

## ADAPTIVE PARAMETRIC MODEL FOR NONSTATIONARY SPATIAL COVARIANCE

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Received: 12<sup>th</sup> Jun 2019

Accepted: 5<sup>th</sup> Mar 2020

Published: 30<sup>th</sup> Jun 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.22452/mjs.vol39no2.4>

**ABSTRACT** In modelling environment processes, multi-disciplinary methods are used to explain, explore and predict how the earth responds to natural human-induced environmental changes over time. Consequently, when analyzing spatial processes in environmental and ecological studies, the spatial parameters of interest are always heterogeneous. This often negates the stationarity assumption. In this article, we proposed the adaptive parametric nonstationary covariance structure for spatial processes. The adaptive tuning parameter for this model was also proposed for nonstationary processes. The flexibility and efficiency of the proposed model were examined through simulation. A real life data was used to examine the efficiency of the proposed model. The results show that the proposed models perform competitively with existing models.

**Keywords:** Adaptive, Locally, Nonstationary, Spatial Covariance, Variability.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

In modelling spatial processes in environmental, agricultural and meteorological processes, the parameters of interest are not always known. However, most methods for obtaining such measurements assumed stationarity (Cressie 1993) which often negates the measurement obtained in environmental and ecological processes. For examples, the dispersion of the transportation of atmospheric pollutants, topographic effect, and weather patterns are good cases of nonstationary spatial processes where stationarity is assumed. Also, most environmental processes exhibit spatially nonstationary covariance structure over sufficiently large spatial scales (Fuentes,

2001). However, several studies like Fuentes (2002), Haas (1990a) and Haas (1990b), Guttorp and Sampson (1994) and many others have shown that meteorological processes such as; synoptic wind patterns and orographic effects often exhibit nonstationary covariance. Consequently, however, the understanding of the observed values is needed to predict values at unobserved location. Thus, the nonstationary processes observed in these spatial processes rely on the covariance and variogram techniques.

Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be spatial locations and  $Y(x_i)$  the space domain, where  $x \in \mathfrak{R}^d$ . Then, the realization say,  $Y(x_i)$  is nonstationary if either

$Cov[Y(x_i), Y(x_j)]$   $i < j$ ,  $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$  for  $x_i$  and  $x_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$  depends on the locations  $x_i$  and  $x_j$  or  $E[Y(x_i)]$  varies over the random field. However, but the covariance function in these locations changes with locations.

In spatial statistics, spatial processes were considered in Sampson and uttorp (1992) to be nonstationary. They represented the covariance of the processes as a latent space. Higdon et al. (1999) proposed a nonstationary covariance function using a convolution of two kernel functions. This was further expanded by Paciorek and Schervish (2006) by using the square root of the quadratic form of the spatial covariance. A moving window approach was proposed in David and Genton (2000). Hyung-Moon et al. (2005) and Parker et al. (2016) regrouped the heterogeneous spatial processes in the same location into sub-regions whose structures were homogeneous in both the mean and covariance. Bornn et al. (2012) proposed a nonstationary covariance in space using the concept of dimension expansion method. This method was further enhanced in Shand and Li (2017) using a thin-plate spline method to obtain the nonstationary covariance in space and time. Jaehong et al. (2017) proposed isotropic and nonstationary covariance using a differential operator approach. Fuentes (2002) proposed a nonstationary spatial process using the spectral density convolution approach. Higdon (1998) proposed a convolution based approach nonstationarity covariance. Ingebrigtsen et al. (2014) proposed covariance structure in nonstationary processes through stochastic partial differential method. This method allows the explanatory variables to be added to the structure. A linear mixed model approach was proposed in Haskard et al. (2010) to determine the mean and covariance of the nonstationary process of

soil potassium on gamma radiometry. Lasso regression approach was proposed in Hsu et al. (2012) to select the basis function in modelling the nonstationary covariance. Huser and Genton (2016) proposed a nonstationary max stable dependence model and obtained the covariance using the pairwise likelihood method. Schmidt et al. (2011) proposed nonstationary covariance by using latent space model by projecting the C dimension in Sampson and Guttorp (1992) to 2D correlation structure using the covariate in the covariance. Some examples of latent space models are found in Meiring et al. (1998), Le et al. (2001), Sampson et al. (2001), Damian et al. (2003) and Guttorp et al. (2007). More so, nonstationarity as a sum of the stationary process and basis function with its coefficients as a departure from nonstationary were proposed in (Nychka and Saltzman 1998, Nychka et al. 2002). Several Bayesian methods for solving nonstationarity problem have been developed over the years in Katzfuss (2013), Katzfuss and Cressie (2012), but Risser and Calder (2015) proposed MCMC model for posterior distribution.

