# Interpolation and Autocorrelation

HES 505 Fall 2022: Session 17

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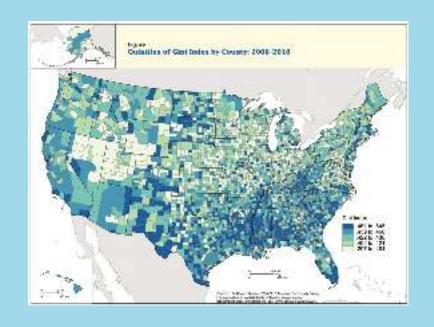
### Objectives

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.

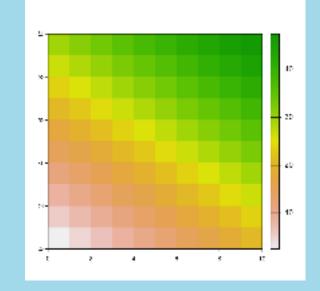
# Patterns as realizations of spatial processes

- 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

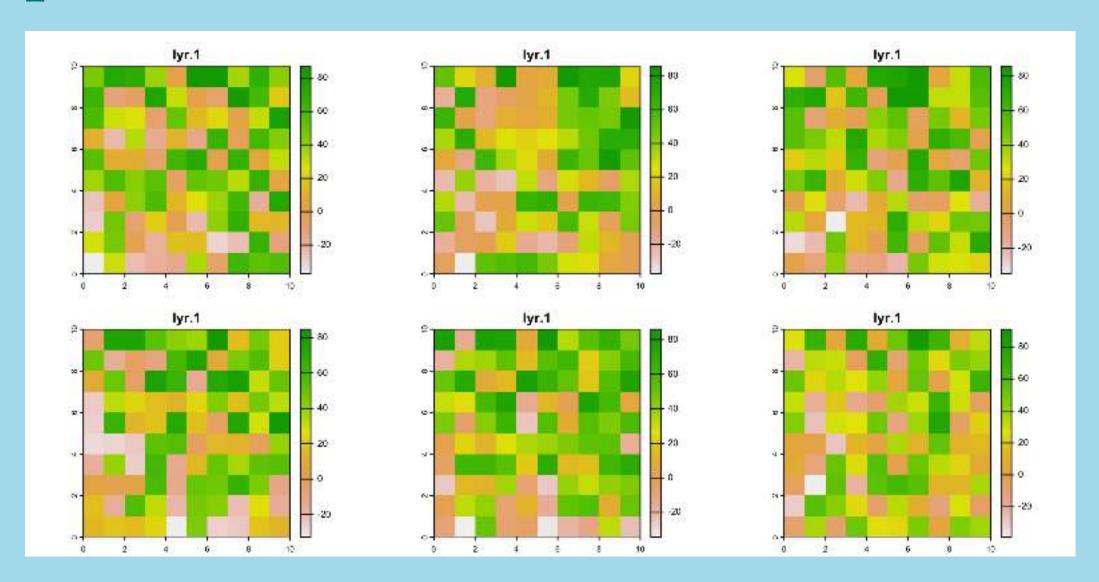
 Stochastic processes: variation makes each realization difficult to predict

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

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

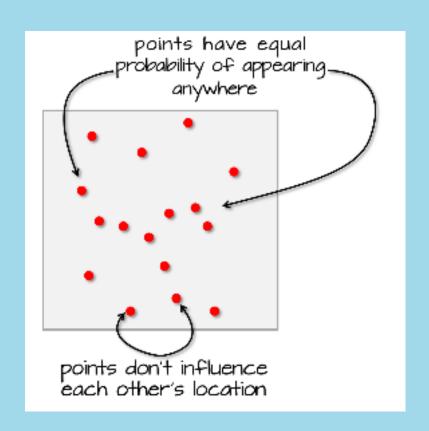
```
1 x <- rast(nrows = 10, ncols=10, xmin = 0,
2 values(x) <- 1
3 fun <- function(z){
4 a <- z
5 d <- runif(ncell(z), -50,50)
6 values(a) <- 2 * crds(x)[,1] + 3*crds(x)[,
7 return(a)
8 }
9
10 b <- replicate(n=6, fun(z=x), simplify=FAI
11 d <- do.call(c, b)</pre>
```

