Interpolation and Autocorrelation

HES 505 Fall 2022: Session 17

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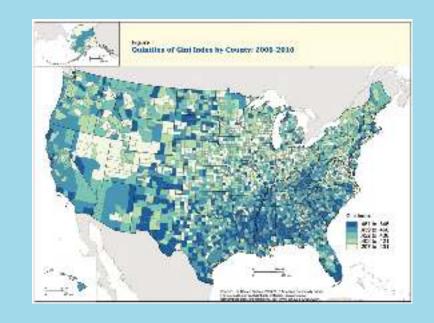
Objectives

By the end of today you should be able to:

- Distinguish deterministic and stochastic processes
- Define autocorrelation and describe its estimation
- Articulate the benefits and drawbacks of autocorrelation
- Leverage point patterns and autocorrelation to interpolate missing data

Description vs. process?

- Vizualization and the detection of patterns
- The challenge of geographic data
- Implications for analysis



Inequality in the United States: Quintiles of Gini Index by County: 2006–2010. The greater the Gini index, the more unequal a county's income distribution is.

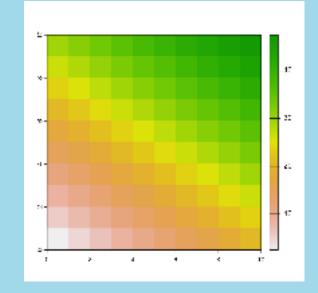
Patterns as realizations of spatial processes

- A **spatial process** is a description of how a spatial pattern might be *generated*
- Generative models
- An observed pattern as a *possible realization* of an hypothesized process

Deterministic vs. stochastic processes

• Deterministic processes: always produces the same outcome

$$z = 2x + 3y$$



Results in a spatially continuous field

```
1 x <- rast(nrows = 10, ncols=10, xmin = 0, xmax=10,
2 values(x) <- 1
3 z <- x
4 values(z) <- 2 * crds(x)[,1] + 3*crds(x)[,2]</pre>
```

Deterministic vs. stochastic processes

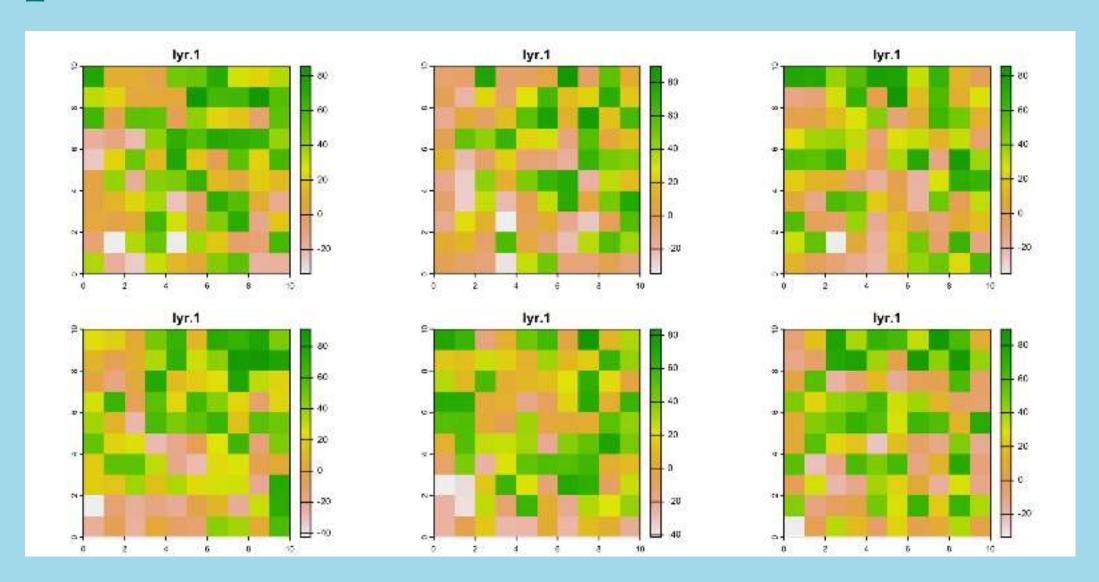
 Stochastic processes: variation makes each realization difficult to predict

$$z = 2x + 3y + d$$

- The *process* is random, not the result (!!)
- Measurement error makes deterministic processes appear stochastic

