Modelling multiple pollutants at mutiple sites: a case study in Bayesian hierarchical modelling using WinBUGS

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Aims

- ▶ Investigate the spatial-temporal modelling of pollutants.
- ► Assess the contribution of different components of variability; spatial, temporal and random variability.
- Develop methodology to provide:
 - exposures (and measures of uncertainty) for use in mapping of environmental factors
 - studies investigating the health effects of pollution.
- ▶ Fit models and perform analyses in WinBUGS.

Overview

- Background
- Data
 - Pollutant dependence
 - Temporal dependence
 - Spatial dependence
 - Missing values
 - Measurement error
- Models
 - ► Single pollutant, single monitoring site
 - Single pollutant, multiple monitoring sites
 - Multiple pollutants, single monitoring site
 - Multiple pollutants, multiple monitoring sites
- Summary
- Examples of implementation

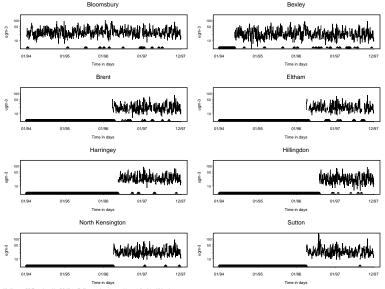
Background

- ▶ Daily measurements often available for different pollutants from a number of sites
- May be subject to measurement error
- Contain missing values
 - ▶ Pollutants not measured at all sites
 - Monitor being moved by design, e.g. six-day monitoring schedule
 - Unreliable or faulty monitors

Data

- ▶ Eight sites within London, 1997-94
- ▶ PM₁₀, SO₂, NO and CO.
- ▶ All pollutants only measured at only 4 sites.
- Periods of operation between 1 and 4 years.
- ▶ Percentage of missing values as great as 37%.

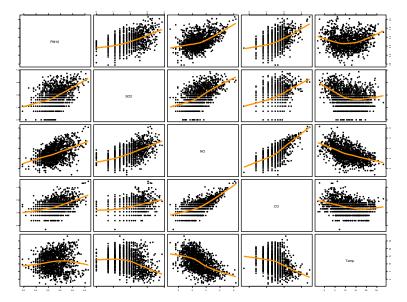
Time series plots of (logged) values of PM_{10}







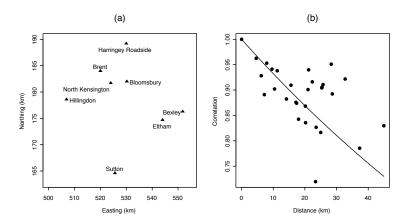
Correlations between pollutants and temperature



Data dependencies

- ► There are dependencies, both temporally and spatially, between daily measurements of different pollutants.
 - ▶ Pollutant dependence common processes by which they are formed and the relationship with meteorological conditions.
 - ► Temporal dependence atmospheric lifetimes and relationship with meteorological conditions.
 - ► Spatial dependencies distance between sites and site type.

Locations of monitoring sites and correlations with distance



Model framework

- Bayesian hierarchical model.
- ▶ Pollutants modelled as a function of the true underlying level with measurement error.
- ▶ Incorporate covariate information, e.g. temperature.
- ▶ Underlying level is a function of the previous day's level.
- ► Missing values treated as unknown parameters within the Bayesian framework and can be estimated.

Single pollutant, single monitoring site

► Stage One, Observed Data Model:

$$Y_t = X_t^T \beta_1 + \theta_t + v_t,$$

 v_t is referred to as *measurement error*, and assumed to be are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) as $N(0, \sigma_v^2)$

► Stage Two, Temporal Model:

Autoregressive first order model

$$\theta_t = \rho \theta_{t-1} + w_t$$

 w_t i.i.d. as $N(0, \sigma_w^2)$.

Stage Three, Hyperprior:

Normal prior N(c, C) for β_1 , where c is a $q_1 \times 1$ vector and C a $q_1 \times q_1$ variance-covariance matrix.

$$\sigma_v^{-2}\sim Ga(a_v,b_v)$$
 and $\sigma_w^{-2}\sim Ga(a_w,b_w)$ and $\sigma_w^{-2}\sim Ga(a_w,b_w)$

Posterior distribution

The posterior distribution is given by

$$p(\theta, \beta_1, \sigma_v^2, \sigma_w^2 | y) = p(y)^{-1} \left\{ \prod_{t=1}^T p(y_t | \theta_t, \beta_1, \sigma_v^2) \right\} \times \left\{ \prod_{t=2}^T p(\theta_t | \theta_{t-1}, \sigma_w^2) \right\} \times p(\theta_1) p(\beta_1) p(\sigma_v^2) p(\sigma_w^2)$$

- ► Samples may be generated in a straightforward fashion using Markov chain Monte Carlo (using the WinBUGS software)
- ▶ Dealing with the cyclical graph that arises at stage two, requires some of the conditional distributions to be explicitly specified

 Missing values are treated as parameters and the posterior obtained over these values and the model parameters.
 Samples can be generated from the distribution of missing values

$$p(y_m|y_o) = \int p(y_m|\lambda)p(\lambda|y_o)d\lambda$$

where
$$\lambda = (\theta, \beta_1, \sigma_v^2, \sigma_w^2)'$$

Implementing the models in WinBUGS

The dataset we will use contains the following information:

Table: Summary of pollutants measured, and periods of operation, at eight sites in London, 1994–97. The total number of days of operation are given for each pollutant at each site together with the percentage of missing observations. The units are $\mu \mathrm{gm}^{-3}$ for PM $_{10}$, parts per billion for SO $_2$ and NO and parts per million for CO.

	Period	Total	Missing	%	Mean	Min.	25%	Med.	75%	Max.
Bexley										
PM_{10}	1994-97	1461	211	14.4	24.0	4.0	15.0	20.0	29.0	92.0
SO_2	1994, 1996-97	1095	178	16.3	6.9	1.0	3.0	4.0	8.0	76.0
NO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CO	1994-97	1461	192	13.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	4.4
Bloomsbury										
PM_{10}	1994-97	1461	61	4.2	28.0	7.0	19.0	24.0	34.0	103.0
SO_2	1994-97	1461	115	7.9	8.3	1.0	4.0	6.0	11.0	48.0
NO	1994-97	1461	44	3.0	42.4	4.0	19.0	30.0	50.0	467.0
CO	1994-97	1461	68	4.7	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.6	8.0	4.3
Brent										
PM_{10}	1996-97	731	120	16.4	20.8	6.0	14.0	18.0	25.0	82.0
SO_2	1996-97	731	33	4.5	4.4	1.0	2.0	3.0	5.2	20.0
NO	1996-97	731	57	7.8	23.8	1.0	5.0	8.0	22.5	414.0
CO	1996-97	366	15	4.1	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.7	5.0
Eltham										
PM_{10}	1996-97	731	166	22.7	21.2	8.0	15.0	18.0	25.0	81.0
SO_2	1996-97	731	91	12.4	4.6	1.0	2.0	3.0	5.0	40.0
NO	1996-97	731	95	13.0	21.7	1.0	5.0	9.0	20.0	339.0
CO	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

