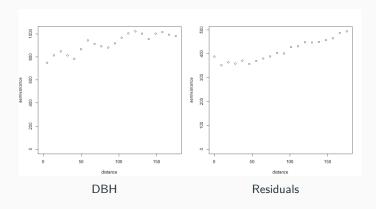
Empirical variogram: Data 1



Residuals display little spatial variation

Empirical variograms: WEF data

ullet Regression model: DBH \sim Species



Variogram of the residuals confirm unexplained spatial variation

Modeling with the locations

- When purely covariate based models does not suffice, one needs to leverage the information from locations
- General model using the locations: $y(s) = x(s)'\beta + w(s) + \epsilon(s)$ for all $s \in D$
- How to choose the function $w(\cdot)$?
- Since we want to predict at any location over the entire domain D, this choice will amount to choosing a surface w(s)
- How to do this?

Gaussian Processes (GPs)

- One popular approach to model w(s) is via Gaussian Processes (GP)
- The collection of random variables $\{w(s) | s \in D\}$ is a GP if
 - it is a valid stochastic process
 - all finite dimensional densities $\{w(s_1), \dots, w(s_n)\}$ follow multivariate Gaussian distribution
- A GP is completely characterized by a mean function m(s) and a covariance function $C(\cdot, \cdot)$
- Advantage: Likelihood based inference. $w = (w(s_1), \dots, w(s_n))' \sim N(m, C)$ where $m = (m(s_1), \dots, m(s_n))'$ and $C = C(s_i, s_j)$

Valid covariance functions and isotropy

- $C(\cdot,\cdot)$ needs to be valid. For all n and all $\{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$, the resulting covariance matrix $C(s_i, s_j)$ for $(w(s_1), w(s_2), ..., w(s_n))$ must be positive definite
- So, $C(\cdot, \cdot)$ needs to be a positive definite function
- Simplifying assumptions:
 - Stationarity: $C(s_1, s_2)$ only depends on $h = s_1 s_2$ (and is denoted by C(h))
 - Isotropic: C(h) = C(||h||)
 - Anisotropic: Stationary but not isotropic
- Isotropic models are popular because of their simplicity, interpretability, and because a number of relatively simple parametric forms are available as candidates for C.

Some common isotropic covariance functions

Model	Covariance function, $C(t) = C(h)$
Spherical	$C(t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} 0 & ext{if } t \geq 1/\phi \ \sigma^2 \left[1 - rac{3}{2}\phi t + rac{1}{2}(\phi t)^3 ight] & ext{if } 0 < t \leq 1/\phi \ au^2 + \sigma^2 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} ight.$
	$\tau^2 + \sigma^2$ otherwise
Exponential	$C(t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \sigma^2 \exp(-\phi t) & ext{if } t > 0 \ & au^2 + \sigma^2 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} ight.$
	$\tau^2 + \sigma^2 \qquad \text{otherwise}$
Powered	$C(t) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \sigma^2 \exp(- \phi t ^p) & ext{if } t > 0 \ au^2 + \sigma^2 & ext{otherwise} \end{array} ight.$
exponential	$\tau^2 + \sigma^2 \qquad \text{otherwise}$
Matérn	$C(t) = \begin{cases} \sigma^2 (1 + \phi t) \exp(-\phi t) & \text{if } t > 0 \\ \tau^2 + \sigma^2 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
at $ u = 3/2$	$\tau^2 + \sigma^2 \qquad \text{otherwise}$

Notes on exponential model

$$C(t) = \begin{cases} \tau^2 + \sigma^2 & \text{if } t = 0 \\ \sigma^2 \exp(-\phi t) & \text{if } t > 0 \end{cases}.$$

- We define the effective range, t_0 , as the distance at which this correlation has dropped to only 0.05. Setting $\exp(-\phi t_0)$ equal to this value we obtain $t_0 \approx 3/\phi$, since $\log(0.05) \approx -3$.
- The nugget τ^2 is often viewed as a "nonspatial effect variance,"
- The partial sill (σ^2) is viewed as a "spatial effect variance."
- $\sigma^2 + \tau^2$ gives the maximum total variance often referred to as the sill
- Note discontinuity at 0 due to the nugget. Intentional! To account for measurement error or micro-scale variability.

