

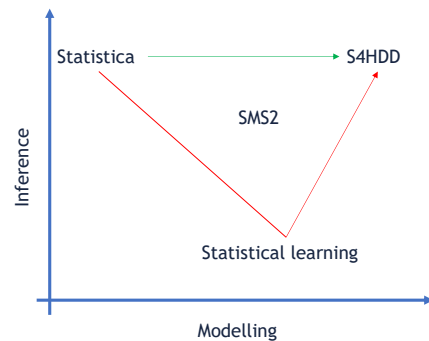
# Statistics for High Dimensional Data (S4HDD) and CompStat Lab a.a. 2023/2024 (2nd edition)

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## Course structure

- **9 CFUs**
  - 3 CFUs on time series modelling (ex SMS2) (Prof. Fassò)
  - 6 CFUs on space and space-time data modelling (Prof. Finazzi)
  - Space-time modelling will be addressed late in the course
- **Lectures**
  - Theory
  - Coding (MATLAB)
  - Analysis of data sets
  - Scientific article discussion

## Roadmap



## Why this course

- To provide advanced statistical models/methods/tools that enable the extraction of useful information from temporal, spatial and spatio-temporal data sets (possibly large)...
- ...in order to make decisions...
- ...following a statistical inference approach...
- ...thus, knowing the risk to make the wrong decision.

## Prerequisites

- Statistical inference
  - Distributions
  - Estimators
  - Confidence intervals
  - Hypothesis testing
- Simple and multiple regression
- Validation and cross-validation techniques
- Monte Carlo and bootstrap techniques
- Calcolo numeric (6 CFU) Prof. Maggioni

## Textbooks

- Time series analysis and its applications: with R examples, Robert H. Shumway, David S. Stoffer
- Model-based Geostatistics, Peter J. Diggle, Paulo J. Ribeiro
- Statistics for spatio-temporal data, Noel A. Cressie, Christopher K. Wikle
- Spatio-temporal statistics with R, Christopher K. Wikle, Andrew Zammit-Mangion, Noel Cressie

## Student evaluation

- Teamwork - Groups of 1 or 2 students(?)
- You choose the data set to analyze
- The analysis is based on the models/methods seen during the course
- You can use R, MATLAB or Python
- The evaluation will be based on a report
- Each group will present in front of the class (in English)
- More details during the course...

## Software

- MATLAB, R (and Python) are the most common environments used by researchers in space-time data analysis.
- Software for space-time data analysis is often open source (and not fully tested - use at your own risk!)
- In this course:
  - R is used for time series data analysis
  - MATLAB is used for space and space-time data analysis
- R and MATLAB are not fully interchangeable when it comes to “complex” statistical models and methods
- D-STEM (v2) will be the MATLAB software for space-time data analysis (download from Journal of Statistical Software)

## Examples of spatio-temporal data sets

- COVID19 pandemic data sets (hospitalizations and casualties by country over time)
- Climate change data sets (satellite measurements of temperature, humidity, etc.)
- Air quality data sets (PM<sub>10</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NOx etc. observed at monitoring stations)
- Smartphone-based real time detection of earthquakes ([www.sismo.app](http://www.sismo.app))
- Internet data analytics (app/web visits by country/region over time)
- People mobility data ([www.facebook.com/covid19mobility](https://www.facebook.com/covid19mobility))
- Digital image/video analysis (tracking, object recognition, etc.)
- Ecology (point processes)
- In general, addressing interesting societal problems requires the analysis of space-time data sets

## Why modelling spatio-temporal data

- For understanding the underlying data generation process
- For temporal, spatial and spatio-temporal prediction
  - Methods differ for continuous/discrete space and/or time
- For emulating complex phenomena (what is a model?)
- For making decisions

