Implementing Approximate Bayesian Inference using Integrated Nested Laplace Approximation: a manual for the inla program

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Abstract

This manual describes the inla program, a new instrument which allows the user to easily perform approximate Bayesian inference using integrated nested Laplace approximation (INLA). We describe the set of models which can be solved by the inla program and provide a series of worked out examples illustrating its usage in details. Appendix A contains a reference manual for the inla program.

This manual is for version snapshot of the inla program.

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1 Introduction

Integrated nested Laplace approximation (INLA) is a new approach to statistical inference for latent Gaussian Markov random field (GMRF) models introduced by Rue and Martino (2006) and Rue et al. (2007). It provides a fast, deterministic alternative to Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) which, at the moment, is the standard tool for inference in such models. The main advantage of the INLA approach over MCMC is that it is much faster to compute; it gives answers in minutes and seconds where MCMC requires hours and days. The theory behind INLA is thoroughly described in Rue et al. (2007) and will not be repeated here.

In short, a latent GMRF model is a hierarchical model where, at the first stage we find a distributional assumption for the observables y usually assumed to be conditionally independent given some latent parameters η and, possibly, some additional parameters θ_1

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1) = \prod_j \pi(y_j|\eta_j, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1).$$

The latent parameters η are part of a larger latent random field x, which constitutes the second stage of our hierarchical model. The latent field x is modelled as a GMRF with precision matrix Q depending on some hyperparameters θ_2

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_2) \propto \exp\{-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})^T\boldsymbol{Q}(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{\mu})\}$$

The third, and last, stage of the model consists of the prior distribution for the hyperparameters $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$.

The INLA approach provides a recipe for fast Bayesian inference using accurate approximations to $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$ and $\pi(x_i|\boldsymbol{y})$, $i=0,\ldots,n-1$, i.e. the marginal posterior density for the hyperparameters and the posterior marginal densities for the latent variables. Different types of approximations are available, see Rue et al. (2007) for details. The approximate posterior marginals can then be used to compute summary statistics of interest, such as posterior means, variances or quantiles.

Using the INLA approach it is also possible to challenge the model itself. The model can be assessed through cross-validation in a reasonable time. Moreover, Bayes factors and deviance information criterion (DIC) can be computed in an efficient way providing tools for model comparison.

Computational speed is one of the most important components of the INLA approach, therefore special care has to be put in the implementation of the required algorithms. All procedures necessary to perform INLA are efficiently implemented in the GMRFLib library. This an open source library written in (ANSI) C and Fortran which is freely available on the web page http://www.math.ntnu.no/~hrue/GMRFLib/.

The inla program is a useful tool which allows the user to easily specify and solve a large class of models, using the algorithms in the GMRFLib library, without any need for C programming. The components of the model and the options for the INLA procedures are specified through a ini file. The inla program reads the ini file, then it builds and solves the model returning the required approximate posterior marginal densities and summary statistics.

The class of models which can be solved using the inla program is wide, covering *time series models*, *generalised additive models* (Hastie and Tibshirani, 1990), *generalised additive mixed models* (Lin and Zhang, 1999), *geoadditive models* (Kammand and Wand, 2003), *univariate volatility models* (Taylor, 1986). With the exception of univariate volatility models, the inla program supports a subset of the models supported by BayesX. BayesX is a software tool, developed in the University of Munich, for estimating structured additive regression models, Brezger et al. (2003).

An R package called INLA is also under construction. This works as an interface to the inla program and its usage is similar to all other R functions.

In this tutorial we present the inla program (and its R interface) and, through a series of worked out examples show the possible range of applications where approximate Bayesian inference using INLA can be useful. In

Section 2 we discuss the class of models which can be defined and solved using the inla program. In Section 3 we describe the use of the inla program through a series of worked out examples of increasing complexity. The examples include all, but one, examples in Rue and Held (2005) and all examples in Rue et al. (2007), plus some more examples previously analysed with BayesX. For most of the example also the implementation via the R package INLA is reported. Section 9 describes how to perform model assessment and model comparison. Appendix A consists of a reference manual for the inla program while appendix B describes some of the implemented probability density.

2 Model description

The inla program supports hierarchical GMRF models of the following type

$$y_i|\eta_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1 \sim \pi(y_i|\eta_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1) \qquad j \in J$$
 (1)

$$\eta_i = \text{Offset}_i + \sum_{k=0}^{n_f - 1} w_{ki} f_k(c_{ki}) + \boldsymbol{z}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i \qquad i = 0, \dots, n_\eta - 1$$
 (2)

where

- J is a subset of $\{0, 1, \dots, n_{\eta} 1\}$, that is, not necessarily all latent parameters η are observed through the data y.
- $\pi(y_j|\eta_j, \theta_1)$ is the likelihood of the observed data assumed to be conditional independent given the latent parameters η , and, possibly, some additional parameters θ_1 . The latent variable η_i enters the likelihood through a known link function, see Appendix A.1 for details.
- ϵ is a vector of unstructured random effects of length n_{η} with i.i.d Gaussian priors with precision λ_{η} :

$$\epsilon | \lambda_{\eta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \lambda_{\eta} \mathbf{I})$$
 (3)

- $\eta = (\eta_1, \eta_2, ...)$ is a vector of predictors.
- Offset this is an a priori known component to be included in the linear predictor during fitting.
- w_k known weights defined for each observed data point.
- $f_k(c_{ki})$ is the effect of a generic covariate k which assumes value c_{ki} for observation i. The functions f_k , $k=0,\ldots,n_f-1$ comprise usual nonlinear effect of continuous covariates, time trends and seasonal effects, two dimensional surfaces, iid random intercepts and slopes and spatial random effects. The unknown functions, or more exactly the corresponding vector of function evaluations $\mathbf{f}_k = (f_{0k}, \ldots, f_{(m_k-1)k})^T$, are modelled as GMRFs given some parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}_{f_k}$, that is

$$f_k | \boldsymbol{\theta}_{f_k} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{Q}_k^{-1})$$
 (4)

• z_i is a vector of n_β covariates assumed to have a linear effect, and is β the corresponding vector of unknown parameters with independent zero-mean Gaussian prior with fixed precisions.

The full latent field, of dimension $n = n_{\eta} + \sum_{j=0}^{n_f-1} m_j + n_{\beta}$, is then

$$\boldsymbol{x} = (\boldsymbol{\eta}^T, \boldsymbol{f}_0^T, \dots, \boldsymbol{f}_{n_f-1}^T, \boldsymbol{\beta}^T).$$

Note that in the inla program the latent field x is parametrised using the predictors η instead of the unstructured terms ϵ .

All elements of vector x are defined as GMRFs, hence x is itself a GMRF with density:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{\theta}_2) = \prod_{i=0}^{n_{\eta}-1} \pi(\eta_i|\boldsymbol{f}_0, \dots, \boldsymbol{f}_{n_f-1}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \lambda_{\eta}) \prod_{k=0}^{n_f-1} \pi(\boldsymbol{f}_k|\boldsymbol{\kappa}_{f_k}) \prod_{m=0}^{n_{\beta}-1} \pi(\beta_m)$$
(5)

where

$$\eta_i | \boldsymbol{f}_0, \dots, \boldsymbol{f}_{n_f - 1}, \boldsymbol{\beta} \sim \mathcal{N}(\sum_{k=0}^{n_f - 1} f_k(c_{ki}) + \boldsymbol{z}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}, \lambda_{\eta})$$
 (6)

and $\theta_2 = \{\log \lambda_{\eta}, \theta_{f_0}, \dots, \theta_{n_f-1}\}$ is a vector of unknown hyperparameters. Note that we include the logarithm of the precision parameters in the vector of hyperparameters.

The last element in the definition of our hierarchical model is a prior distribution for the hyperparameters $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2)$. In the inla function all precisions are given a Gamma prior with parameters a and b so that the mean is a/b and the variance is a/b^2 . See the Appendix for details about the prior distributions for all the hyperparameters of the model.

Many well known models from the literature can be written as special cases of (1) and (2)

• Time series models

Time series models are obtained if $c_k = t$ represents time. The functions f_k can model nonlinear trends or seasonal effects

$$\eta_t = f_{trend}(t) + f_{seasonal}(t) + \boldsymbol{z}_t^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

• Generalised additive models (GAM)

A GAM model is obtained if $\pi(y_i|\eta_i, \theta_l)$ belongs to an exponential family, c_k are univariate, continuous covariates and f_k are smooth functions.

• Generalised additive mixed models (GAMM) for longitudinal data

Consider longitudinal data for individuals $i=0,\ldots,n_i-1$, observed at time points t_0,t_1,\ldots A GAMM model extends a GAM by introducing individual specific random effects, i.e.

$$\eta_{it} = f_0(c_{it0}) + \dots, + f_{n_f - 1}(c_{it(n_f - 1))}) + b_{0i}w_{it0} + \dots + b_{(n_b - 1)i}w_{it(n_b - 1)}$$

where η_{it} is the predictor for individual i at time t, x_{itk} , $k=0,\ldots,n_f-1$, w_{itq} , $q=0,\ldots,n_b-1$ are covariate values for individual i at time t, and $b_{0i},\ldots,b_{(n_b-1)i}$ is a vector of n_b individual specific random intercepts (if $w_{itq}=1$) or slopes. The above model can be written in the general form in equation (2) by defining r=(i,t), $c_{rj}=c_{itj}$ for $j=0,\ldots,n_f-1$ and $c_{r,(n_f-1)+q}=w_{itq}$, $f_{(n_f-1)+q}(c_{r,(n_f-1)+q})=b_{qi}w_{itq}$ for $q=0,\ldots,n_b$. In the same way GAMM's for cluster data can be written in the general form (2).

• Geoadditive models

If geographical information for the observations in the data set are available, they might be included in the model as

$$\eta_i = f_1(c_{0i}) + \dots + f_{n_f-1}(c_{(n_f-1)i}) + f_{spat}(s_i) + \boldsymbol{z}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$

where s_i indicates the location of observation i and f_{spat} is a spatially correlated effect. Models where one of the covariate represent the spatial effect have recently been coined geoadditive by Kammann and Wand (2003).

• ANOVA type interaction model

The effect of two continuous covariate w and v can be modelled as

$$\eta_i = f_1(w_i) + f_2(v_i) + f_{1|2}(w_i, v_i) + \dots$$

where f_1 and f_2 are the main effects of the two covariates and $f_{1|2}$ is a two dimensional interaction surface. The above model can be written in the general form (2) simply by defining $c_{1i} = w_i$, $c_{2i} = v_i$, $c_{3i} = (w_i, v_i)$,

• Univariate stochastic volatility model

Stochastic volatility models are time series models with Gaussian likelihood where it is the variance, and not the mean of the observed data, to be part of the latent GMRF model. That is

$$y_i|\eta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \exp(\eta_i))$$

The latent field is then typically modelled as a autoregressive model of order 1.

3 Examples of application

In this section we present a series of worked out examples mostly taken from Rue and Held (2005), Rue et al. (2007) and from the BayesX web page. The aim is both to show the wide range of models which can be solved using the approximate Bayesian inference techniques presented in Rue et al. (2007), and to introduce the inla program which makes it possible for the user to apply the above mentioned approximation techniques, making use of the GMRFLib library, in an easy and painless way.

The only input required from the inla program is a ini file containing the description of the model, the location of the files where the data and the covariates are stored, and, possibly, some options to be passed to the underlying GMRFLib library. The ini file is organised in sections each of which either describes one element of the hierarchical model in equations (1) and (2), or specifies some global parameters for the underlying functions in the GMRFLib library. The user is required to specify the likelihood model for the data, the parameters for the prior distribution of the model hyperparameters θ , and to describe, one by one, all components of the latent GMRF x in (2). The inla program will then read the model specifications, build the joint probability distribution for the latent GMRF x in equation (5), compute approximations for the required posterior marginals and store the results in a user defined directory.

Before presenting the examples, we describe how the covariate values are stored in files. Each covariate has to be stored in a separate file. The format of the file depends on whether the covariate is assumed to have linear or non-linear effect:

Covariates with linear effect: The value of the covariate is simply stored in a file with n_{η} columns each row having the format:

$$i$$
 z_i

where $i = 0, \dots, n_n - 1$ and z_i is the value of the covariate for observation i.

Covariates with non-linear effect: Let $c \in C$ and $C = \{c^{(0)} < c^{(1)} < \cdots < c^{(idx)} < \cdots < c^{(m-1)}\}$. That is, covariate c takes one of the m values in the ordered vector C. The file storing covariate c has n_{η} row, each with the following format:

$$i (idx)_i$$

where $i=0,\ldots,n_{\eta}-1$ and $(idx)_i$ is the position of the observed value c_i in the vector C. If the values in C are different from $0,1,\ldots$, another file of m rows, is necessary to store the values of C. A short example will be useful:

Example: Let $n_{\eta} = 5$ and $C = \{9, 10, 11\}$. Let the observed covariate values be $c_0 = 10$, $c_1 = 9$,

 $c_2 = 11$, $c_3 = 9$ and $c_4 = 10$. Then the covariate file will be as following

We would need also a file storing the values in C:

9 10 11

Note that all indexes go from 0 to n-1 and not from 1 to n.

We run each example in Section 3.1 on two different machines. The first, defined Machine 1, is a laptop with a Intel(R) Pentium(R) M processor 1.86GHz. The second one, defined Machine 2 is a Dell Poweredge 2950 equipped with two quad-core Itel Xeon 2.66GHz CPUs. For each of the examples we describe the model, the corresponding ini file and report some output results and the computation time for each of the two machines.

3.1 A simple time series: the Tokyo rainfall data

Our first example is a simple time series model, analysed, among others, in Rue and Held (2005, Sec. 4.3.4).

Example 1 The number of occurrences of rainfall over 1 mm in the Tokyo area for each calendar year during two years (1983-84) are registered. It is of interest to estimate the underlying probability p_t of rainfall for calendar day t which is, apriori, assumed to change gradually over time. The likelihood model is binomial

$$y_t | \eta_t \sim Bin(n_t, p_t)$$

with logit link function

$$p_t = \frac{\exp(\eta_t)}{1 + \exp(\eta_t)}.$$

The model for the latent variables can be written in the general form of equation (2) as

$$\eta_t = f(t)$$

where t is the observed time whose effect is modelled as a smooth function $f(\cdot)$. Following Rue and Held (2005), the random vector $\mathbf{f} = \{f_0, \dots, f_{365}\}$ is assumed to have a circular random walk of order 2 (RW2) prior with unknown precision λ_f .

There is only one hyperparameter $\theta = (\log \lambda_f)$ which we assign a LogGamma(a,b) prior distribution with a=1 and b=0.0001. The LogGamma distribution is defined such that if $X \sim \text{LogGamma}(a,b)$, the $Y = \exp(X) \sim \text{Gamma}(a,b)$ with E(Y) = a/b and $Var(Y) = a/b^2$.

Figure 1, panel (a), displays the observed frequencies of rain for the 366 time points. The TOKYO.ini file which defines the above model for the inla program is:

```
1 [The Tokyo-rainfall example]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results
4
5 [Predictor-term]
```

```
6 type = predictor
7 initial = 10
8 \text{ fixed} = 1
9 n = 366
11 [data]
12 type = data
likelihood = binomial
14 filename = tokyo.rainfall.data
16 [latent-RW2]
17 type = ffield
18 covariates = time.covariate
20 \ model = rw2
parameters = 1.0
                      0.0001
22 cyclic = 1
23 quantiles = 0.025 0.975
```

In the following we guide the reader, section by section, through the above ini file and explain what the different fields represent. We then briefly illustrate how to run the inla program and how and where the output is stored.

Each section of the ini file starts with a tag (in square brackets) which is simply a user defined name for the section itself. The order of the sections is not important. The field named *type* is contained in each section. It defines the role of the section in the problem specification and, consequently, determines also the nature of all other fields in the same section. There are six specifications for the *type* field, see Appendix A.1 for details.

The first section in our ini file, defined by *type=problem*, specifies some global parameters. The options specified in this section are valid for the whole problem. Here, the directory where the results will be stored is defined (line 3).

The second section, defined by type = predictor, (lines 5-9), deals with vector η in (6). The field n is required and indicates the length n_{η} of the latent variable vector η . The inla program requires a section of type = predictor to always be present, even in cases, like the example we are presenting here, where there is no unstructured random effect u and therefore the predictor vector is a deterministic function of $f_0, \ldots, f_{n_f-1}, \beta$. We mimic the absence of unstructured random effect by declaring the precision λ_{η} to be fixed and not random (fixed = 1), and the value of the log precision $\log \lambda_{\eta}$ to be high (initial = 10).

The following section, defined by type = data (lines 11-14), specifies the model for the likelihood of the data $\pi(y_t|\eta_t)$ (line 13), and the name of the file where the data are stored (line 14). The format of the data file depends on the likelihood model, see Appendix A.1.2. For binomial likelihood it is as following:

$$t n_t y_t$$

where t is the data index going from 0 to $(n_d - 1) = 365$.

The last section, defined by type = ffield (lines 16-23) specifies the model for the random vector f. In this example we have a second order random walk (model=rw2) of length 366 (n=366) which is cyclical (cyclic=1). We also specify here the parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior for the log precision parameter $\log \lambda_f$ (line 21). We require the inla program to compute also the 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles for each of the posterior marginal densities in the latent RW2 field (line 23). The name of the file where the covariate values are stored (line 18) completes the model specification. In this case the covariate is just the observed time point. The

covariate file consists of two identical columns with index going from 0 to 365.