	Period	Total	Missing	%	Mean	Min.	25%	Med.	75%	Max.
Harringey										
PM ₁₀	1996-97	731	161	22.0	26.2	8.0	18.0	22.0	32.0	89.0
SO_2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NO	1996-97	731	139	19.0	63.3	5.0	28.0	43.0	68.6	562.0
CO	-	-	=.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hillingdon										
PM_{10}	1996-97	731	225	30.8	24.5	6.0	16.0	21.0	31.0	88.0
SO_2	1996-97	731	230	31.5	5.1	1.0	3.0	4.0	6.0	28.0
NO	1996-97	731	252	34.5	81.9	2.0	31.0	67.0	105.0	506.0
CO	1996-97	731	268	36.7	8.0	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	4.3
N. Kensington										
PM ₁₀	1996-97	731	99	13.5	23.6	9.0	16.0	20.0	27.2	89.0
SO_2	1996-97	731	91	12.4	4.6	1.0	2.0	3.0	6.0	32.0
NO	1996-97	731	106	14.5	27.6	1.0	6.0	11.0	25.0	442.0
CO	1996-97	731	93	12.7	1.2	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.3	16.6
Sutton										
PM_{10}	1996-97	731	92	12.6	25.1	9.0	17.0	22.0	29.0	250.0
SO_2	1996-97	731	96	13.1	4.9	1.0	2.7	4.0	6.0	28.4
NO	1996-97	731	106	14.5	51.1	3.0	26.3	39.0	57.0	404.0
СО	1996-97	731	104	14.2	1.1	0.2	0.8	1.0	1.3	6.7

Single pollutant, single monitoring site

Stage One, Observed Data Model:

$$Y_t = X_t^T \beta_1 + \theta_t + v_t,$$

 v_t is referred to as *measurement error*, and assumed to be are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) as $N(0,\sigma_v^2)$

▶ In WinBUGS (ignoring the covariates for simplicity) model { for (t in 2:(n-1)) { # observation model y[t] ~ dnorm(theta[t],tau.v) } #tloop y[1]~dnorm(theta[1],tau.v) y[n]~dnorm(theta[n],tau.v) tau.v ~ dgamma(1,0.01) # end of model

Stage Two, Temporal Model:

$$\theta_t = \rho \theta_{t-1} + w_t$$

 w_t i.i.d. as $N(0, \sigma_w^2)$.

- From here, we use $\rho=1$, i.e. a first order random walk, for clarity of explanation.
- ▶ Recall that from a Bayesian perspective, the second (temporal) stage may be viewed as a prior distribution for $\theta' = (\theta_1, ..., \theta_T)$, and that $p(\theta|\sigma_w^2)$, can be expressed as

$$p(\theta_t | \theta_{-t}, \sigma_w^2) \sim \begin{cases} N(\theta_{t+1}, \sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t = 1, \\ N\left(\frac{\theta_{t-1} + \theta_{t+1}}{2}, \frac{\sigma_w^2}{2}\right) & \text{for } t = 2, ..., T - 1, \\ N(\theta_{t-1}, \sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t = T. \end{cases}$$

where θ_{-t} represents the vector of θ 's with θ_t removed. It is noted that σ_w^2 is a *conditional* variance and so it is not comparable to σ_v^2 .

➤ This is the reason for for (t in 2:(n-1)) and defining the end points separately.

► In WinBUGS

```
model {
       for (t in 2:(T-1)) {
# system model
               tmp.theta[t] \leftarrow (theta[t-1]+theta[t+1])/2
               theta[t] ~ dnorm(tmp.theta[t],tau.w2)
} # t loop
theta[1]~dnorm(theta[2],tau.w)
theta[T]~dnorm(theta[n-1],tau.w)
tau.w ~ dgamma(r.w,d.w)
sigma.w <- 1 / sqrt(tau.w)</pre>
  } # end of model
```

- Note that because we are dealing with dealing with the cyclical graph at this stage, unless we make specific allowance there will be double counting of the likelihood terms (where for example θ will appear as both a parent of θ_{t-1} and as a child of θ_{t+1} and so we have to either
 - explicitly specify some of the full conditional distributions (using the RW structure). It is possible to do this in WinBUGS, although not widely documented. On the previous slide we need to explicitly find the contribution of the likelihood (the data) to the posterior for σ_w^2 , i.e. r.w and d.w in tau.w \sim dgamma(r.w,d.w)
 - use an in-built WinBUGS function which allows for this, using the equivalence with a intrinsic CAR (conditionally autoregressive) model.

Note that Gamma prior and with Normal likelihood combine to give a Gamma posterior.

$$\begin{split} p(\theta|\tau_w) &\sim N(\theta_{t-1},\tau_w). \text{ Note use of } \tau_w = 1/\sigma_w^2. \\ p(\tau_w) &\sim Ga(r,d) \\ \\ p(\tau_w|\theta) &\propto d^r \tau_w^{(r-1)} \exp(-d\tau_w) \\ &\times \tau_w^{(n/2)} \exp\{\tau/2\sum_{t=2}^N (\theta_t - \theta_{t-1})^2\} \\ &\propto d^r \tau_w^{(r+n/2-1)} \exp(\tau_w \{d + \sum_{t=2}^N (\theta_t - \theta_{t-1})^2)\} \end{split}$$

So the posterior $p(\tau_w|\theta) \sim Ga(r+n/2, d+\sum_{t=2}^{N}(\theta_t-\theta_{t-1})^2/2)$

Specifying the full conditionals

- We need to calculate the contribution of the likelihood ourselves and then combine this with the prior to give the posterior.
- ▶ In WinBUGS

```
model {
       for (t in 2:(T-1)) {
# calculate the contribution to the likelihood for
# full conditionals
tau.w.like[t] <-pow((theta[t]-tmp.theta[t]),2)</pre>
} # t loop
tau.w.like[1] <- 0
tau.w.like[T] <- pow((theta[T]-theta[T-1]),2)</pre>
 # model
```

► In WinBUGS

```
tau.w2 <- tau.w*2
d <-1
r <- 0.01
    d.w <- d+sum(tau.w.like[])/2
    r.w <- r + n/2
    tau.w ~ dgamma(r.w,d.w)</pre>
```

Note this uses a prior of Ga(1,0.01) for τ_w which is 'hard-wired' into the code at this point, the values of r and d could also be an input to the model in the form of data.

► The whole model in WinBUGS, model1.odc

```
# Single site, one pollutant (note likelihood calculations because of the cyclical model)
model {
       for (t in 2:(T-1)) {
# observation model
              v[t] ~ dnorm(theta[t],tau.v)
# system model
              tmp.theta[t] <- (theta[t-1]+theta[t+1])/2
              theta[t] ~ dnorm(tmp.theta[t].tau.w2)
# calculate the contribution to the likelihood for full conditionals
tau.w.like[t] <-pow((theta[t]-tmp.theta[t]),2)
} # t loop
# need to define the end points separately
theta[1]~dnorm(theta[2],tau.w)
theta[T]~dnorm(theta[T-1],tau.w)
v[1]~dnorm(theta[1],tau,v)
y[T]~dnorm(theta[T],tau.v)
# calculate the contributions to likelihood & full conditionals
tau.w.like[1] <-
tau.w.like[T] <-
                    pow((theta[T]-theta[T-1]),2)
tau.w2 <- tau.w*2
d <-1
r < -0.01
     d.w <- d+sum(tau.w.like[])/2
     r.w < -r + T/2
      tau.v ~ dgamma(1,0.01)
      tau.w ~ dgamma(r.w,d.w)
      sigma2.v<-1/tau.v
      sigma.v<-sqrt(sigma2.v)
      sigma2.w <- 1 / tau.w
      sigma.w<-sgrt(sigma2.w)
```

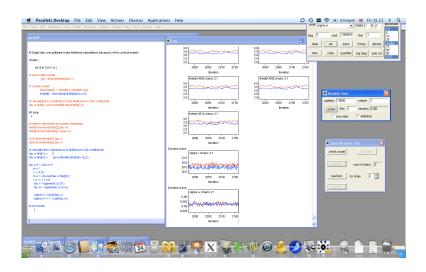
 Data for single site: PM₁₀ at Bloomsbury site, model1-data.odc.

▶ Note requirement to provide initial values for the missing values of y. Where there is data, i.e. not a random variable, need to put NA.

