

# Spatial autocorrelation 2: Kriging

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Michael Noonan

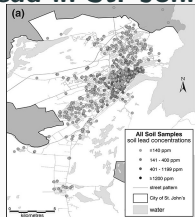
DATA 589: Spatial Statistics

1. Review
2. Modelling Correlation Structures
3. Predicting from Spatial Autocorrelation Models
4. Considerations for Sampling Designs
5. Applied Kriging Analysis

# Review

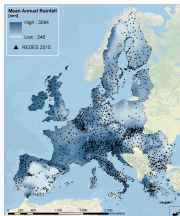
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## Lead in St. John's



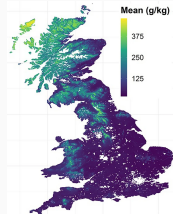
(Bell *et al.*, 2010)

## Rainfall in Europe



(Ballabio *et al.*, 2017)

## UK Soil Carbon



(Feeney *et al.*, 2022)

Last lecture we started covering situations where the locations of points were an arbitrary artefact of the sampling process and not the variable of interest.

We also covered how autocorrelation contains a lot of information about these spatial processes, but that working with them requires a special set of tools.



We covered some of these tools (e.g., bubble plots, Moran's I), but identified semi-variograms as being particularly useful, objective, and as having a long, proven history.

$$\hat{\gamma}(h \pm \delta) := \frac{1}{2|N(h \pm \delta)|} \sum_{(i,j) \in N(h \pm \delta)} |z_i - z_j|^2$$

I also told you that the shape of a dataset's empirical semi-variogram can provide clues on how to best model the autocorrelation in the data.

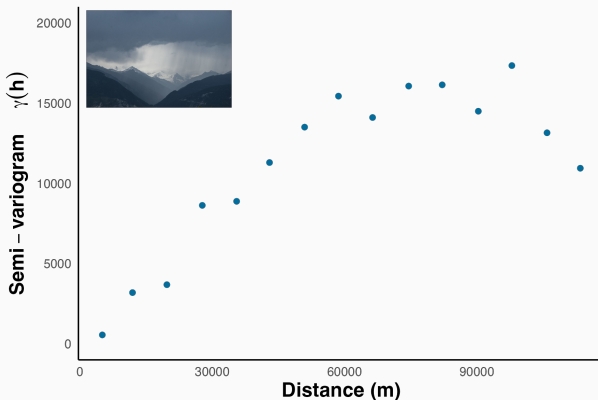
Today we will focus on how to fit models to semi-variograms, how to use these models to make predictions, and the implications for study design.

# Modelling Correlation Structures

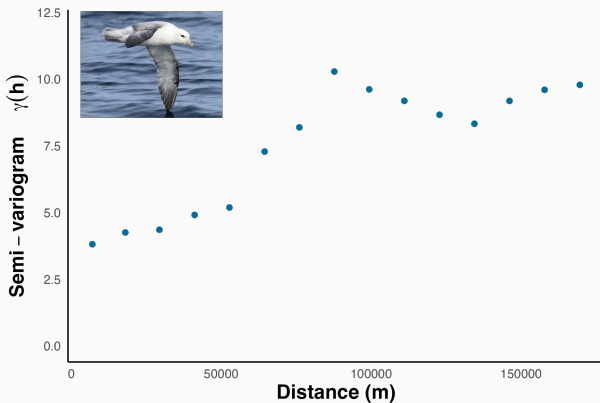
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Semi-variogram have a number of key features that we should be looking for (sill? range? nugget? shape?).

## Rainfall in Switzerland

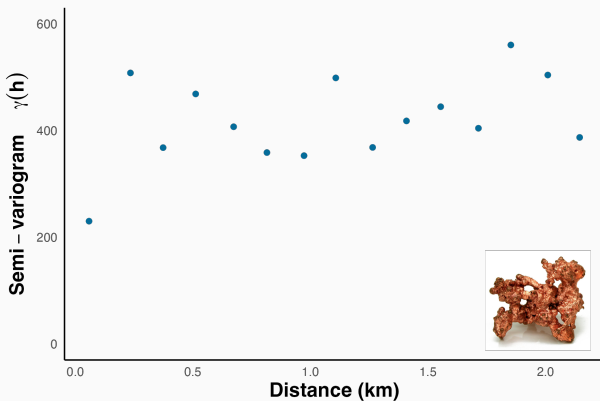


## Fulmaris glacialis densities

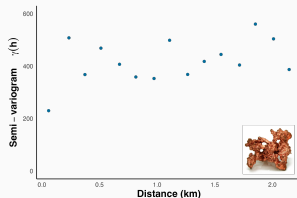
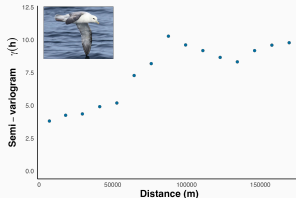
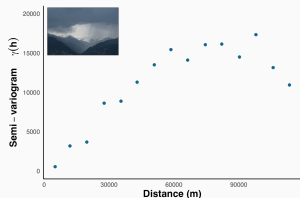