# Deterministic vs. stochastic processes



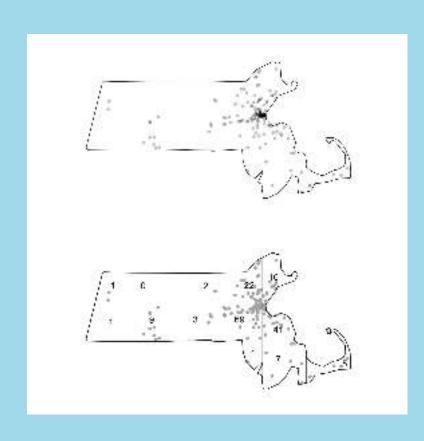
### Expected values and hypothesis testing

- 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:

$$P(n,k) = \binom{n}{x} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

• Given total coverage of quadrats, then  $p = \frac{\frac{\alpha}{x}}{a}$  and

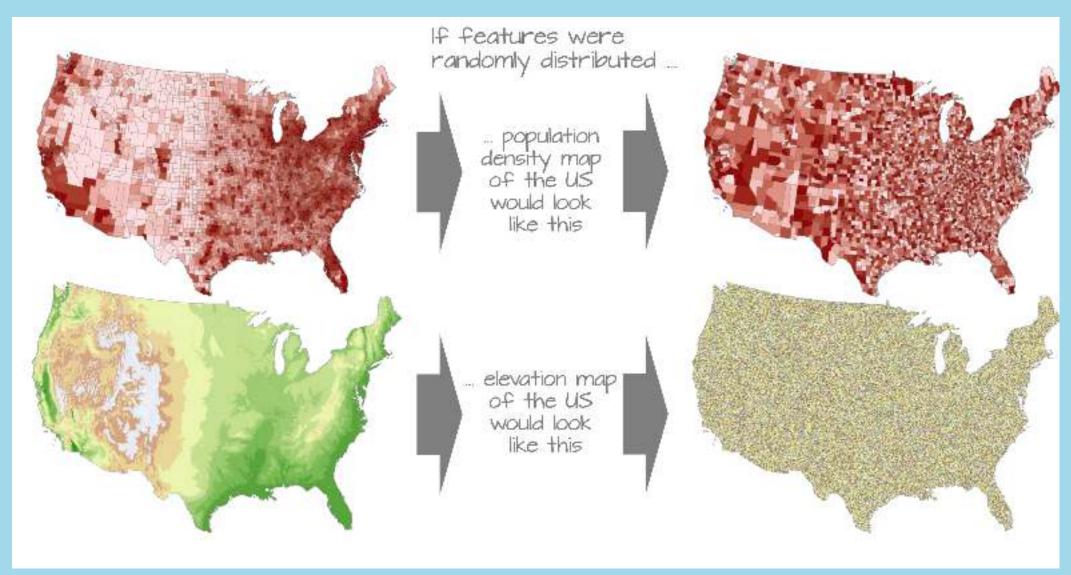
$$P(k, n, x) = {n \choose k} \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^k \left(\frac{x-1}{x}\right)^{n-k}$$

#### 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

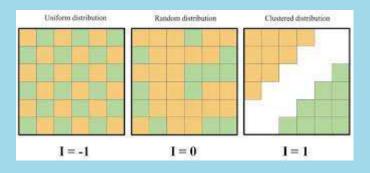


From Manuel Gimond

#### (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
```



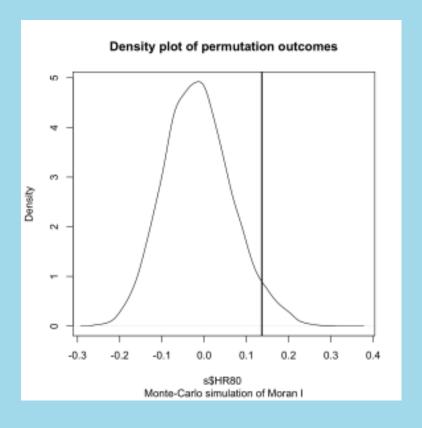
#### Moran's I: An example