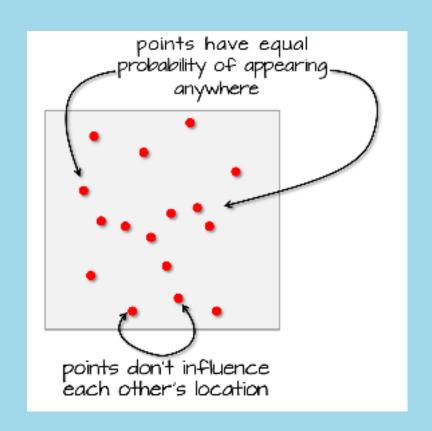
```
1 x <- rast(nrows = 10, ncols=10, xmin = 0,
2 values(x) <- 1
3 fun <- function(z){
4 a <- z
5 d <- runif(ncell(z), -50,50)
6 values(a) <- 2 * crds(x)[,1] + 3*crds(x)[,
7 return(a)
8 }
9
10 b <- replicate(n=6, fun(z=x), simplify=FAI
11 d <- do.call(c, b)</pre>
```

Deterministic vs. stochastic processes



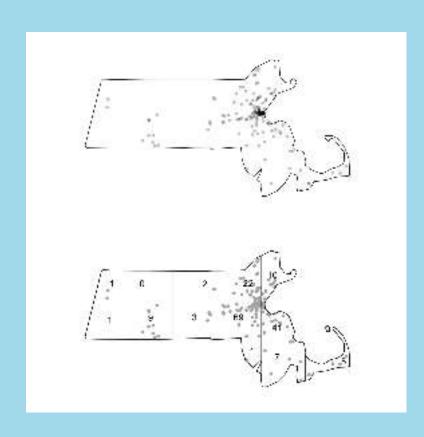
Expected values and hypothesis testing

- Considering each outcome as the realization of a process allows us to generate expected values
- The simplest spatial process is Completely Spatial Random (CSR) process
- First Order effects: any event has an equal probability of occurring in a location
- **Second Order** effects: the location of one event is independent of the other events



From Manuel Gimond

Generating expectations for CSR



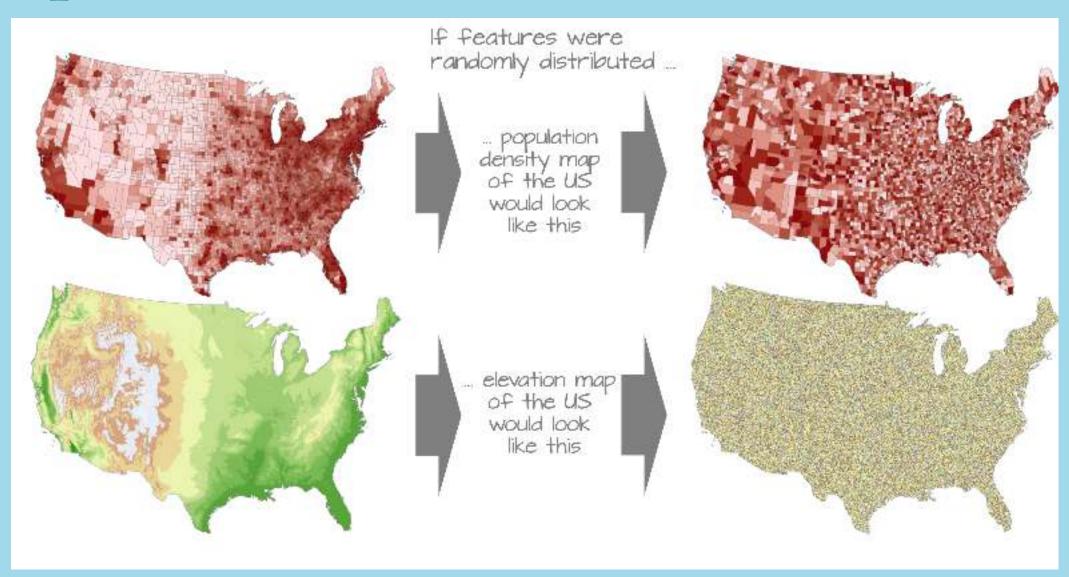
- We can use quadrat counts to estimate the expected number of events in a given area
- The probability of each possible count is given by:
- Given total coverage of quadrats, then and

Tobler's Law

'everything is usually related to all else but those which are near to each other are more related when compared to those that are further away'.