Source: gstat package

## Soil copper concentrations



Source: gstat package

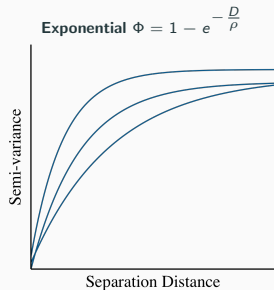


Semi-variograms have a number of key features that we should be looking for (i.e., sill, range, nugget, shape).

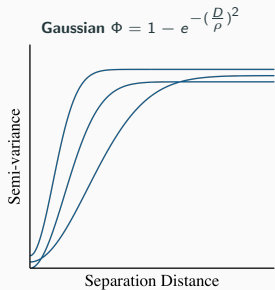
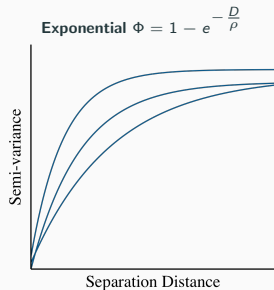
So what?

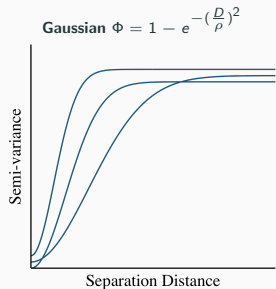
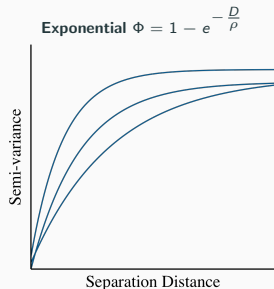
Usefully, the different spatial correlation models all have differently shaped theoretical variograms.



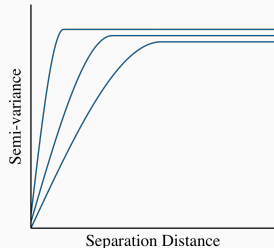


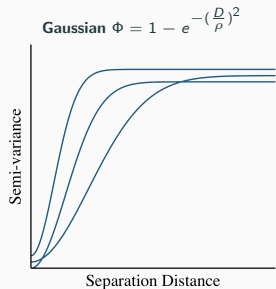
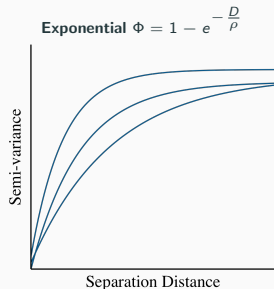




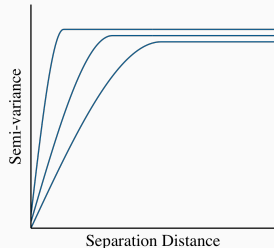


**Spherical**  $\Phi = 1\left(1 - 1.5\left(\frac{d}{\rho}\right) + 0.5\left(\frac{d}{\rho}\right)^3\right)I(d < \rho)$

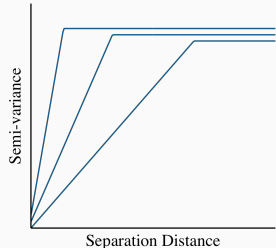


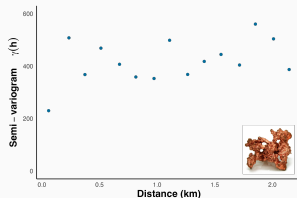
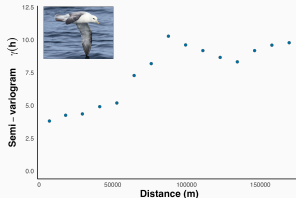
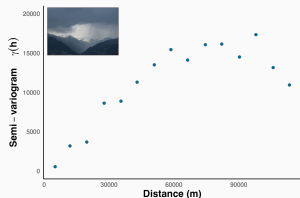