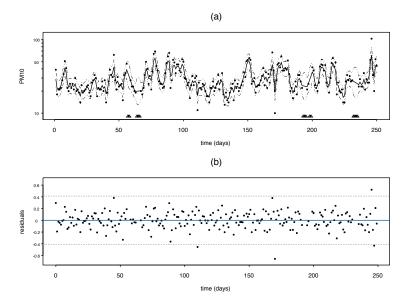
Need to set the parameters which you want to keep

- theta if you are interested in keeping all of them (there are 1461 of them, one for each day)
- theta[i] if you want to keep a single one of them
- ▶ theta[i:j] or theta[c(3,56,987)] if you want to keep a selection
- sigma.v the variance of the random error from the first level of the model
- sigma.w the variance of the random walk process from the second level of the model

Note that convergence is likely to take much longer than in simple examples!



Time series of 250 days of observed and estimated levels (together with their differences) of PM_{10} at Bloomsbury



Exercises

Without WinBUGS

1. Show that a random walk process of order 1 can be expressed in terms of an intrinsic CAR model, i.e. if $p(\theta_t|\theta_{t-1}) \sim N(\theta_{t-1},\sigma_w^2)$ then

$$p(\theta_t|\theta_{-t},\sigma_w^2) \sim \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} N(\theta_{t+1},\sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t=1, \\ N\left(\frac{\theta_{t-1}+\theta_{t+1}}{2},\frac{\sigma_w^2}{2}\right) & \text{for } t=2,...,T-1, \\ N(\theta_{t-1},\sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t=T. \end{array} \right.$$

where θ_{-t} represents the vector of θ 's with θ_t removed. Pay particular attention to any assumptions that need to be made when t=1 and t=T.

2. Show that a Gamma prior, $\tau_w \ Ga(a,b)$ combines with normal likelihood, $[\theta_t|\theta_{t-1},\tau_2] \sim N(\theta_{t-1},\tau_w)$, to give a Gamma posterior, paying particular attention to the form of the updated parameters.

Exercises

Using WinBUGS

- Open model1.odc and load the data (model1-data.odc) and compile the model with two chains. Initial values can be found for two chains in model1-inits1.odc and model2-inits2.odc.
- Run the model for a suitable number of iterations and calculate summary statistics for the posterior distributions of theta, sigma.v and sigma.w.
- 3. In R (or other package) plot the estimated values theta against the observed data, y. What do you conclude? Note that you may have to deal with the different lengths of the two series, remember that theta has no missing values in it.
- 4. Plot a suitable summary of the posterior values of theta (including their uncertainty) against time. What do you conclude about the uncertainty in the values of theta when the original data is missing?

Conditional (Spatial) Models

- Remember (or look up in the notes) the Scottish lip cancer model in which we proposed a simple Poisson-Gamma regression model.
- Before we considered an empirical Bayes approach, which has the advantage of being easy to fit but cannot be expanded to do spatial smoothing and is not quite 'right' statistically.
- ▶ Now we consider a fully Bayesian approach, which requires a prior distribution on regression parameters and variance parameters of random effects distribution.

$$Y_i | \theta_i, \beta_0 \sim \mathsf{Poisson}(E_i \mathsf{e}^{\beta_0} \theta_i)$$

 $\theta_i \sim \mathsf{Ga}(\alpha, \alpha)$

We require priors for β_0 and α . For example:

$$\beta_0 \sim \mathsf{N}(m, v)$$
 $\alpha \sim \mathsf{Ga}(a, b)$

with m,v,a,b picked to reflect beliefs about β_0 and α .

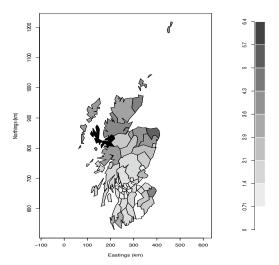


Figure: SMRs for Scottish counties.

Empirical Bayes for Scotland

We recap on the previous analyses – this involved maximum likelihood estimation for β_0 and α in a negative binomial model and produced:

```
> emp0 <- eBayes(z$Y,z$E)
> emp0$beta
0.3521065
> emp0$alpha
[1] 1.87949
> emp0$RR
[1] 3.9973624 4.0791107 2.9802133 2.8467916 3.0025773 2.6545872 2.9590825
[8] 2.4517687 2.3721492 2.7619805 2.6005515 2.2037872 2.0149301 2.1376464
...
[43] 0.6900960 0.4948910 0.4013614 0.5124617 0.5604849 0.4593902 0.3319144
[50] 0.3766186 0.6098460 0.5850639 0.4100864 0.3460232 0.3403845 0.6020789
> emp0$RRmed
[1] 3.8755781 4.0458981 2.9034476 2.7600608 2.9434956 2.5655788 2.9237792
[8] 2.3603697 2.2725880 2.7200177 2.5425312 2.0979757 1.8790820 2.0659710
...
[43] 0.6317935 0.4741200 0.3949723 0.4779112 0.5131326 0.4284178 0.3282190
[50] 0.3608116 0.5408883 0.5189084 0.3637163 0.3068970 0.2822885 0.4993176
```

WinBUGS analysis of the Poisson-Gamma model In the example that follows we specify a flat prior for β_0 , and a Ga(1,1) prior for α .

The iterative algorithm is run for 10,000 iterations, with the first 4,000 discarded as "burn-in".

We summarize the posteriors for the relative risks:

$$\mathsf{RR}_i = \exp(\beta_0)\theta_i$$

and for β_0 and α . The posterior mean for β_0 is 0.36, compared to 0.35 under empirical Bayes, and the posterior mean for α is 1.79, compared to 1.88 under empirical Bayes.

Similarly the posterior means and posterior medians agree very closely.

```
model
{
    for (i in 1 : N) {
        Y[i] ~ dpois(mu[i])
        mu[i] <- E[i]*exp(beta0)*theta[i]
        RR[i] <- exp(beta0)*theta[i]
        theta[i] ~ dgamma(alpha,alpha)
}
# Priors
    alpha ~ dgamma(1,1)
    beta0 ~ dflat()
# Functions of interest:
    sigma.theta <- sqrt(1/alpha) # standard deviation of non-spatial
    base <- exp(beta0)
}</pre>
```

```
DATA
list(N = 56.
```

```
 \begin{array}{l} Y=c(\ 9,\ 39,\ 11,\ 9,\ 15,\ 8,\ 26,\ 7,\ 6,\ 20,\ 13,\ 5,\ 3,\ 8,\ 17,\ 9,\ 2,\ 7,\ 9,\ 7,\ 16,\ 31,\ 11,\ 7,\ 19,\ 15,\ 7,\ 10,\ 16,\ 11,\ 5,\ 3,\ 7,\ 8,\ 11,\ 9,\ 11,\ 8,\ 6,\ 4,\ 10,\ 8,\ 2,\ 6,\ 19,\ 3,\ 2,\ 3,\ 28,\ 6,\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 1,\ 0,\ 0),\ E=c(\ 14,\ 8.7,\ 3.0,\ 2.5,\ 4.3,\ 2.4,\ 8.1,\ 2.3,\ 2.0,\ 6.6,\ 4.4,\ 1.8,\ 1.1,\ 3.3,\ 7.8,\ 4.6,\ 1.1,\ 4.2,\ 5.5,\ 4.4,\ 10.5,22.7,\ 8.8,\ 5.6,15.5,12.5,\ 6.0,\ 9.0,14.4,10.2,\ 4.8,\ 2.9,\ 7.0,\ 8.5,12.3,10.1,12.7,\ 9.4,\ 7.2,\ 5.3,\ 18.8,15.8,\ 4.3,14.6,50.7,\ 8.2,\ 5.6,\ 9.3,88.7,19.6,\ 3.4,\ 3.6,\ 5.7,\ 7.0,\ 4.2,\ 1.8) \end{array}
```