Motivated by the articles researched and based on the results obtained from existing spatial literature research such as the nonparametric estimation of spatial and space-time covariance function, non-parametric method of estimating semi-variograms of isotropic spatial processes, and the estimation of nonstationary spatial covariance structure, we proposed adaptive parametric nonstationary covariance for spatial processes whose variability depends on the lags between the spatial processes. Its major characteristic was that more parameters were added to make it more flexible. This model aims to attract wider range of application in agriculture, environmental sciences, hydrology and other related areas.

This article is organized as follows: Section 2 discusses the review of spatial covariogram and semi-variogram. In Section 3, we discuss the adaptive parametric model and the adaptive parameter for optimizing the adaptive model. Simulation of the formulated models was examined in section 4 together with a real life application. Section 5 contains the conclusions.

## 2. REVIEW OF SPATIAL DOMAIN

A fundamental notion underlying most of the current modeling approaches were that, the spatial covariance of the environmental processes can be regarded as approximately stationary over small spatial regions. This notion describes spatially varying isotropic covariance structure. Thus, for a spatial realization  $Y(x_i)$ , the semi-variogram is defined as

$$\gamma(x_i, x_j) = \frac{1}{2} E[Y(x_i) - Y(x_j)]^2, \quad i < j, \quad (1)$$

$$i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

However, in Matheron (1963), Equation (1) is said to be second order stationary process

if the spatial covariance function is given as

$$Cov(h) = Cov(Y(x), Y(x+h)), \quad (2)$$

where  $h$  is the lag and  $x$  the location. However, the covariance between any two locations says  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in Equation (1) depends on the spatial lag vector

connecting them. Shand and Li (2017) consider the exponential covariance function for the space domain as  $Cov(Y(x_i), Y(x_j)) = \sigma^2 \exp(-\phi_s h)$ , for

$$i < j, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \quad (3)$$

where  $\phi_s$  is the range parameter. Then  $h = [x_i - x_j]$  and  $h = \|h\|$  where  $\|b\|$  is a Euclidean norm of vector  $\|b\|$  and  $\sigma^2$  is the variance of the process.

proposed.

## 3. METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Proposed adaptive parametric nonstationary spatial covariance

In this section, a new adaptive parametric nonstationary spatial covariance is

Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be the spatial locations in domain  $\mathfrak{R}^d$  and  $Y(x_1), Y(x_2), \dots, Y(x_n)$  the spatial processes in the spatial locations. Then, the nonstationary spatial process is expressed as

$$Y_i(x) = m^T(x_i) B_i^{-1} Y_i + \delta(x_i) \quad \text{for} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \quad (4)$$

where  $m^T(x_i)$  is the cross covariance between observed and unobserved locations,  $B_i$  is the covariance vector between the processes at locations  $x_i^s$ ,  $Y_i$  is

the column vector of the random process, and  $\delta(x_i)$  is the error term.

The spatial residual from Equation (4) can be expressed as

$$E[\delta^2] = E[Y^T(x_i)Y(x_i)] - 2E[(B_i^{-1})^T Y_i m(x_i)Y(x_i)] + E[(B_i^{-1})^T Y_i m(x_i)m^T(x_i)Y_i^T B_i^{-1}] \tag{5}$$

Spatial processes vary from one location to another depending on the distance between the processes. However, to obtain optimal value of spatial process at

unobserved location, the distance is penalized. Thus, an optimization problem is set up by minimizing the objective of Equation (4) as

$$Y_i(x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}Y_i \geq 0, \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n. \tag{6}$$

Subject to the constraint

$$B_i^{-1} \geq 0 \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n. \tag{7}$$

However, due to over fitting and high dimensional of the data analysis, using Karush-Kuhn-Tucker technique, spatial

minimization problem of Equations (6) and (7) is given as

$$L(B_i^{-1}, \lambda) = \|Y_i(x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}Y_i\|_2^2 + \lambda_i \|B_i^{-1}\|_2^2 \tag{8}$$

$$\lambda_i \in [0, 1]$$

where,  $\lambda_i$  are  $n \times 1$  vectors of adaptive tuning parameters that are data dependent, such that  $\lambda_i \geq 0$ . The values of the adaptive parameters shrink the spatial regression equation coefficient towards zero and add some spatial bias that reduces the

nonstationary covariance of the estimator. While  $\ell_2$ -norm is used to keep the spatial equation rotationally invariant.