**Spherical**  $\Phi = 1\left(1 - 1.5\left(\frac{d}{\rho}\right) + 0.5\left(\frac{d}{\rho}\right)^3\right)I(d < \rho)$



**Linear**  $\Phi = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{D}{\rho}\right)I(d < \rho)$

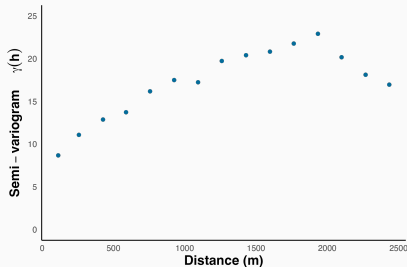
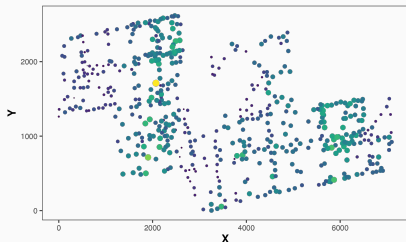




The different correlation models are fit to the semi-variogram, usually (but not necessarily) via Ordinary Least Squares, and the best fit to the data is identified.

We're going to work with the dataset on forest composition in Tatarstan, Russia again.

The variable of interest is a measure of boreality ( $\sim$ percent boreal species at a site).



A linear spatial correlation structure can be applied via the `fit.variogram()` function with the argument `vgm("Lin")`.

```
#Data import and wrangling
data <- read.csv("Datasets/Boreality.csv")
sp::coordinates(data) <- c("x","y")

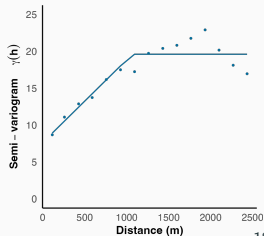
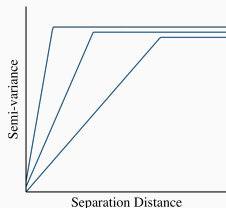
# Empirical variogram
vg <- gstat::variogram(Bor ~ 1, data = data)

#Fit linear correlation model
fit.linear <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Lin"))
```

```
fit.linear
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	7.649557	0.000
2	Lin	11.954061	1066.725

Linear  $\Phi = 1 - (1 \frac{D}{\rho})I(d < \rho)$



```
#Fit spherical correlation model  
fit.linear <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Sph"))
```

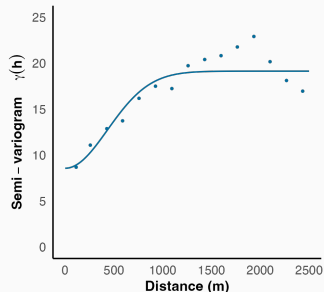
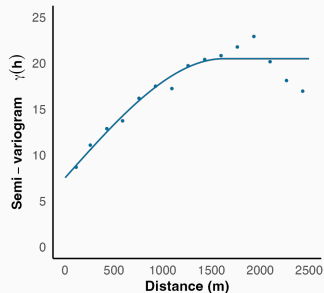
```
fit.spherical
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	7.539269	0.000
2	Sph	12.948714	1627.959

```
#Fit Gaussian correlation model  
fit.Gaussian <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Gau"))
```

```
fit.Gaussian
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	8.566378	0.000
2	Gau	10.563320	611.773



# Other spatial correlations in R cont.



```
#Fit exponential correlation model  
fit.exponential <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Exp"))
```

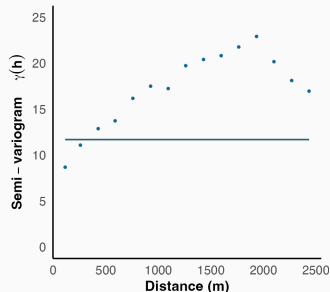
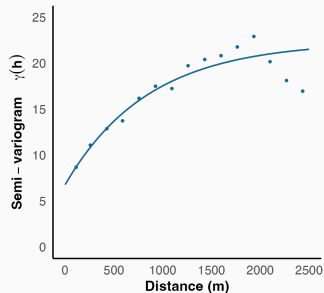
```
fit.exponential
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	6.783153	0.0000
2	Exp	15.545091	850.8605

```
#Fit nugget only model  
fit.nugget <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Nug"))
```

```
fit.nugget
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	11.68799	0



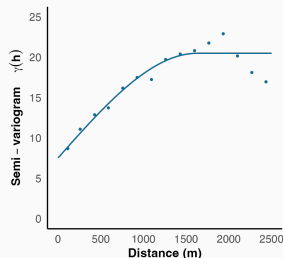


We just fit 5 different autocorrelation models, but how do we know which is the best fit to the data?

