

UBC Spatial Stats Course IV

Jürgen Pilz

Institut für Statistik
Universität Klagenfurt
Universitätsstr. 65-67, 9020 Klagenfurt, Austria
juergen.pilz@uni-klu.ac.at

November 16, 2010 / UBC Vancouver

Likelihood approach: Non-Gaussian Fields

A practical tool for handling small to moderate deviations from Gaussianity is the use of the **Box-Cox transformation**, which is characterized by a parameter λ . The original data z_i at given locations x_i are transformed to new data $y_i; i = 1, \dots, n$ given by

$$y_i = g_\lambda(z_i) = \begin{cases} \frac{z_i^\lambda - 1}{\lambda} & : \lambda \neq 0 \\ \log(z_i) & : \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$

and the transformed data vector $Y = (g_\lambda(z_1), \dots, g_\lambda(z_n))^T$ is assumed to follow a Gaussian distribution with

$$E(Y) = F\beta, \text{Cov}(Y) = K_\theta = \sigma^2(H_\psi + \tau_0^2 I_n).$$

Here $\tau_0^2 = \tau^2/\sigma^2$ denotes the noise-to-signal ratio, sometimes called the relative nugget effect.

The log-likelihood function is then given by

$$L(\mathbf{Z}; \beta, \theta, \lambda) = -\frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \log(\det(K_\theta))$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{g}_\lambda(\mathbf{Z}) - F\beta)^T K_\theta^{-1} (\mathbf{g}_\lambda(\mathbf{Z}) - F\beta) + (\lambda - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n \log(z_i),$$

where the last term comes from the Jacobian of the transformation:

$$\mathcal{J}_\lambda(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{dy_i}{dz_i} \right| = \left(\prod_{i=1}^n z_i \right)^{\lambda-1}$$

The maximization of the log-likelihood function proceeds by looking at the so-called **profile-(log) likelihoods**; e.g. the profile likelihood of λ means L considered as a function of λ , maximized with respect to the remaining parameters β and θ .

Analysis of Swiss rainfall data

The SIC rainfall data come from $n = 467$ locations where rainfall was measured (in units of mm). The data can be found in the R-library **geoR: data(SIC)**, for detailed information use **help(SIC)**.

Assumptions: Matérn covariance function + constant mean β .

Note: The constant mean assumption we make for the sake of simplicity. A better trend model would be the inclusion of "altitude", you can try this yourself.

Clearly, for large n (not the case here), the profile likelihoods will be hard to compute. An effective approximation strategy is to maximize the likelihood under the *false* assumption of independent observations z_i and ignoring the nugget effect, which leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{L}(z, \beta, \sigma^2, \lambda) &= (\lambda - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n \log(z_i) - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi) \\ &\quad - \frac{n}{2} \log(\sigma^2) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (g_\lambda(z_i) - \beta)^2 \end{aligned}$$

instead of L . This results in an estimate $\hat{\lambda} = 0.537$ (check it!). The correct estimates (based on the profile likelihood, see the attached R-code) are

- for $\kappa = 0.5$: $\hat{\lambda} = 0.514$ ($\log L = -2464.25$)
- for $\kappa = 1.0$: $\hat{\lambda} = 0.508$ ($\log L = -2462.41$)
- for $\kappa = 2.0$: $\hat{\lambda} = 0.508$ ($\log L = -2464.16$).

There is little change in response to changes in κ , nevertheless, $\kappa = 1$ is slightly favoured. So, the choice of λ is clear: we choose $\lambda = 0.5$, which implies a square-root transformation of the data.

Now we can go on with the profile likelihood, again using the function **likfit** in geoR. We get the following estimates:

κ	$\hat{\beta}$	$\hat{\sigma}^2$	$\hat{\phi}$	$\hat{\tau}^2$	$\log - \text{lik.}$
0.5	18.36	118.82	87.97	2.48	-2464.3
1.0	20.13	105.06	35.79	6.92	-2462.4
2.0	21.36	88.58	17.73	8.72	-2464.2

We note the following effects:

- $\hat{\tau}^2$ increases with κ
- $\hat{\phi}$ decreases considerably with increasing κ . This points to the fact that interpretation of $\phi = \text{range}$ cannot be made independently of $\kappa = \text{smoothness}$.

Most importantly, the likelihood fitted values result in a variogram model which is usually in good agreement with the conventional variogram fit at short distances, but differs at medium distances (see the Matérn variogram below).

As a rule, the likelihood fitted variogram discounts the empirical semivariogram values at medium distances.