Waldo Tobler

Spatial autocorrelation

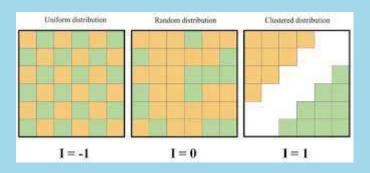


From Manuel Gimond

(One) Measure of autocorrelation

• Moran's I

$$I(d) = \frac{\sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j \neq i}^{n} w_{ij} (x_{i} - \overline{x}) (x_{j} - \overline{x})}{S^{2} \sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j \neq i}^{n} w_{ij}}$$



Moran's I: An example

- Use **spdep** package
- Estimate neighbors
- Generate weighted average

```
1 set.seed(2354)
2 # Load the shapefile
3 s <- readRDS(url("https://github.com/mgimond/Data/raw/gh-pages
4
5 # Define the neighbors (use queen case)
6 nb <- poly2nb(s, queen=TRUE)
7
8 # Compute the neighboring average homicide rates
9 lw <- nb2listw(nb, style="W", zero.policy=TRUE)
10 #estimate Moran's I
11 moran.test(s$HR80,lw, alternative="greater")</pre>
```

```
Moran I test under randomisation

data: s$HR80
weights: lw

Moran I statistic standard deviate = 1.8891, p-value = 0.02944
alternative hypothesis: greater
sample estimates:
Moran I statistic Expectation Variance
0.136277593 -0.015151515 0.006425761
```



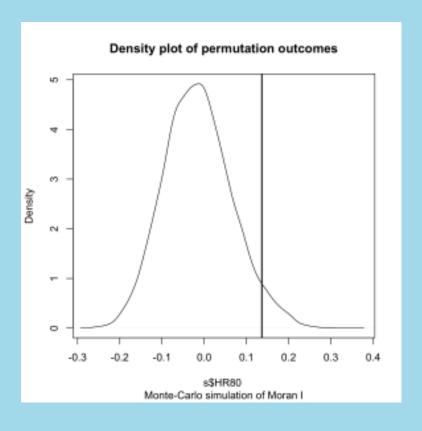
Moran's I: An example

```
1 M1 <- moran.mc(s$HR80, lw, nsim=9999, alte
2
3
4
5 # Display the resulting statistics
6 M1</pre>
```

Monte-Carlo simulation of Moran I

```
data: s$HR80
weights: lw
number of simulations + 1: 10000

statistic = 0.13628, observed rank = 9575, p-
value = 0.0425
alternative hypothesis: greater
```



The challenge of areal data

- Spatial autocorrelation threatens *second order* randomness
- Areal data means an infinite number of potential distances
- Neighbor matrices, , allow different characterizations

Interpolation

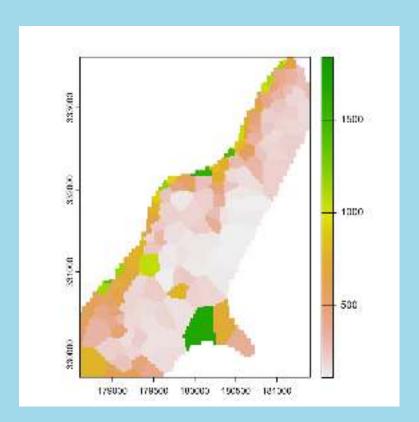
Interpolation

- Goal: estimate the value of at new points in
- Most useful for continuous values
- Nearest-neighbor, Inverse Distance Weighting, Kriging