```
# Extract sum of squared errors
results <- data.frame(model = c("spherical", "linear", "Gaussian",
                                "exponential", "nugget"),
                      SSErr = c(attr(fit.spherical, "SSErr"),
                                attr(fit.linear, "SSErr"),
                                attr(fit.Gaussian, "SSErr"),
                                attr(fit.exponential, "SSErr"),
                                attr(fit.nugget, "SSErr")))

#Ordered by lowest to highest SSErr
results <- results[order(results$SSErr),]
```

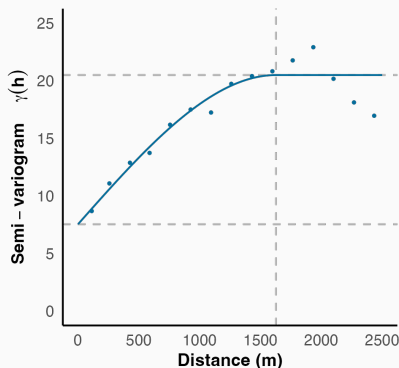
	model	SSErr
1	spherical	0.06565859
4	exponential	0.06942162
2	linear	0.10490507
3	Gaussian	0.14084834
5	nugget	2.95142242



What does the selected model tell us about our data?

```
fit.spherical
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	7.539269	0.000
2	Sph	12.948714	1627.959



Correlations persist for  $\sim 1.6$  km.

When  $h \rightarrow \infty \gamma_s(h) = \text{var}(Z(s))$

```
fit.spherical$psill[2] + fit.spherical$
  psill[1]
[1] 20.48798
```

```
var(data$Bor)
[1] 17.76566
```

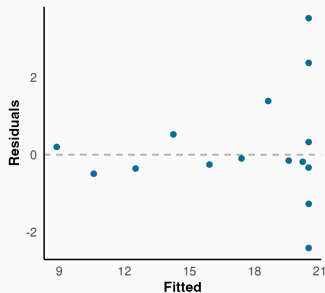
Variance is slightly different  
(non-stationarity?  
small-sample-size-bias?  
model-misspecification?).

Residuals can be manually calculated.

```
#Get fitted values
fitted <- variogramLine(fit.spherical,
                        maxdist=max(vg$dist),
                        dist_vector=vg$dist)

#Calculate residuals
residuals <- fitted$gamma - vg$gamma

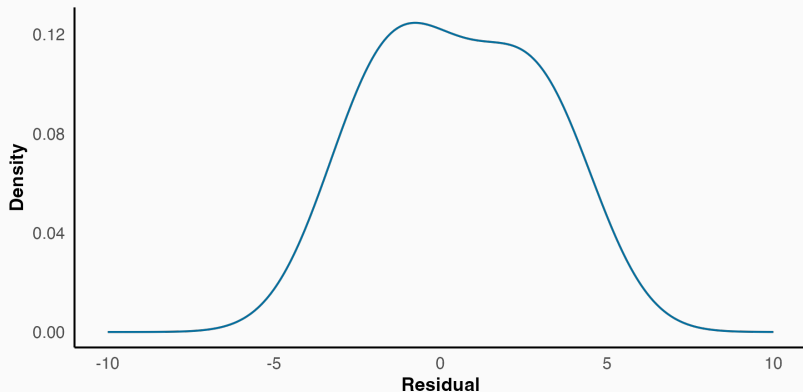
#Visualise the residuals
plot(residuals ~ fitted$gamma)
```



How do these look? What should they look like?

Density plot of residuals around the sill can be informative.

```
SILL <- residuals[which(fitted$gamma == max(fitted$gamma))]  
plot(density(SILL))
```



We fit several spatial autocorrelation models:

Type	Description	gstat Function
Nugget	0	<code>vgm("Nug")</code>
Linear	$\Phi = 1 - (1 \frac{D}{\rho}) I(d < \rho)$	<code>vgm("Lin")</code>
Spherical	$\Phi = 1(1 - 1.5(\frac{d}{\rho}) + 0.5(\frac{d}{\rho})^3) I(d < \rho)$	<code>vgm("Sph")</code>
Gaussian	$\Phi = 1 - e^{-(\frac{D}{\rho})^2}$	<code>vgm("Gaus")</code>
Exponential	$\Phi = 1 - e^{-\frac{D}{\rho}}$	<code>vgm("Exp")</code>

The model structures can be difficult to interpret, but their variograms have very recognizable features. Familiarising yourself with them will help you quickly narrow down what structure to use.