For producing maps we may use **Monte Carlo** approximations using the geoR- built in functions **likfit**, **krige.control** and **output.control**.

First we create a *likfit* object with our fixed values $\kappa = 1$ and $\lambda = 0.5$, and (rough) initial values for sill, range and nugget:

```
mlsic=likfit(geodata=sic.all, ini.cov.pars=c(100,50), nugget=5,  
            kappa=1,lambda=0.5, cov.model="mat")
```

which is then passed on to *krige.control*:

```
kctrl = krige.control(obj.model=mlsic)
```

The MC-option and the number of simulations, 1000, say, are passed on via

```
octrl = output.control(n.pred=1000, simul=T, thres=250)
```

This option will allow us to produce a map of probabilities for the rainfall exceeding a given threshold of 250 mm, say. After creating a prediction grid with regular spacing of 7.5 km (and using the border lines which are included in `data(SIC)`),

```
pgrid= pred_grid(sic.borders, by= 7.5)
```

we pass on all specifications to the conventional kriging function:

```
krige.conv(sic.all, loc=pgrid, borders=sic.borders,  
           krige=kctrl, out=octrl)
```

With these specifications, we are quite flexible in evaluating even non-linear functionals of our predictions, just by use of appropriate MC evaluations. We give two examples of such evaluations:

Example 1:

We want to estimate the proportion of the total area (of Switzerland) for which the rainfall exceeded an amount of 150mm . This can be easily done using the built-in function **apply** and then taking the mean:

```
area150= apply(pred$simul, 2, function(x)
              {sum(x>150)/length(x)})
```

```
mean(area150)
```

Looking at the histogram we can get the whole predictive distribution of *area150*:

```
hist(area150, freq=F)
```

From this distribution we can easily infer confidence intervals a.s.o. (see RScript and figures to follow).

Example 2:

We want to produce a map displaying the probabilities of exceeding a rainfall threshold value of 250mm, i.e. we are interested in getting $P(Z(x) > 250)$ all over Switzerland. We have already set the corresponding options "**simul=T**" and "**thres=250**" in **output.control** and specified the number of simulations to be done (here: `n.pred=1000`).

The 1000 realizations of conventional kriging predictions are contained in **pred\$prob** as part of the output list of the object:

```
pred=krige.conv(sic.all, loc=pgrid, borders=sic.borders,  
              krige=kctrl, out=octrl)
```

The map can then be displayed in the usual way:

```
image(pred, val=1-pred$prob, col=gray(seq(1, 0.1, l=25)),  
      x.legend=c(0, 350), y.legend=c(-60, -30))
```

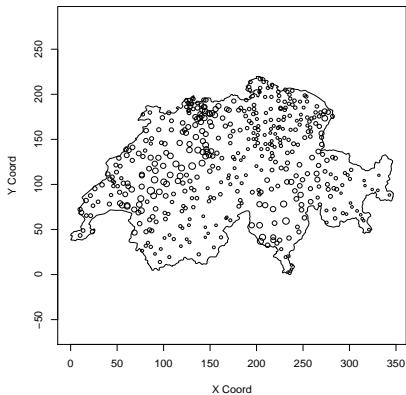


Figure: SIC97: Swiss rainfall data

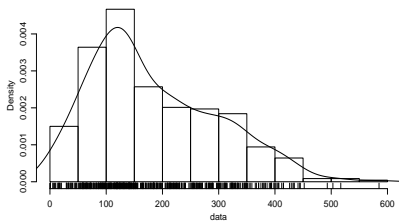
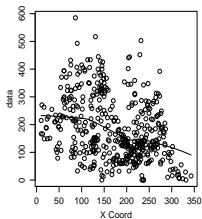
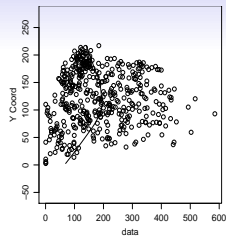
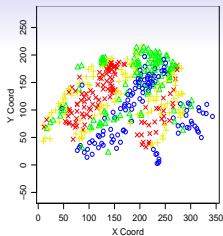