Thus, for computational purpose, Equation (8) can be expressed as

$$L(B_i^{-1}, \lambda) = Y^T(x_i)Y(x_i) - 2[(B_i^{-1})^T Y_i m(x_i)Y(x_i)] + (B_i^{-1})^T Y_i m(x_i)m^T(x_i)Y_i^T B_i^{-1} + \lambda_i ((B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} - 2) \tag{9}$$

Taking partial derivative of Equation (9) with respect to  $B_i^{-1}$  and equating to zero, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & [Y_i m(x_i) Y(x_i)] \\ & = Y_i m(x_i) m^T(x_i) Y_i^T B_i^{-1} \\ & + \lambda_i B_i^{-1} \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Substituting Equation (10) into Equation (5) we have the adaptive parametric model as

$$\begin{aligned} E[\delta^2] & = E[Y^T(x_i) Y(x_i)] \\ & - 2E\left[(B_i^{-1})^T (Y_i m(x_i) m^T(x_i) Y_i^T B_i^{-1} + \lambda_i B_i^{-1})\right] \\ & + E\left[(B_i^{-1})^T Y_i m(x_i) m^T(x_i) Y_i^T B_i^{-1}\right] \end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

where  $E[Y_i, Y_i^T] = (B_i^{-1})^T$ ,  $E[Y(x_i), Y(x_i)] = \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x)$  and by symmetric property of a matrix, we have the proposed adaptive parametric model for nonstationary spatial covariance (AP 1) for location  $x$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iAP1}^2(x, x) & = \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i) B_i^{-1} m(x_i) \\ & - 2\lambda_i (B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

where  $\mathfrak{S}_i$  is the variance of  $Y_i(x)$  or possibly the sill.

### 3.2 Proposed adaptive parameter for generating optimal model

In this section, we shall propose the adaptive parameter for generating the optimal model. Let

$$\rho = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij} \text{ and } \lambda_i \neq 0 \text{ such that } \phi = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij}}{\rho}$$

Let the adaptive parameter at location zero be

$$\lambda_0 = 1 - \phi = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij}}{\rho} = \frac{\rho - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij}}{\rho} = 0 \tag{13}$$

Now, at some other locations other than zero, we multiply Equation (13) by  $\frac{1}{n^2 - 1}$ . Thus, we have

$$\lambda_i = \frac{n\rho - B_{i\bullet}}{\rho} \frac{1}{(n^2 - 1)} \quad (14)$$

However,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{n\rho - B_{i\bullet}}{\rho} \frac{1}{(n^2 - 1)} = 1 \quad (15)$$

Thus,

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n nB_{ij} - B_{i\bullet}}{(n^2 - 1) \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n B_{ij}} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \quad (16)$$

Next, we shall consider some possible fixed values of  $\lambda_i$ .

For  $\lambda = 0$  Equation (12) reduces to David and William (2002) model.

Now, taking second partial derivative of Equation (9) with respect to  $B_i^{-1}$  and equating to zero, we have:

$$\lambda_i = -Y_i Y_i^T m^T(x_i) m(x_i); \quad (17)$$

but  $\lambda_i$  cannot be negative. Thus, taking the norm of both sides we have

$$\|\lambda_i\| = \|Y_i Y_i^T m^T(x_i) m(x_i)\|, \quad (18)$$

Hence, substituting the value of  $\lambda_i$  into Equation (12) we have

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_i^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{F}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i) B_i^{-1} m(x_i) \\ &- 2E \left[ Y_i Y_i^T m^T(x_i) m(x_i) (B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} \right] \\ & \quad i, j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

On simplifying Equation (19), where  $E[Y_i, Y_i^T] = (B_i^{-1})^T$ ,  $E[Y(x_i), Y(x_i)] = \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x)$  and by symmetric property of matrix, we have the parametric spatial covariance model (PM 1) for the location  $x$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iPM1_i}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x) - 3m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}m(x_i) \\ i &= 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \end{aligned} \tag{20}$$

Otherwise, for  $\lambda_i=1$  Equation (12), the parametric spatial covariance model (PM 2) for the location  $x$  as

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iAP1_i}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}m(x_i) \\ &- 2\lambda_i(B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n \end{aligned} \tag{21}$$

In the above cases, spatial processes in the neighborhood were used to predict the variable at unsampled location. Now, suppose the processes available are not

within the neighborhood, we shall formulate a model on how such variables could be krig.