 $\begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & 0 \\
 1 & 1 \\
 2 & 2
 \end{array}$

Once the ini file is ready, we can run the program using the following command line:

The option -v (verbose) makes the program print out some more information about the model while running. Only for this example, we reproduce the output of the inla program to make the reader familiar with it.

```
Processing file [TOKYO.ini]
inla_build ...
         number of sections = [5]
         parse section = [0] name = [the tokyo-rainfall example] type = [PROBLEM]
         inla_parse_problem ...
                  name=[the tokyo-rainfall example]
                  use. derivaties = [1]
                  dof.max = [50]
                  store results in directory = [results 0]
                  output:
                           cpo = [0]
                           dic = [0]
                           k1d = [1]
                           mlik = [0]
                           hyperparameters = [0]
                           summary = [1]
                            density = [1]
                           nquantiles = [0]
                           ncdf = [0]
         parse section =[1] name=[predictor -term] type=[PREDICTOR]
         inla_parse_predictor ...
                  section =[ predictor -term ]
                  PRIOR—>name = [LOGGAMMA]
                  PRIOR \rightarrow PARAMETERS = [1, 0.001]
                  initialise log_precision[10]
                  fixed = [1]
                  n = [366]
                  compute = [0]
                  output:
                           summary = [1]
                           density = [1]
                           nquantiles = [0] []
                           ncdf = [0] []
         parse section = [2] name = [data] type = [DATA]
         inla_parse_data ...
                  tag = [data]
                  likelihood = [BINOMIAL]
                  file -> name = [tokyo.rainfall.data]
                  read n=[1098] entries from file=[tokyo.rainfall.data]
                                   (idx, a, y) = (0, 2, 0)
(idx, a, y) = (1, 2, 0)
                           0/366
                           1/366
                                   (idx, a, y) = (2, 2, 1)
                           2/366
         parse section = [3] name = [latent -rw2] type = [FFIELD]
         inla_parse_ffield ...
                  section = [latent -rw2]
                  model = [rw2]
                  PRIOR \rightarrow name = [LOGGAMMA]
                  PRIOR->PARAMETERS=[1, 0.000289]
                  constr = [0]
                  diagonal = [0]
                  compute = [1]
                  fixed = [0]
```

```
read covariates from file = [time.covariate]
                read n=[732] entries from file = [time.covariate]
                 file = [time.covariate] 0/366 (idx, y) = (0, 0)
                 file = [time.covariate] 1/366 (idx, y) = (1, 1)
                n=[366]: use default locations, if required
                cyclic = [1]
                 initialise log_precision[1]
                 output:
                         summary = [1]
                         density = [1]
                         nquantiles = [2] [0.025 0.975]
                         ncdf = [0]
        parse section = [4] name = [inla] type = [INLA]
        inla_parse_INLA ...
                section[inla]
Contents of ai_param 0x9aa3428
                         Use a mean-skew corrected Gaussian by fitting a Skew-Normal
        Strategy:
        Fast mode:
                         On
        Use linear approximation to log(|Q + c|)? No
        Parameters for improved approximations
                Number of points evaluate:
                Step length to compute derivatives numerically:
                                                                    0.000018
                Cutoff value to construct local neighborhood:
                                                                    0.001000
                Limit to accept a Gaussian fit: 0.010000
                Limit to accept a Skew-Normal fit:
                                                           0.010000
        Log calculations:
                                  On
        Log calculated marginal for the hyperparameters:
                                                                    Off
                                 Use adaptive grid-approach (GRID)
        Integration strategy:
                f0 (CCD only):
                                  1.100000
                dz (GRID only): 1.000000
                Adjust weights (GRID only):
                                                   On
                Difference in log-density limit (GRID only): 2.500000
Skip configurations with (presumed) small density (GRID only):
        Gradient is computed using Forward difference with step-length 0.001000
        Hessian is computed using Central difference with step-length 0.001000
        Hessian matrix is forced to be a diagonal matrix? [No]
        Compute effective number of parameters? [Yes]
        Perform a Monte Carlo error-test? [No]
        Interpolator [Auto]
inla_build: check for unused entries in [TOKYO.ini]
inla_INLA ...
        Size of full graph = [732]
        Found optimal reordering = [amd]
        List of hyperparameters:
                theta[0] = [log-precision for latent-rw2]
Maximise marginal for hyperparam: log(density) = -332.2833 theta = 8.826705
Maximise marginal for hyperparam: log(density) = -332.2833 theta = 8.826704
Compute the Hessian using central differences and step_size [0.001]. Matrix-type [dense]
     3.757422
Eigenvectors of the Hessian
        1.000000
Eigenvalues of the Hessian
        3.757422
StDev/Correlation matrix (scaled inverse Hessian)
     0.515887
Search: coordinate 0 direction -1
        config 0=[-1] \log(rel.dens) = -0.46, accept, compute, 0.10s
        config 1=[-2] \log(rel.dens) = -1.68, accept, compute, 0.10s
        config 2=[-3] \log(rel.dens) = -3.44, diff to large, stop searching
Search: coordinate 0 direction 1
        config 3=[1] \log(rel.dens) = -0.54, accept, compute, 0.11s
        config 4=[2] \log(rel.dens) = -2.35, accept, compute, 0.10s
```

```
3] \log(\text{rel.dens}) = -5.90, diff to large, stop searching
        config 5=[
Fill-in computations
                 6=[0] \log(\text{rel.dens}) = -0.00, \text{ accept}, \text{ compute}, 0.10 \text{ s}
        config
Combine the densities with relative weights:
                0/5 = [-1.00] weight = 0.632 adjusted weight = 0.633
                                                                            neff = 12.49
                1/5 = [-2.00] weight = 0.186 adjusted weight = 0.209
                                                                            neff = 14.19
        config
                        [1.00] weight = [0.584] adjusted weight = [0.585]
                                                                            neff = 9.69
        config
                 2/ 5=[
                 3/ 5=[
                         [2.00] weight = [0.095] adjusted weight = [0.107]
                                                                            neff = 8.53
        config
                 4/ 5=[
                         0.00] weight = 1.000 adjusted weight = 0.963
                                                                           neff = 11.00
Expected effective number of parameters: 11.233, #data/#eff.params: 32.58
Done.
        store results in directory [results0]
                 store summary results in [results 0 / latent -rw2 / summary . dat]
                 store summary (gaussian) results
                     in[results0/latent-rw2/summary-gaussian.dat]
                 store marginals in [results 0 / latent -rw2 / marginal - densities . dat]
                 store marginal-densities (gaussian)
                     in[results0/latent-rw2/marginal-densities-gaussian.dat]
                 store (symmetric) kld's in [results0/latent-rw2/symmetric-kld.dat]
                 store quantiles in [results 0 / latent -rw2 / quantiles . dat]
                 store quantiles (gaussian)
                     in [results 0 / latent -rw2 / quantiles -gaussian.dat]
Wall-clock time used on [TOKYO. ini]
        Preparations
                        :
                              0.025 seconds
        Approx inference:
                              5.007 seconds
                              5.848 seconds
        Output
        Total
                             10.880 seconds
```

From the above output we can follow what the inla program does: it first reads the different sections, builds the model for the full latent field x, performs the INLA approximation and, finally, stores the results in the appropriate directories. The whole procedure takes less than 10 seconds on Machine 1 and about 2 seconds on Machine 2.

Note that in the output is also reported, for each computed configuration of the hyperparameters, the estimated number of effective parameters (neff), Rue et al. (2007) suggest these as a way to check the accuracy of the approximation of $\pi(\theta|y)$. Namely, if the number of effective parameters is small compared to the number of data, then we can expect the approximation to be accurate. In this case the ratio between the number of data and the effective number of parameters is around 32, thus suggesting a good quality of the approximation.

The results are stored in the directory *results*. The program creates sub-directories to store separately results for each component of the model. In our Tokyo example we have two sub-directories:

- predictor —term/
- latent −rw2/

The first one is an empty directory since by default the marginals for the predictor term are not computed, see Appendix A.1.3. The second directory contains results for the latent RW2 model. The sub-directories where the results are stored are printed in the last part of the output of the inla function.

The default results consist of five files for each sub-directory created, namely:

- marginal-densities-gaussian.dat
- summary-gaussian.dat
- marginal-densities.dat

- summary.dat
- symmetric-kld.dat

Moreover we have two files containing the quantiles

- quantiles gaussian.dat
- quantiles . dat

The names of the files are always the same for each sub-directory created. The files whose names ends with -gaussian.dat contain results obtained using the Gaussian approximation to approximate the density of $x_t|y,\theta$ (see Rue et al. (2007), Section 3.2.1) while the other files contain results obtained using one of the improved approximations for $x_t|y,\theta$ described in Rue et al. (2007), i.e. the Laplace approximation or its simplified version (default).

The file *symmetric*—*kld.dat* contains the (symmetric) Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence between the Gaussian and the (simplified) Laplace approximation to the marginal posterior densities, which we have plotted in Figure 1, panel (b). In this example the divergence is larger for the winter months (November to February), when the observed frequencies are lower, but it stays always very low. Rue et al. (2007) propose to use the Kullback-Leibler distance to check the accuracy of the Gaussian approximation.

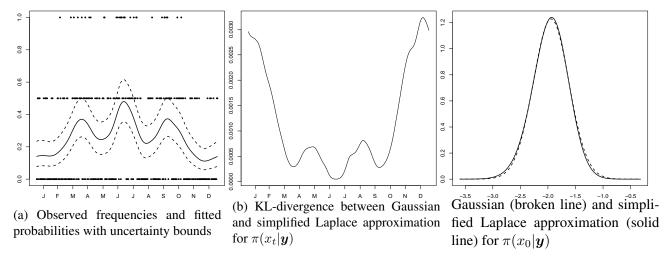


Figure 1: Results for the Tokyo rainfall example

The "summary" files contain the mean and the standard deviation for each posterior density. There is one line for each node in the RW2 model and each line is structured as follows:

$$t \quad E(x_t|\mathbf{y}) \quad \sigma(x_t|\mathbf{y})$$

Also in the "quantiles" files each line refers to one node and is structured as follows:

$$t p(0) x_t(0) p(1) x_t(1) \dots$$

where p(j) and $x_t(j)$ are such that $\operatorname{Prob}(x_t < x_t(j)|\boldsymbol{y}) = p(j), j = 0, 1, \ldots$ The number of columns in the "quantiles" files depends on how many quantile values the user choose to compute. In our example there are 5 columns.

Figure 1, panel (a), displays the binomial frequencies and the approximated posterior mean with uncertainty bounds for the underlying probabilities p_t . The probability of rain is smaller in the winter months.

The "marginal-densities" files contain the approximated marginal posterior densities. Again each line refers to a different node in the RW2 model and the structure of each line is as follows

$$t \quad x_{t0} \quad \widetilde{\pi}(x_{t0}|\boldsymbol{y}) \quad x_{t1} \quad \widetilde{\pi}(x_{t1}|\boldsymbol{y}) \quad \dots \quad x_{tK} \quad \widetilde{\pi}(x_{t(K-1)}|\boldsymbol{y})$$

where $(x_{t0}, x_{t1}, \ldots, x_{t(K-1)})$ are K=201 selected values of the variable x_t and $(\widetilde{\pi}(x_{t0}), \widetilde{\pi}(x_{t1}), \ldots, \widetilde{\pi}(x_{t(K-1)}))$ are the corresponding values of the density. Figure 1 (right) displays the Gaussian approximation (broken line) and the simplified Laplace approximation (solid line) for the marginal posterior density of $x_{365}|\mathbf{y}$, this node is chosen for being the one for which the KL divergence is maximised. The following R code can be used to reproduce this figure

3.1.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

Using the INLA package all data files are automatically build by the package itself starting from a usual R data frame. The data set Tokyo is included in the INLA package and can be loaded as:

```
>data(Tokyo)
```

The first rows of the data frame are as following:

```
> Tokyo
    y n time
    0 2    1
    0 2    2
```

The main function of the package is the inla() function. Its use is similar to that of the glm() R function for solving generalised linear models, in addition, the function f() is used to define non linear terms like the time effect in the Tokyo example.

The formula of the model in R is:

```
>formula <- y ~ f(time, model="rw2", cyclic=TRUE, param=c(1,0.0001))-1
```

Note that (as for glm() function) the intercept is automatically added, so if it is not desired, it has to be explicitly removed.

Once the formula is defined, we only have to call the inla() function specifying the likelihood family and some additional parameters as following:

```
>mod.tokyo <- inla(formula,family="binomial",Ntrials=n,data=Tokyo)</pre>
```

The INLA package provides also a summary of the fitted model:

```
> summary(mod.tokyo)
```

Call:

and the possibility to plot the most relevant features of the fitted model as

>plot(mod.tokyo)

More information about the inla() and f() functions can be found by typing

>?inla

>?f

3.2 A time series with seasonal component: the drivers data

The second example is also taken from Rue and Held (2005, Sec 4.4.2). It is again a time series but here we decompose the latent variables η_t into a trend and a seasonal component.

Example 2 The data consist in monthly counts of car drivers in Great Britain killed or seriously injured in car accidents from January 1969 to December 1984. The time series has $n_d = 192$ data points and exhibits a strong seasonal pattern. One of our goals is to predict the pattern of counts in the 12 month following the last observation.

We assume the squared root of the counts y_t to be conditionally independent Gaussian random variables:

$$y_t|\eta_t, \lambda_u \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_t, 1/\lambda_u), \quad t = 0, \dots, n_d - 1$$

The conditional mean η_t *is then a sum of a smooth trend and a seasonal component:*

$$\eta_t = season_t + trend_t, \quad t = 0, \dots, n_\eta - 1$$
(7)

We assume the vector $season = (season_0, \ldots, season_{n_{\eta}-1})$ to follow the seasonal model in (3.58) of Rue and Held (2005), with length 12 and unknown precision λ_{season} , and the vector $trend = (trend_0, \ldots, trend_{n_{\eta}-1})$ to follow a RW2 with unknown precision λ_{trend} .

Note that we have that $n_{\eta} = n_d + 12 = 204$, since no observations y_t are available for $t = n_d, n_d + 1, \ldots, n_d + 11$. For prediction we are interested in the posterior marginals of $(\eta_{n_d}, \ldots, \eta_{n_d+11})$.

There are three hyperparameters in the model $\theta = (\log \lambda_y, \log \lambda_{season}, \log \lambda_{trend})$ for which we choose the following prior distributions:

```
\lambda_y \sim LogGamma(4,4)

\lambda_{season} \sim LogGamma(1,0.1)

\lambda_{trend} \sim LogGamma(1,0.0005)
```

See Rue and Held (2005) for more details.

The corresponding DRIVERS.ini file is as follows:

```
1 [Drivers data]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
4 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
6 [Predictor]
7 type = predictor
8 parameters = 1 0.0005
9 initial = 13
10 fixed = 1
11 n = 204
12 compute=1
14 [data]
15 type = data
likelihood = gaussian
iif filename = sqrt-drivers.dat
parameters = 4 4
19 i n i t i a l = -2
21 [trend]
```

```
22 type = ffield
23 \ covariates = time.dat
n = 204
25 \ model = rw2
parameters = 1 0.0005
27 initial = 7
29 [seasonal]
30 type = ffield
model = seasonal
32 \ covariates = time.dat
n = 204
season=12
35 parameters = 1 0.01
36 \quad initial = 10
38 [INLA parameters]
39 type = INLA
40 h = 0.001
```

We go briefly through the ini file, section by section, highlighting the difference with the previous example.

- [Drivers data] section: specifying the quantiles in type=problem section (line 4), will make the program compute quantiles for all nodes in the latent field.
- [Predictor] section: the precision is fixed to a high value (lines 9-12) to mimic the absence of an unstructured term in the model. Anyway, since our goal is to predict the expected counts we ask the program to compute posterior marginals for η as well (compute=1).
- [data] section: for Gaussian likelihood the data file has the following format

```
t \quad w_t \quad y_t
```

where w_t are fixed weights, see Appendix A.1.2. Note that in this example the length of the observed data (194) is smaller than the length of the latent variables vector η (204).

- [trend] section: defines the RW2 model for the trend component. At line 26 we also define a starting value for $\log \lambda_{trend}$ for the optimiser.
- [seasonal] section: defines the model for the seasonal component of the model, the parameter season at line 34 defines the season length
- [INLA parameters]: this is an optional section, defined by type=INLA, which specifies some parameters to be passed to the GMRFLib library, in this case we specify the step length for the numerical computation of the gradient and the Hessian of $\widetilde{\pi}(\theta|y)$ at its mode, see Appendix for details.

Building and solving the model takes about 10 seconds on Machine 1 and about 3 seconds on Machine 2.

Figure 2 displays the observed and expected counts in the squared root scale (together with 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles). Following is the R code used to produce Figure 2:

```
# Read the files
> data=read.table("sqrt-drivers.dat")
> pred=read.table("results-0/predictor/summary.dat")
> quant=read.table("results-0/predictor/quantiles.dat")
#Make the plot
```

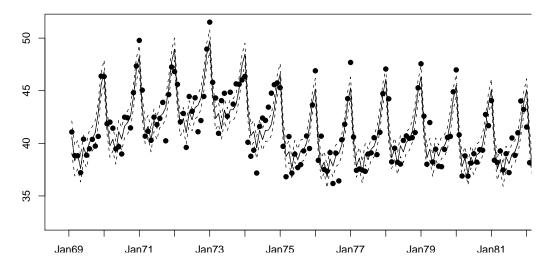


Figure 2: Observed and predicted counts (posterior mean within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles) for the drivers data example without the seat belt covariate

```
> plot(data[,3],pch=19,xlim=c(0,205))
> lines(pred[,2])
> lines(quant[,3],lty=2)
> lines(quant[,5],lty=2)
```

We consider now a slight modification of Example 2 as discussed by Rue and Held (2005, Sec 4.2.2):

Example 2 cont. On January 1983 wearing seat belt became compulsory. To check whether this law had an effect on the number of serious accidents we modify the model as follows:

$$\eta_t = \begin{cases} season(t) + trend(t) & t = 0, \dots, 168 \\ season(t) + trend(t) + \beta & t = 169, \dots, 204. \end{cases}$$

We assign additional parameter β a Gaussian distribution with 0 precision, equivalent to a flat prior.

Modifying the DRIVERS.ini file to account for the extended model is really easy; it is enough to add a new section as below:

```
[belt]

2 type=linear

3 covariates = belt.dat

4 precision=0
```

The type=linear parameter specifies that the new covariate has a lines effect, the file belt.dat is as follows

Figure 3 displays the approximate posterior marginal density for β together with 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles. The 95% confidence region is well below 0 indicating a significant effect of the seat belt law in reducing the number of dead or injured drivers. Finally, the observed and expected counts in the squared root scale (together with 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles) for the model with the seat belt covariate are displayed in Figure 4, a slightly better fit of this model before and after January 1983 is visible.

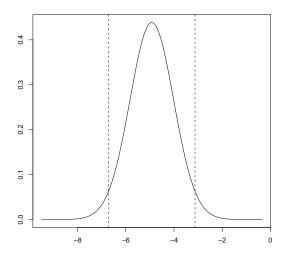


Figure 3: Approximate posterior marginal for parameter β with 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles

3.2.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

Also the Drivers data set is included in the INLA package, and can be loaded as:

>data(Drivers)

The formula for the model without belt effect is the following:

```
>formula<-sqrt(y)~f(trend,model="rw2",param=c(1,0.0005),initial=-3)+
f(seasonal,model="seasonal",season.length=12,param=c(1,0.1),initial=2)
```

Note that the sum-to-zero constraint is set automatically for all intrinsic models (like the RW2 in this case).

The call to the inla() function is:

```
>mod=inla(formula, family="gaussian", data=Drivers, control.data=list(param=c(4,4),
initial=-6), control.inla=list(h=0.01))
```

If we want to fit the model with belt effect the only thing to do is to add the covariate belt to the model's formula so that it becomes:

```
>formula<-sqrt(y)~belt+f(trend,model="rw2",param=c(1,0.0005),initial=-3)+
f(seasonal,model="seasonal",season.length=12,param=c(1,0.1),initial=2)</pre>
```

The call to the inla() function stays exactly the same.

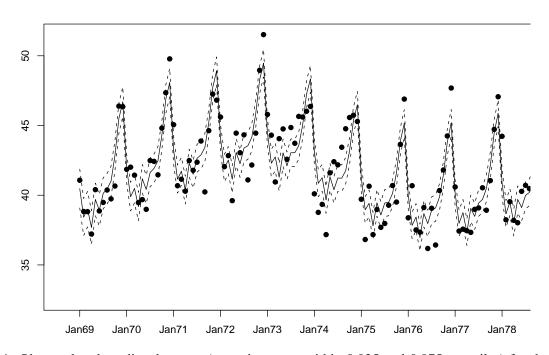


Figure 4: Observed and predicted counts (posterior mean within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles) for the drivers data example with seat belt covariate

3.3 Stochastic volatility models

Stochastic volatility models are common models in financial time series analysis, lately much interest has been shown in developing efficient MCMC methods for such models, e.g. Shephard and Pitt (1997) and Chib et al. (2002). In the following example, we show how easily a univariate stochastic volatility model can be solved using the inla program. The example is taken from Rue et al. (2007) but the model is slightly modified here.

Example 3 The data consist in 945 observed logarithms of the daily difference of the dollar-pound exchange rate from October 1st, to June 28th, 1985. The data are displayed in Figure 5, panel (a). We analyse this data set using a univariate stochastic volatility model (Taylor, 1986). The likelihood of the data, conditional on the latent variables is:

$$y_t | \eta_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \exp(\eta_t)), \quad t = 0, \dots, n_d - 1$$
 (8)

and the model for the latent variables:

$$\eta_t = \mu + f_t \quad t = 0, \quad , n_n - 1 \tag{9}$$

where μ is an unknown common mean with vague Gaussian prior and $\mathbf{f} = (f_0, \dots, f_{n_{\eta}-1})$ is modelled as an auto regressive process of order 1 (ARI) with persistence parameter $\phi \in (-1,1)$ to ensure stationarity, and precision parameter λ_f .

The model has two hyperparameters, $(\log \lambda_f, \phi)$. We re-parametrise the persistence parameter ϕ as

$$\kappa = logit\left(\frac{\phi + 1}{2}\right)$$

and assign the following prior distributions

$$\log \lambda_f \sim LogGamma(1, 0.0005)$$

$$\kappa \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1/0.0001)$$

The VOLATILITY.ini file defining the model is the following:

```
1 [Standard Volatility]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
5 [Predictor term]
6 type = predictor
7 n = 1001
s initial = 13
9 fixed = 1
10 compute=1
11
12 [Data]
13 type = data
likelihood = stochvol
15 filename = poundd.dat
16
17 [AR1]
18 type = ffield
19 \ model = ar1
20 covariates=time.dat
21 n = 1001
22 prior0=loggamma
                                   ; prior for the log-precision
```

```
23 initial 0=3 ; initial value for the log-precision 

24 parameters 0 = 1.0 0.0005 ; parameters for the Gamma prior of the precision 

25 prior1=gaussian ; prior for \kappa 

27 initial 1=4 ; initial value for \kappa 

28 parameters 1 = 0 0.0001 ; parameters for the Gaussian prior of \kappa 

29 [Common mean] 

30 [Common mean] 

31 type=linear
```

The likelihood for the stochastic volatility model is named *stochyol* (line 14) and the format of the data file is

 $t y_t$

As in Example 2, the precision for the unstructured term λ_{η} is fixed, but we compute the marginal posteriors distributions for the elements of vector η .

