Notes for STAT 5413 - Spatial Statistics

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STAT 5413

These are the lecture notes for STAT 5413 Fall 2020.

Day 1

library(tidyverse)

2.1 Notation

The dimensions of different mathematical objects are very important for the study of spatial statistics. To communicate this, we use the following notation. A scalar random variable is represented by a lowercase alphanumeric letter (x, y, z, etc.), a vector random variable is respresented by a bold lowercase alphanumeric letter $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}, \text{ etc.})$, and a matrix random variable is respresented by a bold uppercase alphanumeric letter $(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{Z}, \text{ etc.})$. We use a similar notation for parameters as well where scalar parameters are represented by a lowercase Greek letter $(\mu, \alpha, \beta, \text{ etc.})$, a vector parameter is respresented by a bold lowercase Greek letter $(\mu, \alpha, \beta, \text{ etc.})$, and a matrix random variable is respresented by a bold uppercase Greek letter $(\Sigma, \Psi, \Gamma, \text{ etc.})$.

2.2 Probability Distributions

We also need notation to explain probability distributions. We use the notation [y] to denote the probability density function p(y) of the random variable y and [y|x] to denote the probability density function p(y|x) of y given x. For example, if y is a Gaussian random variable with mean μ and standard deviation σ we write

$$[y|\mu,\sigma] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(y-\mu)^2\right\}.$$

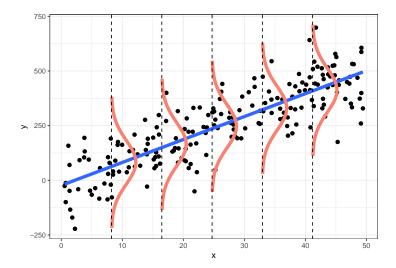
We can also denote that y has a Gaussian (normal) distribution given mean μ and variance σ^2 using the \sim notation

$$y|\mu,\sigma \sim N(\mu,\sigma^2).$$

2.2.1 Example: linear regression

$$\begin{aligned} [y_i|\theta] &\sim \mathrm{N}(X_i\beta,\sigma^2) \\ \theta &= (\beta,\sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

```
## Sample data
set.seed(404)
dat \leftarrow data.frame(x=(x=runif(200, 0, 50)),
                   y=rnorm(200, 10 * x, 100))
## breaks: where you want to compute densities
breaks \leftarrow seq(0, max(dat$x), len=7)[-c(1, 7)]
dat$section <- cut(dat$x, breaks)</pre>
## Get the residuals
dat$res <- residuals(lm(y ~ x, data=dat))</pre>
## Compute densities for each section, and flip the axes, and add means of sections
## Note: the densities need to be scaled in relation to the section size (2000 here)
ys \leftarrow seq(-300, 300, length = 50)
xs \leftarrow rep(breaks, each = 50) + 1000 * dnorm(ys, 0, 100)
res \leftarrow matrix(0, 50, 5)
for (i in 1:5) {
  res[, i] <- 10 * breaks[i] + ys
dens <- data.frame(x = xs, y=c(res),</pre>
                    grouping = cut(xs, breaks))
ggplot(dat, aes(x, y)) +
  geom_point(size = 2) +
  geom_smooth(method="lm", fill=NA, lwd=2, se = FALSE) +
  geom_path(data=dens, aes(x, y, group = grouping),
             color="salmon", lwd=2) +
  theme bw() +
  geom_vline(xintercept=breaks, lty=2)
```



2.3 Hierarchical modeling

- Follow Berliner (1996) framework for hierarchical probability models
- Model encodes our understanding of the scientific process of interest
- Model accounts for as much uncertainty as possible
- Model results in a probability distribution
 - Note: nature may be deterministic often probabilistic models outperform physical models.
 - Example: model individual rain drops vs. probability/intensity of rain
- Update model with data
- Use the model to generate parameter estimates given data

2.3.1 Bayesian Hierarchical models (BHMs)

- Break the model into components:
 - Data Model.
 - Process Model.
 - Parameter Model.

• Combined, the data model, the process model, and the parameter model define a posterior distribution.

$$[\mathbf{z}, \theta_D, \theta_P | \mathbf{y}] \propto [\mathbf{y} | \theta_D, \mathbf{z}] [\mathbf{z} | \theta_P] [\theta_D] [\theta_P]$$

2.3.2 Empirical Hierarchical models (EHMs)

- Break the model into components:
 - Data Model.
 - Process Model.
 - Parameter estimates (fixed values) are substituted before fitting the model
- Combined, the data model and the process model define a predictive distribution. Thus, numerical evaluation of the predictive distribution is typically required to estimate unceratinty (bootstrap, MLE asymptotics)
 - Note: the predictive distribution is not a posterior distribution because the normalizing constant is not known

$$[\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{y}] \propto [\mathbf{y}|\theta_D,\mathbf{z}][\mathbf{z}|\theta_P]$$

2.3.3 Data Model

$$[\mathbf{y}|\theta_D,\mathbf{z}]$$

- Describes how the data are collected and observed.
- Account for measurement process and uncertainty.
- Model the data in the manner in which they were collected.
- Data y.
 - Noisy.
 - Expensive.
 - Not what you want to make inference on.
- Latent variables z.

