# Spatial autocorrelation 3: Kriging with covariates

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DATA 589: Spatial Statistics



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- 2. Co-Kriging
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# Review



Last lecture we learned how to fit semi-variograms to spatial data, and leverage the information contained in autocorrelation structures to learn about processes.

We also saw how Kriging can use the information contained in these models to interpolate spatially referenced data, but that it is sensitive to model specification, spatially constrained, and slow.

Ordinary Kriging leverages information contained in the autocorrelation structure to make predictions, but doesn't use any information from covariates.

Today we will cover a suite of tools for making predictions with covariates (i.e., co-Kriging, regression Kriging, and regression with autocorrelated errors). DATA 589: Spatial Statistics 4

# **Co-Kriging**



When Kriging, we are trying to predict the values of some target variable, but we could have just measured the variable everywhere we wanted to predict.

In reality, this is rarely possible because its costly and time consuming to collect the data, which means we have typically have few observations.

... but if there is another variable that is cheaper/easier to measure, and covaries with our target variable, then we can collect more observations and leverage their information to improve our estimates.



Co-Kriging is an extension of ordinary Kriging in which additional observed variables are used to improve the interpolation of the variable of interest.

Co-Kriging does **not** require that the secondary information is available at all prediction locations.

The co-variable may be measured at the same points as the target (co-located samples), at other points, or both.



Where Kriging relied on the variogram to make predictions, co-kriging relies on the cross-variogram.

$$\hat{\gamma}_{AB}(h) = \frac{1}{2N(h)} \sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j}^{m} \{ Z_{A}(x_{i}) - Z_{A}(x_{j}) \} \{ Z_{B}(x_{i}) - Z_{B}(x_{j}) \}$$

If differences between point-pairs of variable A are associated with differences between point-pairs of variable B, they will have a strong cross-correlation.



Prediction of the target variable at unknown locations  $s_0$  is computed as a linear combination of *n* locations of the target variable *A* and *p* locations of a co-variable *B*.

$$\hat{Z}(s_0) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i Z_A(s_i) + \sum_{j=1}^p \alpha_j Z_B(s_j)$$

where  $\lambda$  and  $\alpha$  are the weights for target variable and co-variable, and  $\sum\lambda=1$  and  $\sum\alpha=0.$ 

Note: the direct and cross-variograms must be modeled together, to ensure that the weights can be calculated (for more details see: Knotters *et al.*, 1995).



Today we'll work with data on soil organic carbon (SOC; in g/kg) in central Mexico from (Fusaro *et al.*, 2019)



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### We could map the distribution of SOC via ordinary Kriging



... but what if we know SOC is related to environmental productivity? ...and we had lots of data on env. prod. DATA 589: Spatial Statistics



NDVI is a satellite derived measure of environmental productivity (global, updated every 16 days).



### **Co-Kriging in** R cont.



19.30

19.25





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1

2

## **Co-Kriging in** R cont.



```
#Combine into gstat object
g <- gstat(NULL, id = "SOC", form = SOC ~ 1,
     data=data)
g <- gstat(g, id = "NDVI", form = NDVI ~ 1, data
     =data)
#Estimate cross-variogram
vg.cross <- gstat::variogram(g)
# Fit the model
g <- gstat(g, id = "NDVI", model = ndvi.fit,
           fill_all=T)
g <- fit.lmc(vg.cross, g)
variograms:
            model
                         psill
                                 range
SOC [1]
              Nug 2.603204e+02 0.00000
SOC [2]
              Gau 4.074533e+02 4.95741
NDVI[1]
             Nug 1.858219e-03 0.00000
NDVT [2]
        Gau 5.546710e-02 4.95741
SOC.NDVI[1] Nug 0.000000e+00 0.00000
SOC.NDVI[2]
             Gau 1,869458e+00 4,95741
```



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B

SOC.cokriged <- predict(g, grid)





The direct and cross-variograms must be modeled together, so this places an additional constraint of all variables requiring the same model and range.

Quality of the predictions will depend on the strength of the correlations. If there is no, or only a weak correlation between the variables, co-Kriging might not be of benefit.

Even more sensitive to model misspecification.

Slower than ordinary Kriging.



### Still an interpolation method.



**Regression Kriging** 



Co-kriging relies on correlations to improve the accuracy of predictions, but if we know there's a correlation between our variables, couldn't we just use regression to make our predictions?