...but there are a lot of different candidate models to choose from.

```
gstat::vgm()  
  
      short                                long  
1      Nug                                Nug (nugget)  
2      Exp                                Exp (exponential)  
3      Sph                                Sph (spherical)  
4      Gau                                Gau (gaussian)  
5      Exc      Exclass (Exponential class/stable)  
6      Mat                                Mat (Matern)  
7      Ste Mat (Matern, M. Steins parameterization)  
8      Cir                                Cir (circular)  
9      Lin                                Lin (linear)  
10     Bes                                Bes (bessel)  
11     Pen                                Pen (pentaspherical)  
12     Per                                Per (periodic)  
13     Wav                                Wav (wave)  
14     Hol                                Hol (hole)  
15     Log                                Log (logarithmic)  
16     Pow                                Pow (power)  
17     Spl                                Spl (spline)  
18     Leg                                Leg (Legendre)  
19     Err                                Err (Measurement error)  
20     Int                                Int (Intercept)
```

# Predicting from Spatial Autocorrelation Models

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The form of the correlation model and parameter values are valuable in-and-of-themselves, but fitting these models is usually an intermediate step.

Typically, the goal of modelling these data is to predict to unsampled areas and map out the response variable.

There are many tools for interpolating spatial data, but we will focus on one of them: Kriging (based Danie Krige's MSc thesis).

There are also many forms of Kriging (ordinary, simple, universal, Bayesian, etc...), but we will focus (mostly) on ordinary Kriging.



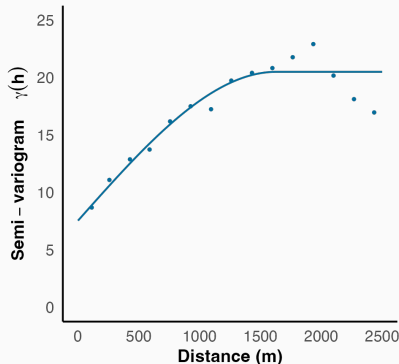
In ordinary Kriging,  $\hat{Z}(x_0)$  is assumed to be random variable located at an unobserved location  $x_0$ , with a constant, unknown mean (Matheron, 1963).

$\hat{Z}(x_0)$  is estimated from a linear combination of the observed values  $z_i$  and weights  $w_i$ :

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 & w_2 & \cdots & w_N \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \vdots \\ z_N \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^N w_i(x_0) Z(x_i)$$

The weights are critical, and intended to reflect the proximity of samples to the estimation location  $x_0$ .

We're trying to predict  $\hat{Z}(x_0)$  using the known values  $Z(x_i)$ , and their spatial dependences.



The fitted semi-variogram model describes the spatial dependence of the samples.

We can use this to calculate the covariance matrix (diagonal =  $\sigma^2$  = sill, off-diagonals =  $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ )

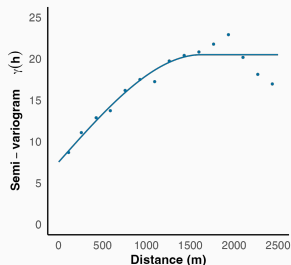
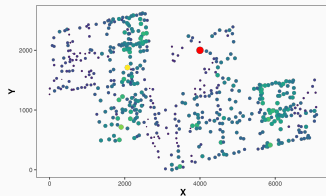
and from that the weights (with  $\sum_{i=1}^N w_i = 1$ ).

We're trying to predict  $\hat{Z}(x_0)$  using  $Z(x_i)$ , and  $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ .

```
# Location to predict at
x_0 <- data.frame(x = 4000,
                  y = 2000)
sp::coordinates(x_0) <- c("x", "y")
```

```
# Kriged estimate
gstat::krige(Bor ~ 1,
            data,
            model=fit.spherical,
            newdata = x_0)
```

```
[using ordinary kriging]
      coordinates var1.pred var1.var
1 (4000, 2000)  12.31154 21.43853
```



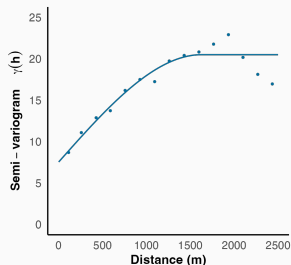
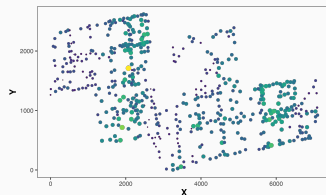
Usually we want to predict over a large spatial area.