Nearest neighbor

- find such that is minimized
- The estimate of is

```
1 data(meuse)
 2 r <- rast(system.file("ex/meuse.tif", package="terra"))</pre>
    sfmeuse <- st as sf(meuse, coords = c("x", "y"), crs=crs(r))</pre>
   nodes <- st make grid(sfmeuse,</pre>
                             cellsize = 25.
                             what = "centers")
    dist <- distance(vect(nodes), vect(sfmeuse))</pre>
    nearest <- apply(dist, 1, function(x) which(x == min(x)))
    zinc nn <- sfmeuse$zinc[nearest]</pre>
   preds <- st as sf(nodes)</pre>
   preds$zn <- zinc nn</pre>
   preds <- as(preds, "Spatial")</pre>
   gridded(preds) <- TRUE</pre>
   preds.rast <- rast(preds)</pre>
16 r.resamp <- resample(r, preds.rast)</pre>
17 preds.rast <- mask(preds.rast, r.resamp)</pre>
```

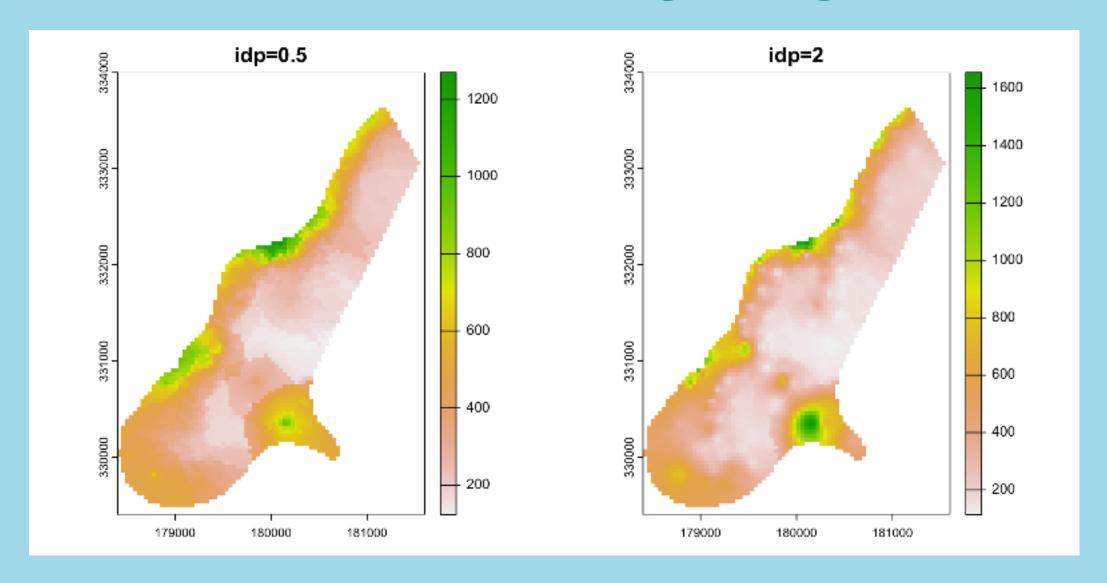


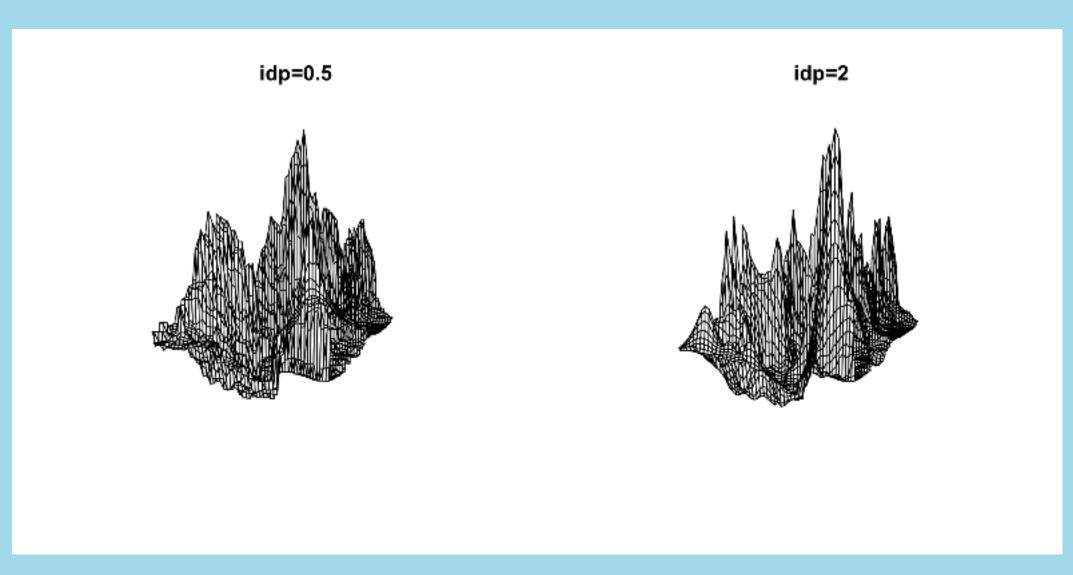
Weight closer observations more heavily

where

and (is inverse; is inverse square)

- terra::interpolate provides flexible interpolation methods