The AR1 model for f is defined in lines 17-28. Unlike all other models at the moment available for the *ffield* section, the AR1 has two hyperparameters, namely the precision parameter λ_f , and the transformed persistence parameter κ . Lines 22-24 specify the prior and the starting value for the precision parameter λ_f , and lines 26-28 do the same for parameter κ .

The last section of the ini file describes the model for the common mean, the default value for the precision is used here.

Note that the length of the data set n_d is 945 but we have set the length of the latent variable vector η , to be $n_{\eta} = 1001$ (lines 7 and 21). In this way we obtain also predictions for the unobserved volatility for the 56 days following the last observation.

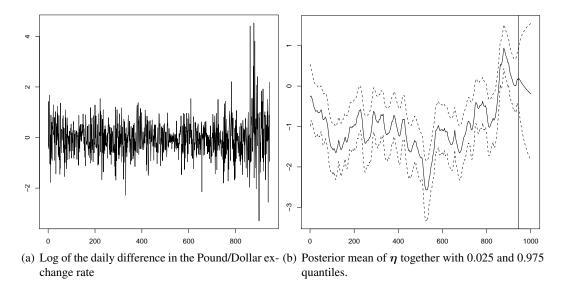


Figure 5: Data and results for the volatility model in Example 3

Building and running the model takes around 110 seconds on Machine 1 and 26 seconds on Machine 2.

Figure 5, panel (b), display the approximate posterior mean for the logarithm of the unobserved volatility, together with 0.025 and 0.975 posterior quantiles. The vertical line indicates the last observed data point.

An alternative model for the response variable y_t is a Student-t. This allows heavier tail, a feature which is often observed in financial time series. The observation model in equation (8) then becomes

$$y_t = \exp(\eta_t/2) \, \mathcal{T}_t(\nu) \quad t = 1, \dots, T \tag{10}$$

where $\mathcal{T}_t(\nu)$ is a random variable having a Student-t distribution having ν degree of freedom and standardised so that its variance is 1 for any value of $\nu > 2$. To implement the new model it is sufficient to substitute the [Data] section (lines 12-15) with

- 1 [Data]
- $_{2}$ type=data
- 3 likelihood=stochvol_t
- 4 filename=poundd.dat

Yet another model is the normal inverse Gaussian (NIG) distribution, for which

$$y_t = \exp(\eta_t/2) NIG, \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$
(11)

where NIG is a standardised NIG distribution with two parameters, which (essentially) are skewness and shape-parameters. To implement the NIG model it is sufficient to substitute the [Data] section (lines 12-15) with

- 1 [Data]
- $_{2}$ type=data
- 3 likelihood=stochvol_nig
- 4 filename=poundd.dat

3.3.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

TO BE COMPLETED.

3.4 Bivariate meta-analysis of sensitivity and specificity

[This subsection (including the example-files), was kindly provided by Andrea Riebler and Michaela Paul, from the University of Zurich. Thanks!]

The bivariate model is a model for meta-analysing diagnostic studies reporting pairs of sensitivity and specificity (Reitsma et al., 2005). Preserving the bivariate structure of the data, pairs of sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp) are jointly analysed. Any existing correlation between these two measures is taken into account via random effects. Covariates can be added to the bivariate model and have a separate effect on sensitivity and specificity.

Example 4 Data are taken from a meta-analysis conducted by Scheidler et al. (1997) to compare the utility of three types of diagnostic imaging - lymphangiography (LAG), computed tomography (CT) and magnetic resonance (MR) - to detect lymph node metastases in patients with cervical cancer. The dataset consists of a total of 46 studies: the first 17 for LAG, the following 19 for CT and the last 10 for MR. We analyse this data set using a generalised linear mixed model approach (Chu and Cole, 2006).

$$TN^{i}|\mu_{i} \sim Bin(TN^{i} + FP^{i}, Sp^{i}),$$
 $logit(Sp^{i}) = \boldsymbol{X}_{i}\boldsymbol{\alpha} + \mu_{i},$ (12)

$$TP^{i}|\nu_{i} \sim Bin(TP^{i} + FN^{i}, Se^{i}),$$
 $logit(Se^{i}) = \mathbf{Z}_{i}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \nu_{i},$ (13)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mu_i \\ \nu_i \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1/\tau_{\mu} & \rho/\sqrt{\tau_{\mu}\tau_{\nu}} \\ \rho/\sqrt{\tau_{\mu}\tau_{\nu}} & 1/\tau_{\nu} \end{pmatrix} \right], \tag{14}$$

where TN, FP, TP and FN represent the number of true negatives, false positives, true positives, and false negatives, respectively and $\mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{Z}_i$ are (possibly overlapping) vectors of covariates related to $Sp = \frac{TN}{TN+FP}$ and $Se = \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$. The index i represents study i in the meta-analysis. Here, $\mathbf{X}_i \boldsymbol{\alpha} = \alpha_{LAG} \cdot LAG_i + \alpha_{CT} \cdot CT_i + \alpha_{MR} \cdot MR_i$ and $\mathbf{Z}_i \boldsymbol{\beta} = \beta_{LAG} \cdot LAG_i + \beta_{CT} \cdot CT_i + \beta_{MR} \cdot MR_i$ whereby

$$LAG_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \textit{if} \quad i = 0, \dots, 16 \\ 0 & \textit{else} \end{cases} \quad CT_i \quad = \begin{cases} 1 & \textit{if} \quad i = 17, \dots, 35 \\ 0 & \textit{else} \end{cases} \quad MR_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \textit{if} \quad i = 36, \dots, 45 \\ 0 & \textit{else} \end{cases}$$

The model has three hyperparameters $\theta = (\log \tau_{\mu}, \log \tau_{\nu}, \rho)$. The correlation parameter is constrained to [-1, 1]. We reparameterise the correlation parameter ρ using Fisher's z-transformation as

$$\rho^* = logit\left(\frac{\rho+1}{2}\right)$$

which assumes values over the whole real line and assign the following prior distribution to ρ^*

$$\rho^{\star} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1/0.4)$$

The prior precision of 0.4 corresponds, roughly, to a uniform prior on [-1,1] for ρ . For the other hyperparameters we assign the following prior distributions

$$\log \tau_{\mu} \sim LogGamma(0.25, 0.025)$$
$$\log \tau_{\nu} \sim LogGamma(0.25, 0.025)$$

The BIVARIATE-METAANALYSIS.ini file defining the model is the following:

^{1 [}Bivariate meta-analysis]

² type = problem

```
3 dir = results - \%1d
4 \ hyperparameters = 1
s \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.5 \ 0.975
7 [Predictor term]
s type = predictor
9 n = 92
10 initial = 12
11 fixed = 1
13 [Data]
14 type = data
likelihood = binomial
16 filename = scheidler.dat
18 [2 diid]
19 type = ffield
20 \mod el = 2 \dim d
21 n = 46
22 covariates = scheidler_cov.dat
23 \ parameters0 = 0.25 \ 0.025
_{24} parameters 1 = 0.25 0.025
parameters 2 = 0 0.4
27 [Covariate lymphangiography TP]
28 \ dir = fixed.effect_lag_tp
29 type = linear
30 covariates = covariate_lag_tp.dat
32 [Covariate lymphangiography TN]
33 dir = fixed.effect_lag_tn
34 type = linear
solution covariates = covariate\_lag\_tn.dat
37 [Covariate computed tomography TP]
38 dir = fixed.effect\_ct\_tp
39 type = linear
40 covariates = covariate\_ct\_tp.dat
42 [Covariate computed tomography TN]
43 dir = fixed.effect\_ct\_tn
44 type = linear
45 \ covariates = covariate\_ct\_tn.dat
47 [Covariate magnetic resonance TP]
48 dir = fixed.effect_mr_tp
49 type = linear
50 covariates = covariate\_mr\_tp.dat
52 [Covariate magnetic resonance TN]
53 \ dir = fixed.effect\_mr\_tn
54 \ type = linear
solution covariates = covariate\_mr\_tn.dat
57 [INLA parameters]
58 type = INLA
```

The bivariate model is defined in lines 18-25. The section is defined by type = ffield. The bivariate model in equation (14) is named 2 diid in the inla program, and defines the vector of length 2n (**BE AWARE!!!**), with contents

$$\mu_0, \nu_0, \mu_1, \nu_1, \dots, \mu_{n-1}, \nu_{n-1}$$

and au_{μ} as the 0'th parameter, au_{ν} as the 1'st parameter and ho as the 2'nd parameter.

The parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior for the log precision parameter $\log \tau_{\mu}$ are specified in line 23 those for $\log \tau_{\nu}$ in line 24. The mean and precision for the normal prior for ρ^{\star} are specified in line 25. The data file scheidler. dat has the following format:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & TP^0 + FN^0 & TP^0 \\ 1 & TN^0 + FP^0 & TN^0 \\ 2 & TP^1 + FN^1 & TP^1 \\ 3 & TN^1 + FP^1 & TN^1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 90 & TP^{45} + FN^{45} & TP^{45} \\ 91 & TN^{45} + FP^{45} & TN^{45} \end{array}$$

All covariate files have to be specified in the same structure so that values for TP and TN alternate.

Table 1 displays summary estimates of sensitivity and specificity with corresponding 95% credibility region for the three imaging modalities.

Imaging		Sensitivit	y	Specificity		
	Median	2.5%-quantile	97.5%-quantile	Median	2.5%-quantile	97.5%-quantile
LAG	0.69	0.57	0.79	0.83	0.76	0.89
CT	0.49	0.36	0.62	0.93	0.89	0.96
MR	0.55	0.37	0.71	0.95	0.91	0.98

Table 1: Bivariate meta-analysis: summary estimates for sensitivity and specificity.

3.4.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

To implement the disease mapping example load the data file:

```
>data(BivMetaAnalysis)
```

The model formula is defines as:

```
formula <- Y~f(diid, model="2diid", param=c(0.25, 0.025, 0.25, 0.025, 0.04)) 
+lag.tp+ lag.tn+ ct.tp+ ct.tn+ mr.tp+ mr.tn -1
```

Finally the call to the inla() function:

```
model=inla(formula,family="binomial", data=BivMetaAnalysis, Ntrials=N)
```

3.4.2 The Wishart-prior

The model "2diidwishart" is similar to the bivariate joint prior above, but use the Wishart-prior

$$\operatorname{Precision}\begin{pmatrix} \mu_i \\ \nu_i \end{pmatrix} \ \sim \ \operatorname{Wishart}_p(r, \boldsymbol{R}^{-1}), \quad p=2$$

where the Wishart distribution has density

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{W}) = c^{-1} |\boldsymbol{W}|^{(r-(p+1))/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{Trace}(\boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{R})\right\}, \quad r \geq p+1$$

and

$$c = 2^{(rp)/2} |\mathbf{R}|^{-r/2} \pi^{(p(p-1))/4} \prod_{j=1}^{p} \Gamma((r+1-j)/2).$$

Then,

$$E(W) = rR^{-1}$$
, and $E(W^{-1}) = R/(r - (p+1))$.

Only small changes in the .ini file is required, and only in the 2diid section

```
1 [2 diid]
2 type = ffield
3 model = 2 diidwishart
4 n = 46
5 covariates = scheidler_cov.dat
6 prior = wishart
7 parameters = 4 1 2 0.1
```

The name of the prior is **fixed** to be Wishart. Its parameters are given a

$$parameters = r R_{11} R_{22} R_{12}$$

so in the above example r = 4, $R_{11} = 1$, $R_{22} = 2$ and $R_{12} = 0.1$, where

$$\boldsymbol{R} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

and $R_{12} = R_{21}$ due to symmetry. The reported hyperparameters are τ_1, τ_2 and ρ as given in (14), and are the same as for the the other prior given above.

3.4.3 Implementing using the INLA package for R

To implement the disease mapping example load the data file:

```
>data(BivMetaAnalysis)
```

The model formula is defines as:

```
formula <- Y \sim f(diid,model="2diidwishart", param=c(4,1,2,0.1) + lag.tp + lag.tn + ct.tp + ct.tn + mr.tp + mr.tn - 1
```

Finally the call to the inla() function:

```
model=inla(formula,family="binomial", data=BivMetaAnalysis, Ntrials=N)
```

3.4.4 The Wishart-prior (part II)

In the case where, say,

$$(a_0, b_0), (a_1, b_1), \ldots, (a_n, b_n)$$

are n-samples from a 2D-normal with a Wishart prior as described above, and the model is for example

$$\eta_i = a_i + b_i c_i + \dots$$

it is not possible to formulate this using the model = "2diidwishart" since a linear combination of each pair occur in the predictor. For such cases, the model has to specified as

- model= "2diidwishartpart0" for $\{a_i\}$
- model= "2diidwishartpart1" for $\{b_i\}$

where the *Wishart*-prior is *only* specified for *model* = "2diidwishartpart0". This is more clear if we do the R-code for the bivariate meta-analysis of sensitivity and specificity -example, using both formulations:

```
data(BivMetaAnalysis)
### Formulation 1:
formula <- Y~f(diid, model="2diidwishart", param=c(4,1,2,0.1))</pre>
            + lag.tp + lag.tn + ct.tp + ct.tn + mr.tp + mr.tn
model = inla(formula,family="binomial", data=BivMetaAnalysis,
   Ntrials=N, keep=TRUE)
# get more accurate estimates of the hyperparameters
h = inla.hyperpar(model)
## Formulation 2:
## we know that diid = 1:n. Assign odd numbers to part0 and the even ones to
   part1
n = dim(BivMetaAnalysis)[1]
k = rep(NA, n)
k[ seq(1, n, by = 2) ] = 1:(n/2)
BivMetaAnalysis2 = cbind(BivMetaAnalysis, "diid.part0" = k)
k = rep(NA, n)
k[ seq(2, n, by = 2) ] = 1:(n/2)
BivMetaAnalysis2 = cbind(BivMetaAnalysis2, "diid.part1" = k)
formula2 <- Y \sim f(diid.part0, model="2diidwishartpart0", param=c(4,1,2,0.1))
              + f(diid.part1, model="2diidwishartpart1")
              + lag.tp + lag.tn + ct.tp + ct.tn + mr.tp + mr.tn
model2 = inla(formula2, family="binomial", data=BivMetaAnalysis2, Ntrials=N)
# get more accurate estimates of the hyperparameters
h2 = inla.hyperpar(model2)
```

Note that the Wishart-prior is *only* specified for *part0*.

For the .ini-file for inla, we get similarly

```
[2diid-part0]
type = ffield
model = 2diidwishartpart0
n = 46
covariates = scheidler_cov_part0.dat
parameters = 4 1 2 0.1

[2diid-part1]
type = ffield
model = 2diidwishartpart1
n = 46
covariates = scheidler_cov_part1.dat
```

Of'course, both part0 and part1 has to have the same length.

If more than one pair of "2diidwishartpart0/1" is defined, the following rule is used to determine the match between part0 and part.

The first occurrence of "2diidwishartpart0" belongs with the first occurrence of "2diidwishartpart1". The second occurrence of "2diidwishartpart0" belongs with the second occurrence of "2diidwishartpart1" and so on.

3.4.5 The Wishart-prior (part III)

The previous formulation is also available for 3D. In this case the name the prior is **fixed** to be Wishart3d. The parameters in the prior are

```
parameters = r R_{11} R_{22} R_{33} R_{12} R_{13} R_{23}
```

where

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & R_{13} \\ R_{12} & R_{22} & R_{23} \\ R_{13} & R_{23} & R_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

The reported hyperparameters are the marginal precisions τ_1 , τ_2 and τ_3 and the correlations ρ_{12} , ρ_{13} and ρ_{23} . The model names are as given in the following example.

If more than one pair of "3diidwishartpart0/1/2" is defined, the following rule is used to determine the match between part0, part1 and part2.

The first occurrence of "3diidwishartpart0" belongs with the first occurrence of "3diidwishartpart1" and "3diidwishartpart2". The second occurrence of "3diidwishartpart0" belongs with the second occurrence of "3diidwishartpart1" and the second occurrence of "3diidwishartpart2", and so on.

3.5 Bayesian multiscale analysis for time series data

In the previous examples we were interested in the posterior marginals $\pi(x_i|\mathbf{y})$ where the uncertainty about the hyperparameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is integrated out. We present here one example where it is important to be able to precisely estimate posterior marginals for a fixed value of the hyperparameter $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, that is $\pi(x_i|\mathbf{y},\boldsymbol{\theta})$. The example is taken from Rue et al. (2007).

Example 5 A signal is observed with noise and the goal of the analysis is to detect significant features and structures in the signal. Since some features might be visible only at some specific level of smoothing it is interesting to consider several levels of smoothing simultaneously. This is the idea behind the SIZer (Significant ZERo crossing of derivatives) methodology, see Chaudhuri and Marron (1999) and Erästö (2005).

In our example the data are Gamma ray burst intensity, plotted in Figure 6 (panel (a)). The observations are assumed to be conditionally independent Poisson random variables

$$y(t_i)|\eta(t_i) \sim Po\{\exp(\eta(t_i))\}$$
 $i = 0, 1, ...$

Where $\eta(t)$ is the underlying signal of interest. We assume $\eta(t)$ to be continuous with derivatives $\eta'(t)$, and level of smoothing κ . The derivative is said to be "significant positive" at time t if

$$Prob(\eta'(t) > 0 | \boldsymbol{y}, \kappa) > 1 - \alpha/2$$

with α being the level of significance. A similar definition holds for "significant negative".

We model $\eta(t)$ as an integrated Wiener process with precision κ which is Markov if augmented with derivatives (Wecker and Ansley, 1983), hence a discretely observed Wiener process observed in n time points is a GMRF of dimension 2n, see Rue and Held (2005, Sec. 3.5). Our latent GMRF is then $x = (\eta, \eta')$, that is the log-mean of the data augmented with its derivatives.

In this example the precision κ is fixed therefore there are no random hyperparameters in the model.

The file BURST.ini is as follows:

```
1 [Burst data example]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
4 \ smtp = GMRFLib\_SMTP\_BAND
6 [Poisson data]
7 type = data
s \ likelihood = poisson
9 filename = burst.dat
11 [Predictor term]
12 type = predictor
n = 512
initial = 10
15 fixed = 1
17 [Smoother]
18 type = ffield
19 model = crw2
20 n = 512
21 \ covariates = covar.dat
22 \quad initial = 7
23 fixed = 1
cdf = 0
```

The *smtp* field in the [Burst data example] section (line 4) determines the type of solver for dealing with sparse matrices, in this case, since we know that the precision matrix of the problem is a band matrix, we can use the GMRFLib_SMTP_BAND solver which is optimal for band matrices.

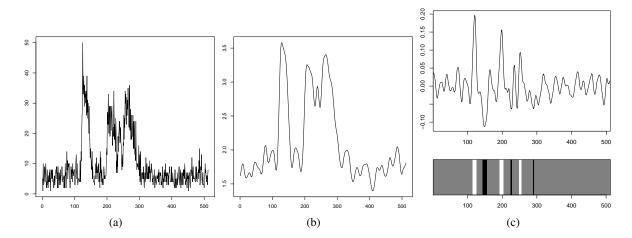


Figure 6: Multiscale analysis example: (a) observed Gamma ray burst intensity, (b) posterior mean for the underlying signal $\eta(t)$ for level of smoothing given by $\log \kappa = 7$, (c) posterior mean of the derivatives $\eta'(t)$ is displayed. The band in the lower part of the figure indicates where the derivatives are found to be significantly positive (white), negative (black) or none (grey).

Notice that all precision parameters are defined *fixed* in the ini file (lines 15 and 23). The log-precision of the *[Predictor term]* section is fixed to a high value (line 14) again to mimic the absence of the unstructured component in the model, while the log-precision in the *[Smoother]* section is fixed to a user defined value, in this case $\log \kappa = 7$. This determines the level of smoothing in the result. The continuous time random walk model is defined in line 19. Note that even if the length of the smoother term is declared to be 512 (line 20) the actual length of the output file is 1024 since the derivatives are also included. The derivatives constitutes the second half of the output file.