### 3.3 Proposed parametric continuous kriging for nonstationary spatial covariance model

If the locations  $x$  and  $s$  are far away from the unobserved site, then, the covariance  $\mathfrak{S}_i(x, s)$  approaches zero as the lag  $h$  tends to infinity. Hence, a quantity  $\tau_i = \frac{y_i}{\psi}$ ;  $\left( \psi = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i \right)$  (where  $y_i$  are spatial processes) is introduced to penalize the parameter  $B_i^{-1}$  such that the observations within the neighborhood of the target point are used to obtain the predicted variables.

#### Proposition 3.1

Let  $f(x - x_i) = \exp(-\|x - x_i\|^2)$  be the distribution function of a spatial process and

$v_i(x) = \frac{f(x - x_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^n f(x - x_j)}$  be the weight function, then  $v_i(x)$  approaches zero as the

$$\|x - x_i\| \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$$

*Proof*

Since the  $v_i(x)$  are weight functions, we show that their sums equal one.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x - x_1) &= \exp(-\|x - x_1\|^2), f(x - x_2) \\ &= \exp(-\|x - x_2\|^2), \dots, f(x - x_n) = \\ \exp(-\|x - x_n\|^2) &= A, \end{aligned}$$

Let,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_1(x) &= \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_1\|^2)}{A}, \nu_2(x) = \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_2\|^2)}{A}, \\ \dots, \nu_n(x) &= \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_n\|^2)}{A} \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \nu_i(x) &= \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_1\|^2)}{A} + \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_2\|^2)}{A} + \\ \dots + \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_n\|^2)}{A} \end{aligned} \tag{22}$$

Clearly,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \nu_i(x) = 1. \tag{23}$$

It is clear from the proposition (3.1) that numerous sampled values are not needed to predict a variable at unsampled location. Thus sample kriging variance,  $K_{\text{var}}$  for the spatial process can easily be obtained in Gilmour et al. (2004) by:

$$K_{\text{var}} = \sum_{i=1}^n \nu_i(x) \delta_i^2(x_i, x_i) \tag{24}$$

Next, we show that  $\nu_i(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\|x-x_i\| \rightarrow \infty$

Observe that  $\nu_i(x) = \frac{\exp(-\|x-x_i\|^2)}{\sum_{j=1}^n \exp(-\|x-x_j\|^2)}$  But  $\exp(-\|x-x_i\|^2) = 0$  as  $\|x-x_i\| \rightarrow \infty$ . Clearly,

$$\nu_i(x) \rightarrow 0.$$

The lasso regression equation of Equations (6) and (7) can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} L(B_i^{-1}, \lambda, \tau) &= Y^T(x_i)Y(x_i) \\ &+ Y_i^T(B_i^{-1})^T m(x_i)m^T(x_i)Y_i^T B_i^{-1} Y_i \\ &- 2Y_i^T(x_i)m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}Y_i - 2\lambda_i B_i^{-1} - \tau_i B_i^{-1} (B_i^{-1})^T \end{aligned} \tag{25}$$

For some  $\tau_i \in [0,1]$ ,  $\lambda_i \in [0,1]$ , where  $\tau = 1 \times n$  is the vector of penalty.

The partial derivative of Equation (25) with respect to  $B_i^{-1}$  and equating to zero gives

$$\begin{aligned} Y_i^T m(x_i)m^T(x_i)B_i^{-1}Y_i - 2\lambda_i - \tau_i B_i^{-1} \\ = Y_i^T(x_i)m^T(x_i)Y_i \end{aligned} \tag{26}$$

However, Substituting equation (26) into (5), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 E[\delta^2] &= E[Y^T(x_i)Y(x_i)] \\
 &- 2E\left[\left(B_i^{-1}\right)^T \left(Y_i^T m(x_i) m^T(x_i) B_i^{-1} Y_i - 2\lambda_i - \tau_i B_i^{-1}\right)\right] \\
 &+ E\left[\left(B_i^{-1}\right)^T Y_i m(x_i) m^T(x_i) Y_i^T B_i^{-1}\right]
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{27}$$