Figure: Exploratory analysis, constancy along the coordinates

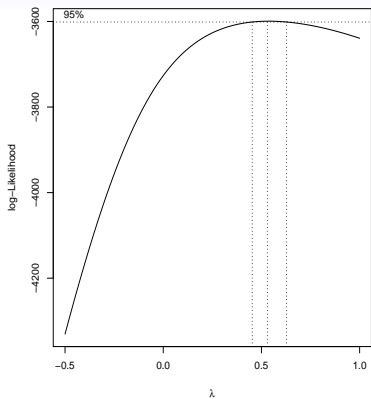


Figure: Profile likelihood of λ assuming independence

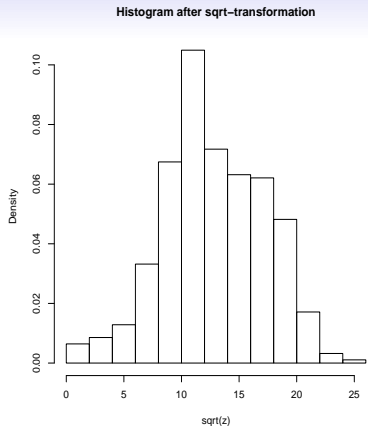
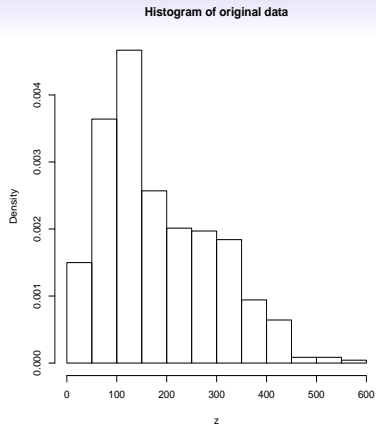