Since we are interested in checking where the derivatives are significantly positive or negative, we compute also the *cummulative distribution function* (cdf) $\operatorname{Prob}(x(t) < 0)$ for the smoother term (line 24). Figure 6 (panel (b)) displays the posterior mean of $\eta(t)$ for $\log \kappa = 7$. In Figure 6(panel(c)) the posterior mean of the derivatives $\eta'(t)$ is displayed. The band in the lower part of Figure 6(c) indicates where the derivatives are found to be significantly positive, negative or none. Figure 6(c) is produced using the following R code:

```
#Read the file containing approximate mean and sd
>smooth=read.table("results-0/smoother/summary.dat")
#select the approximations for the derivatives
>deriv=smooth[513:1024,]
>xx=deriv[,2]

# Create the graph
>split.screen( rbind(c(0,1,0.3,1), c(0,1,0,0.3)))
>screen(1)
>par( mar=c(2,2,2,2), oma=c(3,3,2,3) )
>plot(xx[,2],type="l",ylab="",xlab="",xaxs="i")
>screen(2)
>par( mar=c(2,2,2,2), oma=c(3,3,2,3) )
```

```
>image(1:512,1,mm,axes=F,col=gray(seq(0,1,len=3)))
```

The inla program runs in about 7 seconds on Machine 1 and about 2 seconds on Machine 2.

3.6 Disease mapping

Our next example is taken from (Rue and Held, 2005, Sec. 4.4.2). The data are collected over a spatial domain rather than over a time period. The data are georeferenced and we want to include the knowledge of the spatial location of the data in the model.

Each observed data y_i is linked to a spatial region $s \in \mathbf{S} = (0, \dots, S-1)$, so that s_i indicates the region the ith data belongs to. A common way to introduce a spatially correlated effect is to assume that neighbouring sites are more alike than two arbitrary sites, therefore for a valid prior definition, a neighbourhood has to be defined for each site s. In geographical applications a common assumption is that two sites are neighbours if they share a common border.

Let $f_s(s_i)$ indicate the spatial effect. The prior model for $\mathbf{f}_s = (f(0), \dots, f(s), \dots, f(S-1))$ implemented in the inla program is a simple (but most often used) intrinsic GMRF model, see (Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 3), defined as:

$$f_s(s)|f_s(s'), s \neq s', \lambda_s \sim \mathcal{N}(\frac{1}{n_s} \sum_{s \sim s'} f_s(s'), \frac{1}{n_s \lambda_s})$$
 (15)

where n_s is the number of neighbours of site s, $s \sim s'$ indicates that the two sites s and s' are neighbours. λ_s is the unknown precision parameter.

The neighbourhood structure has to be passed to the inla program through a file which describes the graph of the spatial component of the model. We describe the required format for such a file using a small example. Let the file gra.dat, relative to a small graph, be

5 0 1 1 1 2 0 2 2 3 1 3 4 3 1 2 4 1 2

Line 1 declares the total number of nodes in the graph, then, in lines 2-6 each node is described. For example, line 4 states that node 2 has 3 neighbours and these are nodes 1, 3 and 4. This is the same format used in the GMRFLib library.

Example 6 The number of cases of oral cavity cancer is observed for a 5 year period (1986-1990) in the 544 districts of Germany. The goal of the analysis is to explore the spatial distribution of the data. The common approach is to assume that the data are conditionally independent Poisson counts

$$y_i|\eta_i \sim Po(E_i \exp(\eta_i)) \quad i = 0, \dots, 543 \tag{16}$$

where E_i is a fixed quantity which accounts for number of people in district i, age distribution etc. The standardised mortality ratios y_i/E_i are displayed in Figure 7, panel (a).

The model for the latent variable η_i takes the following form

$$\eta_i = \mu + f_s(s_i) + u_i \tag{17}$$

where μ is th common mean, \mathbf{f}_s is a spatially structured term and \mathbf{u} is the unstructured term which accounts for non-observed variability. The prior model for \mathbf{f}_s is the intrinsic GMRF in equation (15). We impose a sum-to-zero restriction on \mathbf{f}_s ($\sum_s f(s) = 0$) to ensure identifiably of μ .

Following Rue and Held (2005), the two precision hyperparameters of the model ($\log \lambda_u, \log \lambda_s$) are both given LogGamma priors with a = 1 and b = 0.01.

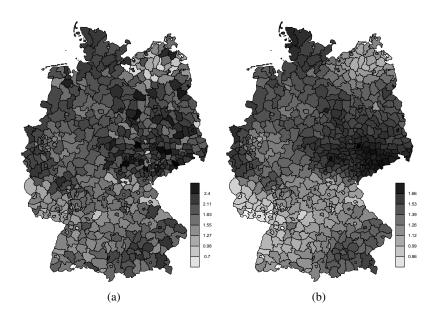


Figure 7: Standardised mortality ratio for oral cavity cancer, panel (a) and estimated relative risks (posterior mean) of the spatial component $\exp(\mathbf{f}_s)$.

The DISEASE-oral.ini file describing the model for the inla program is:

```
[Oral-cavity cancer data]
_{2} type = problem
  dir = results - for - oral - %d
5 [Predictor]
6 type = predictor
  prior = loggamma
 parameters = 1 0.01
9 n = 544
11 [data]
12 type = data
likelihood = poisson
14 \ filename = oral.txt
16 [Spatial]
17 type = ffield
model = besag
19 covariates = spatial.covariate
parameters = 1 0.01
21 constraint = 1
22 graph = germany.gra
24 [Constant]
 type = linear
```

The [predictor] section (lines 5-9) defines the model for η_i . Unlike the previous examples, here there actually is an unstructured component, therefore in this case λ_{η} is not fixed.

The model for the spatial component of $f_s(\cdot)$ is defined in lines 16-22. The section is defined by type = ffield. The intrinsic GMRF model in equation (15) is named besag in the inla program. Line 21 defines the sumto-zero constraint for f_s . The graph of f_s is read from a file (line 22). The last section, lines 24-25 defines

the model for the common mean μ . Figure 7, panel (b), displays the posterior mean of the spatial component $\exp(\mathbf{f}_s)$.

A different parametrisation would have been possible for the same model. Namely we could have dropped the common mean μ and the sum-to-zero constraint. Modifying the ini file to account for this other parametrisation is extremely easy; it is, in fact, sufficient to remove lines 24-25 defining the common mean and line 21 defining the constraint.

The inla program allows also the possibility to introduce a user defined model for some functions $f(\cdot)$ in equation (2). This is done in a type = ffield section specifying the field $model = generic\theta$. The user then has to provide the precision function Q, corresponding to the stochastic vector f, in a file with the following format

$$i$$
 j Q_{ij}

where i and j are the row and column index and Q_{ij} is the corresponding element of the precision matrix. Only the non-zero elements of the precision matrix need to be stored in the file. For example, we could have stored the precision matrix corresponding to the spatial effect in (17) in a file, named Qmat.dat. We report the few first lines of such file:

The same model as in (17) can then be defined in a new ini file as following:

```
1 [Oral-cavity cancer - User defined Q matrix]
_{2} type = problem
3 dir = results - %1d
5 [Predictor]
6 type = predictor
7 prior = loggamma
8 parameters = 1 0.01
9 n = 544
11 [data]
12 type = data
likelihood = poisson
14 \ filename = oral.txt
16 [Spatial]
17 type = ffield
18 \ model = generic
19 Qmatrix = Qmat.dat
20 \ rankdef = 1
21 \ covariates = spatial.covariate
parameters = 1 0.01
23 \ constraint = 1
25 [Constant]
26 type = linear
```

Notice that the only difference with respect to the ini file previously used is in the section [Spatial]. Here we declare model = generic0 and specify the file containing the Q function in line 19. The inla program then builds a graph based on the non-zero pattern of the specified precision matrix. The optional argument rankdef, in line 20, specifies the rank deficiency of the precision matrix. For the intrinsic model in equation (15) the rank deficiency is 1.

3.6.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

To implement the example load the data file:

>data(Oral)

When defining a formula in order to use the inla() function, each term specified through f() has to correspond to a different column in the data set. In this case we have to effects (the spatial structured and the spatial unstructured one) for which the covariate assumes the same values, so we have to specify a new column in the data set as:

>Oral<-cbind(Oral, region.struct=Oral\$region)

The model formula is then defines as:

```
>formula<-Y~f(region.struct,model="besag",graph.file="germany.graph",param=c(1,0.01)) +f(region,model="iid",param=c(1,0.01))
```

The graph file cannot be loaded into R and the path to the file has to be provided as a parameter of the f() function.

Finally the call to the inla() function:

```
>mod <- inla(formula,family="poisson",data=Oral,E=E,control.inla=list(h=0.01))</pre>
```

Notice that because of the way the Poisson likelihood is defined, the fixed quantity E in equation 16 are included through the parameter E and not through offset.

The BYM-model There is also alternative model named BYM which is simply the sum of the besag model and the iid model.

```
>formula<-Y~f(region.struct,model="bym",graph.file="germany.graph")</pre>
```

The main benefite is that this allow to get the posterior marginals of the sum $f_s(s_i) + u_i$, ie the sum of the spatial and iid model; otherwise it offers no advantages. The hyperparameters are the two log-precisions

$$\theta = (\log \lambda_{\text{iid}}, \log \lambda_{\text{besag}})$$

and the prior-parameters are defined as $(a_{iid}, b_{iid}, a_{besag}, b_{besag})$.

3.7 Disease mapping with covariate

We present now an extension of the model in Example 6 which allows for adjusting the log-relative risk by a semi-parametric function of a covariate which is believed to influence the risk. The model is a Bayesian semiparametric model with an additional spatial effect. These kinds of models have been named "geoadditive models" in Kammann and Wand (2003). For an introduction to the subject see, for example, Fahrmeir and Tutz (2001). The example below is taken from Rue et al. (2007).

Example 7 Larynx cancer mortality counts are observed in the 544 district of Germany from 1986 to 1990. As in Example 6 we assume the data to be conditionally independent Poisson random variables with mean $E_i \exp(\eta_i)$, where E_i is fixed and accounts for demographic variation, and η_i is the log-relative risk. Together with the counts, for each district, the level of smoking consumption c is registered.

The model for η_i takes the following form

$$\eta_i = \mu + f_s(s_i) + f(c_i) + u_i$$
(18)

where, as in Example 6, $f_s(\cdot)$ is the spatial effect modelled according to (15), and u_i is the unstructured random effect. The remaining term in (18), $f(c_i)$, is the unknown effect of of the exposure covariate which assumes value c_i for observation i. The effect of covariate c is modelled as a smooth function $f(\cdot)$ parametrised as unknown values $\mathbf{f} = (f_0, \ldots, f_{m-1})^T$ at m = 100 equidistant values of c_i . We have scaled the covariate values so that they belong to the interval [0, 10]. The vector \mathbf{f} is modelled with a second-order random walk (RW2) prior with unknown precision λ_f . A sum-to-zero constraint is imposed on \mathbf{f}_s and \mathbf{f} separate out the spatial effect and the effect of the covariate from the common mean μ .

The model has three hyperparameters $\theta = (\log \lambda_s, \log \lambda_f, \log \lambda_\eta)$. Following Rue et al. (2007) we assign a vague LogGamma prior to each element of θ .

In Figure 9 the standardised mortality ratios, y_i/E_i are displayed (panel (a)) together with the observed values of the covariate c (panel (b)).

The DISEASE-COVARIATE.ini file defining the model is the following:

```
1 [Disease mapping with covariate]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
5 [Predictor term]
6 type = predictor
7 n = 544
s prior = loggamma
9 initial=9
10 parameters = 1.0 \ 0.00005
11
12 [Data]
13 type = data
likelihood = poisson
15 filename = larynx.dat
17 [Spatial]
18 type = ffield
19 model = besag
20 covariates = spatial - covariate. dat
prior = loggamma
22 \ parameters = 1.0 \ 0.00005
```

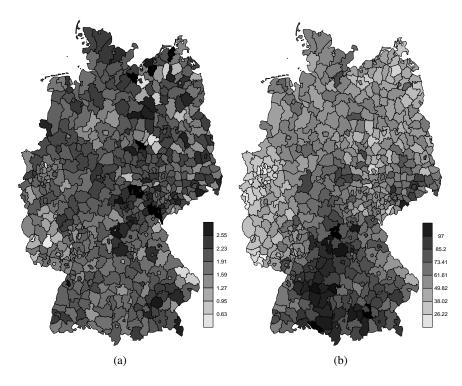


Figure 8: Standardised mortality ratio for larynx cancer, panel (a) and observed covariate values, panel(b)

```
graph = germany.gra
  constraint = 1
25 initial = 3
26 \ diagonal = 0.001
27
28 [Covariate]
29 type = ffield
30 \ model = rw2
31 \ covariates = covariate.dat
32 locations = covariate.value
33 prior = loggamma
34 parameters = 1 \cdot 0.05
35 initial = 9
36 \ diagonal = 0.00001
37 quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
  constraint = 1
  [Constant linear]
  type = linear
42
 [INLA param]
44 type = INLA
45 h = 0.001
```

The section [Spatial] defines the model for the structured spatial component f_s . We recognise the intrinsic GMRF model in line 19 and the graph file in line 23. The field diagonal at line 36 indicates a (small) number to be added to the diagonal of the precision matrix for f_s to ensure that it is positive definite.

The model for the semi-parametric function f, which is the new feature introduced by this example, is defined in the section tagged [Covariate]. The file covariate value declared in line 32 contains all values that the covariate c could assume, they are ordered from the lower to higher. In this case the file contains one sequence

of numbers from 0 to 9.9 with step 0.1. The file *covariate* dat contains information on which values of c is actually observed in each district. We report the first 5 lines of the file to better explain the format of such files

```
1 0 56
```

2 1 65

3 2 50

4 3 63

5 4 65

For example, line 3 tells us that for district 2 the observed value of the covariate c is the 50th element of the series in file *covariate*. value, that is 0.5.

In the last section, tagged [INLA param] we define the step length for the numerical computation of the gradient and Hessian of $\widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$ at the mode. This is necessary because the default values do not always ensure a positive definite Hessian matrix.

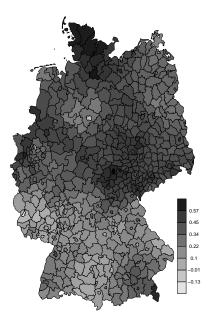


Figure 9: Posterior mean for the structured spatial effect f_s

The computation time is about 30 seconds on Machine 1 and 15 seconds on Machine 2.

Figure 9 displays the posterior mean of the spatial effect f_s for all districts. To reproduce Figure 9 the following R code has been used:

```
> source("draw-map.r")
> spatial=read.table("results-0/spatial/summary.dat")
> germany.map(spatial[,2])
```

The R code draw.map.r can be downloaded together with all the other example files.

Figure 10, panel (a), displays the effect of the covariate c (posterior mean) within 2.5 and 97.5% confidence intervals. The covariate effect is not too far from a linear effect. We might, therefore, want to run a modified version of the model in which the effect of c is modelled as a linear function, that is

$$\eta_i = \mu + f_s(s_i) + \beta c_i + u_i \tag{19}$$

To modify the DISEASE-COVARIATE.ini file in order to fit the new model it is enough to delete the [Covariate] section, lines 28-38 and instead add the following section where β is defined.

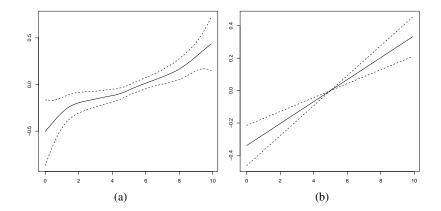


Figure 10: Effect of the covariate. Panel (a) nonparametric model and panel (b) linear model: posterior mean within 2.5 and 97.5% confidence interval.

```
[Covariate linear]
type=linear
covariates=covariate-linear.dat
```

The file *covariate*—*linear*. *dat* has the format

i c_i

The computation time for the linear-effect model reduces to 11 seconds for Machine 1 and to 6 seconds on Machine 2. This is due to the fact that in the linear model both the latent field x and the vectors of hyperparameters θ are of lower dimensionality.

The estimated posterior mean for the slope parameter β is 0.0677 with posterior standard deviation 0.0126. Figure 10, panel (b), displays the linear effect of the covariate within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles. To compute the quantiles for the regression line in Figure 10, panel (b), we have run the model described in the DISEASE-COVARIATE.ini file fixing the log precision of the RW2 model to a high value. In this way the RW2 is forced to be a straight line.

3.7.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

This example is very similar to the previous one, we only have one covariate more to add to the model. As before we need to add one column to the data set because we have both a structured and an unstructured spatial effect:

```
>data(Germany)
>Germany<-cbind(Germany, region.struct=Germany$region)
```

The formula for the model with non parametric effect of the covariate is:

```
>formula<-Y~f(region.struct,model="besag",graph.file="germany.graph", param=c(1,0.00005),initial=2.8)+f(region,model="iid")+ f(x,model="rw2",param=c(1,0.05))+
```

while the one for the model with linear effect of the covariate is

```
>formula<-Y\simf(region.struct,model="besag",graph.file="germany.graph",param=c(1,0.00005),initial=2.8)+x+f(region,model="iid")
```

where the only thing changed if the model for x. In both case the call to the inla() function is

>mod<-inla(formula, family="poisson", data=Germany, E=E,
 control.inla=list(h=0.01), verbose=TRUE)</pre>

3.8 Mapping cancer incidence

We present a little more complicated example on the same line of examples 6 and 7. Instead of observing only one data point for each district, in the next example there are multiple observations sharing the same spatial location. Therefore, a possible unstructured spatial effect needs to be coded in a different way than in the two previous examples. The example is taken from Rue and Held (2005, Sec 4.3.5).

Example 8 The data are incident cases of cervical cancer in the former East German Republic (GDR) from 1979, stratified by district and age group. Each cases was classified as pre-malignant (coded as 0) or malignant (coded as 1). For each of the $n_d = 6\,690$ cases in the data set, the age, age, and the district, s_i , of the patient are available. The age was categorised into 15 age groups.

The data are assumed to be conditionally independent Bernoulli random variables:

$$y_i|\eta_i \sim \mathcal{B}(p_i) \quad i = 0, \dots, n_d$$

with logit link function

$$p_i = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{1 + \exp(\eta_i)}$$

The model for the latent variables is:

$$\eta_i = \mu + f(age_i) + f_s(s_i) + f_u(s_i)$$

where f(age) is the age group effect, modelled as a RW2 with precision parameter λ_f . The spatial effect of the district s_i is split into a spatially correlated part and an uncorrelated one. The spatially correlated element, $f_s(\cdot)$, is modelled as the intrinsic GMRF in equation (15) with given neighbouring structure. The uncorrelated part, $f_u(\cdot)$, is modelled as by a i.i.d Gaussian effect. Note that, in this model, the unstructured spatial effect $f_u(\cdot)$, does not coincide with the unstructured term u_i in equation (2), which was the case in Examples 6 and 7.

There are three hyperparameters in the model $\theta = (\log \lambda_f, \log \lambda_s, \log \lambda_u)$. Following Rue and Held (2005), we assume a LogGamma(1.0, 0.01) prior distribution for $\log \lambda_s$ and $\log \lambda_u$ and a LogGamma(1.0, 0.00005) prior for $\log \lambda_f$. Moreover we impose a sum-to-zero constraint on both \mathbf{f} and \mathbf{f}_s

The file CANCER-INCIDENCE.ini defining the model is:

```
[Cancer incidence]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
5 [Predictor]
6 type = predictor
7 n = 6690
sinitial = 15
9 fixed = 1
11 [Likelihood model]
12 type = data
likelihood = binomial
14 \ filename = cancer.dat
16 [Age classes]
17 type = ffield
18 \ model = rw2
19 covariates = age-group-cov.dat
```

```
20 n = 15
21 constraint = 1
22 \ diagonal = 1.0e-4
parameters = 1 0.001
24 \ initial = 6.456745
25 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
27 [Spatial]
28 type = ffield
29 \ model = besag
graph = ddr.gra
solution covariates = spatial - cov.dat
32 \ constraint = 1
33 \ diagonal = 1.0e-4
34 parameters = 1 \cdot 0.0005
35 initial = 8.006793
37 [Spatial random effect]
y = f = f = f = 1 
39 \ model = iid
40 n = 216
41 parameters = 1 0.01
42 \ covariates = spatial - cov.dat
43 initial = 4.512093
45 [constant]
46 type = linear
48 [Parameters for INLA]
49 type = INLA
50 h = 0.01
```

Note that while in Examples 6 and 7 the spatial unstructured component in the model was coded in the type=predictor section of the ini file, here, for the same purpose, we have to include a type=ffield section where model=iid (lines 37-43).

The model runs in about 90 seconds on Machine 1 and about 30 seconds on Machine 2.