```
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
- $\bullet$  Neighbor matrices, W, allow different characterizations

### Interpolation

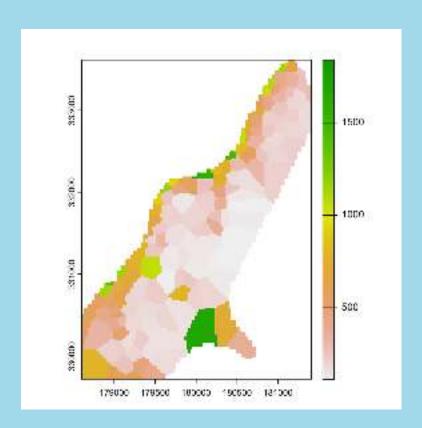
#### Interpolation

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

#### Nearest neighbor

- find i such that  $|\mathbf{x_i} \mathbf{x}|$  is minimized
- The estimate of z is  $z_i$

```
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)))</pre>
    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>
   preds.rast <- mask(preds.rast, r.resamp)</pre>
```



Weight closer observations more heavily

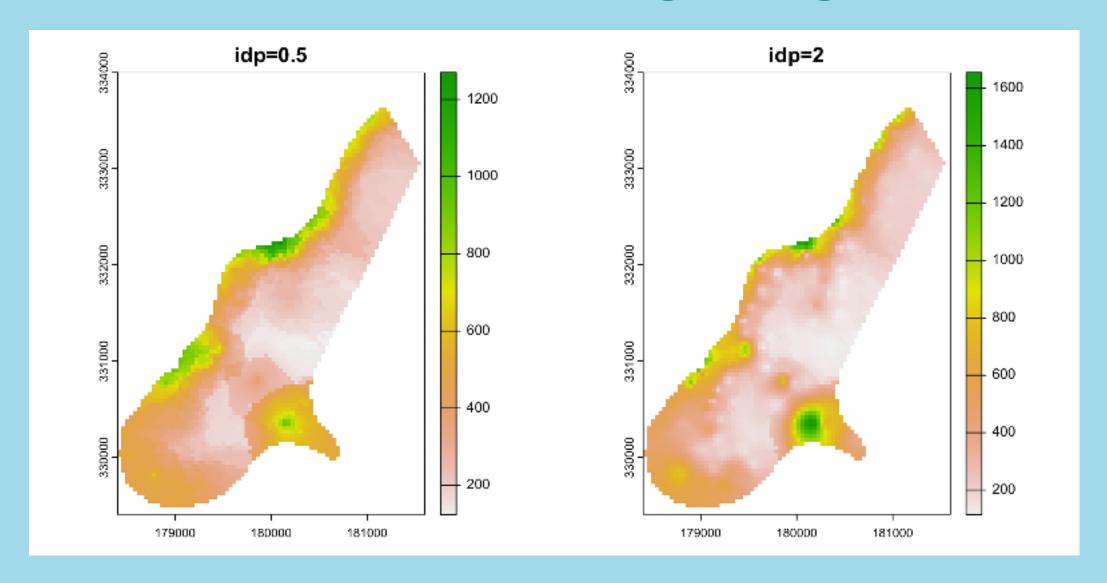
$$\hat{\mathbf{z}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{i=1} \mathbf{w}_i \mathbf{z}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{i=1} \mathbf{w}_i}$$