On simplifying, the proposed parametric continuous Kriging for nonstationary spatial covariance model for the location  $x$  can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \delta_{ick_i}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{S}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i) B_i^{-1} m(x_i) - 2\lambda_i B_i^{-1} \\
 &- 2\tau_i B_i^{-1} \left(B_i^{-1}\right)^T \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{28}$$

#### 4. SIMULATION SET UP

The behavior of the nonstationary covariance of the adaptive covariance is investigated by conducting simulation studies with the aid of Matlab and R software (mySeed 500). Various simulations are used for the different adaptive models to examine their performance. The simulation is performed as follows:

- Datasets were generated from uniform distribution with  $n = 5, 10, 20, 25, 30, 40, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 350, 500, 700, 900, 950, 1000$  random sample sizes. This is repeated for all the variates  $m(x_i)$  and  $B_i^{-1}$ . More so, we generated  $n$  random variables from the uniform distribution for the following.

- (a) Variates  $x \in [50, 1000]$ , and the variates  $y \in [100, 2000]$  to obtain the square matrix **B**,

- (b) Variates  $m(x_i) \in [1, n]$  to obtain the distance between the observed and unobserved spatial processes.

- (c) The assumed model for the observed spatial process is obtained as  $v = 10 + 10t$ , where  $t \in [1, n]$  is a random variable.

- The data generated from the uniform distribution are then applied to the following models:

- (i) Spherical model:

$$C_{Sph}(h; \sigma^2, \theta) = \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{3h}{2\theta} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{h}{\theta}\right)^3 \right\}
 \tag{29}$$

- (ii) Gaussian model:

$$C_{Gau}(h; \sigma^2, \theta) = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{h^2}{\theta^2}\right)
 \tag{30}$$

(iii) Exponential model:

$$C_{Exp}(h; \sigma^2, \theta) = \sigma^2 \exp\left(-\frac{h}{\theta}\right) \quad (31)$$

(iv) David and Williams (2002) model:

$$C_{Nd}(h; \sigma^2, \theta) = \sigma^2 - m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i). \quad (32)$$

(v) Proposed parametric model 1:

$$\delta_{iPM1}^2(x, x) = \mathfrak{I}_i(x, x) - 3m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i). \quad (33)$$

(vi) Proposed parametric model 2:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iPM2}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{I}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i) \\ &- 2(B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

(vii) Proposed adaptive parametric model 1:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iAP1}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{I}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i) \\ &- 2\lambda_i(B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

(viii) Proposed adaptive parametric model 2:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{iAP2}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{I}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i) \\ &- 2\lambda_i B_i^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

(ix) Proposed adaptive parametric model 3:

$$\begin{aligned} \delta_{ick}^2(x, x) &= \mathfrak{I}_i(x, x) - m^T(x_i)B_i^T m(x_i) \\ &- 2\tau_i(B_i^{-1})^T B_i^{-1} - 2\lambda_i B_i^{-1}. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

(x) Cherry et al. (1996) Nonparametric model of order 1:

$$C_{CSBl}(h; \sigma^2) = 2(\sigma^2(1 - \text{Cos}(B))) + \frac{2B^2}{1 + \left(\frac{B^2}{2}\right)} \quad (38)$$

(xi) Cherry et al. (1996) Nonparametric model of order 3:

$$C_{CSB3}(h; \sigma^2) = 2 \left( \sigma^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\sin(B)}{B} \right) \right) + \frac{2B^2}{1 + \left( \frac{B^2}{2} \right)} \quad (39)$$

(xii) Huang et al. (2011) Nonparametric model modified:

$$C_{HHC}(h; \sigma^2) = \sigma^2 \left\{ 1 - \frac{\theta}{B} \sin\left(\frac{B}{\theta}\right) \right\} \quad (40)$$

(xiii) Paciorek and Schervish (2006)

$$C^{NS}(h; \sigma^2) = \sigma^2 |\mathcal{G}_i|^{1/4} |\mathcal{G}_j|^{1/4} \left| \frac{\mathcal{G}_i + \mathcal{G}_j}{2} \right|^{-1/2} \times \exp \left( - \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^T \left( \frac{\mathcal{G}_i + \mathcal{G}_j}{2} \right)^{-1} (x_i - x_j)} \right) \quad (41)$$

Where  $\mathcal{G}_i = \mathcal{G}(x_i)$  is the kernel matrix of the covariance matrix of the Gaussian kernel centred at  $x_i$ .