INTIAL ESTIMATES

node	mean	sd	MC error 2.5%	median	97.5%	start	sample
RR[1]	4.07	1.297	0.01877 1.959	3.92	7.001	4000	6001
RR[2]	4.105	0.6469	0.00864 2.938	4.068	5.48	4000	6001
RR[3]	3.006	0.858	0.01159 1.607	2.915	4.937	4000	6001
RR[4]	2.875	0.8995	0.01019 1.391	2.773	4.886	4000	6001
RR[5]	3.016	0.7406	0.01114 1.754	2.955	4.668	4000	6001
RR[6]	2.68	0.8865	0.01325 1.227	2.568	4.696	4000	6001
RR[7]	2.975	0.5666	0.00830 1.994	2.929	4.236	4000	6001
RR[8]	2.476	0.8492	0.01224 1.082	2.379	4.412	4000	6001
RR[49]	0.3321	0.06051	7.88E-4 0.2261	0.3286	0.4612	4000	6001
RR[50]	0.3685	0.1334	0.00162 0.1603	0.3522	0.6725	4000	6001
RR[51]	0.6	0.3539	0.00424 0.1112	0.5327	1.45	4000	6001
RR[52]	0.5702	0.3425	0.00519 0.1034	0.5017	1.4	4000	6001
RR[53]	0.4021	0.2446	0.00316 0.0713	7 0.3546	0.9934	4000	6001
RR[54]	0.3327	0.2042	0.00227 0.0570	6 0.2924	0.8143	4000	6001
RR[55]	0.3259	0.2533	0.00345 0.0249	1 0.2646	0.9605	4000	6001
RR[56]	0.5814	0.4538	0.00636 0.0473	7 0.4723	1.745	4000	6001
alpha	1.79	0.3985	0.00792 1.129	1.753	2.682	4001	6000
beta0	0.3567	0.1188	0.00591 0.1315	0.353	0.5966	4000	6001

Poisson-Lognormal Model

The Poisson-gamma model offers analytic tractability, but does not easily allow the incorporation of spatial random effects.

A Poisson-lognormal non-spatial random effect model is given by:

$$Y_i|\beta, V_i \sim_{ind} \mathsf{Poisson}(E_i\mu_i\mathsf{e}^{V_i}) \quad V_i \sim_{iid} N(0, \sigma_v^2)$$

where V_i are area-specific random effects that capture the residual or unexplained (log) relative risk of disease in area i, i=1,...,n. Whereas in the Poisson-Gamma model we have $\theta \sim \mathsf{Ga}(\alpha,\alpha)$, here we have $\theta = \mathrm{e}^{V_i} \sim \mathsf{LogNormal}(0,\sigma^2)$.

This model does not give a marginal distribution of known form, but does naturally lead to the addition of spatial random effects. The marginal variance is of the same quadratic form as with the negative-binomial model.

Non-Spatial Analysis of the Scottish Lip Cancer Data We now report a fully Bayesian version of the normal model, with log-linear cubic model.

The covariates are centered here in order to reduce dependence in the parameter estimates, which reduces the computational burden; this model was fitted using so-called Markov chain Monte Carlo via the WinBUGS software.

Flat priors were placed on $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ and a Ga(1, 0.0260), was assumed for σ_v^{-2} .

WinBUGS code

```
model {
  for (i in 1 : N) {
      Y[i] ~ dpois(mu[i])
      X1c[i] \leftarrow X[i]-mean(X[1:N])
      X2c[i] <- X1c[i]*X1c[i]
      X3c[i] <- X1c[i]*X1c[i]*X1c[i]
      log(mu[i]) \leftarrow log(E[i]) + beta0 +
                     beta1*X1c[i] + beta2*X2c[i] + beta3*X3c[i] + V[i]
      RR[i] <- exp(beta0 + beta1*X1c[i] + beta2*X2c[i]+ beta3*X3c[i] + V[i])</pre>
      V[i] ~ dnorm(0,tau.V)
  7
# The gamma prior corresponds to df=2, q=0.95, R=log 2.
  tau. V ~ dgamma(1.0.0260)
  beta0 ~ dflat()
  beta1 ~ dflat()
  beta2 ~ dflat()
  beta3 ~ dflat()
# Functions of interest:
  sigma.V <- sqrt(1/tau.V)
                                  # standard deviation of non-spatial
  RRRlo <- exp(-1.96*sigma.V)
  RRRhi <- exp(1.96*sigma.V) }
```

Spatial Models

- ▶ In general we might expect residual relative risks in areas that are "close" to be more similar than in areas that are not "close".
- We would like to exploit this information in order to provide more reliable relative risk estimates in each area.
- ▶ This is analogous to the use of a covariate *x*, in that areas with similar *x* values are likely to have similar relative risks.
- Unfortunately the modelling of spatial dependence is much more difficult since spatial location is acting as a surrogate for unobserved covariates.
- ▶ We need to choose an appropriate spatial model, but do not directly observe the covariates whose effect we are trying to mimic.

We first consider the model

$$Y_i|\beta, \gamma, \mathbf{U_i}, \mathbf{V_i} \sim_{\mathbf{ind}} \mathsf{Poisson}(\mathbf{E_i}\mu_i \mathsf{e}^{\mathbf{U_i} + \mathbf{V_i}})$$

with

$$\log \mu_i = g(\mathbf{S}_i, \gamma) + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i, \beta), \tag{1}$$

where

- ▶ $S_i = (S_{i1}, S_{i2})$ denotes spatial location, the centroid of area i,
- $f(\mathbf{x_i}, \beta)$ is a regression model,
- ▶ $g(\mathbf{S}_i, \gamma)$ is an expression that we may include to capture large-scale spatial trend the form

$$f(\mathbf{S}_i) = \gamma_1 S_{i1} + \gamma_2 S_{i2},$$

is a simple way of accommodating long-term spatial trend.

- ▶ The random effects $V_i \sim_{iid} N(0, \sigma_v^2)$ represent non-spatial overdispersion,
- $ightharpoonup U_i$ are random effects with spatial structure.



- In spatial epidemiology and disease mapping, one approach is to specify the distribution of the random effect in a particular area, U_i , as if we knew the values of the spatial random effects, U_j , in "neighboring areas"
- ► We therefore need to specify a rule for determining the "neighbours" of each area.
- ▶ Spatial models that start with the n area-specific residual spatial random effects all suffer from a level of arbitrariness in their specification – in an epidemiological context the areas are not regular in shape (as opposed to images for example, which are on a regular grid).
- ▶ To define *neighbours*, a number of authors have taken the neighborhood scheme to be such that areas *i* and *j* are taken to be neighbors if they share a *common boundary*. This is reasonable if all regions are of similar size and arranged in a regular pattern (as is the case for pixels in image analysis where these models originated), but is not particularly attractive otherwise.

- Various other neighborhood/weighting schemes are possible.
- We could take the neighborhood structure to depend on the distance between area centroids and determine the extent of the spatial correlation (i.e. the distance within which regions are considered neighbors).
- In typical applications it is difficult to assess whether the spatial model chosen is appropriate, which argues for a simple form, and to assess the sensitivity of conclusions to different choices.
- ▶ In Figure 2 we show a close-up of a portion of the Birmingham study. One of the wards in the center of the Birmingham region is such that it 'just' shares a common boundary with a number of close-by wards. In terms of the common-boundary prior, it could be considered to have between four and ten neighbors.

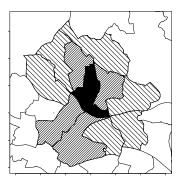


Figure: Close-up of a region of the Birmingham study.

The ICAR model

- A common model is to assign the spatial random effects an intrinsic conditional autorgressive (ICAR) prior.
- Under this specification it is assumed that

$$U_i|U_j, j \in \partial_i \sim N\left(\overline{U}_i, \frac{\omega_u^2}{m_i}\right),$$

where ∂i is the set of neighbors of area i, m_i is the number of neighbours, and \overline{U}_i is the mean of the spatial random effects of these neighbors.

- ▶ The parameter ω_u^2 is a conditional variance and its magnitude determines the amount of spatial variation.
- ▶ The variance parameters σ_v^2 and ω_u^2 are on different scales, σ_v is on the log odds scale while ω_u is on the log odds scale, conditional on $U_j, j \in \partial i$; hence they are not comparable.

