Spatial Statistics

PM569 Lecture 7: Areal Data 1

Meredith Franklin

Division of Biostatistics, University of Southern California

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- ▶ Data referenced at an aggregate level.
- ▶ Areal "units" are generally irregular geographic areas, and in spatial analysis we have a collection of areal units. The value we are interested in within one areal unit is presumed to be constant.
- Common areal data are census data (blocks, tracts, counties, states), zip codes.
- ▶ We often have shapefiles to deal with, as they are used for collections of polygons.

Areal Data: Example

Cause-specific Mortality Rates by County



https://projects.fivethirtyeight.com/mortality-rates-united-states/

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Areal Data: Example

- ► The National Institutes of Health Metrics and Evaluation conducted a spatial analysis of these data (on a national level) https://jamanetwork.com/journals/jama/fullarticle/2592499.
- ▶ They used conditional autoregressive models (Bayesian).
- ▶ Revealed regional and local variations in causes of death.

	COUNTY	STATE	1	. 2k	1	. 3	1	4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1
1	Union	Florida					Un	certe	inty	0		
2	Buffalo	South Dakota								0		
3	Oglala Lakota	South Dakota								0		
4	Sioux	North Dakota								0		
5	Breathitt	Kentucky						0				
6	Owsley	Kentucky						0				
7	Todd	South Dakota						0				
8	Perry	Kentucky						0				
9	Powell	Kentucky					0					
10	Mingo	West Virginia					0					
11	Wolfe	Kentucky					0					
12	McDowell	West Virginia					0					
13	Leslie	Kentucky				0						
14	Lee	Kentucky				0						
15	Walker	Alabama				0						
16	Harlan	Kentucky				0						
17	Tunica	Mississippi				0						
18	Madison	Louisiana			-							
19	Clay	Kentucky			0							
20	Logan	West Virginia			0							

Counties with highest estimated mortality rates, 2014

Link between geostatistical/point referenced and areal data

- ► For geostatistical/point referenced data, we use functions of distance to estimate the variogram/covariance that defines spatial relationships.
- ► Geostatistical prediction involves using fitted covariance functions (kriging), spatial interpolation, or basis spline smoothing.
- ▶ For areal data, we use neighbour information to define spatial relationships.

Link between geostatistical/point referenced and areal data

- ▶ In general, areal units are irregular (e.g. zip code, county) but methods may also apply to regular grids.
- ▶ We care about how areal units connect to each other.
- We will see some analogies between geostatistical data and areal data. Sometimes geostatistical methods are used for areal data prediction, but autoregressive models employing neighbourhood information are more commonly used.
- ▶ We will use the R package spdep() for areal data analysis.

Areal Data: Inferential issues with areal data

Is there a spatial pattern?

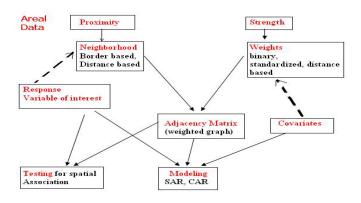
- Spatial pattern suggest that areal observations close to each other have more similar values than those far from each other.
- ► You might think that there is a pattern through visualization, but this is often subjective.
- ▶ Independent measurements will have no pattern, and would look completely random, but there may actually be an underlying pattern.
- ▶ If there is a spatial pattern, how strong is it?

Areal Data: Analyses

- Response of interest Y_i measured in block or areal unit B_i
- ▶ The B_i are supplemented with neighbourhood information (distance between B_i and B_j , area of B_i , boundary/edge connections)
- ► Areal data analysis involves:
 - Representation of spatial proximity in areal data using weighted graphs
 - Testing for spatial pattern: Global testing using Morans I or Gearys C statistic
 - Testing for spatial pattern: Local testing using local Moran's I or Getis-Ord G* statistic
 - Modeling spatial pattern for prediction and inference: autoregressive models including Simultaneous Autoregressive (SAR) models and Conditional Autoregressive (CAR) models

Areal Data: Flowchart

How we analyze areal data



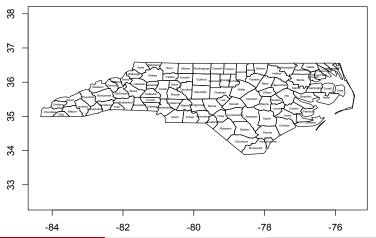
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Areal Data Example: SIDS

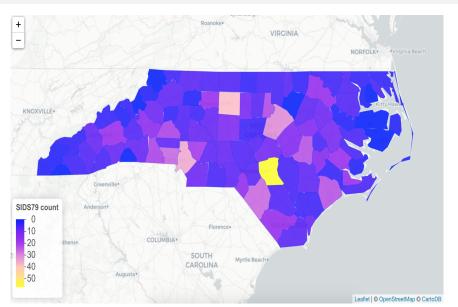
- ▶ Data for 100 counties in North Carolina
- Includes counts of live births and sudden infant deaths for two periods: July 1974-June 1978 and July 1979-June 1984.
- ▶ SIDS is defined as sudden death of infant up to 12 months old.
- Risk factors include race, SES, physiologic (respiratory, sleep rate, cardiac function)
- ▶ The primary analysis here is not only to see how often SIDS occurs, but where and if there are clusters or spatial patterns.