- The Mean Square Prediction Error (MSPE) was used to evaluate the flexibility and performance of the different models with

$$MSPE = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \{Y(x_{ij}) - \hat{Y}(x_{ij})\}^2 \quad (42)$$

- Each of the sample size are replicated 1000 times.

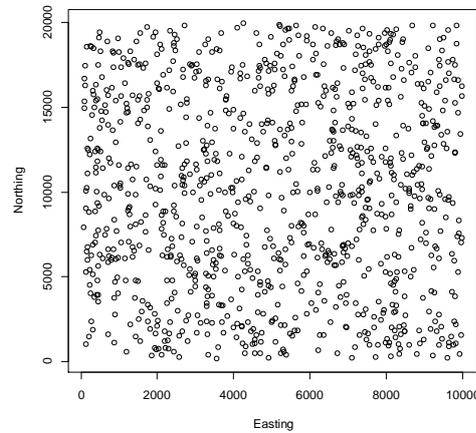
The following abbreviations were used in the study: Parametric model (PM 1, PM 2), Adaptive Parametric (AP 1, AP 2, AP 3), David and Williams (2002) parametric (Nd), Ordinary Kriging model Choi et al. (2013) (OK), Exponential (Ex), Spherical (Sp) and Gaussian (Ga). Huang et la. (2011) (HHC), Cherry et al. (1996) and Shapiro and Botha (1991) (CSB), Higdon et al. (1999) (HIG) and Paciorek and Schervish (2006) (PS).

Figure 1 displays 1000 sampled spatial distributions at different locations. Figures 2 and 3 are the plots for the simulated models showing the adaptive and global parameters for covariograms and semi-variograms for Exponential, Gaussian, Spherical and the David and Williams (2002) models.

In Figures 2 through 3, the spatial covariance of the adaptive model is smaller,

has a bi-covariance with spherical model and with skewed covariance. Tables 1, 2

and 3 showed the results of the simulation.



**Figure 1.** Spatial distributions of spatial processes in the various locations

Firstly, we consider the performance of the models developed when the parameters are fixed, then compare it to when it is adaptive. A model is fixed if the value of the parameters is kept fixed in all spatial locations.

In all cases, the adaptive parameters in APGa has the smallest standard error in MSPE; although the mean seems same for all models except for APGa 3 adaptive models. The adaptive penalized parameter of the adaptive model is smaller than the fixed model in all cases.

In Table 2, Nd and PM 2 have same spherical standard error in all and the smallest spherical standard error. The spherical standard error of Nd and PM 2 increases. The true spherical standard error is the largest across all. The spherical mean of Nd, PM 1 and PM 2 are same.

In Tables 3, CSB 3 having the lowest standard error at order 3. The standard error of HIG has the largest

standard error and the smallest mean. The HIG and PS tend to zero as the lag increases.

#### 4. DATA ANALYSIS

In this section, we prove the flexibility and efficiency of the new model by using real life data. The data were distribution of 35 Sulphate spatial data in mg/l at the construction of Tuomo/Ogbainbiri oil and gas pipeline project in South-South Nigeria. Figures 4 and 5 show the stochastic semi-variogram and variogram of the exponential, spherical and Gaussian adaptive parametric models. In Figure 4, the nugget effect  $C_0=0$ ; range parameter,  $\theta = 70000$  and sill of 108.

Table 4 is the summary results of the exponential, Gaussian and spherical adaptive parametric model.

The adaptive models in Table 4 give the lowest values for the standard error in

MSPE among all fitted models in Gaussian and exponential models except for exponential PM 1. Thus, the adaptive

model is chosen as a better model for the data.