- Notice that if ω_u^2 is "small" then although the residual is strongly dependent on the neighboring value the overall contribution to the residual relative risk is small.
- ▶ This is a little counterintuitive but stems from spatial models having two aspects, strength of dependence and total amount of spatial dependence, and in the ICAR model there is only a single parameter which controls both aspects.

WinBUGS representation

The ICAR model can be specified via the function:

```
\texttt{U[1:N]} \ \sim \ \texttt{car.normal(adj[],weights[],num[],tau)}
```

where:

- adj[]: A vector listing the ID numbers of the adjacent areas for each area (this can be generated using the Adjacency Tool from the Map menu in GeoBUGS).
- weights[]: A vector the same length as adj[] giving unnormalized weights associated with each pair of areas.
- ▶ num[]: A vector of length N (the total number of areas) giving the number of neighbors n_i for each area.
- ► The car.normal distribution is parameterized to include a sum-to-zero constraint on the random effects. A separate intercept term must be used in the model and this must be assigned an improper uniform prior using the dflat() distribution (see full code below).

The WinBUGS code for the ICAR model

```
model {
 for (i in 1 : N) {
      Y[i] ~ dpois(mu[i])
      X1c[i] <- X[i]-mean(X[1:N])
      X2c[i] <- X1c[i]*X1c[i]
      X3c[i] <- X1c[i]*X1c[i]*X1c[i]
      log(mu[i]) <- log(E[i]) + beta0 + beta1*X1c[i] +
                    beta2*X2c[i] + beta3*X3c[i] + V[i] + U[i]
      RR[i] <- exp(beta0 + beta1*X1c[i] +
                   beta2*X2c[i] + beta3*X3c[i] + V[i] + U[i])
      V[i] ~ dnorm(0.tau.V)
 7
# ICAR prior distribution for spatial random effects:
 U[1:N] ~ car.normal(adi[], weights[], num[], tauomega.U)
 for(k in 1:sumNumNeigh) {
      weights[k] <- 1
 tau.T ~ dgamma(1.0.0260)
 p ~ dbeta(1,1)
 sigma.Z <- sgrt(p/tau.T)
 omega.U <- sigma.Z/sqrt(1.164)
  sigma.V <- sqrt((1-p)/tau.T)
  tau.V <- 1/(sigma.V*sigma.V)
  tauomega.U <- 1/(omega.U*omega.U)
 beta0 ~ dflat()
 beta1 ~ dflat()
 beta2 ~ dflat()
 beta3 ~ dflat()
 sd.U \leftarrow sd(U[1:N])
 vratio <- sd.U*sd.U/(sd.U*sd.U+sigma.V*sigma.V)
```

DATA

```
list(N = 56, Y = c(9, 39, 11, 9, 15, 8, 26, 7, 6, 20, 13, 5, 3, 8,
17. 9. 2. 7. 9. 7. 16. 31. 11. 7. 19. 15. 7. 10. 16. 11. 5. 3. 7. 8.
11, 9, 11, 8, 6, 4, 10, 8, 2, 6, 19, 3, 2, 3, 28, 6, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0,
0), E = c(1.4, 8.7, 3.0, 2.5, 4.3, 2.4, 8.1, 2.3, 2.0, 6.6, 4.4, 1.8,
1.1, 3.3, 7.8, 4.6, 1.1, 4.2, 5.5, 4.4, 10.5, 22.7, 8.8, 5.6, 15.5, 12.5,
6.0, 9.0,14.4,10.2, 4.8, 2.9, 7.0, 8.5,12.3,10.1,12.7, 9.4, 7.2, 5.3,
18.8, 15.8, 4.3, 14.6, 50.7, 8.2, 5.6, 9.3, 88.7, 19.6, 3.4, 3.6, 5.7, 7.0,
4.2.1.8), X = c(0.16.0.16.0.10.0.24.0.10.0.24.0.10.0.07.0.07.0.07.0.16.
0.07.0.16.0.10.0.24. 0.07.0.16.0.10. 0.07. 0.07.0.10. 0.07.0.16.0.10.
0.07, 0.01, 0.01, 0.07, 0.07, 0.10, 0.10, 0.07, 0.24, 0.10, 0.07, 0.07,
0,0.10, 0.01,0.16, 0, 0.01,0.16,0.16, 0, 0.01, 0.07, 0.01, 0.01, 0,
0.01, 0.01, 0, 0.01, 0.01, 0.16, 0.10),
num = c(3, 2, 2, 3, 4, 2, 5, 1, 5, 4, 1, 2, 3, 3, 2, 6, 6, 6, 5, 3,
3, 2, 4, 8, 3, 3, 4, 4, 11, 6, 7, 3, 4, 9, 4, 2, 4, 6, 3, 4,
5, 5, 4, 5, 4, 6, 6, 4, 9, 2, 4, 4, 4, 5, 6, 5).
adj = c(
19, 9, 5,
10, 7,
12, 6,
28, 20, 18,
19, 12, 11, 1,
3.8.
17, 16, 13, 10, 2,
6,
29, 23, 19, 17, 1,
22, 16, 7, 2,
5,
5. 3.
19. 17. 7.
35. 32. 31.
29, 25,
```

```
53, 49, 48, 46, 31, 24,
49, 47, 44, 24,
54, 53, 52, 48, 47, 44, 41, 40, 38,
29, 21,
54, 42, 38, 34,
54, 49, 40, 34,
49, 47, 46, 41,
52, 51, 49, 38, 34,
56, 45, 33, 30, 24, 18,
55, 27, 24, 20, 18
sumNumNeigh = 240))
INITIAL ESTIMATES
list(tau.T = 1, p=0.5, beta0 = 0, beta1 = 0, beta2 = 0, beta3 = 0,
```

Figure ?? shows the centroids for each area, allowing us to confirm the number and labels of the neighbors of each area.

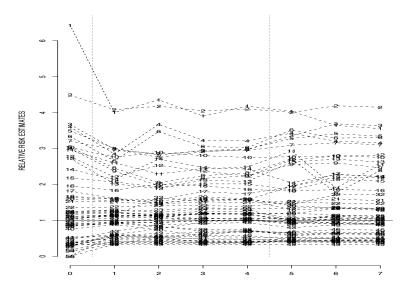


Figure:

Figure details: Relative risk estimates for Scottish lip cancer data:

- 0 denote the SMRs;
- 1 the empirical Bayes estimates without the use of AFF;
- 2 the empirical Bayes estimates with log link and a linear model in AFF;
- 3 the empirical Bayes estimates with a log-linear cubic model in AFF:
- 4 the fully Bayes non-spatial estimates with a log-linear cubic model in AFF;
- 5 estimates under the joint model;
- 6 estimates under the initial ICAR model;
- 7 estimates under the refined ICAR model. Estimates 5–7 are based upon a log-linear cubic covariate model.

Plotting symbol is county number.

Back to the temporal pollution model - using the car.normal distribution to represent the RW(1) process.

$$p(\theta_t | \theta_{-t}, \sigma_w^2) \sim \begin{cases} N(\theta_{t+1}, \sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t = 1, \\ N\left(\frac{\theta_{t-1} + \theta_{t+1}}{2}, \frac{\sigma_w^2}{2}\right) & \text{for } t = 2, ..., T - 1, \\ N(\theta_{t-1}, \sigma_w^2) & \text{for } t = T. \end{cases}$$

where θ_{-t} represents the vector of θ 's with θ_t removed.

This is equivalent to specifying
$$\theta_t | \theta_{-t} \sim N(\sum_k C_{tk} \theta_k, \sigma_w^2 M_{tt})$$
 where $C_{tk} = W_{tk}/W_{t+}, W_{t+} = \sum_k W_{tk}$ and $W_{tk} = 1$ if $k = (t-1)$ or $(t+1)$ and 0 otherwise; $M_{tt} = 1/W_{t+}$

Hence the RW(1) prior may be fitted using the car.normal distribution in WinBUGS, with appropriate specification of the weight and adjacency matrices, and vector representing the number of neighbours.