## Modelling steps

- Model proposal (which equation, which covariates, which random variables, which relations between variables)
- Model estimation (maximum likelihood, expectation-maximization algorithm)
- Model validation (k-fold cross-validation, leave-one-out validation)
- Model adoption (offline or online)
- Model update/improvement (when/if new data become available)

## A first spatial model

$$y(s) = x(s)' \beta + \varepsilon(s) \quad (1)$$

- $y(s)$  is the observation at generic spatial location  $s \in \mathbf{R}^2$  or  $s \in \mathbf{S}^2$
- $x(s)$  are spatial covariates (no missing data)
- $\beta$  is a vector of parameters
- $\varepsilon(s)$  is the random error at spatial location  $s$  (e.g.,  $\varepsilon(s) \sim NID(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$ )
- $\mathbf{R}^2$  is the 2D space (plane) while  $\mathbf{S}^2$  is the sphere embedded in  $\mathbf{R}^3$

## Model complexity

- When dealing with spatio-temporal data sets model complexity is often an issue
- Elements of model complexity
  - Univariate, bivariate, multivariate models
  - Number of covariates ( $p > n$  problem)
  - Number of spatial and/or temporal points (big  $n$  problem)
  - Dependences among variables
  - Space-time (non)separability
  - Latent variables/processes
  - Non Gaussianity

## How to estimate the spatial model?

- As usual we need data
- For us a data set has this form:

$$\{(x_1(s_1), y_1(s_1)), \dots, (x_n(s_n), y_n(s_n))\}$$

$$x_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})', i = 1, \dots, n$$

## Model residuals

$$e(s) = y(s) - x(s)'\hat{\beta}$$
$$e(s) = y(s) - \hat{y}(s)$$

- We check if residuals  $e(s)$  are IID which means:
  - Are residuals spatially uncorrelated?
  - Is the residual variance constant in space? (Homoscedasticity)

## Towards more complex models

- In general, residuals  $e(s)$  are spatially correlated
- Why? Because  $x(s)'\beta$  cannot entirely capture the data variability
- This is similar to the case of serially/temporally correlated residuals in classic regression models ( $x'\beta$ )
- When this happens we might
  - Add covariates
  - Add transformations of covariates (polynomials)
  - Add interactions between covariates
- This may not be enough to have IID residuals

## Towards more complex models

- What happens if we ignore the spatial correlation of residuals?
  - The model fitting capability is lower than it should be
  - Variance of estimators is wrong
  - Confidence intervals might have significance levels lower than their nominal levels
  - Spatial predictions are poor (especially in model validation)

## Spatial model with latent variable

$$y(s) = x(s)' \beta + \alpha w(s) + \varepsilon(s) \quad (2)$$

- $y(s)$ ,  $x(s)' \beta$  and  $\varepsilon(s)$  are the usual terms of a regression model (see model 1 in previous slides)
- $w(s)$  is a latent (non observed) random variable spatially correlated with unitary variance
- $\text{corr}(w(s), w(s')) = \rho(s, s'; \theta)$
- $\rho(s, s'; \theta)$  is a bivariate function (on  $s$  and  $s'$ ) with unknown parameter vector  $\theta$
- $\alpha$  is a scale parameter to be estimated

## Spatial model with latent variable

$$y(s) = x(s)' \beta + \alpha w(s) + \varepsilon(s) \quad (2)$$

- $w(s) \perp \varepsilon(s)$ , or  $\text{cov}(w(s), \varepsilon(s)) = 0$
- Conditionally on  $w(s)$ , observed data  $y_i(s_i)$  are realizations of mutually independent random variables  $Y_i$  with conditional mean  $E(Y_i|w) = x_i(s_i)' \beta + \alpha w(s_i)$  and conditional variance  $\sigma_\varepsilon^2$
- What is the difference between  $s_i$  and  $s$ ?