In Figure 11 the posterior mean of the non-parametric effect of the age group within 2.5 and 97.5% confidence band is dispayed.

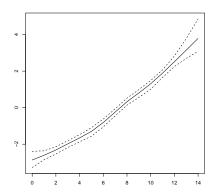


Figure 11: Nonparametric effect of age group. Posterior mean within 2.5 and 97.5% quantiles.

3.8.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

This is yet another example very similar to the previous two.

```
>data(Cancer)
>Cancer<-cbind(Cancer, region.struct=Cancer$region)
>formula <- Y~f(region.struct, model="besag", graph.file="ddr.graph",
    param=c(1,0.01))+f(Age, model="rw2", param=c(1,0.001))+
    f(region, model="iid")

>mod <- inla(formula, family="binomial", data=Cancer, Ntrials=N,
    control.inla=list(h=0.01))</pre>
```

The only difference is in the likelihood model used.

3.9 Geoadditive model: Munich rental guide

In this section we present a slightly more complex example of geoadditive models where we have a higher number of covariates in the data set. The example is taken from Rue and Held (2005, Sec. 4.2.1).

Example 9 - Munich rental guide

The response variable y_i is the rent (Euro per square meter) for a flat in Munich. There are three covariates to be included in the model: the spatial location (s_i) , the floor space $(size_i)$ and the year of construction $(year_i)$. Moreover for each data point we have a set of indicator variables such as whether or not the flat has central heating, bathroom, a large balcony, etc. The data set consist in $n_d = 2\,035$ observations. There are 380 district in Munich, the floor size varies from 17 to 185 square meters and the year of construction goes from 1918 to 2001.

The model for the data is:

$$y_i|\eta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_i, 1/\lambda_y)$$

with

$$\eta_i = \mu + f_s(s_i) + f_0(size_i) + f_1(year_i) + z_i^T \beta$$
(20)

where $f_s(\cdot)$ is the spatial effect modelled as the intrinsic GMRF in equation (15), $f_0(\cdot)$ is the non parametric effect of the floor size and $f_1(\cdot)$ is the non parametric effect of the year of construction. Both $f_0(\cdot)$ and $f_1(\cdot)$ are modelled as RW2 with unknown precision. The last term in (20) models the covariates assumed to have a linear effect. As usual we choose a Gaussian prior with known precision for the elements of vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}$. We impose a sum-to-zero constraint on $f_s(\cdot)$, $f_0(\cdot)$ and $f_1(\cdot)$.

The model has four hyperparameters $\theta = (\log \lambda_y, \log \lambda_s, \log \lambda_0, \log \lambda_1)$. We assign to each precision a LogGamma(1.0, 0.001) prior. In this example we approximate also the posterior marginals for the four hyperparameters θ .

In the following we report part of the RENT.ini file which defines the model. We have omitted the part defining most of the indicator variables since they are all defined in the same way.

```
[Rent in Munich]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
4 \ hyperparameters = 1
6 [Predictor term]
7 type = predictor
8 n = 2035
9 parameters = 1.0 0.001
10 initial = 10
11 fixed = 1
13 [Data]
14 type = data
likelihood = gaussian
16 \ filename = rent.dat
parameters = 1 \ 0.001
in it ial = -1
20 [floor - size]
21 type = ffield
22 \mod el = rw2
covariates = size - covariate.dat
```

```
24 \ locations = size - loc. dat
25 diagonal = 1.0e-6
initial = 7
27 \ constraint = 1
parameters = 1 0.001
29 \ quantiles = 0.25 \ 0.975
31 [spatial]
32 type = ffield
model = besag
34 \ graph = munich.gra
solution covariates = spatial - covariate.dat
36 \ diagonal = 0.00001
37 \ constraint = 1
initial = 0.4
39 parameters = 1 \ 0.001
40 compute=1
42 [year]
43 type = ffield
44 \ model = rw2
45 covariates = year-covariate.dat
46 locations = year-loc.dat
47 \ diagonal = 1.0e-6
48 \quad initial = 7
49 constraint = 1
50 parameters = 1 \ 0.001
51 \ quantiles = 0.25 \ 0.975
52
53 [constant]
54 \ type = linear
55 precision = 0.01
57 [linear-beste.dat]
58 type = linear
59 covariates = beta-beste.dat
60 precision = 0.01
62 .
63 .
64
66 [INLA param]
67 type = INLA
int\_strategy = GMRFLib\_AI\_INT\_STRATEGY\_CCD;
69 h = 0.01
```

The flag *hyperparameters* in line 4 section is turned on to indicate that also posterior marginals for the hyperparameters have to be computed. The results are displayed in Figure 12 and they agree well with the use found by Rue and Held (2005).

The new feature introduced in this example is the use of a different integration scheme to compute

$$\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_k \widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_k) \widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k|\boldsymbol{y}) \Delta_k$$
(21)

When the dimension of the hyperparameters space grows, in fact, the grid integration scheme, which was used in all previous examples and which is the default choice in the inla program, soon becomes too computa-

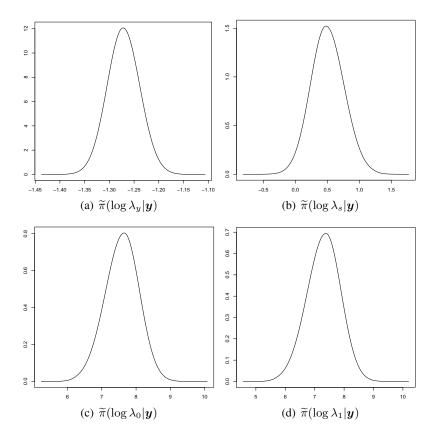


Figure 12: Munich rent example: approximate posterior marginals for the hyperparameter of the model.

tionally intensive. The central composite design (CCD) integration scheme, defined in line 68, is an alternative integration scheme which computes the integral in (21) using much less points, still providing useful results. Both integration schemes are described in Rue et al. (2007).

Figure 16, panels (a) and (b), displays the posterior mean, within 0.25 and 0.975 quantiles, of the effect of the floor size and the year of construction respectively.

To check the quality of the CCD integration scheme we run the model once more using the default grid scheme (to do so it is enough to delete line 67). The results are plotted in Figure 13 as dotted lines, they are indistinguishable from the CCD results despite the fact that the grid integration scheme used 115 evaluation points to compute the integral in (21) and the CCD one only 15.

The computing time for this model on Machine 1 is of 80 seconds if we use the CCD scheme and 250 seconds using the grid scheme. On Machine 2 the computational time reduces to 30 seconds in the first case and 70 in the second case.

3.9.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

```
>data(Munich)
>formula <- rent~f(location, model="besag", graph.file="munich.graph",
    param=c(1,0.001), initial=3.5)+
    f(year, model="rw2", param=c(1,0.001), initial=4)+
    f(floor.size, model="iid", param=c(1,0.001), initial=7)+Gute.Wohnlage+
    Beste.Wohnlage+Keine.Wwv+ Keine.Zh+ Kein.Badkach+ Besond.Bad+
    Gehobene.Kueche+ zim1+zim2+ zim3+ zim4+ zim5+ zim6
>mod <- inla(formula, data=Munich, control.inla=list(h=0.01),</pre>
```

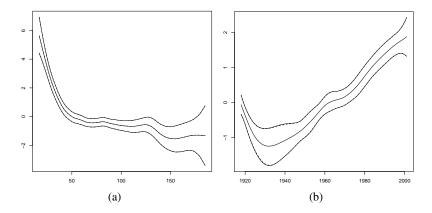


Figure 13: Munich rent example: semiparametric effect of the floor size (a) and of the year of construction (b). The posterior mean within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles is displayed. The solid line is the result of the CCD integration scheme and the dotted line is the result of the grid integration scheme.

control.data=list(initial=-1))

3.10 Geoadditive model: Zambia children undernutrition

The second example of geoadditive model with several covariates is from Kandala et al. (2001) and is one of the worked out examples in the BayesX web page.

Example 10 - Undernutrition of children in Zambia. Undernutrition in children is measured determining the anthropometric status of the child relative to a reference standard. In our example undernutrition is measured by stunting, or inefficiency height for age, indicating chronic undernutrition. Stunting for a child i is determined using a Z score defined as

$$Z_i = \frac{AI_i - MAI}{\sigma}$$

where AI refers to the child's anthropometric indicator, MAI refers to the median of the reference population and σ refers to the deviation of the standard population.

The main interest is on modelling the dependence of undernutrition on a set of covariates including the age of the child (age_i), the body mass index of the child's mother (bmi_i), the district the child lives in (s_i) and some further categorical covariates. The data set consists in $n_d = 4846$ observations. For more details about the data set see Kandala et al. (2001) and Kneib et al. (2004).

We assume the scores Z_i to be conditionally independent Gaussian random variables

$$Z_i|\eta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\eta_i, 1/\lambda_y)$$

and

$$\eta_i = \mu + f_0(bmi_i) + f_1(agc_i) + f_s(s_i) + f_u(s_i) + z_i^T \beta$$

where $f_0(\cdot)$ and $f_1(\cdot)$ are the semi parametric effect of the mother's body mass index and the age of the child respectively. $f_s(\cdot)$ is the structured spatial effect of the district, $f_u(\cdot)$ is an unstructured spatial effect and z_i are a set of categorical covariates. We model the spatial structured effect $f_s(s_i)$ as the intrinsic GMRF in equation (15) and $f_0(\cdot)$ and $f_1(\cdot)$ as RW2. The unstructured spatial effect $f_u(s_i)$ is modelled by i.i.d. Gaussian random variables. We impose a sum-to-zero constraint for $f_s(\cdot)$, $f_0(\cdot)$ and $f_1(\cdot)$.

In this model there are five hyperparameters $\theta = (\log \lambda_y, \log \lambda_s, \log \lambda_u, \log \lambda_0, \log \lambda_1)$ and we assign a vague LogGamma prior distribution to each of them.

```
1 [Zambia model]
2 type = problem
  dir = results - %d
5 [Predictor term]
6 type = predictor
n = 4846
s prior = loggamma
9 parameters = 1.0 \ 0.005
initial = 10
11 fixed = 1
12
13 [Data]
14 type = data
15 likelihood = gaussian
16 filename = zambia.dat
17 parameters = 1 0.005
initial = 0.2
19
```

```
20 [spatial]
21 type = ffield
22 \mod el = besag
graph = zambia.gra
covariates = spatial\_covariate.dat
25 \ diagonal = 0.00001
26 \ constraint = 1
27 initial = 3.6
parameters = 1 0.005
30 [spatial predictor]
31 type = ffield
32 \ model = iid
solution covariates = spatial\_covariate.dat
34 n = 57
35 \ diagonal = 0.00001
36 \quad initial = 5.4
37 parameters = 1 0.005
39 [agc]
40 type = ffield
41 \mod el = rw2
42 \ covariates = agc.dat
43 n = 60
44 diagonal = 0.0001
45 constraint = 1
46 \quad initial = 6.6
47 parameters = 1 0.005
48 quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
50 [bmi]
51 type = ffield
52 \mod el = rw2
covariates = bmi_covariate.dat
54 \ locations = bmi.location
55 \ diagonal = 0.00001
56 \ constraint = 1
initial = 6.2
parameters = 1 \ 0.005
59 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
60
61 [beta]
62 type = linear
63
64 [rcw]
65 type = linear
66 \ covariates = rcw.dat
68 [edu1]
69 type=linear
70 \ covariates = edu1.dat
72 [edu2]
73 type=linear
74 \ covariates = edu2.dat
76 [sex]
```

```
77 type=linear

78 covariates = sex.dat

79

80 [tpr]

81 type=linear

82 covariates = tpr.dat

83

84 [INLA param]

85 type = INLA

86 int_strategy = CCD;
```

Also in this example we use the CCD integration scheme to compute the integral in (21).

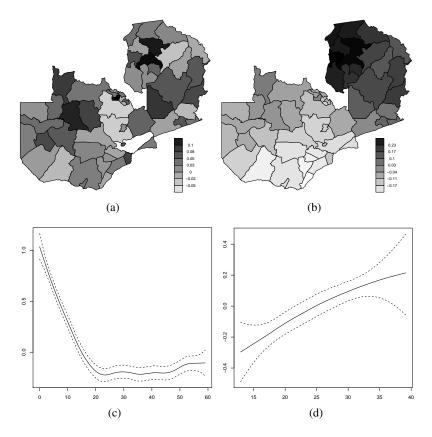


Figure 14: Results for the Zambia example. Panel (a) and (b) displays the posterior mean of predictor η and of structured spatial effect respectively. Panel (c) and (d) display the posterior mean, within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles, of the age effect (c) and of the mother's body mass index (d)

In Figure 14, panels (a) and (b), the posterior mean of the predictor and of the structured spatial effect is displayed. The effect of the age of the children is in Figure 14, panel (c). It shows a clear non linear pattern. The effect of the mother's body mass index (Figure 14, panel (d)) instead is more regular and could probably be substitute in the model formulation by a linear effect.

The computation time is about 4 minutes on Machine 1 and 1 minute on Machine 2.

3.11 Log-Gaussian Cox processes

The particular feature of our next example is that data are registered on a regular grid of dimension $n_{row} \times n_{col}$, where n_{row} is the number of row and n_{col} the number of columns. Unlike all the previous examples then, each data is identified by two indexes (i_{row}, j_{col}) indicating respectively the row and column the data point belongs to. However, as inla only understand one-dimensional indices, we have to map the coordinates into a one-dimensional index k

$$k = j_{\rm col} + i_{\rm row} \times n_{\rm col}$$

for $i=i_{\text{row}}=0,\ldots,n_{\text{row}}-1$ and $j=j_{\text{col}}=0,\ldots,n_{\text{col}}-1$. This following example is taken from Rue et al. (2007).

Example 11 Log-Gaussian Cox processes (LGCP) are a class of models used for modelling spatial point processes, see for example Møller and Waagepetersen (2003). A LGCP is a Poisson point process. $\mathbf{Y} \in W \subset \mathbb{R}^d$. with random intensity function $\lambda(\boldsymbol{\xi}) = \exp(Z(\boldsymbol{\xi}))$, where $Z(\boldsymbol{\xi})$ is a Gaussian field and $\boldsymbol{\xi} \in W$. It is common practice to discretise the observation windows W into $N = n_{row} \times n_{col}$ disjoint cells $\{s_{ij}\}$ with area $|s_{ij}|$ where $i = 0, \ldots, n_{row} - 1$ and $j = 0, \ldots, n_{col} - 1$.

Let y_{ij} be the observed number of occurrences of the realised point pattern within s_{ij} . Let η_{ij} be the random variable $Z(\xi_{ij})$. The likelihood of the model is

$$y_{ij}|\eta_{ij} \sim Po(|s_{ij}| \exp(\eta_{ij}))$$

while, as usual the latent variable vector η is part of a larger GMRF.

In this example, the data consist in the locations of a particular tropical tree species (Beilschmiedia pendula Lauraceae) registered in a 50-hectares plot in the tropical moist forest of Barro Colorado Island in central Panama. For more information about this study see Waagepetersen (2006). The 3605 tree locations are plotted in Figure 6, panel (a). We divide our region of interest into a 201×101 regular grid, where each square pixel represent an area of 25 squares meters. Together with the data y_{ij} , we observe, the mean elevation and the mean norm of the gradient for each area on the grid. These covariates are believed to influence the behaviour of the tree under examination. A scaled version of these covariates is displayed in Figure 15, panels (b) and (c). The model for the latent variable η_{ij} is

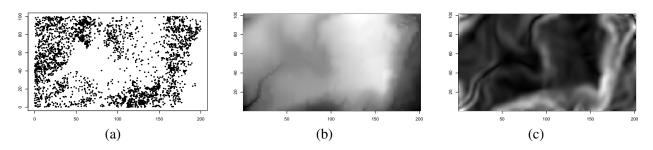


Figure 15: Data and covariate for the LGCP example: panel (a) displays locations for the 3065 trees, panel (b) displays the altitude and panel (c) the norm of the gradient.

$$\eta_{ij} = \mu + \beta_1 alt_{ij} + \beta_2 grad_{ij} + f_s(s_{ij}) + u_{ij}$$

where alt_{ij} and $grad_{ij}$ are the values for the two covariates at location (i, j), f_s is the spatial structured effect of the location and u_{ij} is the unstructured random effect.

For the spatial structured term f_s we use a second order polynomial intrinsic GMRF with unknown precision λ_f . See Rue and Held (2005, Sec 3.4.2) for a thorough definition of intrinsic GMRF models on a lattice. We

use vague Gaussian priors for μ , β_1 and β_2 . The unstructured terms u_{ij} are independent $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/\lambda_u)$ random variables. Notice that the latent field $\mathbf{x} = (\boldsymbol{\eta}, \boldsymbol{f}_s, \mu, \beta_1, \beta_2)$ in this example has dimension 40 605.

The hyperparameters are $\theta = (\log \lambda_f, \log \lambda_u)$ are are assigned vague LogGamma priors.

```
1 [Tropical rainforest data]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%d
5 [Poisson data]
6 type = data
7 likelihood = poisson
s filename = data-full.dat
10 [Predictor term]
11 type = predictor
12 n = 20301
initial = 1
15 [Spatial smoother]
16 type = ffield
17 covariates = spatial - full. dat
18 nrow = 101
19 ncol = 201
20 \mod el = rw2d
21 constraint=1
22 initial=1
24 [Constant]
25 type = linear
27 [Altitude Covariate]
28 type = linear
29 covariates = altitude - full. dat
31 [Gradient Covariate]
32 type = linear
solution covariates = gradient-full.dat
35 [INLA parameters]
36 type = INLA
strategy = GAUSSIAN
```

The data file *data-full* . *dat* has the following format

$$k |s_k| y_k$$

where $k = j + i \times n_{col}$, $i = 0, \dots, n_{row} - 1$ is the row index and $j = 0, \dots, n_{col} - 1$ is the column index.

Notice also that it is required for the user to specify the number of rows and columns in the data set (18-19). For grid observed data, the fields nrow and ncol are substituted by n which we have used in all previous examples. (In this example $n=20301=101\times 201$.)

The results are displayed in Figure 16. Panel (a) shows the posterior mean of the structured spatial effect. Following is the R code used to produce Figure 16(a):

```
> library(fields)
```

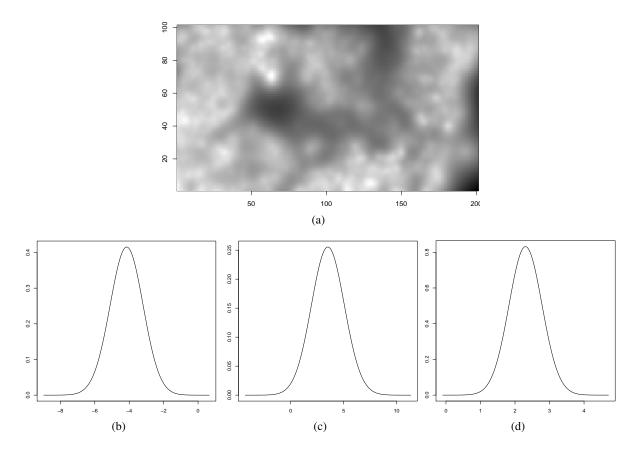


Figure 16: LGCP example: (a) posterior mean of the spatial effect $f_s(\cdot)$, (b)-(d) posterior marginals for μ , β_1 and β_2

Panels (b)-(d) show the posterior marginal distributions for the parameters μ , β_1 and β_2 .

The graph of the full model for this example contains 40605 nodes, this makes the computation procedures heavier that for all other examples considered here. The computational time required to solve the model grows then to about 50 minutes on Machine 2. We have not run the model on Machine 1.

3.12 A longitudinal study example - Forest health data

Our last example is a longitudinal study on forest health. The aim of the study if to identify potential factors influencing the health status of the trees. In addition to covariates characterising a tree and its stand, spatial and temporal information are also available. The example is taken from Kneib and Fahrmeir (2008), an earlier version of the data set is analysed in Kneib and Fahrmeir (2006).

Example 12 The data have been collected annually in a visual forest health inventories between 1983 and 2004 in a northern Bavarian district. There are 83 observations plots within an area of around 15 squared kilometres.