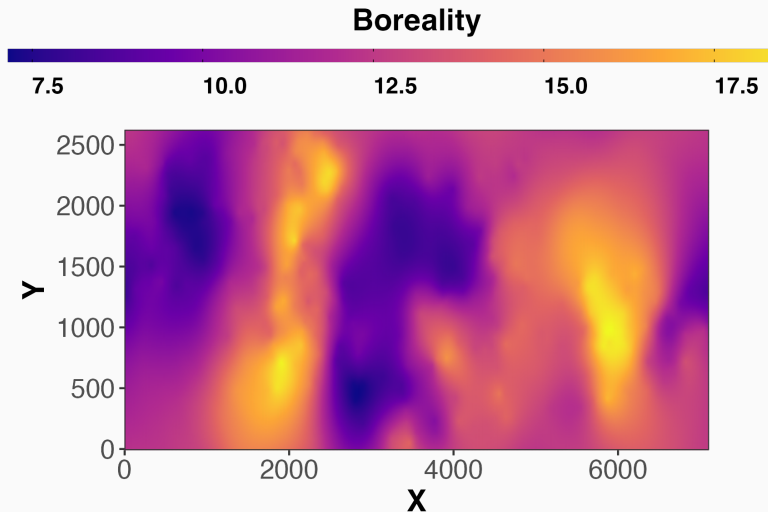
```
# Grid over the sampled area
grid <- makegrid(data, n=200000)
names(grid) <- c("x", "y")
sp::coordinates(grid) <- c("x","y")

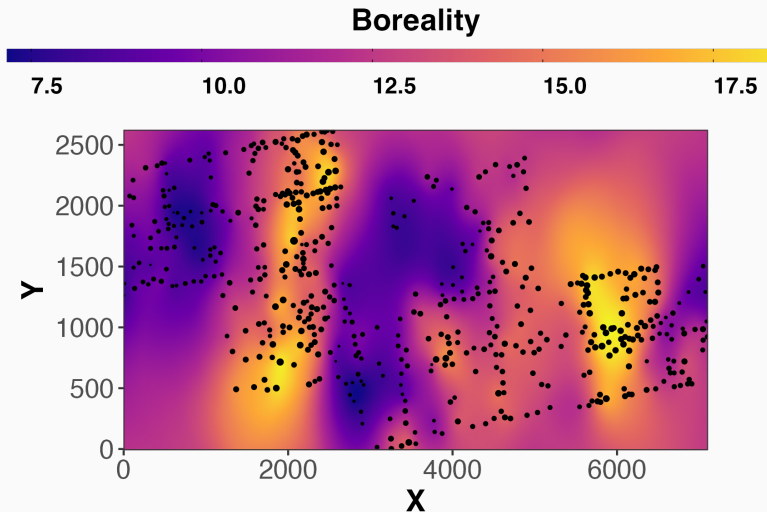
boreality.kriged <- krige(Bor ~ 1,
                          data,
                          newdata = grid,
                          model=fit.spherical)
```

```
head(boreality.kriged)
```

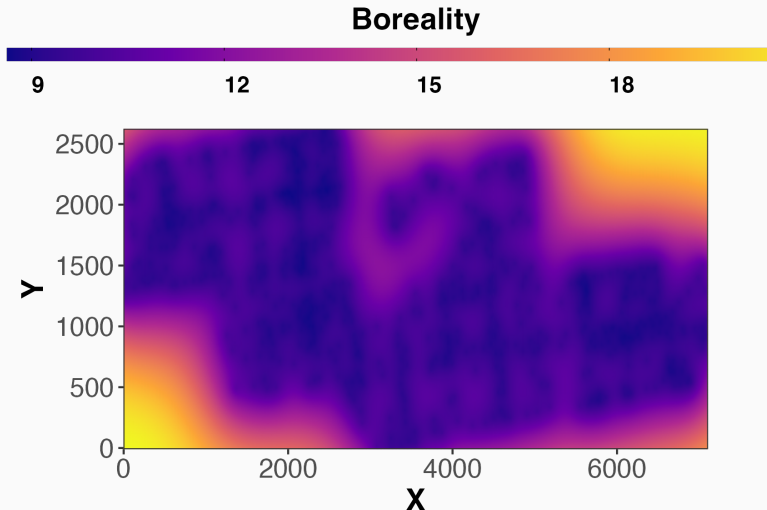
	coordinates	vari1.pred	vari1.var
1	(-2.89, 4.93)	12.21230	21.33647
2	(6.71, 4.93)	12.20009	21.32484
3	(16.31, 4.93)	12.18724	21.31255
4	(25.91, 4.93)	12.17376	21.29957
5	(35.51, 4.93)	12.15965	21.28588
6	(45.11, 4.93)	12.14492	21.27143