- Use the gstat package to develop the formula





Kriging

- Previous methods predict as a (weighted) function of distance
- Treat the observations as perfect (no error)
- If we imagine that is the outcome of some spatial process such that:

then any observed value of is some function of the process () and some error ()

• Kriging exploits autocorrelation in to identify the trend and interpolate accordingly

Autocorrelation

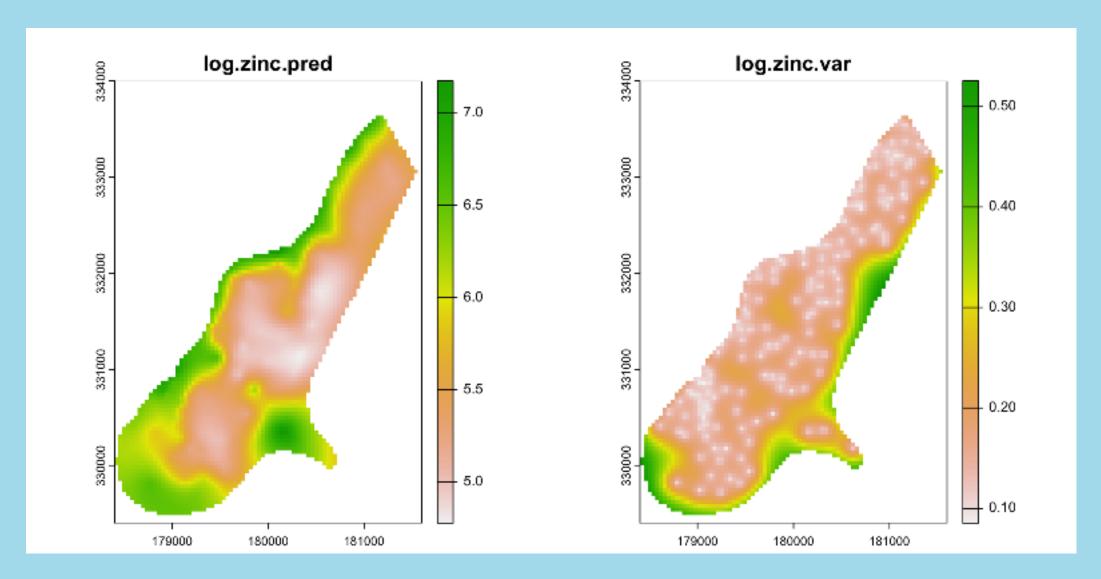
- Correlation the tendency for two variables to be related
- **Autocorrelation** the tendency for observations that are closer (in space or time) to be correlated
- **Positive autocorrelation** neighboring observations have with the same sign
- Negative autocorrelation neighboring observations have with a different sign (rare in geography)

Ordinary Kriging

- Assumes that the deterministic part of the process () is an unknown constant ()
- * Specified in call to variogram and gstat as y~1 (or some other constant)