**Table 1.** Mean and Standard Error (in Parentheses  $\times 10^{-05}$ ) of the Mean Squared Prediction Error (MSPE) Comparison of Performance for Fixed and Adaptive Models

Model	FIXED			Adaptive		
	$\lambda$	$\eta$	$MSPE$	$\lambda^{opt}$	$\eta^{opt}$	$MSPE^{opt}$
APEx 1	0.7294		9.955110(958.58)	0.01000		6.0812710(6.6758)
APEx 2	0.6633		7.096286(958.58)	0.0201		6.0812710(6.4358)
APEx 3	0.3523	0.9678	7.110231(958.58)	0.0067	0.0190	6.0812870(6.8758)
APSp 1	0.2887		8.733500(56.509)	0.0050		6.9321000(56.509)
APSp 2	0.1760		7.437500(56.509)	0.0040		6.9321000(46.329)
APSp 3	0.1569	0.9978	9.998700(56.509)	0.0029	0.0057	6.9321000(59.329)
APGa 1	0.3350		6.784226(19.874)	0.0406		4.260120(0.10474)
APGa 2	0.2883		6.416578(16.474)	0.0337		4.260120(0.10474)
APGa 3	0.1763	0.5764	4.289605(30.564)	0.0252	0.0106	2.601360(0.10474)

**Table 2.** Mean and Standard Error (In Parentheses  $\times 10^{-05}$ ) of the Mean Squared Prediction Error (MSPE) Simulated Data Comparison for Parametric

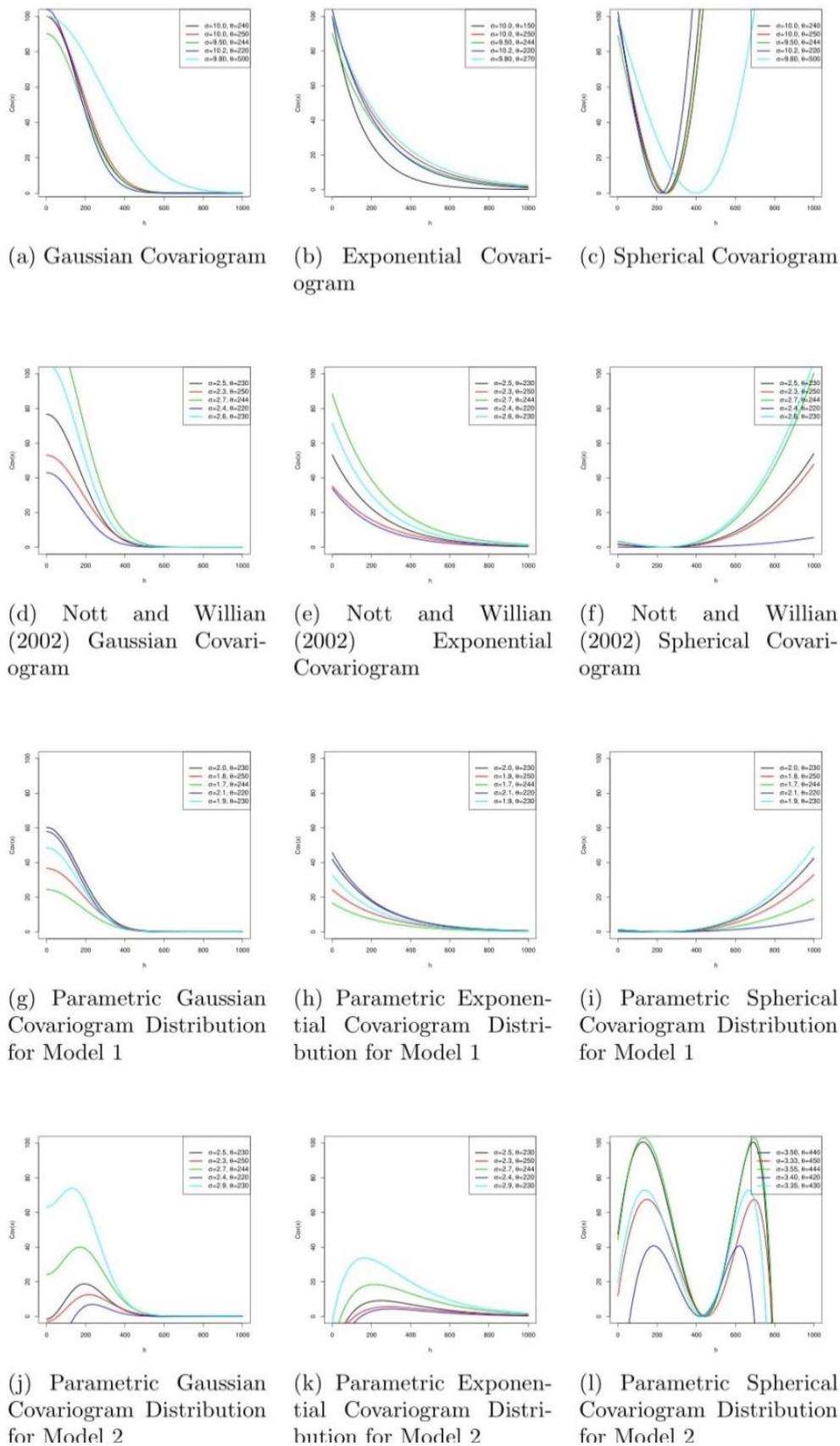
Model	Spherical	Gaussian	Exponential
OK	1.6e+07(2460)	5.950000000(910)	12.68960000(1220)
True	191.14(93939)	0.9760000(89.778)	20.8670000(10900)
Nd	6.9321(5.6509)	426.0103(0.10474)	608.12550(0.95858)
PM 1	6.9324(50.858)	1.2919e+03(0.943)	1.8382e+030(0.863)
PM 2	.93210(5.6509)	426.0120(0.10475)	608.1271(0.095863)