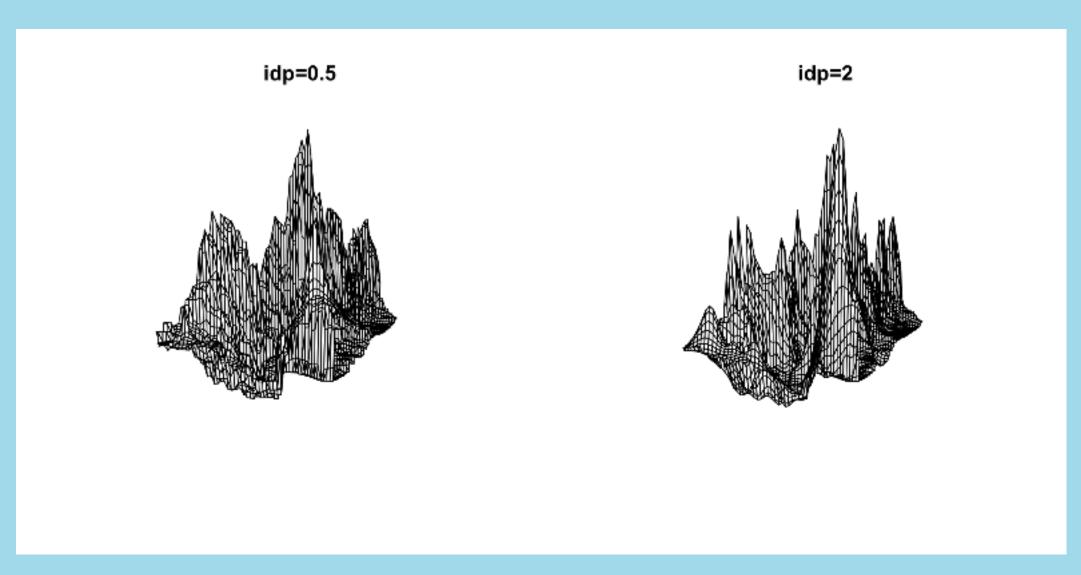
where

$$\mathbf{w}_{i} = |\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{i}|^{-\alpha}$$

and  $\alpha > 0$  ( $\alpha = 1$  is inverse;  $\alpha = 2$  is inverse square)

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





#### Kriging

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

$$z(\mathbf{x}) = \mu(\mathbf{x}) + \epsilon(\mathbf{x})$$

then any observed value of z is some function of the process  $(\mu(\mathbf{x}))$  and some error  $(\epsilon(\mathbf{x}))$ 

• Kriging exploits autocorrelation in  $\epsilon(\mathbf{x})$  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 ε with the same sign
- **Negative autocorrelation** neighboring observations have ε with a different sign (rare in geography)

#### **Ordinary Kriging**

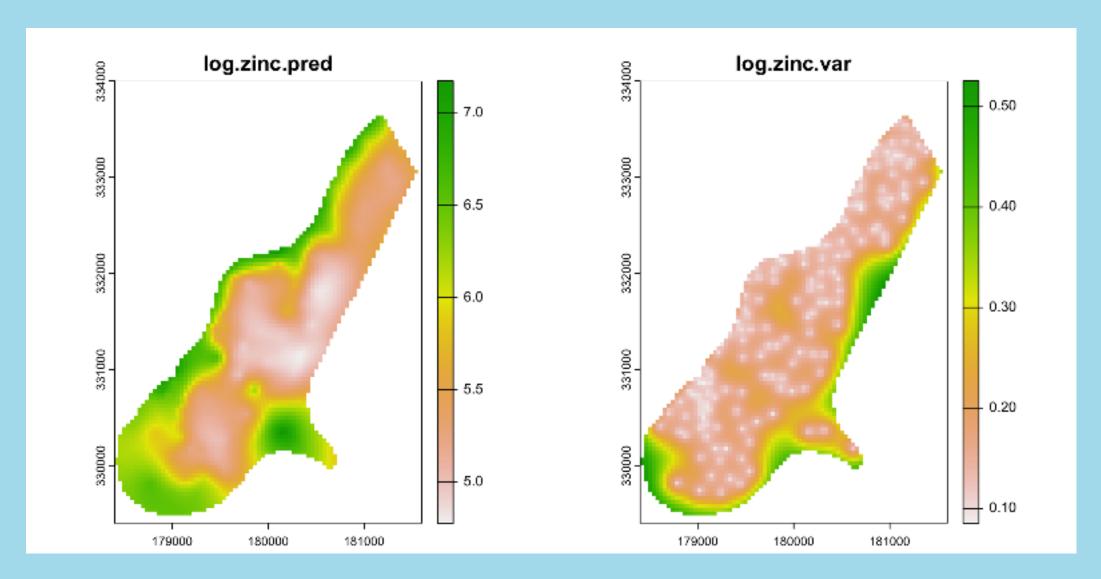
• Assumes that the deterministic part of the process  $(\mu(\mathbf{x}))$  is an unknown constant  $(\mu)$ 

$$z(\mathbf{x}) = \mu + \epsilon(\mathbf{x})$$

\* Specified in call to variogram and gstat as y~1 (or some other constant)