Areal Data Example: SIDS

Sudden Infant Deaths in North Carolina



Areal Data Example: SIDS



- \blacktriangleright We represent proximity between areal units (blocks, B_i) using connected graphs
- ► Adjacency matrix (proximity matrix) is denoted W
- ▶ The entries of W are w_{ij} and are called weights
- ▶ The w_{ij} connect different values of the process $Y_1,...,Y_n,\ i=1,...,n$ in some fashion
- ightharpoonup Generally w_{ii} is set to zero

Examples of weights

- Border based (edge connections): areal units are neighbours if they share a border
 - $w_{ij} = 1$ if i and j share common boundary
- 2. Distance based: areal units are neighbours if they are within a distance of ϵ of each other
 - $w_{ij} = 1$ if the centroid of i is distance ϵ (ex. 25km) of the centroid of j
 - $w_{ij} = 1$ if j is the nearest neighbour (smallest ϵ) of i
 - $w_{ij}=1$ if j is one of the k nearest neighbours of i, e.g. the two and three closest areal units j to i are the k=2 and k=3 nearest neighbors of i. This will result in multiple neighbours for each i

- Distance can be defined several ways:
 - Euclidean distance (or driving distance or driving time, etc) between centroids (straight line path)
 - Mean driving distance, mean driving time, walking distance, etc. (transit path, not necessarily a straight line)
- ▶ The connections between blocks can be examined using a connected graph

Border/Edge based, binary connectivity. Two areal units are neighbours if they share a border

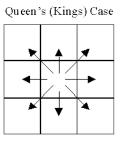
$$w_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \quad \text{if i and j share a boundary} \\ 0 & \quad \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

Where $w_{ij} = w_{ji}$ (symmetric)

Border/Edge Connectivity

Rooks Case

Bishops Case

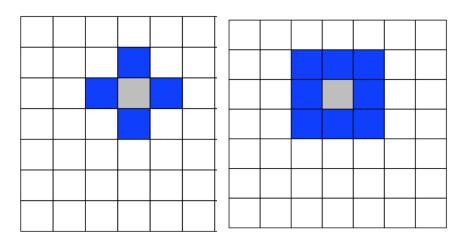


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Queen a single shared boundary point means they are neighbours. Rook requires more than a single shared point to constitute neighbours.

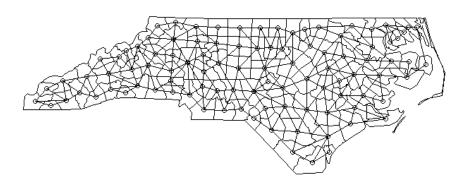
Border/Edge Connectivity



Rook Queen

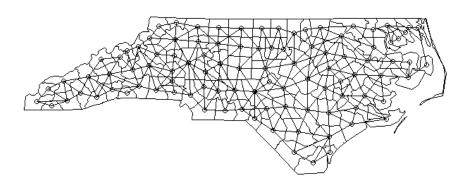
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Border/Edge Connectivity: Rook

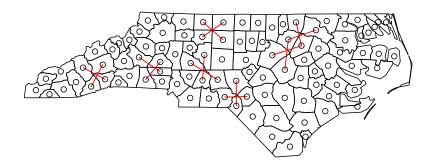


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Border/Edge Connectivity: Queen



Border/Edge Connectivity: Difference Rook-Queen



Fractional borders

$$w_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{l_{ij}}{l_i} & \text{if regions } i \text{ and } j \text{ share a border} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

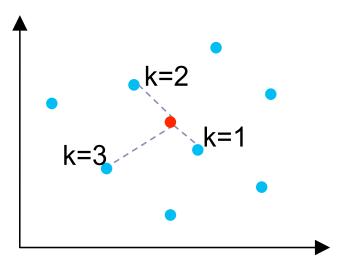
Where l_{ij} is the length of the common border between regions i and j, and l_i is the perimeter of region i.