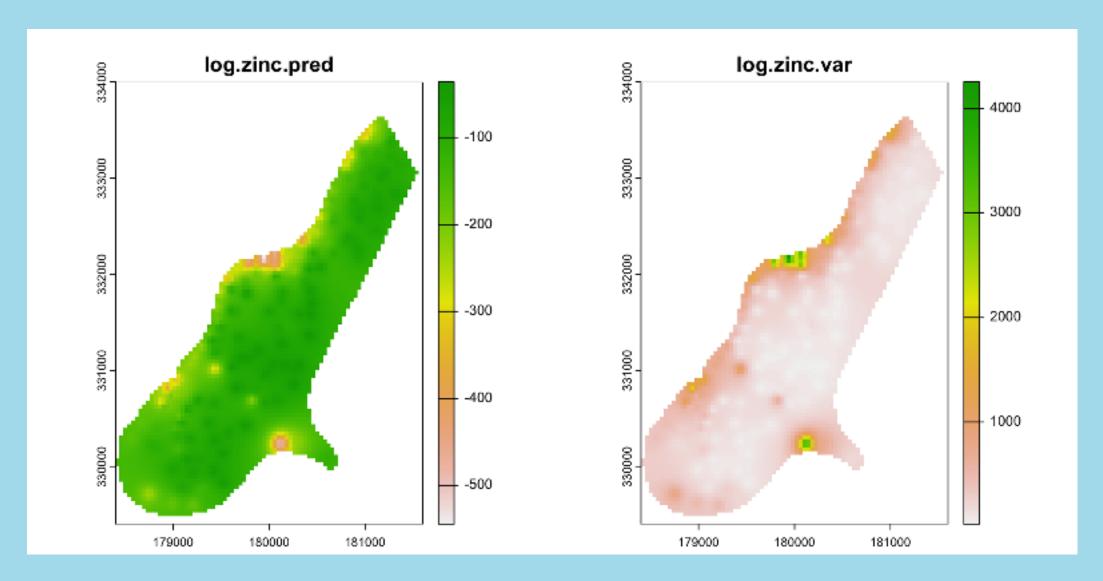
```
1 v <- variogram(log(zinc)~1, ~x+y, data=meuse)
2 mv <- fit.variogram(v, vgm(1, "Sph", 300, 1))
3 gOK <- gstat(NULL, "log.zinc", log(zinc)~1, meuse, locations=~x+y, model=mv
4 OK <- interpolate(r, gOK, debug.level=0)</pre>
```