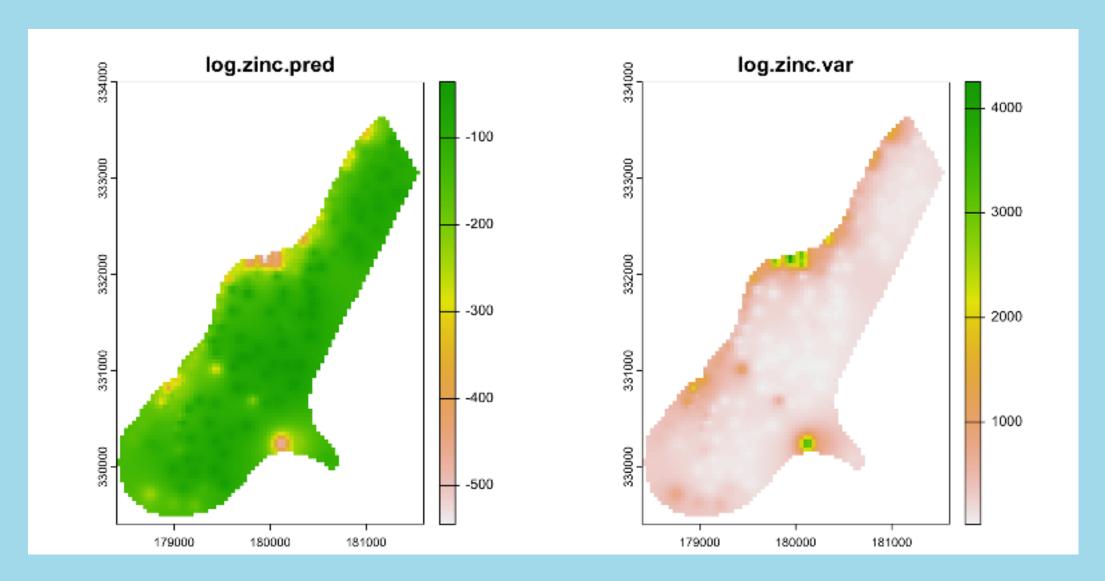
```
1 v <- variogram(log(zinc)~1, ~x+y, data=meuse)
2 mv <- fit.variogram(v, vgm(1, "Sph", 300, 1))
3 gOK <- gstat(NULL, "log.zinc", log(zinc)~1, meuse, locations=~x+y, model=mv
4 OK <- interpolate(r, gOK, debug.level=0)</pre>
```