Neighbour Based

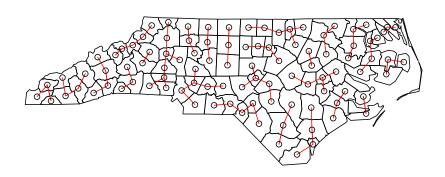
$$w_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \quad \text{if centroid of } j \text{ is a } k \text{ nearest neighbour of } i \\ 0 & \quad \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

Where w_{ij} and w_{ji} not necessarily symmetric

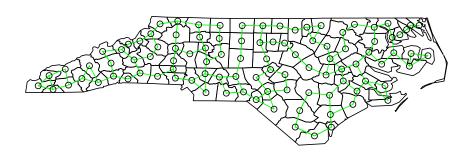
k Nearest Neighbours (kNN)



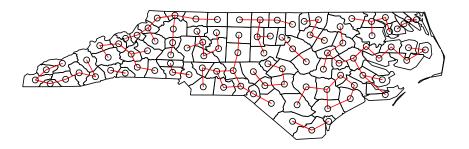
Neighbour Based: 1NN



Neighbour Based: 2NN



Neighbour Based: Difference Between 1NN and 2NN



Distance Based

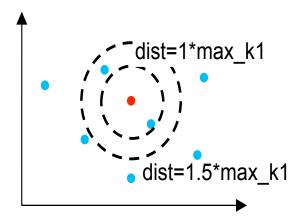
$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } d_{ij} < \epsilon \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For some specified distance threshold ϵ Alternatively,

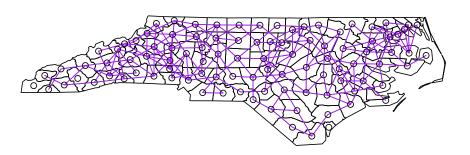
$$w_{ij} = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} d_{ij}^{-
ho} & ext{if }
ho > 0 \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{array}
ight.$$

For some power, ρ (recall idw)

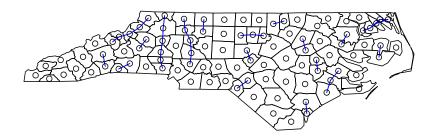
Distance based neighbours, ϵ



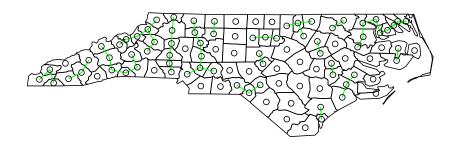
Distance based neighbours, ϵ between 1 and 1.5 times maximum kNN distance



Distance based neighbours, $\epsilon = 30 \mathrm{km}$ (i.e. counties connected if 30 km or less apart)

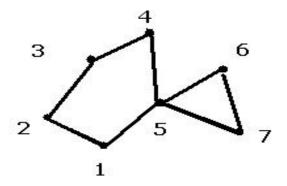


Distance based neighbours, ϵ between 10 and 30km



Areal Data: Adjacency

Creating the adjacency matrix from connectivity graphs



Neighbours

```
1 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 5 | 5 |
```

Areal Data: Weights and the Adjacency Matrix

- lacktriangle The adjacency matrix, W is a matrix of neighbours where elements are weights w_{ij}
- ► Once our list of neighbours (fixed distance or kNN) has been created, we assign spatial weights to each relationship
- ► Can be binary or variable
- \blacktriangleright Even when the values are binary 0/1, there is the issue of what to do with no-neighbour observations arises
- ▶ Binary weighting will assign a value of 1 to neighboring features and 0 to all other features

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Areal Data: Weights and the Adjacency Matrix

Binary weights

- ▶ Binary weights vary the influence of observations
- ▶ Those with many neighbours are up-weighted compared to those with few

Areal Data: Weights and the Adjacency Matrix

Row standardization is used to create proportional weights in cases where features have an unequal number of neighbors

- Row-standardized weights increase the influence of links from observations with few neighbours
- ► Divide each neighbour weight for a feature by the sum of all neighbour weights
- ▶ Obs i has 3 neighbours, each has a weight of 1/3
- ▶ Obs j has 2 neighbours, each has a weight of 1/2
- Use is you want comparable spatial parameters across different data sets with different connectivity structures

0	1	0	0
0	0	0.5	0.5
0.5	0.5	0	0
0	0.33	0.33	0.33

Areal Data: Weight matrix

Binary weight matrix

Areal Data: Weight matrix

Row standardized weight matrix

0	0.5	0	0	0.5	0	0
0.5	0	0.5	0	0	0	0
0	0.5	0	0.5	0	0	0
0	0	0.5	0	0.5	0	0
0.25	0	0	0.25	0	0.25	0.25
0	0	0	0	0.5	0	0.5
0	0	0	0	0.5	0.5	0

Areal Data: Spatial Smoothers

We can use the block values and weight matrices to obtain a smooth value for each region by taking *locally weighted averages*