Every year, in some of the 83 observations plots the health status of the tree y_{it} , $i=0,\ldots,83$, $t=0,\ldots,21$, is registered. Not all plots are observed every year, so the data set has in total $n_d=1796$ observations. In the original data set there are 9 categories for tree health, anyway, here we consider only two: healthy or non-healthy. Together with the tree health status, several covariates are registered year after year at the different observation plot. All covariates are summarised in Table 2. Moreover the location of each registration plot s_i

Covariate	Description
Age	age of the stand in years (continuous between 7 and 234 years)
elevation	elevation above the sea level (continuous, between 250 and 480 meters)
inclination	inclination of the terrain in percent (continuous between 0 and 1)
soil	depth of soil level (continuous, between 9 and 51 cm)
ph	ph-value in 0-2cm depth (continuous, between 3.28 and 5.05)
canopy	density of forest canopy in percent (continuous, between 0 and 1)
stand	type of stand (categorical, 3 categories)
fertilisation	fertilisation (categorical: yes or no)
humus	thickness of humus (categorical, 5 categories)
moisture	level of moisture (categorical, 3 categories)
saturation	base saturation (ordinal)

Table 2: Forest health data: description of covariates.

is known. The spatial distribution of the locations is displayed in Figure 17.

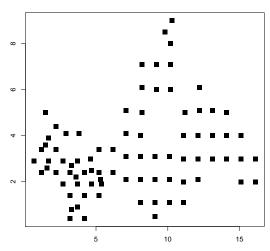


Figure 17: Forest health example: location of the 83 observation plots.

The likelihood of the data is binomial:

$$y_{it}|\eta_{it} \sim Bin(p_{it})$$

with logit link

$$p_{it} = \frac{\exp(\eta_{it})}{1 + \exp(\eta_{it})}$$
 $i = 0, \dots, 82, t = 0, \dots, 21.$

Following Kneib and Fahrmeir (2008) we model the latent variables as:

$$\eta_{it} = \mu + f_0(age_{it}) + f_1(inclination_i) + f_2(canopy_{it}) + f_{time}(t) + f_s(s_i) + f_u(s_i) + z_{it}^T \beta$$
 (22)

where $f_0(\cdot)$, $f_1(\cdot)$, $f_2(\cdot)$ are the semiparametric effect of age of the tree, inclination and canopy of the location respectively, while $f_{time}(\cdot)$ is the non parametric effect of time. Each semiparametric function is modelled as a RW2 with unknown precision parameter. The vector \mathbf{z}_{it}^T includes all covariates in Table 3 not mentioned before which are assumed to have a linear effect. Finally $f_s(\cdot)$ and $f_u(\cdot)$ indicate the structured spatial effect and the unstructured one.

We models the spatial structured effect as the intrinsic GMRF in equation (15). We build the graph for such a model by considering two observation plots as neighbours if their distance is less than 1200 meters. The spatial unstructured effect is modelled as a series of uncorrelated Gaussian random variable.

We can cast the model in (22) in the general formulation in equation (2) by defining a new index r = (i, t), $r = 0, ..., n_d - 1$, and rewriting the model as

$$\eta_r = \mu + f_0(age_r) + f_1(inclination_r) + f_2(canopy_r) + f_{time}(r) + f_s(s_r) + f_u(s_r) + \boldsymbol{z}_r^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
 (23)

The above model has six precision hyperparameters $\theta = (\log \lambda_0, \log \lambda_1, \log \lambda_2, \log \lambda_{time}, \log \lambda_s, \log \lambda_u)$, each is given a vague LogGamma prior.

We report part of the ini file which defines the model. We have omitted the definition of almost all covariates with linear effect.

```
1 [Forest damage]
2 type=problem
3 dir = results - \%d
5 [predictor term]
6 type=predictor
7 n = 1796
sinitial = 10
9 fixed=1
11 [Data]
12 tvpe = data
13 likelihood=binomial
14 filename=damage.dat
15
16 [spatial]
17 type = ffield
18 model=besag
19 graph=forest.gra
20 covariates = spatial.covariate
21 \ diagonal = 0.00001
22 \ constraint = 1
23 \ initial = -3.346165
parameters = 1 0.001
26 [spatial-unstruct]
27 type = ffield
28 \mod el = iid
```

```
29 n = 83
30 covariates = spatial.covariate
31 \quad diagonal = 0.00001
32 \ constraint = 1
33 initial = 7.324791
34 parameters = 1 1
36 [age]
ype = ffield
38 \ model = rw2
39 \ covariates = age.covariate
40 locations = age.location
41 \ diagonal = 0.0001
42 \ constraint = 1
43 initial = 5.674807
44 parameters = 1 0.001
45 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
47 [canopy]
48 type = ffield
49 model = rw2
socionizeta covariates = canopy.covariate
51 locations=canopy.location
52 \ diagonal = 0.0001
constraint = 1
54 \ initial = 13.763045
parameters = 1 \ 0.001
56 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
58 [inclination]
59 type = ffield
60 \mod el = rw2
covariates = inclination.covariate
62 n = 47
63 \ diagonal = 0.0001
64 \ constraint = 1
65 \ initial = 6.422709
66 parameters = 1 \cdot 0.001
67 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
69 [time]
70 type = ffield
71 \mod el = rw2
72 covariates = year.covariate
73 locations=year.location
74 diagonal = 0.0001
75 constraint = 1
76 \ initial = 1.211905
77 parameters = 1 0.001
78 \ quantiles = 0.025 \ 0.975
80 [common mean]
81 type=linear
83 [ soil]
84 type = linear
solution covariates = soil.cov
```

```
86 .
87 .
88 .
89 [INLA parameters]
90 type = INLA
91 int_strategy = CCD;
92 h = 1.0e-2;
```

Notice that when using the inla program we treat all covariates, including space and time in the same way. All covariates files have the same structure.

Again we use the CCD strategy in order to integrate out the uncertainty about the hyperparameters θ . Given the high dimension of the hyperparameters space, the CCD strategy gives a much lower computation time if compared to the grid strategy. We have compared the results coming from the two integration strategies and the differences are irrelevant.

In Figure 18 the results about the semiparametric effects are displayed. The posterior mean is plotted within 0.025 and 0.975 posterior quantiles. The results agree very well with those found by Kneib and Fahrmeir (2008).

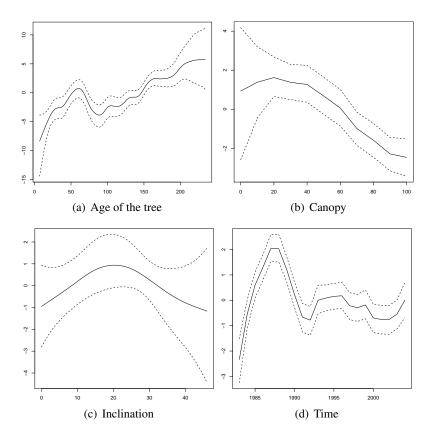


Figure 18: Results for the forest health example, semiparametric effect of covariates, posterior mean within 0.025 and 0.975 quantiles: age of the tree, panel (a), canopy, panel (b), inclination panel (c) and time panel (d).

The model runs in around 9 minutes on Machine 1 and around 4 minutes on Machine 2. Much of the time is used by the optimiser to find the maximum of $\widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$ and to compute the Hessian at the modal configuration. When the hyperparameter space is high dimensional it is possible that the optimiser fails to succeed at a first attempt. The problem is usually solved by running the inla program again starting from different initial values for the hyperparameters. It is, usually, a good idea to start from the best configuration found during the previous run.

If one is interested in spatial prediction of tree health outside the observation plots, the spatial model in (15) is not very useful. We could instead use a second order random walk defined on a regular grid (Rue and Held, 2005, Sec 3.4.2) built as following. We divide the region of interest in $n_{row} \times n_{col}$ cells, with $n_{row} = 50$ and $n_{col} = 100$. We then build a new covariate file, spatial - covariate - rw2.dat, where, to each data point y_r are assigned two indexes n_{row}^r and n_{col}^r indicating its the location of the data on the $n_{row} \times n_{col}$ grid.

The code for the ini file substituting section [spatial] (lines 16-24) and [spatial –unstruct] (lines 26-34) is the following:

```
[spatial]
type=ffield
model=rw2d
covariates=spatial-covariate-rw2.dat
nrow=50
ncol=100
constraint=1
parameters = 1 0.001
initial= -1.570568
```

The new model has one hyperparameter less than the previous one since no spatial unstructured effect is present, but the number of nodes in the latent field x is increased, therefore running the new model will take longer time.

The results for the spatial effect in the new model is displayed in Figure 19. The non parametric effects of the other covariates do not change significantly.

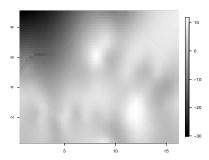


Figure 19: Posterior mean estimate for the spatial effect modelled as a RW2d

Kneib and Fahrmeir (2008) propose to include in the model for the latent variable an interaction between the age of the tree and the calendar time, so that the model becomes:

$$\eta_{it} = \mu + f_1(\text{inclination}_i) + f_2(\text{canopy}_{it})
f_3(t, \text{age}_{it}) + f_s(s_i) + f_u(s_i) + \mathbf{z}_{it}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}$$
(24)

where the spatial effect $f_s(\cdot)$ is modelled as in (15) and $f_4(\cdot)$ is the interaction effect between time and age of the tree modelled as a RW2d.

We can include the term $f_4(\cdot)$ in equation (24) in a similar way as we did earlier in this same example for the RW2d spatial effect. We just create a new covariate file, year.age-covariate, with the format

$$r$$
 t age_r

where both time and age are recorded, and delete from the ini on page 56 section [age] and [time] while adding the the following lines:

```
[year-age interaction]
```

```
2 type=ffield
3 model=rw2d
4 covariates=year.age-covariate
5 nrow=22
6 ncol=223
7 constraint=1
8 diagonal = 0.01
9 parameters = 1 0.01
10 initial= 2.025712
```

The new model has 5 hyperparameters and the total number of nodes in the latent field is 6939. We run the model on Machine 2 and the computation time was around 30 minutes using a CCD integration strategy.

The posterior mean and standard deviation of the interaction effect are displayed in Figure 20, panel (a) and (b) respectively.

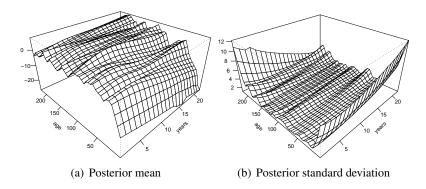


Figure 20: Interaction effect between age of the tree and calendar time in Model (24). Panel (a) posterior mean, panel (b) posterior standard deviation.

3.13 Survival analysis - Weibull Model

[[[This survival—section needs a rewrite due to a change in the input format!!! These examples are no longer valid.]]]

Survival data are often *right censured*, meaning that the exact survival time is known only for a fraction of the individuals under study, the remainder of the survival times are known only to have exceeded a certain value. Suppose that there are n individuals under study and that associated with the i^{th} individual is a survival time t_i and a fixed censuring time c_i . The t_i 's are supposed to be independent and identically distributed with density f(t) and survival function S(t). The exact survival time is known only if $t_i < c_i$. The data in this framework will then be represented by the n pairs of random variables (y_i, ν_i) where:

$$y_i = \min(t_i, c_i)$$

and

$$\nu_i = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if } t_i \le c_i \\ 0 & \text{if } t_i > c_i \end{array} \right.$$

is the event indicator variable.

In this example we use simulated data.

Example 13 We observe a series of n survival times with associated the corresponding event indicator $\{(y_1, \nu_1), \dots, (y_n, \nu_n)\}$. Moreover for each of the n individuals we observe a covariate x. The survival times are assumed to be iid and follow a Weibull distribution:

$$y_i \sim Weibull(\alpha, \gamma_i)$$

We model the effect of covariate by letting λ_i be a function of the observed covariate

$$\log \gamma_i = \eta_i = \mu + \beta + x_i$$

 μ and β are assigned Gaussian priors with known precision. To complete the model we assume a Gamma prior for the parameter α

$$\alpha \sim Gamma(a,b)$$

The corresponding ini file is the following:

```
1 [Problem ]
2 type = problem
3 dir = results - \%1d
4 \ hyperparameters = 1
6 [Predictor]
7 type = predictor
s n = 100
9 \quad initial = 10
10 fixed = 1
12 [Data]
13 type = data
likelihood = weibull
15 filename = weibull-data.dat
17 [Mean]
18 type = linear
19
```

```
20 [Linear]
21 type = linear
22 covariates = weibull-covariates.dat
23
24 [INLA parameters]
25 type = INLA
```

The data file for the survival models has the following format

$$i$$
 c_i y_i

The rest of the model specification is similar to all previous examples.

3.13.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

```
>data(SurvSim)
>mm=surv.inla(y~x,data=SurvSim,event=cens,family="weibull")
```

3.14 Survival analysis - Weibull model with log-normal frailties

[[[This parts needs a rewrite as the R-interface has changed.]]]

In studies if survival, the hazard function for each individual may depend on a set of risk factors or explanatory variables but usually not all such variables are known or measurable. This unknown factor of the hazard function is often termed as the individual heterogeneity of *frailty*.

The most common type of frailty model is called the shared-frailty model, which is an extension of Cox proportional hazard model. Let y_{ij} denote the survival time for the j^{th} individual in the i^{th} cluster, $i=1,\ldots,n$ and $j=1,\ldots,m_i$. Let m_i represent the number of cluster in the i^{th} cluster and therefore we have a total of $N=\sum m_i$ subjects. In the shared frailty model we assume that the conditional hazard function of y_{ij} given the unobserved random frailty w_i for the i^{th} cluster and the fixed covariate vector x_{ij} is given by:

$$h(y|w_i, \boldsymbol{x}_{ij}) = h_0(y) \ w_i \ \exp(\boldsymbol{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) = h_0(y) \ \exp(b_i + \boldsymbol{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta})$$
(25)

where $b_i = \log(w_i)$, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is a vector of unknown parameters assumed to have a Gaussian prior, $\boldsymbol{x}_i j$ is the observed covariate vector for the j^{th} individual in the i^{th} cluster, and $h_0(\cdot)$ is an unknown baseline hazard function.

We assume the vector $\mathbf{b} = \{b_1, b_2, \dots\}$ to be i.i.d Gaussian with unknown precision κ which, as usual is given a Gamma prior. The frailty is simply a random effect of the model like those seen in the previous examples

Example 14 We want to study the times of infection from the time of insertion of catheter on 38 kidney patients using portable dialisis equipment (McGilchrist and Aisbett, 1991). For each patient the time for the first and second infection is reported, each time can be either an event (infection) or censured (no infection until that time). The covariates taken into account are the sex of the patient, the age at the time the infection has taken place and the type of disease (4 possible types). The last covariate is qualitative and therefore it is coded using 3 dummy variables. The covariate vector is therefore $(age_{ij}, sex_i, disease_{i1}, disease_{i2}, disease_{i3})$, for ease of exposition we label these covariates as $(x_{ij1}, x_{ij2}, x_{ij3}, x_{ij4}, x_{ij5})$. Moreover we assume a Weibull model for the unknown baseline hazard $h_0(\cdot)$. The model is thus given by:

$$y_{ij} \sim \mathcal{W}(\alpha, \gamma_{ij})$$

where i = 1, ..., 38 and j = 1, 2. And

$$\eta_{ij} = \log(\gamma_{ij}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{ij1} + \beta_2 x_{ij2} + \beta_3 x_{ij3} + \beta_4 x_{ij4} + \beta_5 x_{ij5} + b_i$$

where $b_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \kappa^{-1})$. Following Spiegelhalter et al. (1995) we take $\beta \sim \mathbf{N}(0, 10^5 \mathbf{I})$, $\kappa \sim \text{Gamma}(10^{-4}, 10^{-4})$ and $\alpha \sim \text{Gamma}(1, 10^{-4})$

The corresponding ini file is:

```
1 [Model]
2 type = problem
3 quantiles = 0.025 0.975
4
5 [Data]
6 type = data
7 likelihood = weibull
8 filename = time.dat
9 initial = 0.2
10 parameters = 1 1e-04
11
12 [Predictor]
```

```
13 type = predictor
_{14} n = 76
15 fixed = 1
16 compute = 1
initial = 10
19 [Intercept]
20 type = linear
22 [age]
23 type = linear
                 age.dat
24 covariates =
precision = 1e-05
27 [ sex ]
28 type = linear
29 covariates =
                 sex.dat
30 precision = 1e-05
32 [dis1]
33 type = linear
                  dis1.dat
34 covariates =
35 precision = 1e-05
37 [dis2]
38 type = linear
39 covariates =
                  dis2.dat
40 precision = 1e-05
41
42 [dis3]
43 type = linear
44 covariates =
                  dis3.dat
45 precision = 1e-05
47 [frailty]
48 type = ffield
49 model = iid
50 covariates =
                 frailty-cov.dat
51 \ diagonal = 1.0e-6
                frailty-loc.dat
52 locations =
parameters = 1e-04
                         1e-04
```

3.14.1 Implementing using the INLA package for R

3.15 Survival analysis - Model with piecewise constant hazard

An alternative to choosing a parametric model for $h_0(\cdot)$ in equation (25) is to construct a piecewise exponential model. We first divide the time axis into J pre-specified intervals $I_k = (s_{k-1}, s_k]$ for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, J$ where $0 = s_0 < s_1 < \cdots < s_J < \infty, s_J$ being the last survival or censured time and assume the baseline hazard to be constant with each interval. That is:

$$h_0(y) = \lambda_k$$
, for $y \in I_k$.

Following Gamermann (1991) we model $\epsilon_k = \log(\lambda_k)$ as a random walk of first or second order with unknown precision.

The model for the hazard function for y_{ij} given the unobserved random frailty w_i for the i^{th} cluster and the fixed covariate vector x_{ij} is given by:

$$h(y_{ij}|w_i \boldsymbol{x}_{ij}) = \exp(b_i + \boldsymbol{x}_{ij}^T \boldsymbol{\beta}) \left(\sum_{k=1}^J \lambda_k \mathbf{1}_{y_{ij} \in I_k}\right)$$

where $\mathbf{1}_{y_{ij} \in I_k}$ indicates if y_{ij} belongs to interval I_k . Moreover, as in the previous example x_{ij} are observed covariate, $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ are unknown parameters with a Gaussian prior and b_i 's are the log frailty effect assumed to be i.i.d. and Gaussian distributed.

It turns out that such piecewise constant hazard models can be written as models with Poisson likelihood where the log mean is a linear function of all covariates and random effects, included the piecewise constant baseline hazard.

Example 15 We consider again the Kindey infection data set seen in example 14 this time assuming a piecewise constant baseline hazard with a random walk prior for $\log(\lambda_k)$, with precision $\tau = 10^{-4}$. We consider this time only sex and age as covariates so that the proportional hazard's component is

$$\exp(\mathbf{x}_{ij}^T\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \exp\{\beta_{sex} sex_i + \beta_{age} age_{ij}\}$$

We assume $\kappa \sim Gamma(0.001, 0.001)$ and $\beta \mathcal{N}(0, 10^{-3})$. Moreover, we choose J=10

The R code to implement the above model using the INLA library is the following:

4 The GENERIC1-model

The GENERIC1 model implements the following precision matrix

$$\boldsymbol{Q} = \tau (\boldsymbol{I} - \frac{\beta}{\lambda_{\text{max}}} \boldsymbol{C})$$

where the C-matrix is specified in the argument Cmatrix = <filename>, using the

format (as for the GENERIC0 model). λ_{\max} is the maximum eigenvalue for matrix C, which allow β to be in the range $\beta \in [0, 1)$. The hyperparameters are $\theta = (\tau, \beta)$ and the internal representations are

$$\tau = \exp(\tau_{\text{intern}})$$

and

$$\beta = \frac{\exp(\beta_{\text{intern}})}{1 + \exp(\beta_{\text{intern}})}$$

5 The RW2DX3-model

This is a specialised model for a certain application, for which the linear predictor require three different contributions from the RW2D model. Similar to the "2diidwishartpart0/1" and "3diidwishartpart0/1/2" models, this is also defined similarly.

Let z_0 be a RW2D model with precision κ , then define z_1 and z_2 conditionally on z_0 , as

$$z_1 \mid z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_1 z_0, \kappa_1 I)$$

and

$$z_2 \mid z_0 \sim \mathcal{N}(\beta_2 z_0, \kappa_2 I).$$

The joint density $\pi(z_0,z_1,z_2\mid\kappa,\kappa_1,\kappa_2,\beta_1,\beta_2)$ is then proportional to

$$\exp\left(-rac{1}{2}oldsymbol{z}_0^Toldsymbol{Q}(\kappa)oldsymbol{z}_0 - rac{\kappa_1}{2}(oldsymbol{z}_1 - eta_1oldsymbol{z}_0)^T(oldsymbol{z}_1 - eta_1oldsymbol{z}_0) - rac{\kappa_2}{2}(oldsymbol{z}_2 - eta_2oldsymbol{z}_0)^T(oldsymbol{z}_2 - eta_2oldsymbol{z}_0)
ight)$$

where $Q(\kappa)$ is the precision matrix for the RW2D model.