## Spatial model with latent variable

$$y(s) = x(s)' \beta + \alpha w(s) + \varepsilon(s) \quad (2)$$

- $w(s)$  is spatially varying (in general each location  $s$  has a different  $w(s)$  value)
- Is  $\varepsilon(s) \equiv 0$  (and  $e(s) = 0$ ) if  $w(s)$  can be chosen to explain  $y(s)$  at each spatial location?
- How overfitting is avoided?
- What is the role of spatial correlation?

## Spatial correlation function

- Correlation function  $\rho(s, s'; \theta)$  can be any positive-definite function
- This condition imposes that the linear combination  $\sum_{i=1}^m a_i w(s_i)$  has positive variance
- $\theta$  is a vector of unknown parameters (can be of any size)

## Examples of spatial correlation functions

- $\rho(s, s'; \theta)$  depends on spatial coordinates  $s$  and  $s'$
- Such a function describes the most «flexible» spatial correlation
- In 1D, the correlation between  $w(0)$  and  $w(1)$  would be different from the correlation between  $w(1)$  and  $w(2)$
- In most cases,  $\rho(s, s'; \theta) = \rho(\|s - s'\|; \theta) = \rho(u; \theta)$  where  $\| \cdot \|$  is the distance (Euclidean or geodesic) between  $s$  and  $s'$ .
- In this case the spatial correlation only depends on the distance  $u$  and not on the coordinates.

## Exponential spatial correlation function

- Exponential spatial correlation function

$$\rho(u; \theta) = \exp(-u/\theta)$$

- $\theta > 0$  is a scalar value
- Simple but not flexible
- Not always suitable to model spatial correlation

## Matérn spatial correlation function

- Matérn correlation function:

$$\rho(u; \theta) = \{2^{\kappa-1} \Gamma(\kappa)\}^{-1} (u/\phi) K_{\kappa}(u/\phi)$$

- $K_{\kappa}$  is the modified Bessel function of the second kind of order  $\kappa$
- The parameter  $\kappa > 0$  is called the order of the Matérn and determines the differentiability of  $w(s)$  (more details later)
- The parameter  $\phi > 0$  determines the rate at which the correlation decays to zero with increasing  $u$

## Gaussian process

- $w(\mathbf{s})$  is not directly observed but can be inferred from the observed data set  $\{(\mathbf{x}_1(\mathbf{s}_1), y_1(\mathbf{s}_1)), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n(\mathbf{s}_n), y_n(\mathbf{s}_n))\}$
- First, the distribution of  $w(\mathbf{s})$  must be specified
- Formally,  $w(\mathbf{s})$  is a zero mean Gaussian process (GP) with unitary variance and spatial correlation function  $\rho(u; \theta)$
- $w(\mathbf{s})$  is a gaussian process if the joint distribution of  $w(\mathbf{s}_1), \dots, w(\mathbf{s}_n)$  is multivariate normal (see SMS2) for any integer  $n$  and any set of locations  $\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_n$

## Simulations

- How to simulate a GP with a given spatial correlation function in MATLAB?
- Simulations are useful to understand if a given correlation function is suitable to model the observed data set
- A GP is continuous in space. This means that:
  - It can be simulated on a regular grid or
  - On an irregular grid
  - For any given number of spatial locations
- When the GP is simulated on a regular grid, the simulated values refer to the centres of the pixels

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## Lesson 2

## Spatial model with latent variable

$$y(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{x}(\mathbf{s})'\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha w(\mathbf{s}) + \varepsilon(\mathbf{s}) \quad (2)$$

- $w(\mathbf{s}) \sim GP(0, \rho(\|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}'\|; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$
- $\rho(\|\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}'\|; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \text{corr}(w(\mathbf{s}), w(\mathbf{s}'))$
- $\varepsilon(\mathbf{s}) \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$
- The unknown parameter set is  $\Psi = \{\boldsymbol{\beta}, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}\}$
- How to estimate  $\Psi$  from data?