#### **Ordinary Kriging**

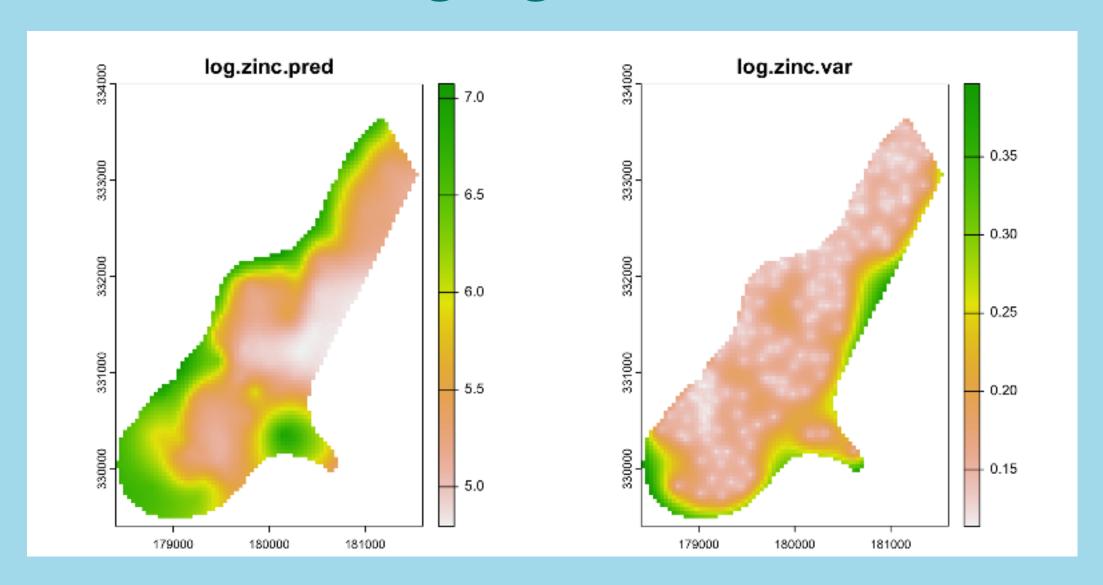


- Assumes that the deterministic part of the process  $(\mu(\mathbf{x}))$  is now a function of the location  $\mathbf{x}$
- Could be the location or some other attribute
- Now y is a function of some aspect of x

```
vu <- variogram(log(zinc)~elev, ~x+y, data=meuse)
mu <- fit.variogram(vu, vgm(1, "Sph", 300, 1))
gUK <- gstat(NULL, "log.zinc", log(zinc)~elev, meuse, locations=~x+y, model
names(r) <- "elev"
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  $\epsilon_1(\mathbf{x})$  for  $\mathbf{z}_1$  AND cross correlation with other variables  $(\mathbf{z}_{2...i})$
- Extending the ordinary kriging model gives:

$$\mathbf{z}_1(\mathbf{x}) = \mu_1 + \epsilon_1(\mathbf{x})$$

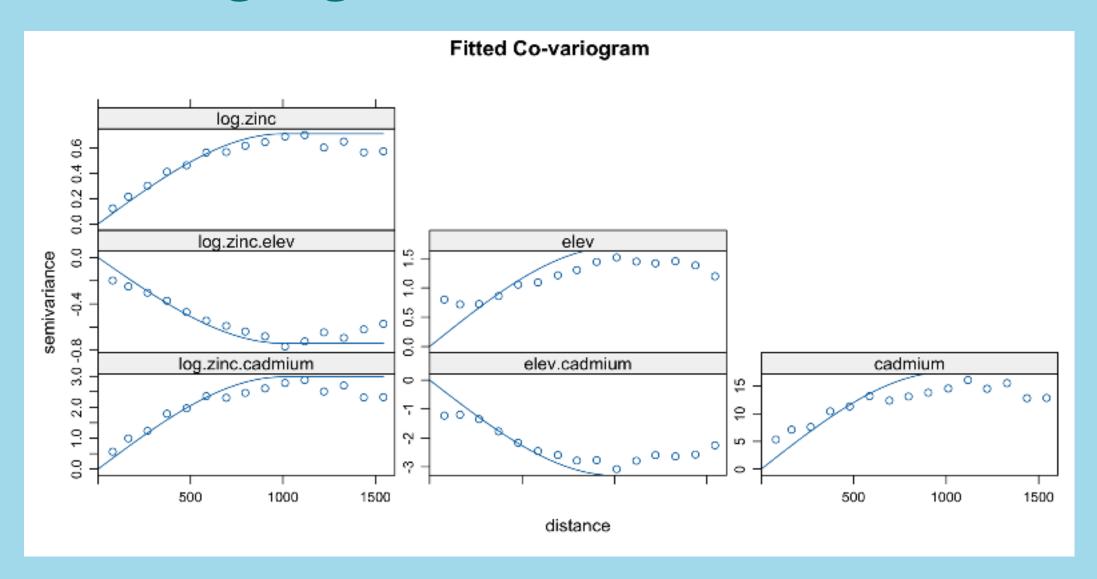
$$\mathbf{z}_2(\mathbf{x}) = \mu_2 + \epsilon_2(\mathbf{x})$$

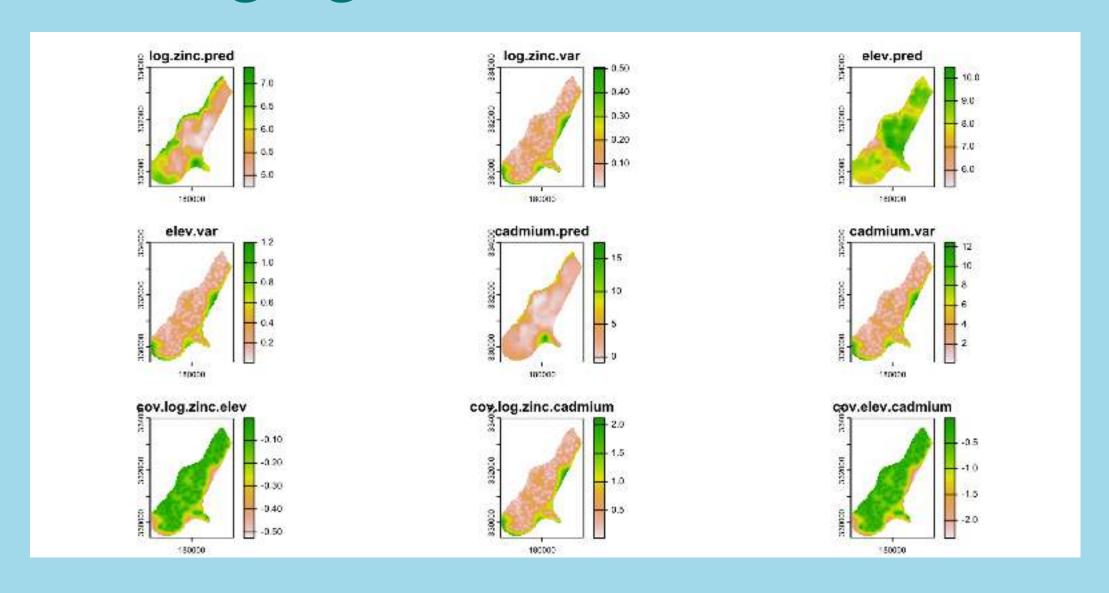
\* Note that there is autocorrelation within both  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  (because of the  $\epsilon$ ) and cross-correlation (because of the location,  $\mathbf{x}$ )

• 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>
```