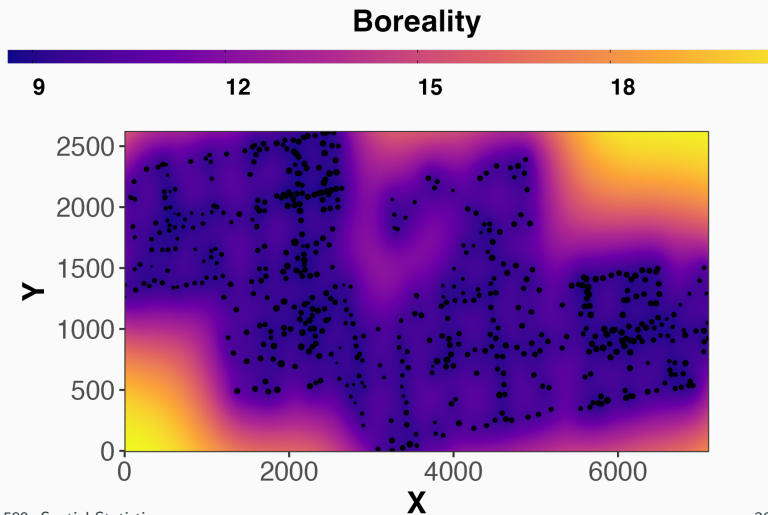




We also get an estimate of the variance at  $x_0$ . Do these patterns make sense?

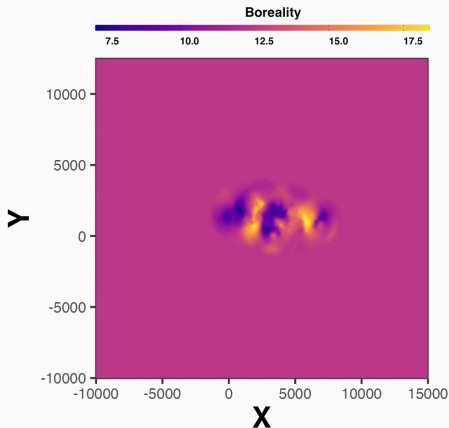


Variance is lowest where we have data ( $\sigma_{x_0}^2 = \text{nugget}$ ), and increases the further away from the samples we move.



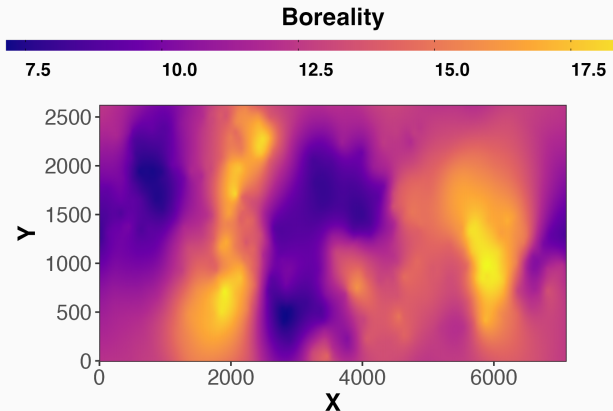


Kriging is a spatial interpolation method, so what happens if we try to extrapolate?



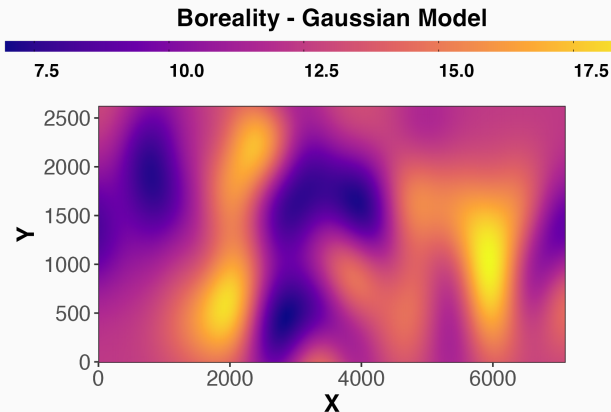
How far out can we reasonably predict?