Note that if the observed time points are not equally spaced, it is necessary to include missing values (NA) for the intermediate time points.

This prior may be specified in WinBUGS using the car.normal distribution,

- with adjacency vector adj[] listing neighbouring time points, i.e. (t-1) and (t+1) are neighbours of time point t,
- corresponding weight vector weight[] set to a sequence of 1's,
- ▶ and a vector giving the number of neighbours, num[], set to 2 for all time points except num[1] and num[T] which are set to 1.

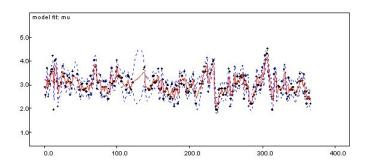
Model 1 using car.normal, in file model1CARNORMAL.odc.

```
model {
# likelihood
for(t in 1:T) {
  y[t] ~ dnorm(mu[t], tau.v)
  mu[t] <~ beta + theta[t]
}
# prior for temporal effects
# RW prior for theta[t] - specified using car.normal with neighbours (t-1) and (t+1)
# for theta[2],...,theta[T-1], and neighbours (t+1) for theta[1] and (t-1) for theta[T]
theta[1:T] ~ car.normal(adj[], weights[], num[], tau)
beta dflat()
.</pre>
```

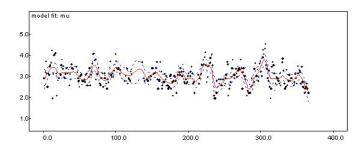
```
# Specify weight matrix and adjacency matrix corresponding to RW(1) prior
# (Note - this could be given in the data file instead)
for(t in 1:1) {
weights[t] <- 1; adj[t] <- t+1; num[t] <- 1
for(t in 2:(T-1)) {
weights[2+(t-2)*2] <- 1; adj[2+(t-2)*2] <- t-1
weights[3+(t-2)*2] <-1; adj[3+(t-2)*2] <-t+1; num[t] <-2
for(t in T:T) {
weights[(T-2)*2 + 2] \leftarrow 1; adj[(T-2)*2 + 2] \leftarrow t-1; num[t] \leftarrow 1
# other priors
tau.err ~ dgamma(0.01, 0.01) # measurement error precision
sigma.v <- 1 / sqrt(tau.v)
sigma2.v <- 1/tau.v
tau.w ~ dgamma(0.01, 0.01) # random walk precision
sigma.w <- 1 / sqrt(tau.w)
sigma2.w <- 1/tau.w
} # model
```

- ▶ The following is a plot of posterior median (red line) and posterior 95% intervals (dashed blue lines) for mu[t] (the underlying mean daily pollutant concentration), with observed concentrations shown as black dots.
- ▶ This plot was produced by selecting the model fit option from the Compare menu (available from the Inference menu), with mu specified as the node, day as the axis and y as other).
- ▶ Note that the dashed blue line shows the posterior 95% interval for the estimated mean daily concentration, and is not a predictive interval hence we would not necessarily expect all of the observed data points to lie within the interval.

Using RW(1) model



Equivalent plot assuming an RW(2) prior. Note the greater amount of smoothing imposed by this prior



Exercises

- Run the changed version of model1 using the car.normal distribution using the same PM₁₀ data from the Bloomsbury site (model1-data.odc).
- 2. Show that a random walk of order two $\theta_t \sim N(\theta_{t-1} + \theta_{t-2}, \sigma_w^2)$ can be expressed as an intrinsic CAR model and defined the contents of the matrices adj[] and weights[] and the vector num[] required to fit this within WinBUGS.
- Change the model you fitted in the first question to fit a second order random walk, compile the model and comment on the differences in the results from those observed when fitting a first order random walk.

$$Y_i|\beta, \gamma, \mathbf{U_i}, \mathbf{V_i} \sim_{\mathbf{ind}} \mathsf{Poisson}(\mathbf{E_i}\mu_i \mathsf{e}^{\mathbf{U_i} + \mathbf{V_i}})$$

with

$$\log \mu_i = g(\mathbf{S}_i, \gamma) + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_i, \beta), \tag{2}$$

where

- $ightharpoonup \mathbf{S}_i = (S_{i1}, S_{i2})$ denotes spatial location, the centroid of area i,
- $f(\mathbf{x_i}, \beta)$ is a regression model,
- $g(\mathbf{S}_i, \gamma)$ is an expression that we may include to capture large-scale spatial trend the form

$$f(\mathbf{S}_i) = \gamma_1 S_{i1} + \gamma_2 S_{i2},$$

is a simple way of accommodating long-term spatial trend.

- ► The random effects $V_i \sim_{iid} N(0, \sigma_v^2)$ represent non-spatial overdispersion,
- $lackbox{$V$} U_i$ are random effects with spatial structure which we now consider 'jointly' rather than considering neighbours.

A Joint Model

- Assume that $\mathbf{U}=(U_1,...,U_n)$ arise from a zero mean multivariate normal distribution with variances $\mathrm{var}(U_i)=\sigma_u^2$ and correlations $\mathrm{corr}(U_i,U_j)=\exp(-\phi d_{ij})=\rho^{d_{ij}}$ where d_{ij} is the distance between the centroids of areas i and j, and $\rho>0$ is a parameter that determines the extent of the correlation.
- ▶ This model is *isotropic* since it assumes that the correlation is the same in all spatial directions. We refer to this as the *joint* model, since we have specified the joint distribution for U.
- More generally the correlations can be modeled as $\operatorname{corr}(U_i, U_j) = \exp(-(\phi d_{ij})^{\kappa}).$

WinBUGS representation

The above model with

$$cov(U_i, U_j) = \tau_u^{-1} \exp(-(\phi d)^{\kappa})$$

and $\phi > 0$, $0 < \kappa < 2$ can be specified via the function:

$$U[1:N] \sim spatial.exp(mu[],x[],y[],tau,phi,kappa)$$

where:

- ▶ mu[]: A vector giving the mean for each area.
- ▶ x[] and y[]: Vectors of length n (the number of areas) giving the x and y coordinates of the centroid of each area.
- ▶ $phi = \phi$.
- ▶ kappa = κ .
- ► This model can be very slow for even moderate sized datasets (because a matrix inversion is required at each iteration).



Single pollutant, multiple monitoring site

- ▶ S monitoring sites measuring a single pollutant.
- ▶ The underlying autoregressive structure remains constant across sites with a constant adjustment in the mean level for site s by an amount m_s , s = 1, ..., S.
- ► Stage One, Observed Data Model:

$$Y_{st} = X'_{st}\beta_1 + X'_{s}\beta_2 + m_s + \theta_t + v_{st}$$

with v_{st} i.i.d. as $N(0, \sigma_{vs}^2)$ and $\beta_1, \beta_2, q_1 \times 1$ and $q_2 \times 1$ vectors of site/day and site only regression coefficients.

Stage Two (a), Temporal Model:

$$\theta_t = \rho \theta_{t-1} + w_t$$

with w_t i.i.d. as $N(0, \sigma_w^2)$.



Stage Two (b), Spatial Model:

The random effects $m = (m_1, ..., m_S)'$ arise from the multivariate normal distribution

$$m \sim MVN(0_S, \sigma_m^2 \Sigma_m),$$

where 0_S is an $S \times 1$ vector of zeros, σ_m^2 the between-site variance and Σ_m is the $S \times S$ correlation matrix, in which element (s,s') represents the correlation between sites s and s'.