The models components are named as rw2dx3part0 for z_0 , rw2dx3part1 for z_1 and rw2dx3part2 for z_2 . The hyperparameters are

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\kappa, \kappa_1, \kappa_2, \beta_1, \beta_2).$$

6 Zero-inflated likelihood-models

inla support two types of zero-inflated models; type 0 and type 1. These are defined for both the Binomial and the Poisson likelihood. For simplicity we will describe only the Poisson as the Binomial case is similar.

6.1 Type 0

The (type 0) likelihood is defined as

$$Prob(y \mid ...) = p \times 1_{[y=0]} + (1-p) \times Poisson(y \mid y > 0)$$

where p is a hyperparameter where

$$p = \frac{\exp(p_{\text{intern}})}{1 + \exp(p_{\text{intern}})}$$

and p_{intern} is the internal representation of p; meaning that the initial value and prior is given for p_{intern} . This is model is called

 ${\tt zeroinflatedpoisson 0} \ and \ {\tt zeroinflatedbinomial 0}$

6.2 Type 1

The (type 1) likelihood is defined as

$$Prob(y \mid \ldots) = p \times 1_{[y=0]} + (1-p) \times Poisson(y)$$

where p is a hyperparameter where

$$p = \frac{\exp(p_{\text{intern}})}{1 + \exp(p_{\text{intern}})}$$

and p_{intern} is the internal representation of p; meaning that the initial value and prior is given for p_{intern} . This is model is called

zeroinflatedpoisson1 and zeroinflatedbinomial1

7 Negative Binomial

For negative Binomial responces, the likelihood is

$$Prob(y) = \frac{\Gamma(y+n)}{\Gamma(n)\Gamma(y+1)} p^n (1-p)^y$$

for $y = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ Note that n > 0 does not need to be an integer.

The mean of the negative Binomial is expressed as

$$\mu = E \exp(\eta)$$

where η is the linear predictor and the hyperparameter n (or the "size") plays the role as an overdispersion parameter. The internal representation is

$$n = \exp(\theta)$$
.

The mean and variance of y are given as

$$\mu = n \frac{1-p}{p}$$
 and $\sigma^2 = \mu + \mu^2/n$.

As $n \to \infty$, we get back to the Poisson distribution. The negative Binomial model is specified with the same data-format as for the Poisson case, but with the name nbinomial and the overdispersion hyperparameter θ .

8 Quantile-regression and the asymmetric Laplace-distribution

A likelihood models of the following type

$$\pi(y|\eta) \propto \exp\left(-\tau \rho_{\alpha}(y-\eta)\right)$$

where

$$\rho_{\alpha}(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha |x| & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ (1 - \alpha)|x| & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

is both used for Laplace-distributed observations, but can also be justified from a quantile-regression point of view.

The Laplace distribution is algorithmically awkward, as the second order derivative of $\log \pi(y|\eta)$ is zero (except at $y=\eta$) but $\log \pi(y|\eta)$ still has an "overall curvature". We chose to approximate the Laplace distribution using

$$\widetilde{\rho}_{\alpha,\gamma}(x) = \begin{cases} \log(\cosh(\alpha\gamma|x|))/\gamma & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ \log(\cosh((1-\alpha)\gamma|x|))/\gamma & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

which has second order derivatives everywhere. The parameter $\gamma > 0$ is fixed, and the approximation tends to |x| as $\gamma \to \infty$; see Figure 8. Additionally, there is an optional quadratic term that, "hopefully", might stabilise

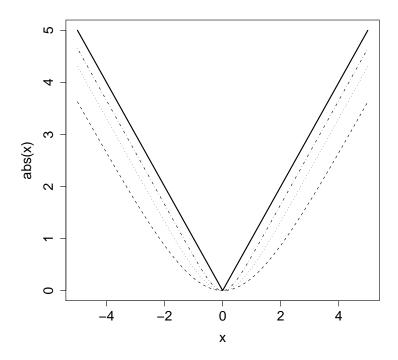


Figure 21: The function |x| and the approximation $\log(\cosh(\gamma x))/\gamma$ for $\gamma = 1/2, 1$ and 2. The approximation improves for increasing γ .

the optimisation algorithms,

$$\widetilde{\rho}_{\alpha,\gamma,\epsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} \log(\cosh(\alpha\gamma|x|))/\gamma + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon(\alpha x)^2 & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ \log(\cosh((1-\alpha)\gamma|x|))/\gamma + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon((1-\alpha)x)^2 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Both α and ϵ are constants, and $\alpha=0.5,\,\gamma=1$ and $\epsilon=0.01$ by default. The inverse-scale τ is stochastic by default.

The data format is as for the Gaussian likelihood with a weight term w for τ , so for the ith observation, then $\tau_i = w_i \tau$. The parameters α , ϵ are specified as

```
likelihood = laplace
filename = $DATADIR/file5a4cf06c
alpha = 0.5
epsilon = 0.1
gamma = 1.0
fixed = 0
initial = 0
```

which also state that τ is stochastic with initial value $\exp(0)$.

From within R, then the parameters α and ϵ is specified in the control.data argument as

```
..., control.data= list(alpha = 0.5, epsilon = 0.01, gamma = 1.0), ...
```

and the family-name is laplace.

9 Model assessment and model choice

For the material in this section refer to the revised version of Rue et al. (2007)

9.1 Marginal Likelihood

The marginal likelihood for a certain model \mathcal{M} , defined as

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{y}|\mathcal{M}) = \int \pi(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{M}) d\boldsymbol{x} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

can be used as a basis for model comparison. The Bayes factor for two competing models is in fact defined as

$$\mathcal{B}(i,j) = \frac{\pi(\mathcal{M}_i|\boldsymbol{y})\pi(\mathcal{M}_i)}{\pi(\mathcal{M}_j|\boldsymbol{y})\pi(\mathcal{M}_j)}$$
(26)

If we choose the models to be apriori equal probable, $\pi(\mathcal{M}_1) = \cdots = \pi(\mathcal{M}_K)$, then the Bayes factor reduces to

$$\mathcal{B}(i,j) = \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{y}|\mathcal{M}_i)}{\pi(\boldsymbol{y}|\mathcal{M}_i)}$$

Hence, we can compare models by comparing their marginal likelihood $\pi(y|\mathcal{M}_k)$.

<u>NB</u>: For (26) to be well defined it is necessary for the prior of the latent field $\pi(x|\theta)$ to be **proper**. For intrinsic models, in fact, there is an arbitrary missing constant which cannot be determined, see for example Gelfand (1996).

Using the INLA approach, the marginal likelihood for a certain model \mathcal{M} , $\pi(y|\mathcal{M})$ can be computed as the normalising constant of $\widetilde{\pi}(\theta|y)$ using two different approaches:

- 1. Via numerical integration of $\widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$
- 2. Assuming a Gaussian approximation to $\widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$

see Rue et al. (2007, Revised version) for details. Using the inla program it is enough to set the mlik flag in the section type=problem to 1 for the marginal likelihood to be computed. The first approximation (which is more accurate) is computed only if in the type = INLA section, int_strategy = CCD is selected.

Example 16 We want to check which one, between a Gaussian and a Student-t error is more appropriate to describe the dollar-pound exchange rate data set in Example 3.

It is enough to add to the first section of the corresponding ini the line

```
mlik = 1
```

The output is stored in the file *results/marginal-likelihood/marginal-likelihood.dat* which contains both approximations for the log marginal likelihood of the model, $\log \tilde{\pi}(y|\mathcal{M})$.

For the Gaussian error model in (8) we have

```
log marginal-likelihood (integration): -933.258
log marginal-likelihood (Gaussian): -933.324
```

while for the Student-t model in (10) the result is

```
log marginal-likelihood (integration): -934.997
log marginal-likelihood (Gaussian): -935.233
```

In this case the Gaussian error model is preferred.

Note that in the volatility model example we have considered, the prior for the latent model x is an autoregressive model of order one. This is a proper model, therefore the marginal likelihood gives a reasonable tool for model comparison. If we would have chosen, for example, a RW1 model (or any other intrinsic distribution) as prior for the latent volatility the marginal likelihood computed would have been meaningless.

9.2 Deviance Information Criterion (DIC)

Deviance information criterion (DIC) is a criterion for comparing complex hierarchical models introduced in Spiegelhalter et al. (2002) and defined as:

$$DIC = \bar{D} + p_D \tag{27}$$

where \bar{D} is the posterior mean of the deviance of the model and p_D is the effective number of parameters in the model, see Spiegelhalter et al. (2002). Details on how to compute the quantities in equation (27) using the INLA approach are described in Rue et al. (2007, Revised version).

To compute the DIC using the inla program it is enough to set the flag dic in the section type=problem to 1.

For example, if we want to compute the DIC for the two disease mapping models considered in Section 3.7, it is enough to add to the first section of the corresponding ini file the line:

```
9 dic = 1
```

The result is printed in the output of the inla program, moreover it is stored in the file: results/dic/dic.dat

which contains four quantities: the mean of the deviance, the deviance of the mean, the effective number of parameters and the DIC.

For model (18) in Section 3.7, which assumes a non-linear effect of the covariate, the *dic.dat* file is the following:

mean of the deviance: 2652.86 deviance of the mean: 2563.22

effective number of parameters: 89.6438

dic: 2742.51

We can compute the DIC also for model (19), which assumes a linear effect of the covariate, obtaining:

mean of the deviance: 2655.87 deviance of the mean: 2552.33

effective number of parameters: 103.542

dic: 2759.42

The difference in DIC values is 16.91 in favour of model (18) which suggests that the effect of the exposure covariate is better represented by a non linear function.

9.3 Predictive measures

Predictive measures can be used both to validate and to compare models (Gelfand, 1996; Gelman et al., 2004) and as a device to detect possible outliers or surprising observations (Pettit and Young, 1990). Using inla it is possible to compute Conditional Predictive Ordinates (CPOs) and Probability Integral Transforms (PIT).

Conditional predictive ordinates (CPOs) are defined as:

$$CPO_i = \pi(y_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i})$$

where the subscript -i indicates that element i of the vector is removed. CPOs are discussed among others by Pettit (1990) and Gelfand (1996).

Unusually small or large values of CPO_i indicate a surprising observation. Anyway, before being compared, the CPOs have to be calibrated. One of the possible calibration procedures is to compute the probability integral transform

$$PIT_i = Prob(y_i^{new} \le y_i | \boldsymbol{y}_{-i})$$

see also Gneiting and Raftery (2007). An unusual large or small value indicates possible outliers. Furthermore, an histogram of the PITs far from uniform might indicate a questionable model (Czado et al., 2007).

In the inla program to compute CPOs and PITs it is sufficient to add in the *type=problem* section of the ini file the line

```
10 cpo = 1
```

The results will be stored in the results/cpo/directory in the two files cpo.dat and pit.dat.

Due to how $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ are computed, there may be cases where this computation "fails"¹; due to inaccurate tail behaviour of $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$. To monitor the reliability of the CPO and PIT values computed, inla as a FAILURE variable computed for each i (or y_i), and the file *failure.dat* contains the expected failure (wrt $\boldsymbol{\theta}$) for each i, where the failure is defined as follows.

- If $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is monotone increasing or decreasing, then failure is set to 1 and then $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is set to the 0-function. In this case, $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is known to be just wrong.
- If $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is has a (local) maximum either at $\min\{x_i\}$ or at $\max\{x_i\}$, then $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is set to zero in that part where $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is decreasing (starting from $\min\{x_i\}$) or increasing (starting from $\max\{x_i\}$). The failure is in this case set to 0 (no failure), unless the difference in log-scale between the maximum and leftmost (or rightmost) value of $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|\boldsymbol{y}_{-i},\boldsymbol{\theta}_j)$ is less than *CPO.DIFF* (default is 3).

¹This is a feature not a bug.

When the expected failure is 0 then the computed value of CPO and PIT seems to be reliable, and when the expected failure is 1 then the computed value of CPO and PIT is known to be completely unreliable.

As an example we consider the volatility model with Gaussian observation in Example 3. The corresponding PIT values are plotted in Figure 22(a). There are three observation whose PIT is close to 0, namely 331, 656 and 862. Figure 22(b) displays the histogram of the PIT values which is reasonably close to uniform.

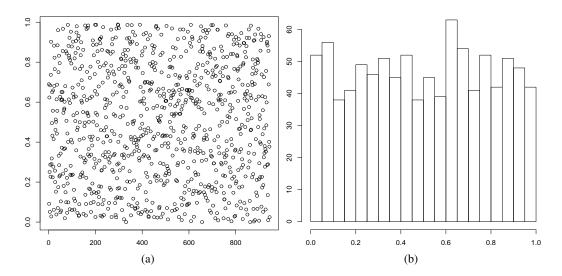


Figure 22: PIT values for the volatility model with Gaussian observation in Example 3 (panel (a)) and corresponding histogram (panel (b)).

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A Reference manual for the inla program

A.1 Structure of the ini file

The ini file describes the model and sets some additional parameters to be passed to the GMRFLib library. It is divided in several sections. Each section starts with a tag written between squared brackets ([tag]) which is simply a user defined name for the section itself.

Each section contains the field *type* which determines the role of the section in the problem definition and also the structure of the section itself. The six different types of section are described in details below.

A.1.1 The *type=problem* section

This sections specifies some global parameters which are valid for the whole problem. It consists of the following fields:

dir: A string indicating the name of the directory where the results are stored. The directory is created when the inla program is run. The directory name can include %d

hyperparameters: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to compute the marginals for the hyperparameters θ of the model.

Default = 0

summary: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output a short summary of the posterior density for all the nodes in the GMRF x. Currently the summary contains the posterior mean and standard deviation.

Default= 1

density: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output the marginal densities for all nodes in the latent GMRF

Default= 1

quantiles: A list of maximum 10 quantiles, $p(0), p(1), \ldots$, to compute for each posterior marginal. The function returns, for each posterior marginal, the values $x(0), x(1), \ldots$ such that

$$\operatorname{Prob}(X < x(p)) = p$$

Default: Empty

cdf: A list of maximum 10 cdf, $x(0), x(1), \ldots$, to compute for each posterior marginal. The function returns, for each posterior marginal, the probabilities Prob(X < x(p)).

Default: Empty

smtp: A string indicating which type of solver for sparse matrices should be used. The available choices are:

- GMRFLib_SMTP_BAND Lapack's band-solver. This is optimal for band matrices
- GMRFLib_SMTP_TAUCS The solver in the TAUCS-library. This is generic for all kind of sparse matrices.

Default: GMRFLib_SMTP_TAUCS

dic: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to compute the deviance information criterion (DIC) for the model.

Default: 0

cpo: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to compute the conditional predictive ordinates for the model **Default**: 0

mlik A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to compute the marginal likelihood for the model

NB: this quantity is meaningful ONLY if in all the sections *type=ffield* present in the ini file *model=ar1* is chosen.

Default: 0

A.1.2 The *type=data* section

This section specifies the model for the likelihood of the data $\pi(y_i|\eta_i, \theta_1)$ in equation (1).

From version 1.403 of inla, it is allowed to have multiple data-sections, so in principle, each observation can have a different likelihood-type.

The (or each) data-section consists of the following fields:

dir: The name of the sub-directory where the results are stored. Default is to use the section name.

likelihood: A string indicating the name of the required likelihood model. The available choices are listed in Table 3.

prior: Prior distribution for hyperparameter θ_1 in one-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = gaussian, stochvolt or weibull.

If likelihood = gaussian then $\theta_1 = \log \lambda_y$ and the corresponding prior is a LogGamma $(a, b)^2$.

If likelihood = stochvolt then $\theta_1 = \nu'$ (see Table 3) and the corresponding prior is a 0 mean Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/\text{prec})$.

If likelihood =weibull then $\theta_1 = \log(\alpha)$ and the corresponding prior is a LogGamma(a, b).

initial: Initial value for hyperparameter θ_1 in one-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = gaussian, stochvolt or weibull.

Initial value for $\log \lambda_u$ (if *likelihood = gaussian*) or for ν' (if *likelihood = stochvolt*).

parameters: Parameters for $\pi(\theta_1)$ in one-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = gaussian, stochvolt or weibull.

If likelihood = gaussian or weibull: parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior of the log-precision $\log \lambda_v$.

If $likelihood = stochvol_t$: parameter prec for the Gaussian prior of the ν' .

prior0: Prior distribution for the first hyperparameter θ_{11} in vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 = (\theta_{11}, \theta_{12})$ in two-parameter likelihood models: likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

If likelihood = T then $\theta_{11} = \log \lambda_y$ and the corresponding prior is a LogGamma(a, b).

If likelihood = stochvolnig then $\theta_{11} = \beta$ (see Table 3) and the corresponding prior is a 0 mean Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/\text{prec})$.

initial0: Initial value for hyperparameter θ_{11} in two-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

Initial value for $\log \lambda_y$ (if *likelihood =T*) or for β (if *likelihood =stochvolnig*).

parameters0: Parameters for $\pi(\theta_{11})$ in two-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

If likelihood =T: parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior of the log-precision $\log \lambda_v$.

If likelihood = stochvolnig: parameter prec for the Gaussian prior of the β .

prior1: Prior distribution for the second hyperparameter θ_{12} in vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 = (\theta_{11}, \theta_{12})$ in two-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

If likelihood =T then $\theta_{12} = \nu'$ and the corresponding prior is a 0 mean Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/\text{prec})$.

If likelihood = stochvolnig then $\theta_{12} = \psi'$ and the corresponding prior is a 0 mean Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1/\text{prec})$.

initial 1: Initial value for hyperparameter θ_{12} in two-parameter likelihood models:

likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

Initial value for ν' (if *likelihood* = T) or for ψ' (if *likelihood* = S).

²See Appendix B for a definition.

parameters 1: Parameters for $\pi(\theta_{12})$ in two-parameter likelihood models: likelihood = T or stochvolnig.

If likelihood = T: parameter prec for the Gaussian prior of ν' .

If likelihood = stochvolnig: parameter prec for the Gaussian prior of ψ' .

fixed: A Boolean variable indicating whether the hyperparameters of the likelihood model are fixed or random. **Default**: 0

filename: The name of the file which contains the data for the model. The format of the file depends on the likelihood model chosen and is indicated in Table 3

Model name	Distribution	Link function	Parameters $oldsymbol{ heta}_1$	Input File format
gaussian	$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_i, \frac{\lambda_y^{-1}}{w_i})$	$\mu_i = \eta_i$	$\theta_1 = \log \lambda_y$	i w_i y_i
poisson	$y_i \sim \operatorname{Po}(E_i \lambda_i)$	$\lambda_i = \exp(\eta_i)$	-	$i E_i y_i$
binomial	$y_i \sim \mathrm{Bin}(n_i, p_i)$	$p_i = \frac{\exp(\eta_i)}{(1 + \exp(\eta_i))}$	-	$egin{array}{cccc} i & n_i & y_i \end{array}$
T	$y_i = x_i + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_y w_i}} \mathcal{T}$ $\mathcal{T} \sim t_{\nu} \stackrel{(*)}{}$	$x_i = \eta_i$	$\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 = (\log \lambda_y, \nu')$ $\nu' = \log(\nu - 2)$	$\begin{vmatrix} i & w_i & y_i \end{vmatrix}$
stochvol	$y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_i^2)$	$\sigma_i = \exp(\eta_i/2)$	-	$i y_i$
stochvol _t	$y_i = \sigma_i \mathcal{T}$ $\mathcal{T} \sim t_{\nu} ^{(*)}$	$\sigma_i = \exp(\eta_i/2)$	$\theta_1 = \nu'$ $\nu' = \log(\nu - 2)$	i y_i
stochvolnig	$y_i = \sigma_i \times \mathcal{T}$ $\mathcal{T} \sim \text{NIG}(\beta, \psi)^{(**)}$	$\sigma_i = \exp(\eta_i/2)$	$\theta_1 = (\beta, \psi')$ $\psi' = \log(\psi - 1)$	$i y_i$
	Ditributions for Survival analysis NB: c_i is the indicator for the type of event (1 = failure 0 = censure)			
exponential	$y_i \sim Exp(\lambda)$	$\lambda_i = \eta_i$	-	$egin{array}{ccc} i & c_i & y_i \end{array}$
weibull	$y_i \sim \text{Weibull}(\alpha, \gamma_i)^{(***)}$	$\log \gamma_i = \eta_i$	$\theta = \log(\alpha)$	$\begin{vmatrix} i & c_i & y_i \end{vmatrix}$

 $^{^{(*)}}$ t_{ν} is a scaled Student- t distribution, see Appendix B for definition

Table 3: The most common likelihood models supported in the inla program; Those who are not described here are the zeroinflated Poisson/Binomial of type 0/1 in Section 7.