Figure: Histograms before and after transformation

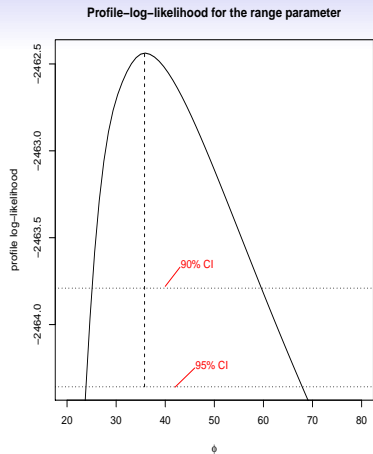


Figure: SIC97: Profile likelihood of range

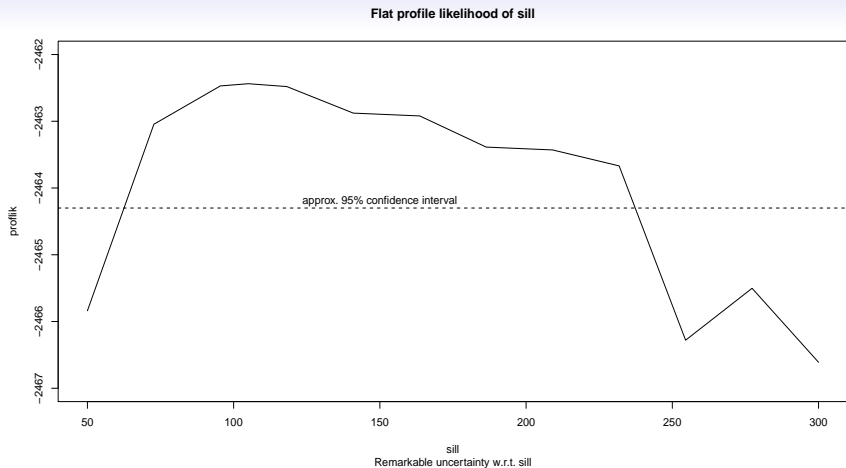


Figure: Profile likelihood of sill

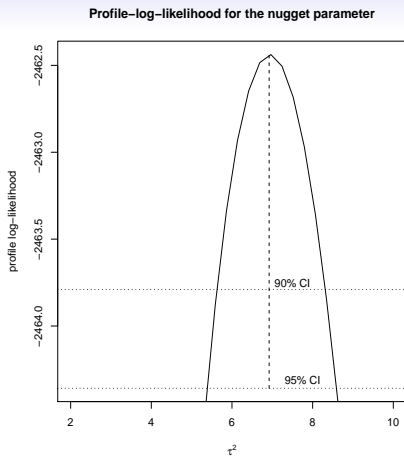


Figure: Profile likelihood of nugget

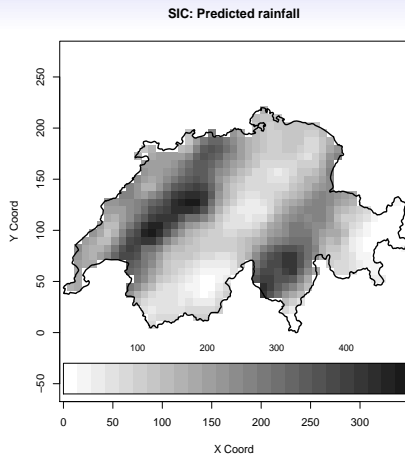


Figure: SIC97: Plug-in predictions

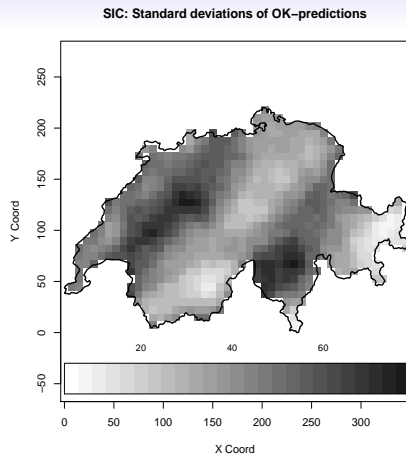


Figure: SIC97: Plug-in standard deviations

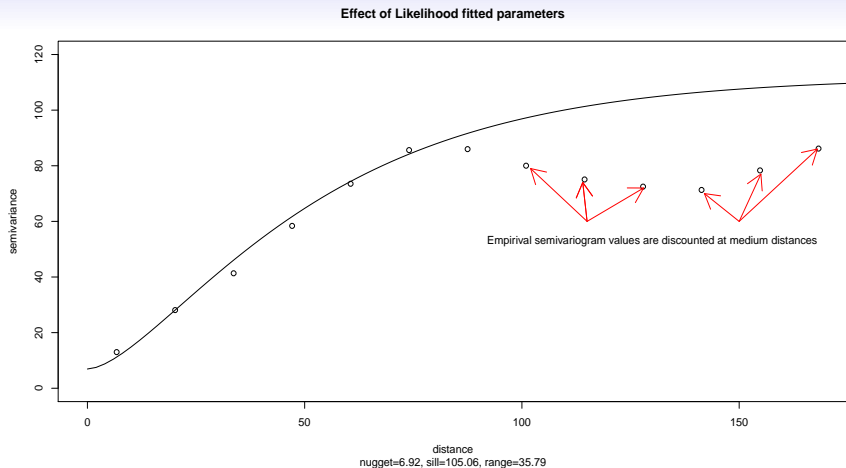


Figure: Matérn variogram with likelihood fitted parameters ($\kappa = 1.0$)

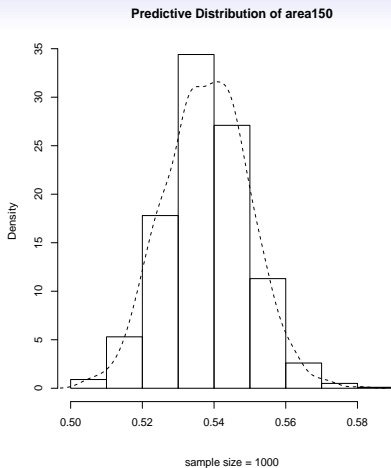


Figure: SIC97: Proportion of area >150

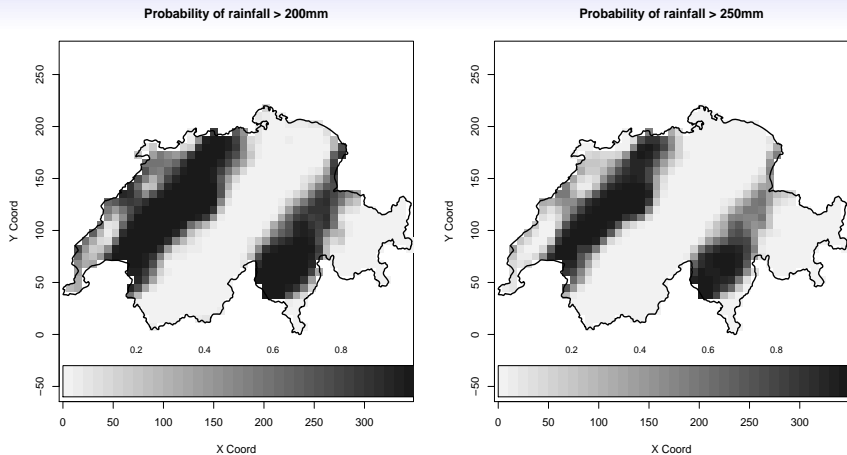


Figure: Exceedance probabilities