## Maximum likelihood estimate

- We rely on MLE to estimate the model parameter vector
- Because MLE has good properties and...
- Because we can use the EM algorithm (if needed)
- Likelihood function of (2) is:

$$L(\Psi; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) = L(\Psi; \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) L(\Psi; \mathbf{w})$$

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)'$  is the vector of observations at  $n$  spatial locations
- $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, \dots, w_n)'$  is the vector of latent variables at  $n$  spatial locations
- $\mathbf{X}$  is the  $n \times p$  design matrix

## Likelihood decomposition

$$\begin{aligned} L(\Psi; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) &= L(\Psi; \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) L(\Psi; \mathbf{w}) \\ &= L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2; \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{w}) \end{aligned}$$

- Each likelihood term depends on a subset of  $\Psi$ .
- $L(\Psi; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X})$  is the complete-data likelihood (which assumes  $\mathbf{w}$  to be known)
- $L(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2; \mathbf{y} | \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X})$  and  $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{w})$  are densities of  $n$ -variate normal distributions

## Log-likelihood function

- As usual we prefer to work with  $\log(L_\Psi)$
- $-2\log L_\Psi$  is given by:

$$\log |\Sigma_\varepsilon| + \mathbf{e}' \Sigma_\varepsilon^{-1} \mathbf{e} + \log |\Sigma_w| + \mathbf{w}' \Sigma_w^{-1} \mathbf{w}$$

where

- $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \alpha \mathbf{w}$
- $\Sigma_\varepsilon = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \mathbf{I}_n$ , with  $\mathbf{I}_n$  the identity matrix of dimension  $n$
- $\Sigma_w$  is the  $n \times n$  correlation matrix (e.g.,  $\exp(-D/\theta)$ , with  $D$  the distance matrix)



## ML estimate

- MLE is given by

$$\hat{\Psi} = \underset{\beta, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2, \theta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \log|\Sigma_\varepsilon| + \mathbf{e}'\Sigma_\varepsilon^{-1}\mathbf{e} + \log|\Sigma_w| + \mathbf{w}'\Sigma_w^{-1}\mathbf{w}$$

- Argmin because we are considering  $-2\log(L_\Psi)$
- Unfortunately minimizing  $-2\log(L_\Psi)$  is not feasible, plus  $\mathbf{w}$  is latent and not observed
- We must rely on the EM algorithm

## EM algorithm

- The EM is an iterative algorithm for MLE
- First iteration starts with initial values  $\hat{\Psi}^{(0)}$  (usually given by OLS and method of moments)

- E-step

$$Q(\Psi, \hat{\Psi}^{(m)}) = E_{\hat{\Psi}^{(m)}}(-2\log L(\Psi; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y})$$

- M-step

$$\hat{\Psi}^{(m+1)} = \underset{\Psi}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q(\Psi, \hat{\Psi}^{(m)})$$

## EM algorithm, E-step

- E-step

$$\begin{aligned} & E_{\hat{\Psi}^{(m)}}(-2\log L(\Psi; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}) | \mathbf{y}) \\ &= \operatorname{tr}[\Sigma_\varepsilon^{-1}(E(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y})E(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y})' + \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y}))] \\ &+ \operatorname{tr}[\Sigma_w^{-1}(E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})' + \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}))] \end{aligned}$$

- $E(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \alpha E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})$
- $\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} - \alpha \mathbf{w} | \mathbf{y}) = \alpha^2 \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w} | \mathbf{y})$

## EM algorithm, E-step

- $E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y})\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{y})^{-1}[\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}]$  (see multivariate normal)
- $\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}) = \Sigma_w - \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y})\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{y})^{-1}\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y})'$
- $\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha \mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \operatorname{Var}(\alpha \mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \alpha^2 \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}) + \operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) + 2\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$
- $\operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}) = \Sigma_w$
- $\operatorname{Var}(\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \Sigma_\varepsilon = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 \mathbf{I}_n$
- $2\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \mathbf{0}$  (from model assumptions)
- $\operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{y}) = \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha \mathbf{w} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}) = \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \alpha \mathbf{w}) = \alpha \operatorname{Cov}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w}) = \alpha \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}) = \alpha \Sigma_w$