The Kriging weights (and therefore the predictions) are very sensitive to the fitted semi-variogram.



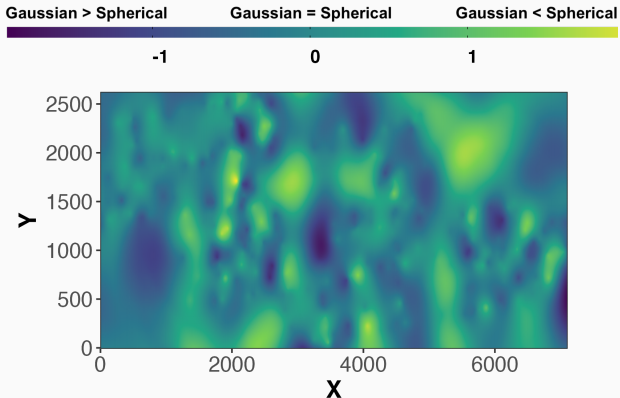
It's important to ensure the model is correctly specified.

The Kriging weights (and therefore the predictions) are very sensitive to the fitted semi-variogram.



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The Kriging weights (and therefore the predictions) are very sensitive to the fitted semi-variogram.



It's important to ensure the model is correctly specified.

Est. the weights requires a matrix inversion (doesn't scale well).

```
# predict at 100 locations
grid100 <- makegrid(data, n=100)
sp::coordinates(grid1) <- c("x1", "x2")
```

```
system.time(
  krige(Bor ~ 1,
    data,
    newdata = grid100,
    model=fit.spherical))
```

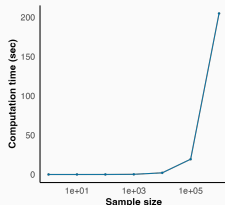
```
[using ordinary kriging]
  user  system elapsed
0.049   0.001   0.050
```

```
# predict at 10000 locations
grid10000 <- makegrid(data, n=10000)
sp::coordinates(grid10000) <- c("x1", "x2")
```

```
system.time(
  krige(Bor ~ 1,
    data,
    newdata = grid10000,
    model=fit.spherical))
```

```
[using ordinary kriging]
  user  system elapsed
2.066   0.024   2.096
```

4,000 times longer!

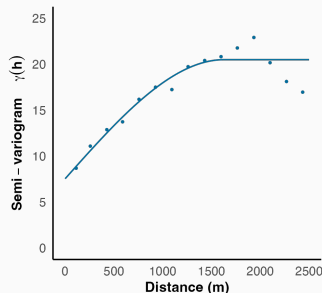


## **Considerations for Sampling Designs**

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Experimental designs that do not consider spatial autocorrelation risk being over/under-sampled.

Corrections exist to deal with issues of statistical bias, but they can't inject more information into a dataset when none exists.



Good study design should consider spatial autocorrelation *a priori*.

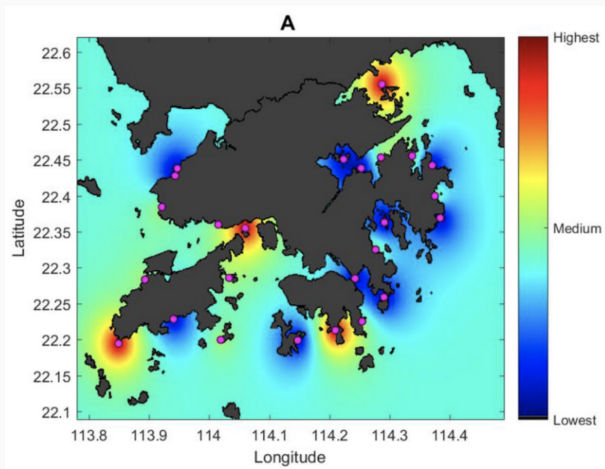
If you had to collect more data for the boreality study how far apart would you sample?  $\lesssim 1600m$  to see the autocorrelation,  $\gtrsim 1600m$  for IID data or for the mean/sill.

# Applied Kriging Analysis

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Coleby & Grist (2019) used a semi-variograms and kriging to map the distribution of marine plastic pollution in Hong Kong.



Fitting semi-variograms to spatial data can leverage the information contained in the autocorrelation structure and tell us a lot about the processes.

Kriging is a valuable tool for interpolating from spatially referenced data, but is not without limitations.

Kriging leverages information contained in the autocorrelation structure, but what about information contained in covariates?

Next lecture we will cover Kriging with covariates.

# References

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