Regression-Kriging operates under the principle that the value of a target variable at some location  $s_0$  can be modeled as a sum of the deterministic  $m(s_0)$  and stochastic  $e(s_0)$  components.

$$\hat{z}(\mathsf{s}_0) = \hat{m}(\mathsf{s}_0) + \hat{e}(\mathsf{s}_0) = \sum_{k=0}^p \hat{\beta}_k \cdot q_k(\mathsf{s}_0) + \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \cdot e(\mathsf{s}_i)$$

where  $\hat{m}(s_0)$  is the fitted deterministic part,  $\hat{e}(s_0)$  is the Kriged residual,  $\hat{\beta}_k$  are estimated deterministic model coefficients,  $\lambda_i$  are kriging weights, and  $e(s_i)$  is the residual at location  $s_i$ .



Regression-Kriging pairs a regression model's capacity to make predictions based on relationships between variables,  $\hat{m}(s_0)$ , with Kriging's capacity to leverage the autocorrelation structure,  $\hat{e}(s_0)$ .





## Regression-Kriging in R





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30

15

20 25

Fitted



#### Next we estimate the stochastic part, $\hat{e}(s_i)$

```
# Variogram of the residuals
vg <- variogram(residuals ~ 1, data = data)
#Fit the correlation model
s_hat <- fit.variogram(vg, vgm("Sph"))</pre>
```

```
s_hat
```

	model	psill	range
1	Nug	122.0617	0.00000
2	Sph	375.1581	2.762111



## Regression-Kriging in R cont.



#### Then we predict from our two models.

```
#Create a dataframe of NDVI to predict from
NDVI_data <- rasterToPoints(NDVI, spatial = T)
NDVI_data <- as.data.frame(NDVI_data)
names(NDVI_data) <- c("NDVI", "Long", "Lat")</pre>
```

```
# Predict from the deterministic model
m_hat_s0 <- predict(m_hat, newdata = NDVI_data)</pre>
```

newdata = grid, model=residuals.fit)







#### ...and finish by summing the two.

z\_hat <- m\_hat\_s0 + e\_hat\_s0@data\$var1.pred</pre>

Predict from regression model





**Regression-Kriged Prediction** 





Regression-Kriging is generally more accurate than Kriging or co-Kriging alone (for details see: Knotters *et al.*, 1995).

Regression-Kriging is a generalisation of both regression and Kriging (when there's no autocorrelation RK = regression, when there's no regression model, RK = Kriging).

Can be used to interpolate and extrapolate (outside the range where correlations are observed the predictions are made by the regression model alone), but requires that the values of the regression model be sampled everywhere you want to predict.

Quality of the predictions depends on two models, so it is still sensitive to model misspecification.

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# **Regression with Correlated Errors**



Everything we've covered so far has focused on predicting the value of some target variable at an unobserved location, but what if we just want to model a system using spatially collected data?



For example, when predicting election outcomes, we're not necessarily interested in predicting over space, but ignoring autocorrelation can result in poorly behaved models.



### The standard linear regression model has the following form:

$$y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times x_i + \varepsilon_i \qquad \varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, V) \qquad V = \sigma^2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagonal defines the variances. All 1s indicates homogeneity of variances.

The off-diagonals define the co-variances. The 0s indicate independence.

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Correcting for autocorrelation 'simply' involves identifying the autocorrelation structure of the residuals and modifying the variance-covariance matrix.

When the residuals are autocorrelated, the off-diagonals  $\neq 0$ .

For spatial data, the correlation structure is estimated by the semi-variance model of the residuals.



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Our starting point is the linear regression model:

 $SOC_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 NDVI_i + \beta_2 Elevation_i + \beta_3 Elevation_i^2 + \varepsilon_i$ 





```
# Import the nlme packge for fitting the model
librarv(nlme)
# Fit the model using REML
FIT <- gls(SOC ~ NDVI + Altitude + I(Altitude^2), data = DATA)
# Summary of the fitted model
summary(FIT)
Generalized least squares fit by REML
  Model: SOC ~ NDVI + Altitude + I(Altitude^2)
 Data: DATA
      ATC
              BIC logLik
  3700.407 3720.795 -1845.203
Coefficients:
                 Value Std.Error t-value p-value
(Intercept) -750.6398 44.42102 -16.898303 0.0000
NDVT
            -14.5660 4.55503 -3.197777 0.0015
              0.4626 0.02759 16.766968 0.0000
Altitude
I(Altitude<sup>2</sup>) -0.0001 0.00000 -16.034018 0.0000
```

## Autocorr. in the SOC data



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Variogram indicates autocorrelation, so results can't be trusted.