## EM algorithm, M-step

$$\hat{\Psi}^{(m+1)} = \operatorname{argmax}_{\Psi} Q(\Psi, \hat{\Psi}^{(m)})$$

$$\frac{dQ(\Psi, \hat{\Psi}^{(m)})}{d\Psi} = 0$$

$$\alpha^{(m+1)} = \frac{\operatorname{tr}[(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(m)})E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})']}{\operatorname{tr}[E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})' + \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})]}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^{(m+1)} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} [\mathbf{X}'(\mathbf{y} - \alpha^{(m+1)}E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}))]$$

## EM algorithm, M-step

$$\sigma_{\varepsilon}^{2(m+1)} = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr}[E(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y})E(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y})' + \operatorname{Var}(\mathbf{e}|\mathbf{y})]$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m+1)} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log |\Sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})| + \operatorname{tr}[\Sigma_{\mathbf{w}}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\theta})(\hat{\mathbf{w}}\hat{\mathbf{w}}')]$$

$$\text{Where } \hat{\mathbf{w}} = E_{\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(m)}}(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y}) = E(\mathbf{w}|\mathbf{y})$$

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## Lesson 3

## Spatial model with latent variable

$$y(s) = x(s)' \beta + \alpha w(s) + \varepsilon(s) \quad (2)$$

- $w(s) \sim GP(0, \rho(\|s - s'\|; \theta))$
- $\rho(\|s - s'\|; \theta) = \text{corr}(w(s), w(s'))$
- $\varepsilon(s) \sim N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$
- The unknown parameter set is  $\Psi = \{\beta, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2, \theta\}$
- $\Psi$  is estimated using the EM algorithm

## Prediction using model

- Once estimated, the model is used for prediction:

$$\hat{y}(s_i) = x(s_i)' \hat{\beta} + \hat{\alpha} \hat{w}(s_i)$$

- The above formula gives the prediction at spatial locations  $s_i, i = 1, \dots, n$
- $\hat{w}(s_i) = E(w(s_i)|Y)$
- How to estimate  $y$  at a generic spatial location  $s$ ?
- (First of all we need  $x(s)$ )

## Spatial prediction

- First of all we need  $x(s)$  (spatial covariates at  $s$ )
- Remember that  $E(w|y) = \text{Cov}(w, y) \text{Var}(y)^{-1} [y - X\beta]$
- Similarly  $\hat{w}(s) = E(w(s)|y) = \text{Cov}(w(s), y) \text{Var}(y)^{-1} [y - X\beta]$
- In practice the prediction  $\hat{w}(s)$  depends on the vector  $y$  of all observations
- More in details:  
 $\text{Cov}(w(s), y) = \text{Cov}(w(s), X\beta + \alpha w + \varepsilon) = \text{Cov}(w(s), \alpha w) = \alpha \text{Cov}(w(s), w)$
- $\text{Cov}(w(s), w)$  is a  $1 \times n$  vector with elements  $\text{Cov}(w(s), w(s_i)) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|s - s_i\|}{\theta}\right)$ .
- $\text{Var}(y)^{-1} [y - X\beta]$  are the same seen for the EM algorithm and do not depend on  $w(s)$ .

## Spatial prediction

- When prediction is done for multiple spatial locations  $S = \{s_1, \dots, s_M\}$ :

$$\hat{w}(S) = E(w(S)|y) = \text{Cov}(w(S), y) \text{Var}(y)^{-1} [y - X\beta]$$

- $\text{Cov}(w(S), \alpha w) = \alpha \text{Cov}(w(S), w)$
- $\text{Cov}(w(S), w)$  is a  $M \times n$  matrix
- $\text{Var}(y)^{-1} [y - X\beta]$  is computed only one time!
- $\text{Var}(w(S)|y)$  is the prediction uncertainty
- How to make spatial prediction with D-STEM?