Covariance functions and semivariograms

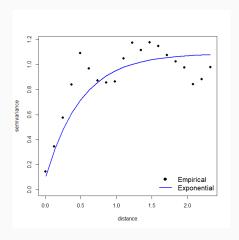
• Recall: Empirical semivariogram:

$$\gamma(t_k) = \frac{1}{2|N(t_k)|} \sum_{s_i, s_j \in N(t_k)} (Y(s_i) - Y(s_j))^2$$

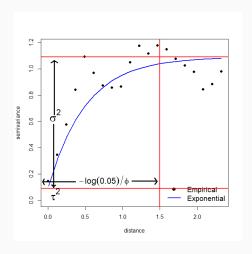
• For any stationary GP, $E(Y(s+h) - Y(s))^2/2 = C(0) - C(h) = \gamma(h)$

- $\gamma(h)$ is the semivariogram corresponding to the covariance function C(h)
- $\begin{array}{c} \bullet \quad \text{Example: For exponential GP,} \\ \gamma(t) = \left\{ \begin{array}{cc} \tau^2 + \sigma^2(1 \exp(-\phi t)) & \text{if } t > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t = 0 \end{array} \right., \text{ where } t = ||h|| \end{array}$

Covariance functions and semivariograms



Covariance functions and semivariograms



The Matèrn covariance function

• The Matèrn is a very versatile family:

$$C(t) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sigma^2}{2^{\nu-1}\Gamma(\nu)} (2\sqrt{\nu}t\phi)^{\nu} K_{\nu}(2\sqrt{(\nu)}t\phi) & \text{if } t > 0\\ \tau^2 + \sigma^2 & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases}$$

 K_{ν} is the modified Bessel function of order ν (computationally tractable)

- ν is a smoothness parameter controlling process smoothness. Remarkable!
- $\nu = 1/2$ gives the exponential covariance function

Kriging: Spatial prediction at new locations

- Goal: Given observations $w = (w(s_1), w(s_2), \dots, w(s_n))'$, predict $w(s_0)$ for a new location s_0
- If w(s) is modeled as a GP, then $(w(s_0), w(s_1), \dots, w(s_n))'$ jointly follow multivariate normal distribution
- $w(s_0) \mid w$ follows a normal distribution with
 - Mean (kriging estimator): $m(s_0) + c'C^{-1}(w m)$
 - where m = E(w), C = Cov(w), $c = Cov(w, w(s_0))$
 - Variance: $C(s_0, s_0) c'C^{-1}c$
- The GP formulation gives the full predictive distribution of w(s₀)|w

Modeling with GPs

Spatial linear model

$$y(s) = x(s)'\beta + w(s) + \epsilon(s)$$

- w(s) modeled as $GP(0, C(\cdot | \theta))$ (usually without a nugget)
- $\epsilon(s) \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \tau^2)$ contributes to the nugget
- Under isotropy: $C(s+h,s) = \sigma^2 R(||h||;\phi)$
- $w = (w(s_1), \dots, w(s_n))' \sim N(0, \sigma^2 R(\phi))$ where $R(\phi) = \sigma^2(R(||s_i s_j||; \phi))$
- $y = (y(s_1), ..., y(s_n))' \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 R(\phi) + \tau^2 I)$

Parameter estimation

- $y = (y(s_1), ..., y(s_n))' \sim N(X\beta, \sigma^2 R(\phi) + \tau^2 I)$
- We can obtain MLEs of parameters β , τ^2 , σ^2 , ϕ based on the above model and use the estimates to krige at new locations
- In practice, the likelihood is often very flat with respect to the spatial covariance parameters and choice of initial values is important
- Initial values can be eyeballed from empirical semivariogram of the residuals from ordinary linear regression
- Estimated parameter values can be used for kriging

Model comparison

- For *k* total parameters and sample size *n*:
 - AIC: $2k 2\log(I(y | \hat{\beta}, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\tau}^2))$
 - BIC: $\log(n)k 2\log(l(y | \hat{\beta}, \hat{\theta}, \hat{\tau}^2))$
- Prediction based approaches using holdout data:
 - Root Mean Square Predictive Error (RMSPE):

$$\sqrt{\frac{1}{n_{out}}\sum_{i=1}^{n_{out}}(y_i-\hat{y}_i)^2}$$

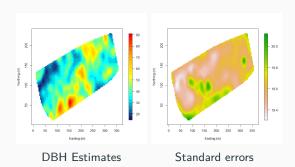
- Coverage probability (CP): $\frac{1}{n_{out}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{out}} I(y_i \in (\hat{y}_{i,0.025}, \hat{y}_{i,0.975}))$
- Width of 95% confidence interval (CIW): $\frac{1}{n_{\text{out}}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{\text{out}}} (\hat{y}_{i,0.975} \hat{y}_{i,0.025})$
- The last two approaches compares the distribution of y_i instead of comparing just their point predictions

Back to WEF data

Table: Model comparison

	Spatial	Non-spatial
AIC	4419	4465
BIC	4448	4486
RMSPE	18	21
CP	93	93
CIW	77	82

WEF data: Kriged surfaces



Summary

- Geostatistics Analysis of point-referenced spatial data
- Surface plots of data and residuals
- EDA with empirical semivariograms
- Modeling unknown surfaces with Gaussian Processes
- Kriging: Predictions at new locations
- Spatial linear regression using Gaussian Processes