Ordinary Kriging

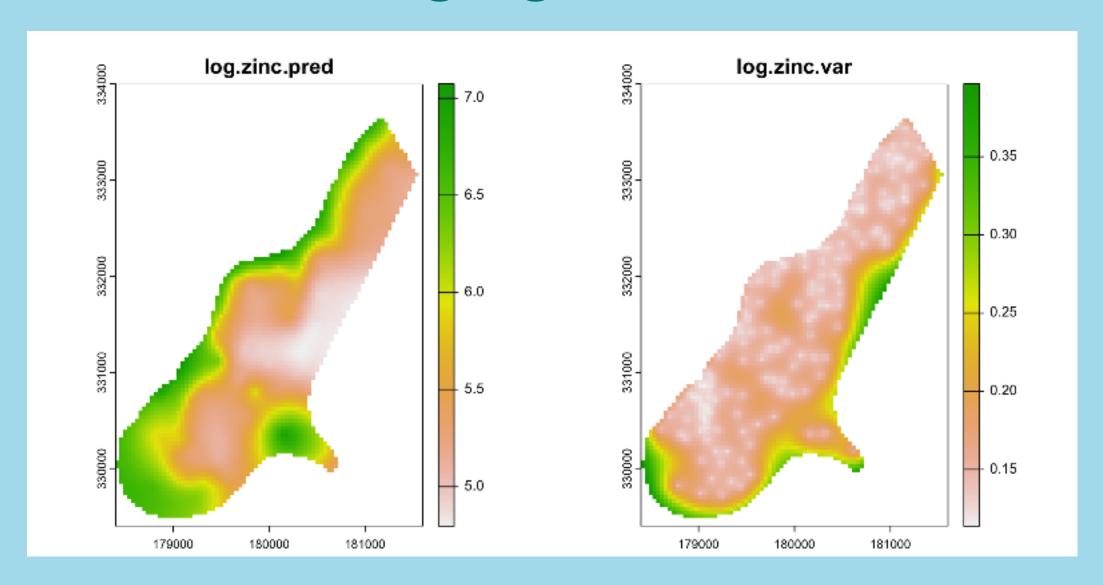


- Assumes that the deterministic part of the process () is now a function of the location
- Could be the location or some other attribute
- Now y is a function of some aspect of x

```
1 vu <- variogram(log(zinc)~elev, ~x+y, data=meuse)
2 mu <- fit.variogram(vu, vgm(1, "Sph", 300, 1))
3 gUK <- gstat(NULL, "log.zinc", log(zinc)~elev, meuse, locations=~x+y, model
4 names(r) <- "elev"
5 UK <- interpolate(r, gUK, debug.level=0)</pre>
```



```
1 vu <- variogram(log(zinc)~x + x^2 + y + y^2, ~x+y, data=meuse)
2 mu <- fit.variogram(vu, vgm(1, "Sph", 300, 1))
3 gUK <- gstat(NULL, "log.zinc", log(zinc)~x + x^2 + y + y^2, meuse, location
4 names(r) <- "elev"
5 UK <- interpolate(r, gUK, debug.level=0)</pre>
```