- ▶ If we have a measure of Y_i , such as the SIDS rate in county i, we can get a rough estimate of what it could be predicted as from it's j neighbours
- lacktriangle Essentially, we replace Y_i with \hat{Y}_i where

$$\hat{Y}_i = \frac{1}{\sum_j w_{ij}} \sum_j w_{ij} Y_j$$

- ▶ The "new" \hat{Y}_i is a function of it's spatial neighbours j
- ► This smooths things out because the areal units look more like their neighbours

Areal Data: Spatial Similarity

- ▶ We want to summarize similarity between nearby areal units
- Spatial autocorrelation is the the correlation of the same measurement taken at different areal units
- ▶ The similarity of values at locations B_i and B_j are weighted by the proximity of i and j
- ▶ The weight w_{ij} defines proximity

Measuring strength of association

- ► We want to measure how strong observations from nearby areal units are more or less alike than those that are farther apart
- ▶ We also want to decide whether the similarity (or dissimilarity) is strong enough that it is not due to chance
- ► For example:
 - \bullet Let Y_i be the response at the ith areal unit, B_i and Y_j be the response at the jth areal unit, B_j
 - Let sim_{ij} be a measure of how similar (or dissimilar) the responses are at areal units B_i and B_j
 - \bullet Let $w_{\it ij}$ be a measure of the spatial proximity between areal units $B_{\it i}$ and $B_{\it j}$
- lackbox We can define a general statistic by the cross product of the ${\sf sim}_{ij}$ matrix and ${\sf w}_{ij}$ matrix

Example con't:

Y=

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

define
$$\mbox{sim}_{ij} = (Y_i - Y_j)^2$$
 and

$$w_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \quad \text{if } i \text{ and } j \text{ share a boundary} \\ 0 & \quad \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

Example con't:

W =

Find pairwise similarity from Y and take the cross product to get $\mathbf{C} = \sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} sim_{ij}$

Example con't

- ▶ If C is small that means similarity between neighbours is high and we have positive spatial autocorrelation
- ▶ If C is large that means there is little similarity between neighbours

Measuring strength of association

▶ In general the extent of similarity is represented by the weighted average of similarity between areal units:

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

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

Indexes of spatial autocorrelation

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

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

Moran's I

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

Moran's I

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

Moran's I

- ► Moran's I is similar to Pearson's correlation but it is not bounded on [-1,1] because of the spatial weights
- ightharpoonup Null hypothesis: NO spatial association, i.e. y_i iid
- ► Compare the z-score to a standard normal distribution
- The z-score that we compare to the standard normal is $z=\frac{I-E(I)}{\sqrt{Var(I)}}$ where $E(I)=-\frac{1}{n-1}$ and V(I) is a little complicated (shown later)
- ▶ In R use moran.test in library(spdep). We look at Moran's I standard deviate (which is N(0,1) so comared to z-value) and associated p-value.

Moran's I in R using North Carolina SIDS data

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

Moran's I in R using North Carolina SIDS data

Result:

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

Moran I statistic standard deviate = 2.4465, p-value = 0.007213 alternative hypothesis: greater

Sample Estimates:

Moran I statistic Expectation Variance 0.214682382 -0.010101010 0.008442014

The null hypothesis of no spatial correlation is rejected.

Geary's c

- ▶ Geary (1954) devides the contiguity ratio or Geary's c
- Similarity $sim_{ij} = (y_i y_j)^2$
- ▶ If regions i and j have similar values, sim_{ij} wil be small
- $c = \frac{n-1}{2\sum_{i}(y_{i}-\bar{y})^{2}} \frac{\sum_{i}\sum_{j}w_{ij}(y_{i}-y_{j})^{2}}{\sum_{i}\sum_{j}w_{ij}}$
- \blacktriangleright Like Moran's it is a weighted average, but here it is scaled by a measure of the overall variation around the mean, \bar{y}

Geary's c

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

Geary's c in R using North Carolina SIDS data

```
# Define neighbours. Choose k=2 NN
IDs<-row.names(as(nc, "data.frame"))
sids.kn2<-knn2nb(knearneigh(coordinates(nc), k=2, RANN=FALSE),
row.names=IDs)

# Convert to weight matrix (row standardized)
sids.kn2.w<-nb2listw(sids.kn2, style="W")

# Use geary.test for Geary's c
gearySIDS<-geary.test(sids79.rate,sids.kn2.w)</pre>
```

Geary's c in R using North Carolina SIDS data

Result:

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

Geary C statistic standard deviate = 1.6166, p-value = 0.05299 alternative hypothesis: Expectation greater than statistic sample estimates:

Geary C statistic Expectation Variance

0.83688116 1.00000000 0.01018165

We have a marginal p-value for positive spatial autocorrelation (Geary C closer to 0 (neg spatial) than 2 (pos spatial).