## Multivariate models

- It is not uncommon to jointly model multiple variables (e.g., multiple pollutants, multiple met. variables, etc.)
- The spatial model becomes multivariate

$$\mathbf{y}(s) = \mathbf{X}(s)' \boldsymbol{\beta} + \alpha w(s) + \varepsilon(s) \quad (2)$$

- $\mathbf{y}(s)$  is a  $p \times 1$  vector
- $\mathbf{w}(s) \sim GP_p(\mathbf{0}, V\rho(\|s - s'\|; \boldsymbol{\theta}))$  is a  $p$ -variate Gaussian random process
- $V$  is a  $p \times p$  correlation matrix
- $\varepsilon(s) \sim N_p(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_\varepsilon^2)$  is a  $p$ -variate Normal random variable with  $\Sigma_\varepsilon^2$  diagonal
- The unknown parameter set is  $\Psi = \{\boldsymbol{\beta}, \alpha, \Sigma_\varepsilon^2, \boldsymbol{\theta}, V\}$

## Why a multivariate model?

- Why not fitting a model for each variable?
- If two or more variables are correlated, spatial prediction can benefit from this correlation
- Especially if one variable is observed at few spatial locations w.r.t. the other variables
- But computing time is higher (matrices are  $pn \times pn$  if all variables are observed at  $n$  locations)

## Bivariate model

- A bivariate model is a (simple) special case of the multivariate model

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1(s) \\ y_2(s) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(s)' & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & x_2(s)' \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1(s) \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_2(s) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 w_1(s) \\ \alpha_2 w_2(s) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_1(s) \\ \varepsilon_2(s) \end{bmatrix}$$

- $x_1(s)'$  and  $x_2(s)'$  can have different lengths
- $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \text{corr}(w_1(s), w_2(s)) \\ \text{corr}(w_2(s), w_1(s)) & 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- $\Sigma_\varepsilon^2 = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_{1,\varepsilon}^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_{2,\varepsilon}^2 \end{bmatrix}$

## Linear model of coregionalization

- $V\rho(\|s - s'\|; \boldsymbol{\theta})$  is called linear coregionalization model
- $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is common to the  $p$  variables!
- This could be a limit because all the variables are forced to share the same spatial correlation (same function and strength)
- $V$  is a symmetric correlation matrix, only  $p(p - 1)/2$  elements of  $V$  are estimated

## Data structure

- A multivariate data set can be classified depending on spatial locations:
  - **Isotopic**: all  $p$  variables are observed at the same  $n$  spatial locations.
  - **Fully heterotopic**: the  $p$  variables do not share a single spatial location.
  - **Partially heterotopic**: some of the  $p$  variables are observed at a subset of the  $n$  spatial locations. This is the most common case and it is the case handled by D-STEM.

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bitvector,bitvector

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## Lesson 4

## Spatio-temporal model: the dynamic coregionalization model (DCM)

$$\begin{aligned}y(s, t) &= x_{\beta}(s, t)' \beta + x_z(s)' z(t) + \alpha w(s, t) + \varepsilon(s, t) \\ z(t) &= Gz(t-1) + \eta(t)\end{aligned}$$

- $x_{\beta}(s, t)$  and  $x_z(s)$  are vectors of covariates. Note that  $x_z(s)$  is time invariant.
- $w(s, t) \sim GP(0, \rho(\|s - s'\|; \theta))$  is correlated over space but IID over time
- $z(t)$  is  $q \times 1$  dimensional with Markovian dynamics
- $G$  is a stable  $q \times q$  transition matrix
- $\eta(t) \sim N(0, \Sigma_{\eta})$  is the innovation with  $\Sigma_{\eta}$  the variance-covariance matrix
- $\varepsilon(s, t) \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$  is the measurement error