A model with exponential spatial correlation structure can be fit via the corExp() function.

```
summary(FIT_Exp)
```

```
Correlation Structure: Exponential spatial correlation
Formula: ~Long + Lat
Parameter estimate(s):
range nugget
0.01583927 0.33726949
```

 Coefficients:
 Value
 Std.Error
 t-value
 p-value

 (Intercept)
 -541.3500
 58.15165
 -9.309281
 0.0000

 NDVI
 -6.3930
 6.23897
 -1.024681
 0.3061

 Altitude
 0.3306
 0.030602
 9.179753
 0.0000

 I(Altitude^2)
 0.0000
 0.00001
 -8.558770
 0.0000

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### **Corrected model residuals**



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#### Original Model

Generalized least squares fit by REML Model: SOC ~ NDVI + Altitude + I(Altitude^2) Data: DATA ATC BIC logLik 3700 407 3720 795 - 1845 703

Coefficients:

	Value	Std.Error	t-value	p-value
(Intercept)	-750.6398	44.42102	-16.898303	0.0000
NDVI	-14.5660	4.55503	-3.197777	0.0015
Altitude	0.4626	0.02759	16.766968	0.0000
I(Altitude^2)	-0.0001	0.00000	-16.034018	0.0000

Correlation:

(Intr) NDVI Altitd NDVI 0.403 Altitude -0.998 -0.402 I(Altitude^2) 0.990 0.356 -0.996

Standardized residuals:

Min Q1 Med Q3 Max -2.66932611 -0.70685019 -0.04261766 0.56562345 4.61986860

Residual standard error: 15.60856 Degrees of freedom: 440 total; 436 residual

#### Spatial correlation model

```
Generalized least sauares fit by REML
 Model: SOC ~ NDVI + Altitude + I(Altitude^2)
 Data: DATA
      ATC
               BTC
                   loaLik
  3490 333 3518 876 -1738 166
Correlation Structure: Exponential spatial correlation
Formula: ~Long + Lat
Parameter estimate(s):
     ranae
              nugget
0.01583927 0.33726949
Coefficients:
                 Value Std.Error t-value p-value
(Intercept) -541.3500 58.15165 -9.309281 0.0000
NDVT
               -6.3930 6.23897 -1.024681 0.3061
Altitude
                0.3306 0.03602 9.179753 0.0000
I(Altitude^2)
                0.0000 0.00001 -8.558770 0.0000
Correlation:
             (Intr) NDVI Altitd
NDVT
              0 153
             -0 995 -0 179
∆l+itude
I(Altitude^2) 0.981 0.161 -0.994
Standardized residuals:
       Min
                    01
                               Med
                                                      Max
-2.32734273 -0.67849720 0.03326135 0.70771455 4.89984702
Residual standard error: 15.05363
Degrees of freedom: 440 total: 436 residual
```

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There are different options for incorporating covariates when modelling spatial data, and each has their pros and cons.

Co-Kriging allows you to incorporate covariates, and doesn't require that the samples are co-located, but places constraints on the models and only interpolates.

Regression-Kriging allows you to incorporate covariates, can extrapolate, but requires that the information on the covariates are available at the prediction locations.

Correlated error models can improve the reliability of regression models, but aren't designed for spatial predictions.

## References

- Fusaro, C., Sarria-Guzmán, Y., Chávez-Romero, Y.A., Luna-Guido, M., Muñoz-Arenas, L.C., Dendooven, L., Estrada-Torres, A. & Navarro-Noya, Y.E. (2019). Land use is the main driver of soil organic carbon spatial distribution in a high mountain ecosystem. *PeerJ*, 7, e7897.
- Knotters, M., Brus, D. & Voshaar, J.O. (1995). A comparison of kriging, co-kriging and kriging combined with regression for spatial interpolation of horizon depth with censored observations. *Geoderma*, 67, 227–246.