- Think of **z** as the ideal data.
- No measurement error the exact quantity you want to observe but can't.
- Data model parameters θ_D .

2.3.4 Process Model

 $[\mathbf{z}|\theta_P]$

- Where the science happens!
- Latent process \mathbf{z} is modeled.
- Can be dynamic in space and/or time
- Process parameters θ_P .
- Virtually all interesting scientific questions can be made with inference about ${\bf z}$

2.3.5 Parameter (Prior) Model (BMHs only)

 $[\theta_D][\theta_P]$

- Probability distributions define "reasonable" ranges for parameters.
- Parameter models are useful for a variety of problems:
 - Choosing important variables.
 - Preventing over-fitting (regularization).
 - "Pooling" estimates across categories.

2.3.6 Posterior Distribution

$$[\mathbf{z}, \theta_D, \theta_P | \mathbf{y}] \propto [\mathbf{y} | \theta_D, \mathbf{z}] [\mathbf{z} | \theta_P] [\theta_D] [\theta_P]$$

- Probability distribution over all unknowns in the model.
- Inference is made using the posterior distribution.
- Because the posterior distribution is a probability distribution (BHMs), uncertainty is easy to calculate. This is not true for EHMs.

2.3.7 Scientifically Motivated Statistical Modeling

- Criticize the model
- Does the model fit the data well?
- Do the predictions make sense?
- Are there subsets of the data that don't fit the model well?
- Make inference using the model.
- If the model fits the data, use the model fit for prediction or inference.

Day 2

3.1 Spatial Data

All data occur at some location is space and time. For know we focus on spatial analyses and will later extend this to spatio-temporal analyses. Let \mathcal{D} represent the spatial domain and let \mathbf{s} be a spatial location. In general, we will let $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{D}$ be a subdomain of the spatial region of \mathbf{D} .

Insert Diagram from class here

3.2 Types of spatial data

There are three primary types of spatial data that we are going to consider

- Geostatistical data
 - Occur everywhere
 - continuous support
 - examples: temperature, precipitation
- Areal data
 - Occur only over discrete areas
 - can be thought of as an integral of a continuous process over a subdomain $\mathcal{A}\in\mathcal{D}$
 - examples: cases of a disease by counties, votes in an election by congressional district
- Point process data
 - The count and location of the data are random

- examples: tornados, lightning strikes

```
library(tidyverse)
library(here)
```

- Many different file types for spatial data
 - Typically data are in "flat files" like comma-seperated value (CSV) files

```
read.csv(here("path", "to", "file.csv"))
```

- "shapefiles" which can be read using rgdal or maptools packages

```
library(rgdal)
library(maptools)
```

- "NetCDF" files cane be read using ncdf4 or RNetCDF

```
library(ncdf4)
library(RNetCDF)
```

3.3 Textbook package

To install the data from the textbook, go to https://spacetimewithr.org/ and follow the link to the code.

```
# install.packages("devtools")
library(devtools)
install_github("andrewzm/STRbook")
```

Note that this package is relatively large because it contains a decent amount of spatial data.

```
library(STRbook)
```