▶ This model is stationary and assumes an isotropic covariance model in which the correlation between sites s and s' is assumed to be a function of the distance between them

$$f(d_{ss'}, \phi) = \exp\left(-\phi d_{ss'}\right)$$

where $\phi>0$ describes the strength of the correlation

► A simpler model assumes that the site-specific levels are (conditionally) independent

$$m_s \sim \text{ i.i.d } N(0,\sigma_m^2),$$

Stage Three, Hyperpriors:

- ▶ Unless there is specific information to the contrary, i.e. that a monitor with different characteristics is used at a particular site, we will assume $\sigma_{vs}^{-2} \sim Ga(a_v, b_v)$.
- ▶ The between site precision has prior $\sigma_m^{-2} \sim Ga(a_m, b_m)$.
- A uniform prior is used for ϕ , with the limits being based on beliefs about the relationship between correlation and distance.
- ▶ The distance, d, at which the correlation, ρ , between two sites might be expected to fall to a particular level would be $d = -\log(\rho)/\phi$.

Single pollutant, multiple monitoring site

Stage One, Observed Data Model:

$$Y_{st} = m_s + \theta_t + v_{st}$$

- Dropping the covariate terms for clarity of explanation.
- Stage Two (a), Temporal Model:

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} + w_t$$

▶ Considering a RW(1) process for clarity of explanation, i.e. $\rho = 1$ in the AR(1) process.

```
model {
              for (t in 2:(n-1)) {
for (site in 1:8) {
# y arises from the underlying theta, plus site parameter& measurement error
                v.mat[t,site] ~ dnorm(mean.site[t,site],tau.v[site])
mean.site[t.site] <- theta[t] +m.adi[site]
} # site loop
# the underlying theta is an average of the two neighbours
            tmp.theta[t] <- (theta[t-1]+theta[t+1])/2
                 theta[t] ~ dnorm(tmp.theta[t],tau.w2)
                tau.w.like[t] <-pow((theta[t]-theta[t-1]),2)
                 # the underlying theta is an average of the two neighbours
            tmp.theta[t] \leftarrow (theta[t-1]+theta[t+1])/2
                 theta[t] ~ dnorm(tmp.theta[t],tau.w2)
                tau.w.like[t] <-pow((theta[t]-theta[t-1]),2)
                } # t loop
```

Stage Two (b), Spatial Model:

The random effects $m = (m_1, ..., m_S)'$ arise from the multivariate normal distribution

$$m \sim MVN(0_S, \sigma_m^2 \Sigma_m),$$

where 0_S is an $S \times 1$ vector of zeros, σ_m^2 the between-site variance and Σ_m is the $S \times S$ correlation matrix, in which element (s,s') represents the correlation between sites s and s'.

We use the spatial.exp distribution in WinBUGS. In the code, ϕ and κ in $corr(U_i, U_j) = exp(-(\phi d_{ij})^{\kappa})$ are labelled $\phi = \phi_1$ and $\kappa = \phi_2$.

[1:8] ** spatial.exp(mu[], xcoords[],ycoords[],tau.m,phi1,phi2)

▶ Note: the site effects are constrained to sum to zero.

```
for (site in 1:8) {
mu[site]<-0
m.adj[site] <- m[site]-mean(m[1:8])
}</pre>
```

```
# set the spatial effects up as spatial.exp prior
m[1:8] ~ spatial.exp(mu[], xcoords[],ycoords[],tau.m,phi1,phi2)
# and to constrain the sums to be zero
for (site in 1:8) {
mu[site]<-0
m.adj[site] <- m[site]-mean(m[1:8])
phi2 <- 1
phi1 ~ dunif(0.005,0.115)
tau.m ~ dgamma(1.0.01)
sigma.m <- 1/sqrt(tau.m)
sigma.m.adj <- sqrt(pow(sigma.m,2.0)*8.0/7.0)
```

} # model

```
# Set up the priors for 'edges' of the underlying process for theta
      theta[1] dnorm(theta[2],tau.w)
     theta[n]~dnorm(theta[n-1].tau.w)
# Set up the priors for the 'edges' of the y's
for (site in 1:8) {
y.mat[1,site] ~ dnorm(theta[1],tau.v[site])
v.mat[n.site] ~ dnorm(theta[n].tau.v[site])
# Set up the priors for the 'edges' of the precisions
     tau.w.like[1] <- pow(theta[2]-theta[1],2)
     tau.w.like[n] <- pow(theta[n]-theta[n-1],2)
# Set up the likelihood calculations (because of cyclical graph) and priors
     tau.w2 <- tau.w*2
     d.w <- 1+sum(tau.w.like[])/2
     r.w < -1 + n/2
tau.w ~ dgamma(r.w,d.w)
     sigma.w <- 1 / sqrt(tau.w)
      # Set up the site specific observation precisions
for (site in 1:8) {
    tau.v[site] ~ dgamma(1.0.001)
   sigma.v[site] <-1/sqrt(tau.v[site])
```

Data

- Note: WinBUGS reads data into an array by filling the right-most index first, whereas the R fills the left-most index first. Therefore in R, before the data is exported the transpose function was used, y.mat = t(y.mat) before using dput(y.mat, filename). You then need to the change the order of the dimensions in the WinBUGS data file.
- ▶ If the data was in a three dimensional array aperm can be used, e.g. y.array = aperm(y.array,c(1,3,2) to achieve the same result. Again, you need to re-order the dimensions in the WinBUGS datafile.

Initial values

Estimating levels at unmeasured locations

- ▶ Based on the posterior estimates of the site effects, m_s and the variance-covariance matrix $\sigma_m^2 \Sigma_m$, it is possible to estimate the site effects, and thus pollution levels, at locations where there is no monitoring site.
- ▶ For a site at a new location, m_{S+1} , $(m_1, ..., m_S, m_{S+1})$ follows a multivariate normal distribution with zero mean and $(S+1) \times (S+1)$ variance-covariance matrix.
- Letting $m = (m_1, ..., m_S)'$, the conditional distribution of $m_{S+1}|m$ is, normal with mean and variance given by

$$E[m_{S+1}|m] = \sigma_m^{-2} \Omega' \Sigma_m^{-1} m,$$

$$var(m_{S+1}|m) = \sigma_m^2 (1 - \Omega' \Sigma_m^{-1} \Omega),$$

► For exploratory purposes, the posterior medians may be substituted into these expressions (although this will ignore the inherent uncertainty in the estimates).

Site effects

	Median	2.5%	97.5%		
Bexley	-0.0696	-0.0785	-0.0607		
Bloomsbury	0.1341	0.1257	0.1426		
Brent	-0.1210	-0.1294	-0.1125		
Eltham	-0.1105	-0.1205	-0.1005		
Harringey	0.1098	0.0999	0.1195		
Hillingdon	0.0132	-0.0032	0.0300		
North Kensington	0.0030	-0.0031	0.0090		
Sutton	0.0410	0.0250	0.0572		
σ_m	0.1019	0.0668	0.1794		
ϕ	0.05675	0.02158	0.09778		

spatial.pred and spatial.unipred

- ➤ Spatial interpolation or prediction at arbitrary locations can be carried out using the spatial.pred or spatial.unipred functions, in conjunction with fitting the spatial.exp model to a set of observed data.
- spatial.pred carries out joint or simultaneous prediction at a set of target locations
- spatial.unipred carries out single site prediction.
- ► The difference is that the single site prediction yields marginal prediction intervals (i.e. ignoring correlation between prediction locations) whereas joint prediction yields simultaneous prediction intervals for the set of target locations (which will tend to be narrower than the marginal prediction intervals).
- ► The predicted means should be the same under joint or single site prediction.
- ▶ The disadvantage of joint prediction is that it is very slow
 - ► computational time is of order P3, where P is the number of prediction sites

- ► The syntax for these predictive distributions is:
- Joint prediction:

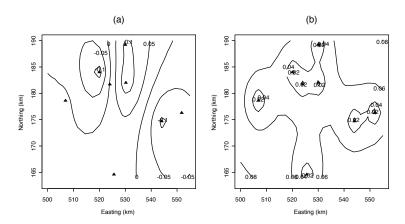
```
T[1:P] ~ spatial.pred(mu.T[], x.T[], y.T[], S[])
```

Single site prediction:

where:

- ▶ P : Scalar giving the number of prediction locations
- mu.T[]: vector of length P (or scalar for single site version) specifying the mean for each prediction location (this should be specified in the same way as the mean for the observed data S).
- x.T[] and y.T[]: Vectors of length P (or scalars for single site version) giving the x and y coordinates of the location of each prediction point
- ► S: The vector of observations to which the spatial.exp model has been fitted.