## Why the Markovian dynamics?

- The Markovian dynamic helps to describe the temporal persistence which usually characterizes temporal phenomena.
- For instance: even if we stop air pollution emissions, pollutant concentration will not drop instantly to zero.
  - Emission would be a model covariate

## Data matrix

- $Y = (y_1, \dots, y_T)$  is the data matrix
- Each  $y_t$  is the vector of spatial observation at time  $t = 1, \dots, T$
- In each  $y_t$ , missing data are possible
- Covariates are in a data array  $X = \{X_1, \dots, X_T\}$ , each  $X_t$  is a  $n \times b$  matrix where  $b$  is the number of covariates.  $X$  cannot have missing data.

## Likelihood function

- The parameter vector is  $\Psi = \{\beta, \alpha, \sigma_\varepsilon^2, \theta, G, \Sigma_\eta\}$
- Likelihood function is:

$$L(\Psi; Y, W, Z, X) = L(\Psi; Y|W, Z, X)L(\Psi; Z)L(\Psi; W)$$

- $W = (w_1, \dots, w_T)$
- $Z = (z_1, \dots, z_T)$

## Log-likelihood function

- $-2\log L_\Psi$  is given by:

$$T\log|\Sigma_\varepsilon| + \sum_{t=1}^T e_t' \Sigma_\varepsilon^{-1} e_t + T\log|\Sigma_\eta| + \sum_{t=1}^T (z_t - Gz_{t-1})' \Sigma_\eta^{-1} (z_t - Gz_{t-1}) + T\log|\Sigma_w| + \sum_{t=1}^T w_t' \Sigma_w^{-1} w_t$$

where

- $e_t = y_t - X_{\beta,t}\beta - X_{z,t}z_t - \alpha w_t$
- $\Sigma_\varepsilon = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 I_n$ , with  $I_n$  the identity matrix of dimension  $n$
- $\Sigma_w$  is the  $n \times n$  correlation matrix (e.g.,  $\exp(-D/\theta)$ , with  $D$  the distance matrix)

## Model estimation – EM algorithm

- Model estimation is (again) based on the EM algorithm
- $E(w(s, t)|Y)$  and  $Var(w(s, t)|Y)$  are given by the same formulas of  $E(w(s)|Y)$  and  $Var(w(s)|Y)$  (because  $w(s, t)$  are IID over time)
- $E(z(t)|Y)$  and  $Var(z(t)|Y)$  are given by the Kalman smoother
- However,  $Cov(z(t), w(s, t)|Y) \neq 0$ . E-step and M-step are more complicated than the spatial case.

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## Lesson 5

## Spatio-temporal model: the (univariate) hidden dynamic geostatistical model (HDGM)

$$\begin{aligned}y(s, t) &= x_{\beta}(s, t)' \beta + az(s, t) + \varepsilon(s, t) \\ z(s, t) &= gz(s, t-1) + \eta(s, t)\end{aligned}$$

- $\eta(s, t) \sim GP(0, \rho(\|s - s'\|; \theta))$  is correlated over space but IID over time
- $z(s, t)$  is scalar and has Markovian dynamic
- $a$  is a scale coefficient ( $v$  in D-STEM)
- $g$  is the transition coefficient
- $\varepsilon(s, t) \sim N(0, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2)$  is the measurement error
- The model parameter set is  $\Psi = \{\beta, a, \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2, \theta, g\}$
- Which are the main differences with the DCM?
- Which model is better?