A.1.3 The *type=predictor* section

This section defines the model for the unstructured term η_i in equation (2). The inla program requires a section of type = predictor to always be present. It consists of the following fields:

^(**) See Appendix B for definition of a NIG distribution.

^(***) See Appendix B for definition of the Weibull distribution.

Hyperparameter	Prior distribution	Default param
Log-Precision $\log \lambda_y$	LogGamma $(a,b)^{(*)}$	a = 1, b = 0.001
$ u',\ \psi',\ eta$	$\mathcal{N}(0, 1/prec)$	prec = 0.001

^(*)) See Appendix B for definition of a LogGamma distribution.

Table 4: Prior distributions for the hyperparameters in the likelihood models

prior: Name of the prior for the log-precision parameter $\log \lambda_{\eta}$.

Default: loggamma

parameters: Parameters for the prior for the log-precision λ_{η} .

Default: a = 1.0 and b = 0.001 (for the *loggamma* prior)

fixed: A Boolean variable indicating whether the precision parameter $\log \lambda_{\eta}$ is fixed or random.

Default: 0.

initial : Starting value for $\log \lambda_{\eta}$

n: Length of the latent variable vector η . Either n, or nrow and ncol are required.

nrow: Number of rows of the latent variable vector η . Either n, or nrow and ncol are required.

ncol: Number of columns of the latent variable vector η . Either n, or nrow and ncol are required.

compute: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not the marginals for vector η have to be computed.

Default: 0

user. scale: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not the marginals for vector INVERSE.LINK(η) should be computed, where the link-function is defined in the data-section. For example compute the marginals for $\exp(\eta_i)$ for Poisson data. This option is only used if option *compute* is 1.

Default: 1

summary: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output a short summary of the posterior density for η .

Default: compute

density: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output the marginal densities for η .

Default: compute

quantiles: A list of maximum 10 quantiles, $p(0), p(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in η .

Default: Empty

cdf:A list of maximum 10 cdf, $x(0), x(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in η .

Default: Empty

offset: The name of the file where the values of an possible offset are stored.

In general the data y depends on η as given in (1), but in some cases there is fixed offset present

$$y_j | \eta_j, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1 \sim \pi(y_j | (\eta_j + \text{offset}_j), \boldsymbol{\theta}_1)$$

$$\eta_i = \sum_{k=0}^{n_f - 1} f_k(c_{ki}) + \boldsymbol{z}_i^T \boldsymbol{\beta} + \epsilon_i, \qquad i = 0, \dots, n_\eta - 1$$
(28)

and this option gives the opportunity to specify this offset. Let n_{η} be the length of the linear predictor η . Then the offset file contains values for offset_i with $i = 0, \dots, n_{\eta} - 1$ in the following way:

$$0 - 1$$

1 3.2

2 4.9

10 2

where the first column specifies the index i and the second column the corresponding offset value. Offset values for non-specified indices are assumed to be 0. If no offset file is specified the offset is assumed to be 0.

A.1.4 The type = ffield type section

A section of type = ffield specifies the model for one of the function f in equation (2). Hence, in a ini file there must be n_f sections of type = ffield. Each type = ffield section consists of the following fields:

dir: The name of the sub-directory where the results are stored. Default is to use the section name.

model: A a string indicating the name of the chosen model. All available choices are listed in Table 5.

n: The size of the model. If not given, it is implicitly given by the remaining arguments.

Default: undefined

replicate: How many times this model should be replicated. This is an expert option.

Default:

prior: Name of the prior for the log-precision parameter $\log \lambda_f$. At the moment only two priors are implemented, the $\operatorname{LogGamma}(a,b)$ and the minuslogsqrtruncnormal(a) prior. (Not in use if model=ar1.) The MinusLogSqrTruncNormal prior is derived from requiring σ to be a positive truncated zero-mean Normal with precision a.

Default: loggamma

parameters: Parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior of the log-precision $\log \lambda_f$, or the parameter a for the MinusLogSqrTruncNormal prior. (Not in use if model=ar1.)

Default: a=1.0 and b=0.001 for prior=LogGamma, and a=0.001 for prior=MinusLogSqrTruncNormal.

initial: Starting value for $\log \lambda_f$ (not in use if model=ar1)

prior0: Name of the prior for the log-precision parameter λ_f if model=ar1. At the moment only the LogGamma(a,b) prior is implemented

Default: loggamma

prior1: Name of the prior for the precision parameter κ if model=ar1. At the moment only the Gaussian $(0, \operatorname{prec}_{\kappa})$ prior is implemented

Default: gaussian

parameters 0:Parameters a and b for the LogGamma prior of the precision $\log \lambda_f$ (only for model=ar1)

Default: a = 1.0 and b = 0.001

 $\mathit{parameters1} \text{: } \mathsf{Parameter} \ \mathsf{prec}_\kappa \ \mathsf{for} \ \mathsf{parameter} \ \kappa \ (\mathsf{only} \ \mathsf{for} \ \mathit{model=ar1})$

Default: $prec_k = 0.001$

initial0 : Starting value for $\log \lambda_f$ (**only** for *model=ar1*)

initial1: Starting value for κ (**only** for *model=ar1*)

rankdef: A number **defining** the rank deficiency of the model, with sum-to-zero constraint and possible extra-constraints taken into account.

Default: no default value.

If *rankdef* is not set, then it is computed by the *rankdef* of the prior model (for the generic0 model, the default is zero), plus 1 for the sum-to-zero constraint if the prior model is proper, plus the number of extra constraints. **Oops:** This can be wrong, and then the user must define the *rankdef* explicitly.

fixed: A Boolean variable indicating whether the precision parameter λ_f is fixed or random.

Default: 0.

fixed0: A Boolean variable indicating whether the precision parameter λ_f is fixed or random (only for model=ar1).

Default: 0.

fixed1: A Boolean variable indicating whether the parameter κ is fixed or random (**only** for model=ar1).

Default: 0.

constraint: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to impose a sum-to-zero constraint $\sum f_j = 0$

Default: 0.

extraconstraint: A filename containing extra constraints Af = e.

Default: no default value.

Let nc be the number of constraints and n the length of f. The file must then contain $nc \times n + nc$ numbers in the following order: $A_{1,1}, A_{1,2}, \ldots, A_{1,n}, A_{2,1}, \ldots, A_{2,n}, \ldots, A_{nc,1}, \ldots, A_{nc,n}, e_1, \ldots, e_{nc}$.

diagonal: Additional constraint to add on the diagonal

Default: 0.

graph: The name of the file where the graph is stored (only if model=besag)

weights: The name of the file where the weights w_{ki} are stored.

n: Length m of vector f. Only if model=rw1,rw2,crw2 and no locations is specified.

locations: The name of the file where the value of the covariate are stored, only if model=rw1, rw2 or crw2. If no file is specified the covariate are assumed to take values in $\{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$.

cyclic: A Boolean variable specifying whether the model is cyclical, only if model=rw1,rw2 and no locations is specified.

compute: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not the marginals for vector f have to be computed.

Default: 1

summary: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output a short summary of the posterior density for f.

Default: compute

density: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output the marginal densities for f.

Default: compute

quantiles: A list of maximum 10 quantiles, $p(0), p(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in f.

Default: Empty

cdf: A list of maximum 10 cdf, $x(0), x(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in f.

Default: Empty

A.1.5 The *type=linear* section

A section of type=linear specifies the model for one of the element β_k of vector $\boldsymbol{\beta}=(\beta_0,\ldots,\beta_{n_{\beta}-1})$ in equation (2). Hence a ini file will contain n_{β} sections of type=linear. Each section consists of the following fields:

dir: The name of the sub-directory where the results are stored. Default is to use the section name.

covariates: Name of the file where covariate are stored. If empty, then all covariates are assumed to be 1.

mean: Fixed mean for the Gaussian prior distribution of β .

Default: 0

precision: Fixed precision for the Gaussian prior distribution of β .

Default: 0.001

compute: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not the marginal for β_k has to be computed.

Default: 1

summary: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output a short summary of the posterior density for β_k .

Default: compute

density: A Boolean variable indicating whether or not to output the marginal densities for β_k .

Default: compute

quantiles: A list of maximum 10 quantiles, $p(0), p(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in β_k .

Default: Empty

cdf:A list of maximum 10 cdf, $x(0), x(1), \ldots$, to compute for each node in β_k .

Default: Empty

A.1.6 The *type=INLA* section

This section is optional, it specifies parameters to be passed to the GMRFLib library. It is possible to specify here all parameters in the *GMRFLib_ai_param_tp* structure. We describe here the most used and useful ones, for more details see the on-line documentation for the GMRFLib library: http://www.math.ntnu.no/~hrue/GMRFLib/doc/html/

strategy: The strategy used to compute approximations to the posterior marginals $\pi(x_i|y,\theta)$. The three main choice are:

- GMRFLib_AI_STRATEGY_GAUSSIAN: computes the Gaussian approximation
- GMRFLib_AI_STRATEGY_MEANSKEWCORRECTED_GAUSSIAN: computes the simplified Laplace approximation.
- GMRFLib_AI_STRATEGY_FIT_SCGAUSSIAN: Computes the full Laplace approximation fitting a spline-corrected Gaussian.

The three approximation types are described in Rue et al. (2007).

Default: GMRFLib_AI_STRATEGY_MEANSKEWCORRECTED_GAUSSIAN

int_strategy: The strategy used to integrate out the hyperparameters θ when computing $\widetilde{\pi}(x_i|y)$. There are two possible choices:

- GMRFLib_AI_INT_STRATEGY_GRID (or grid): Use a grid strategy, slower and somehow more accurate.
- $GMRFLib_AI_INT_STRATEGY_CCD$ (or ccd): Use a central composite design strategy, faster and especially useful for problems with higher dimension of the hyperparameter vector θ .

Both strategies are described in Rue et al. (2007).

Default: GMRFLib_AI_INT_STRATEGY_CCD

dz: Step length for the integration procedure, only if $int_- strategy = grid$.

Default: 1

diff_logdens: Only used if int_strategy = grid. Threshold for accepting a configuration.

Default: 2.5

 $skip_configurations$: Only used if $int_strategy = grid$. Skip fill-in configuration larger than a non-accepted one.

Default: *GMRFLib_TRUE*

gradient _ finite _ difference _ step _ len (or h): Step length to compute the gradient of $\widetilde{\pi}(\theta)$.

Default: 1.0e-4

hessian _ finite _ difference _step_len (or h): Step length to compute the Hessian of $\widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$ at the mode.

Default: 1.0e-2

interpolator Type of interpolator used to compute marginals for each hyperparameter $\widetilde{\pi}(\theta_m|\boldsymbol{y})$, the available choices are:

- GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_AUTO: Chose interpolation type based on the integration strategy. If int _ strategy = grid, then choose GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_WEIGHTED_DISTANCE. If int _ strategy = ccd, then the choice is GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_CCD
- $GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_LINEAR$: Linear interpolation using the (M+1) nearest points, where M is the dimension of the hyperparameters space.
- $GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_OUADRATIC$: Quadratic interpolation using the (M+1) nearest points.
- GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_WEIGHTED_DISTANCE: Linear interpolation using weighted distance.
- GMRFLib_AI_INTERPOLATOR_CCD: Special interpolation for the CCD integration scheme.

The interpolations are described in Martino (2007).

A.2 Format of the input files

There are five type of input files which can be read from the inla program: the data file, the covariate file, the covariate locations type, the graph file and the Q-matrix file, each with its own format required. The formats have been already presented in different examples but are all collected here.

Data file The format of the data file depends on the likelihood model chosen and on whether the data are collected on a grid or not. The format of the data file is displayed in Table 3.

Covariate and location file Each covariate has to be stored in a separate file. The format of the file depends on whether the covariate is assumed to have linear or non-linear effect:

Covariates with linear effect: The value of the covariate is simply stored in a file with n_{η} columns each row having the format:

$$i$$
 z_i

where $i = 0, ..., n_{\eta} - 1$ and z_i is the value of the covariate for node i.

Covariates with non-linear effect: Let $c \in C$ and $C = \{c^{(0)} < c^{(1)} < \cdots < c^{(idx)} < \cdots < c^{(m-1)}\}$. That is, covariate c takes one of the m values in the ordered vector C. The file storing covariate c has n_{η} row, each with the following format:

$$i (idx)_i$$

where $i = 0, ..., n_{\eta} - 1$ and $(idx)_i$ is the position of the observed value c_i in the vector C. If the values in C are different from 0, 1, ... then another file (the locations file) of m rows, is necessary to store the values of C. A short example will be useful:

Example: Let $n_{\eta} = 5$ and $C = \{9, 10, 11\}$. Moreover assume that the observed covariate values are $c_0 = 10$, $c_1 = 9$, $c_2 = 11$, $c_3 = 9$ and $c_4 = 10$. Then the covariate file will be as following

 $\begin{array}{ccc}
 0 & 1 \\
 1 & 0 \\
 2 & 2 \\
 3 & 0 \\
 4 & 1
 \end{array}$

We would need also a file storing the values in C:

9 10 11

NOTE: If the covariate value $c^{(i)}$ is not within the indices of the non-linear effect, for example negative, then this covariate is not included in the predictor for the specific η_i .

Graph file The graph file contains information on the neighbourhood structure of the spatial effect We describe the required format for such a file using a small example. Let the file *graph.dat*, relative to a small graph, be

```
1 5
2 0 1 1
3 1 2 0 2
4 2 3 1 3 4
5 3 1 2
6 4 1 2
```

Line 1 declares the total number of nodes in the graph, then, in lines 2-6 each node is described. For example, line 4 states that node 2 has 3 neighbours and these are nodes 1, 3 and 4. This is the same format used in the GMRFLib library.

Q-matrix This entry is only needed if the field model in a ffield-type section is defined as generic0. The entry specify a filename which should contain all non-zero entries of the user specified precision matrix Q in the following format

$$i$$
 j Q_{ij}

where i and j are the row and column index and Q_{ij} is the corresponding entry in the precision matrix.

A.3 Some possible problems and solutions

1. The inla function checks that all entries in the ini file are used while building the models, so an error message like

```
inla_build: [ZAMBIA.ini] contain[1] unused entries. PLEASE CHECK
```

probably means that some of the fields in the ini file have been misspelled.

2. In our experience the most common problems with the inla function comes from the optimisation procedure and the numerical computation of the Hessian of $\log \tilde{\pi}(\theta|y)$ at the modal configuration.

The optimiser might not converge, thus producing an error message like:

```
GMRFLib version 3.0-0-snapshot, has received error no [12]

Reason : The Newton-Reason optimiser did not converge
Function : GMRFLib_optimize_store
File : optimize.c
Line : 460

RCSId : $Id: tutorial_inla.tex,v 1.69 2009/08/08 09:38:28 hrue Exp $
```

Usually restarting the inla function assigning different starting values for the hyperparameters vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ (field *initial*), will solve the problem.

3. Another error which might happen is that the computed numerical Hessian for $\log \widetilde{\pi}(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{y})$ in not positive definite. This produces the following error message:

```
GMRFLib version 3.0-0-snapshot, has received error no [2]
Reason : Matrix is not positive definite

Message : Condition 'gsl_vector_get(eigen_values, (unsigned int) i) > 0.0' is not TRUE

Function : GMRFLib_ai_INLA

File : approx-inference.c

Line : 2689

RCSId : $Id: tutorial_inla.tex,v 1.69 2009/08/08 09:38:28 hrue Exp $
```

To solve this problem it is usually enough to increase the step length used to numerically compute the Hessian and the gradient. These quantities can be re-defined in the type=INLA section by using the parameter h which set $gradient_finite_difference_step_len=h$ and $hessian_finite_difference_step_len=\sqrt{(h)}$. Otherwise, set the two parameters $gradient_finite_difference_step_len$ and $hessian_finite_difference_step_len$.

B Some Distribution Functions

B.1 Log Gamma distribution

A random variable X has a LogGamma distribution with parameters a and b (LogGamma(a,b))) if $Y = \exp(X)$ has a Gamma distribution with mean a/b and variance a/b^2 .

B.2 Scaled Student-t distribution

A scaled Student-t distribution is a Student-t distribution with ν degrees of freedom scaled so that its mean is 0 and its variance is 1 for any value of the parameter ν .

B.3 NIG distribution

A random variable X is said to have a standardised normal inverse Gaussian distribution $NIG(\beta, \psi)$ with hyperparameters $\theta_1 = (\beta, psi)$ if its density is given by

$$f(y; \boldsymbol{\theta}_1) = \frac{\gamma \psi}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\beta^2 + \psi^2}{(\gamma x + \beta)^2 + \psi^2}} \exp\left(\psi^2 + \beta(\gamma x + \beta)\right) K_1\left(\sqrt{(\beta^2 + \psi^2)((\gamma x + \beta)^2 + \psi^2)}\right)$$

where $\gamma^2 = 1 + \beta^2/\psi^2$. The above density has zero mean and unit variance. The parameter β controls (essentially) the skewness of the density, while the parameter ψ is (essentially) a shape parameter. This density is used in financial applications.

B.4 Weibull distribution

A random variable Y has a Weibull distribution with parameters α and γ if its density function is given by

$$f(y; \alpha, \gamma) = \alpha y^{\alpha - 1} \exp\{\log \gamma - \gamma y^{\alpha}\}\$$

The survival function is then:

$$S(y; \alpha, \gamma) = 1 - \int_0^y f(u; \alpha, \gamma) \ du = \exp(-\gamma \ y^{\alpha})$$

and hazard rate function:

$$h(y;\alpha,\lambda) = \alpha \ y^{\alpha-1} \ \gamma$$

Model	Model		
Type	Name	Parameters	Reference
Independent random noise	iid	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	
Random Walk of order 1	rw1	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	(Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 3.3.1)
Random Walk of order 2	rw2	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	(Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 3.4.1)
First order Intrinsic GMRF on a irregular lattice	besag	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	(Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 3.3.2)
Continuous random walk	crw2	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	(Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 3.5)
Autoregressive of order 1 $x_t = \phi x_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$	ar1	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{log-precision} \operatorname{log} \lambda_f \\ \kappa = \operatorname{logit} \frac{\phi + 1}{2} \end{array}$	(Rue and Held, 2005, Ch. 1.1)
User defined precision matrix	generic0	log-precision $\log \lambda_f$	(see Example 6)
Bivariate correlated noise	2 diid	$\begin{array}{c} \log \text{-precision} \log \lambda_{\mu} \\ \log \text{-precision} \log \lambda_{\nu} \\ \text{correlation} \ \rho^{*} \end{array}$	(see Example 4)
Bivariate correlated noise	2 diidwishart	$\begin{array}{c} \log \text{-precision} \log \lambda_{\mu} \\ \log \text{-precision} \log \lambda_{\nu} \\ \text{correlation} \ \rho^{*} \end{array}$	(see Example 4)
Bivariate correlated noise	2 diidwishartpart0	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{log-precision} \operatorname{log} \lambda_{\mu} \\ \operatorname{log-precision} \operatorname{log} \lambda_{\nu} \\ \operatorname{correlation} \rho^{*} \end{array}$	(see Example 4)
Bivariate correlated noise	2 diidwishartpart1	$\begin{array}{c} \operatorname{log-precision} \operatorname{log} \lambda_{\mu} \\ \operatorname{log-precision} \operatorname{log} \lambda_{\nu} \\ \operatorname{correlation} \rho^{*} \end{array}$	(see Example 4)

Table 5: The most common models for the type = ffield section implemented in the inla program; The one not mention here is the 3diid-Wishart model described in Section 3.4.5.

Hyperparameter	Prior distribution	Default param
Log-Precision $\log \lambda_f$	LogGamma(a, b)	
v		
κ (only for AR1)	$\mathcal{N}(0, 1/prec_k)$	$\operatorname{prec}_k = 0.001$

Table 6: Prior distributions for the hyperparameters