Contour plot of site effects based on a 20x20 grid of locations without a pollution monitor with corresponding standard deviations



Exercises

Using WinBUGS

- 1. Compare the results from the model using the joint spatial model (using spatial.exp) with one that assumes that the site effects are conditionally independent.
- Compare the results using spatial.pred and spatial.unipred (for a given set of locations).
- Replace the specifying the full conditional approach to implementing the temporal (random walk) part of the model with the car.normal approach developed in the single site model. It might be interesting to compare the computation times.

Multiple pollutants, single monitoring site

► Stage One, Observed Data Model:

$$Y_{pt} = X_t' \beta_1 + \theta_{pt} + v_{pt}$$

with v_{pt} i.i.d. as $N(0, \sigma^2_{vp})$ and β_1 a $q_1 \times 1$ vector of regression coefficients.

Stage Two, Temporal and Pollutant Model:

$$\theta_{pt} = \theta_{p,t-1} + w_{pt}$$

 $w_t = (w_{1t}, ..., w_{Pt})'$ are i.i.d. multivariate normal random variables with zero mean and variance-covariance matrix Σ_P .

▶ Stage Three, Hyperpriors: $\sigma_{vp}^{-2} \sim Ga(a_v,b_v)$, p=1,...,P. $\Sigma_P^{-1} \sim W_P(D,d)$, a P-dimensional Wishart distribution with mean D and precision parameter d.

- ▶ Model was applied to data from four pollutants (PM₁₀, SO₂, NO and CO) from the Bloomsbury site.
- \blacktriangleright Priors $\sigma_{vp}^{-2}\sim Ga(1,0.01)$, p=1,..,P, and $\beta_1\sim N(0,1000).$
- For the parameters of the Wishart distribution, d was chosen to be equal to four, the dimension of Σ_P ; D was then chosen so that the diagonals of the expected value (D/d) represent a 10% coefficient of variation. The off-diagonals were taken to be zero.
- Posterior correlations

	PM_{10}	SO_2	NO	CO
PM_{10}	1.0000	0.8806	0.8192	0.8134
SO_2	0.8806	1.0000	0.8472	0.9202
NO	0.8192	0.8472	1.0000	0.9146
CO	0.8134	0.9202	0.9146	1.0000

► Strong correlations mean that inference on missing values can be made on the values of pollutants



Multiple pollutants, multiple monitoring sites

Stage One, Observed Data Model:

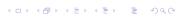
$$Y_{spt} = X'_{pt}\beta_1 + X'_{st}\beta_2 + \theta_{pt} + m_s + v_{spt},$$

where v_{spt} are i.i.d. $N(0,\sigma_{sp}^2)$, β_1 a $q_1 \times 1$ vector of pollutant regression coefficients, and β_2 a $q_2 \times 1$ vector of spatial regression coefficients.

▶ Stage Two, Spatial, Temporal and Pollutant Model: The $(p \times 1)$ vector of daily pollution measurements, $(\theta_1,...,\theta_P)'$, as a function of the previous days values with possible correlation between the values of the different pollutants.

An alternative approach would be to allow the spatial effects to be pollutant specific

▶ Stage Three, Hyperprior: In the absence of additional information, we assume that $\sigma_{vsp}^{-2} \sim Ga(a_v, b_v)$.



Components of variability

- Model 1 (Single pollutant, single site)
 - ► Temporal 70%
 - Measurement error 30%
- Model 2 (Single pollutant, multiple sites)
 - ► Temporal 80%
 - ► Spatial 10%
 - Measurement error 10%
- Model 3 (Multiple pollutants, single site)
 - ► Temporal 77%
 - Measurement error 23%
- Model 4 (Multiple pollutants, multiple sites)
 - ► Temporal 75%
 - ► Spatial 15%
 - Measurement error 10%

Summary

- Examine the contribution of spatial, temporal and random variability.
- ▶ Allows levels to be estimated at non-measured locations.
- Calculate underlying levels of pollution for use in health studies.
- Estimates of missing values.

The assumptions of the model include the following:

- The measurement error variance σ_{sp}^2 does not depend on time. The model is easily extendable to situations in which the measurement error may change as a function of t, for example, when a monitor is replaced.
- ▶ The relationship between the pollutants is constant over time.
- ▶ The relationship between the pollutants is spatially constant.
- ▶ The temporal and spatial components are independent.

Examples of implementation of the model framework

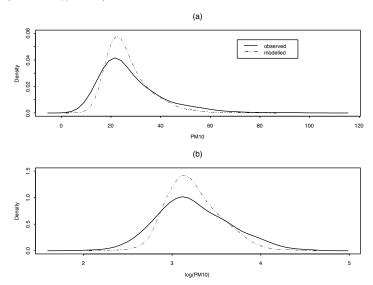
- Spatial-temporal model using modelled levels of PM₁₀ in a health study.
- ▶ Spatial model mapping concentrations of SO₂ over entire EU.

Health analysis

- ► PM₁₀ and respiratory mortality (ICD 460-519) in London, 1994-97.
- Assess the effects of using modelled levels of pollutant on relative risks.
- ▶ Base model contains terms for trend, trend², year, month, year × month interaction, day of week, 12, 6, 4 and 2 monthly cycles and temperature (same day, lag 1, lag2).

Distributions of observed and modelled values of PM_{10}

(normal and logged values)



Relative risks (and 95% CIs) associated with increase of $10 \mu gm^{-3}$ in PM $_{10}$ (lag 1)

- Observed PM₁₀ with missing values excluded
 - ► RR = 1.0116 (1.0046 1.0186)
- ▶ Modelled PM₁₀ with missing values excluded
 - ► RR = 1.0166 (1.0064 1.0269)
- ▶ Modelled PM₁₀ with estimated missing values
 - ► RR = 1.0182 (1.0084 1.0280)

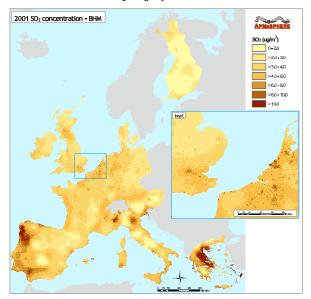
using spatial model

- \blacktriangleright Modelled PM $_{10}$ with missing values excluded
 - ► RR = 1.0134 (1.0066 1.0203)
- ▶ Modelled PM₁₀ with estimated missing values
 - ► RR = 1.0128 (1.0062 1.0195)

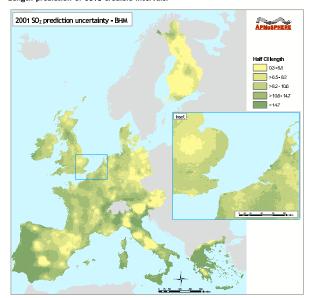
Large scale mapping of SO_2 over the entire EU.

- ► This used data from the APMoSPHERE project (www.apmosphere.org).
- ► Concentrations of SO₂ were obtained from 253 monitoring stations located non-uniformly over the EU.
- ▶ High resolution (at the 1km × 1km level) climatic and geographical information was also obtained, including seasonal value rainfall and temperature, wind speed, altitude and distance to sea.
- ▶ Due to the high levels of collinearity observed in the climate variables, principal component analysis (PCA) was used to reduce the original nine variables to five factors, which accounted for 97% of the total variation.

Predicted concentrations of \$0₂ using Bayesian Hierarchical model.



Length prediction of 95% credible intervals.



THANK YOU!