## Spatio-temporal model: the (multivariate) hidden dynamic geostatistical model (HDGM)

$$\begin{aligned}y(s, t) &= X_{\beta}(s, t)' \beta + z(s, t) + \varepsilon(s, t) \\z(s, t) &= Gz(s, t - 1) + \eta(s, t)\end{aligned}$$

- $y(s, t)$  and  $z(s, t)$  are  $p \times 1$  vectors
- $\eta(s, t) \sim GP_p(\mathbf{0}, Vp(\|s - s'\|; \theta))$  is a p-variate Gaussian random process
- $V$  is a variance-covariance matrix (in Calulli et al.  $V$  is a correlation matrix and there is the scaling matrix  $A$ )
- $z(s, t)$  has Markovian dynamic
- $G$  is a diagonal  $p \times p$  transition matrix
- $\varepsilon(s, t) \sim N_p(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma_{\varepsilon})$  is a p-variate Normal random variable with  $\Sigma_{\varepsilon}$  diagonal
- The model parameter set is  $\Psi = \{\beta, \Sigma_{\varepsilon}, \theta, V, G\}$

## Model estimation

- The HDGM is estimated similarly to the DCM
- But we only have the  $z(s, t)$  latent variable which is estimated in the E-step by the Kalman smoother.
- Spatial prediction is also done by the Kalman smoother assuming that  $y$  is not observed at the spatial prediction locations (it is added as NaN in the  $y$  vector).

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# Lesson 6

## Towards spatio-temporal functional models

- In many cases, data are observed at high frequency/resolution in at least one dimension (spatial or temporal)
- It usually happens with the temporal dimension
  - For instance, pollutant concentrations observed hourly or every 15 minutes
  - In general, high frequency observations (100, 1000, 10.000 per day)
- In space it is less common because a high resolution sampling is usually very expensive but...
  - In 3D space, one dimension may be sampled at higher resolution than the others

## Towards spatio-temporal functional models

- Which are the problems with high frequency/resolution data?
  - Usually the original data set is very large and so the computational burden (of classic spatio-temporal models)
  - Data may be collected asynchronously over time (e.g., different monitoring stations may have different clocks)
  - Data may have large gaps over time (how does the Kalman Smoother perform in this case?)
  - Temporal correlation is usually very high (the Markovian model may explain the data but it is not very useful for prediction)

## Functional data analysis (FDA)

- In FDA, the object of the statistical inference is a continuous function rather than scalar/vector values
- For instance, the temperature measured by a sensor over the 24h of the day can be described by a (smooth?) function
  - Independently of how many observations we take
  - Independently of where in time these observations are taken
- Which function or class of functions should we use?
  - The function should describe the «global» data pattern
  - In a way, the function filters out the data noisy
  - The researcher should be able to control the function smoothness

## Splines

- Spline is a class of functions which allows to easily control the function smoothness
  - By selecting the proper basis functions
  - By selecting the proper knots
- B-spline basis are useful to describe non-periodic functions
  - Knots can be placed ad-hoc along the function domain (more knots where the function should change more rapidly)
- Fourier basis can describe periodic functions
  - Smoothness is controlled by the number of basis

## How to describe functional data in a space-time model?

- We now want to model the generic observation  $y(s, t, h)$ 
  - $s$  and  $t$  are the usual spatial and temporal indexes
  - $h \in \mathbb{R}$  is the «functional» dimension (spatial or temporal)
- Examples
  - $h$  could describe the continuous time within the day while  $t$  is the index of days
  - $h$  could describe altitude in a 3D space while  $s$  describes the generic location across the globe

## The functional HDG model in D-STEM

- D-STEM implements the (univariate) functional version of the HDG model:

$$\begin{aligned} y(s, t, h) &= x(s, t, h)' \boldsymbol{\beta}(h) + \boldsymbol{\phi}(h)' \mathbf{z}(s, t) + \varepsilon(s, t, h) \\ \mathbf{z}(s, t) &= \mathbf{G} \mathbf{z}(s, t - 1) + \boldsymbol{\eta}(s, t) \end{aligned}$$

- $\boldsymbol{\phi}(h)$  are the basis functions,  $\mathbf{z}(s, t)$  are the spline coefficients
- All details are in Wang et al. (2021) Journal statistical software