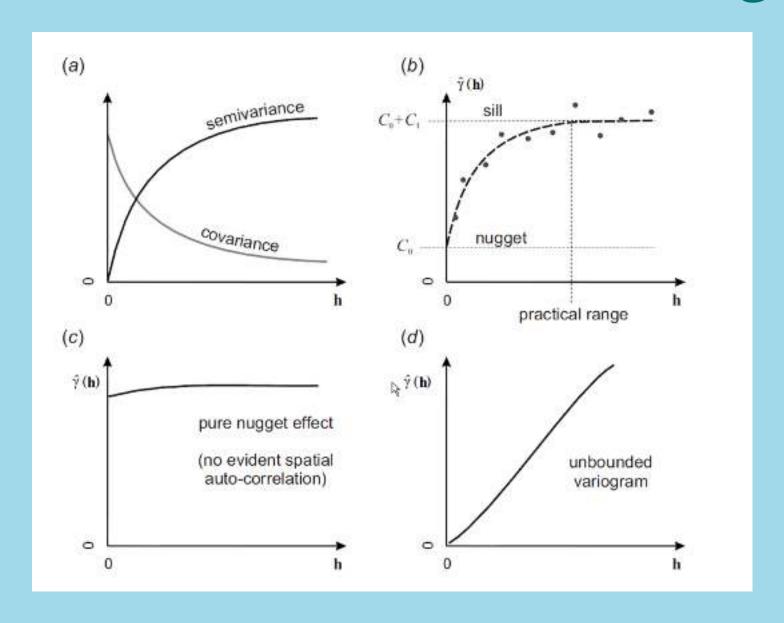




#### A Note about Semivariograms

- **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