3.3.1 In Class Activity:

From Lab 2.1 on the textbook site

```
## Wikle, C. K., Zammit-Mangion, A., and Cressie, N. (2019),
## Spatio-Temporal Statistics with R, Boca Raton, FL: Chapman & Hall/CRC
## Copyright (c) 2019 Wikle, Zammit-Mangion, Cressie
##
## This program is free software; you can redistribute it and/or
## modify it under the terms of the GNU General Public License
## as published by the Free Software Foundation; either version 2
## of the License, or (at your option) any later version.
## This program is distributed in the hope that it will be useful,
## but WITHOUT ANY WARRANTY; without even the implied warranty of
## MERCHANTABILITY or FITNESS FOR A PARTICULAR PURPOSE. See the
## GNU General Public License for more details.
library("dplyr")
library("tidyr")
library("STRbook")
locs <- read.table(system.file("extdata", "Stationinfo.dat",</pre>
                           package = "STRbook"),
                col.names = c("id", "lat", "lon"))
Times <- read.table(system.file("extdata", "Times_1990.dat",</pre>
                            package = "STRbook"),
                col.names = c("julian", "year", "month", "day"))
Tmax <- read.table(system.file("extdata", "Tmax_1990.dat",</pre>
                           package = "STRbook"))
names(Tmax) <- locs$id</pre>
## -----
Tmax <- cbind(Times, Tmax)</pre>
head(names(Tmax), 10)
## [1] "julian" "year" "month" "day" "3804" "3809" "3810" "3811"
## [9] "3812" "3813"
## -----
Tmax_long <- gather(Tmax, id, z, -julian, -year, -month, -day)</pre>
head(Tmax_long)
    julian year month day id z
```

```
## 4 726837 1990 1 4 3804 59
## 5 726838 1990 1 5 3804 41
             1 6 3804 45
## 6 726839 1990
## -----
Tmax_long$id <- as.integer(Tmax_long$id)</pre>
nrow(Tmax_long)
## [1] 479208
Tmax_long <- filter(Tmax_long, !(z <= -9998))</pre>
nrow(Tmax_long)
## [1] 196253
Tmax_long <- mutate(Tmax_long, proc = "Tmax")</pre>
head(Tmax_long)
   julian year month day id z proc
## 2 726835 1990
             1 2 3804 42 Tmax
## 6 726839 1990 1 6 3804 45 Tmax
data(Tmin_long, package = "STRbook")
data(TDP_long, package = "STRbook")
data(Precip_long, package = "STRbook")
## -----
NOAA_df_1990 <- rbind(Tmax_long, Tmin_long, TDP_long, Precip_long)</pre>
summ <- group_by(NOAA_df_1990, year, proc) %>% # groupings
     summarise(mean_proc = mean(z)) # operation
```

```
## ------
NOAA_precip <- filter(NOAA_df_1990, proc == "Precip" & month == 6)
summ <- group_by(NOAA_precip, year, id) %>%
      summarise(days_no_precip = sum(z == 0))
head(summ)
## # A tibble: 6 x 3
## # Groups: year [1]
    year id days_no_precip
##
## <int> <int>
                 <int>
## 1 1990 3804
                      19
## 2 1990 3810
                       26
## 3 1990 3811
                       21
## 4 1990 3812
                       24
## 5 1990 3813
                       25
## 6 1990 3816
                       23
## -----
median(summ$days_no_precip)
## [1] 20
grps <- group_by(NOAA_precip, year, id)</pre>
summ <- summarise(grps, days_no_precip = sum(z == 0))</pre>
## -----
NOAA_df_sorted <- arrange(NOAA_df_1990, julian, id)</pre>
df1 <- select(NOAA_df_1990, julian, z)</pre>
df2 <- select(NOAA_df_1990, -julian)</pre>
## ------
NOAA_df_1990 <- left_join(NOAA_df_1990, locs, by = "id")
Tmax_long_sel <- select(Tmax_long, julian, id, z)</pre>
Tmax_wide <- spread(Tmax_long_sel, id, z)</pre>
dim(Tmax_wide)
## [1] 1461 138
```

```
## -----
M <- select(Tmax_wide, -julian) %>% as.matrix()
library("sp")
library("spacetime")
## -----
NOAA_df_1990$date <- with(NOAA_df_1990,</pre>
                 paste(year, month, day, sep = "-"))
head(NOAA_df_1990$date, 4) # show first four elements
## [1] "1990-1-1" "1990-1-2" "1990-1-3" "1990-1-4"
NOAA_df_1990$date <- as.Date(NOAA_df_1990$date)</pre>
class(NOAA_df_1990$date)
## [1] "Date"
## -----
Tmax_long2 <- filter(NOAA_df_1990, proc == "Tmax")</pre>
STObj <- stConstruct(x = Tmax_long2,
                                   # data set
               space = c("lon", "lat"), # spatial fields
               time = "date")
                                   # time field
class(STObj)
## [1] "STIDF"
## attr(,"package")
## [1] "spacetime"
## -----
spat_part <- SpatialPoints(coords = Tmax_long2[, c("lon", "lat")])</pre>
temp_part <- Tmax_long2$date</pre>
STObj2 <- STIDF(sp = spat_part,
            time = temp_part,
            data = select(Tmax_long2, -date, -lon, -lat))
class(STObj2)
## [1] "STIDF"
## attr(,"package")
## [1] "spacetime"
```

```
## -----
spat_part <- SpatialPoints(coords = locs[, c("lon", "lat")])</pre>
temp_part <- with(Times,</pre>
               paste(year, month, day, sep = "-"))
temp_part <- as.Date(temp_part)</pre>
## -----
Tmax_long3 <- gather(Tmax, id, z, -julian, -year, -month, -day)</pre>
Tmax_long3$id <- as.integer(Tmax_long3$id)</pre>
Tmax_long3 <- arrange(Tmax_long3, julian, id)</pre>
## -----
all(unique(Tmax_long3$id) == locs$id)
## [1] TRUE
STObj3 <- STFDF(sp = spat_part,</pre>
            time = temp_part,
            data = Tmax_long3)
class(STObj3)
## [1] "STFDF"
## attr(,"package")
## [1] "spacetime"
proj4string(STObj3) <- CRS("+proj=longlat +ellps=WGS84")</pre>
STObj3$z[STObj3$z == -9999] <- NA
```

Day 3

Applications

Some significant applications are demonstrated in this chapter.

- 5.1 Example one
- 5.2 Example two

Final Words

We have finished a nice book.

Bibliography

Berliner, L. M. (1996). Hierarchical Bayesian time series models. In $Maximum\ Entropy\ and\ Bayesian\ Methods,$ pages 15–22. Springer.