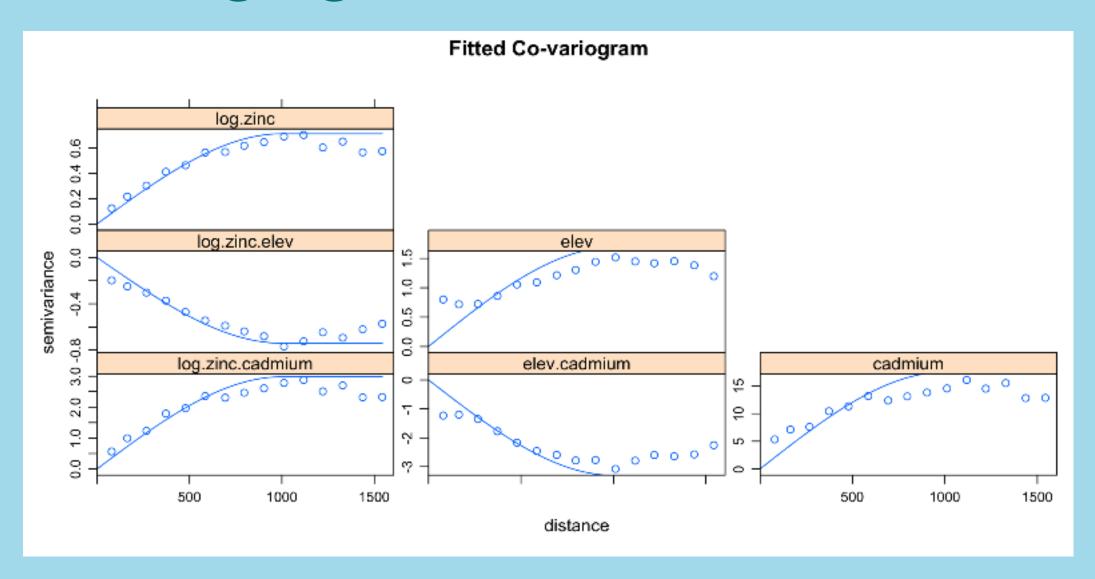


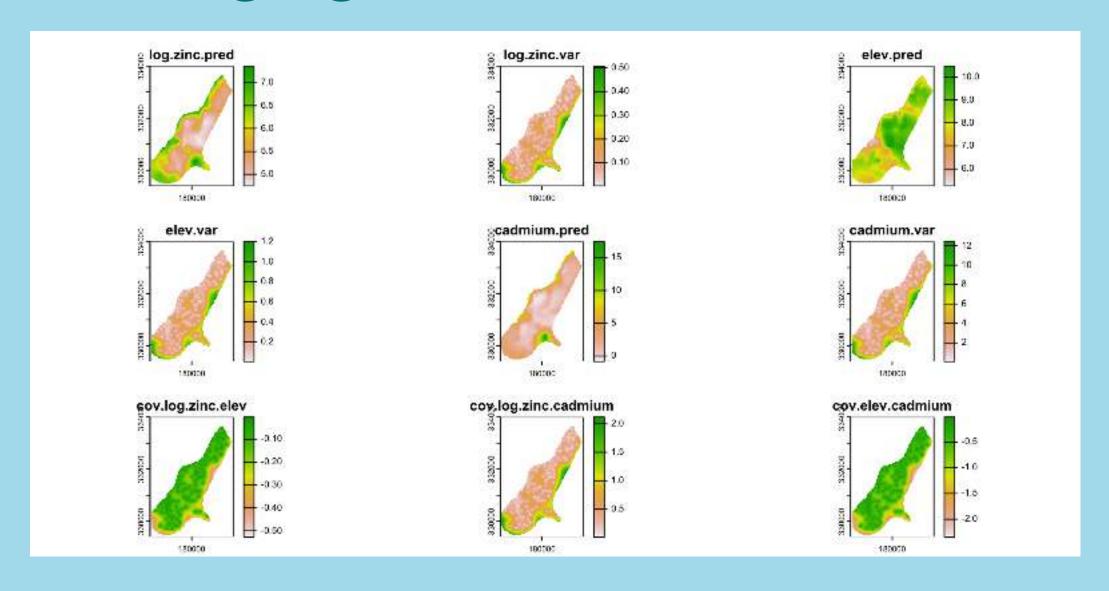
- relies on autocorrelation in for AND cross correlation with other variables ()
- Extending the ordinary kriging model gives:
- * Note that there is autocorrelation within both and (because of the) and cross-correlation (because of the location,)
- Not required that all variables are measured at exactly the same points

• Process is just a linked series of gstat calls

```
gCoK <- gstat(NULL, 'log.zinc', log(zinc)~1, meuse, locations=~x+y)
gCoK <- gstat(gCoK, 'elev', elev~1, meuse, locations=~x+y)
gCoK <- gstat(gCoK, 'cadmium', cadmium~1, meuse, locations=~x+y)
coV <- variogram(gCoK)
coV.fit <- fit.lmc(coV, gCoK, vgm(model='Sph', range=1000))

coK <- interpolate(r, coV.fit, debug.level=0)</pre>
```

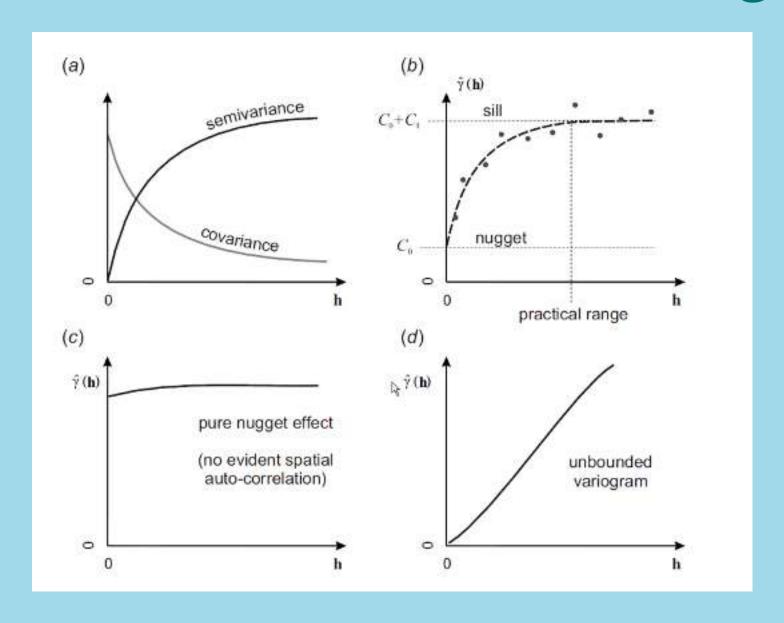




A Note about Semivariograms

- **nugget** the proportion of semivariance that occurs at small distances
- **sill** the maximum semivariance between pairs of observations
- range the distance at which the sill occurs
- experimental vs. fitted variograms

A Note about Semivariograms



Fitted Semivariograms