**Table 3.** The Mean and Standard Error ( $\times 10^{-05}$ ) of the MSPE Performance for Some Models

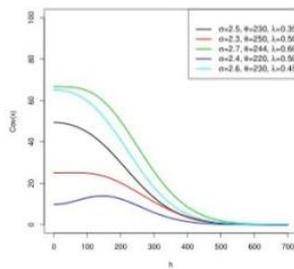
Model	Mean	Standard error
CSB 1	16.9598	0.15123
CBS 3	16.9913	4.80230
HHC	8.49170	0.00356
HIG	6.23220	48198
PS	7.42400	171400

**Table 4.** Mean and Standard Error (in parentheses  $\times 10^{-05}$ ) of the Mean Squared Prediction Error (MSPE) of Adaptive Models for the Tuomo and Ogbainbiri Oil and Gas Pipeline Data

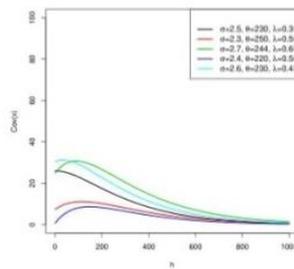
Model	Gaussian	Spherical	Exponential
True	1.92(939000)	2.96(381000)	2.01(208000)
Nd	0.62(234)	2.53(167000)	1.11(274000)
PM 1	0.10(0.00212)	1.36(151000)	0.30(287000)
PM 2	0.62(5.09)	1.92(596000)	1.12(27000)
AP 1	0.03(4.88)	1.93(592000)	0.11(272000)
AP 2	0.03(4.88)	1.93(592000)	0.11(272000)
AP 3	0.01(4.88)	1.93(592000)	0.08(271000)



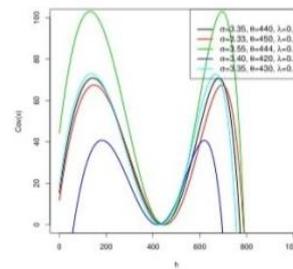
**Figure 2.** Covariogram Plots for Different Values of Parameters with Various Models



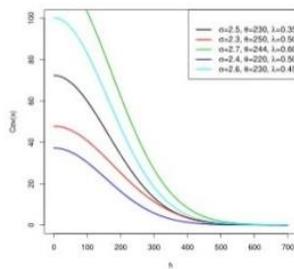
(a) Adaptive Parametric Model 1 for Gaussian Distribution



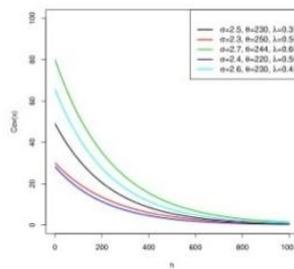
(b) Adaptive Parametric Model 1 for Exponential Distribution



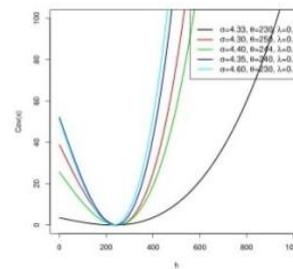
(c) Adaptive Parametric Model 1 for Spherical Distribution



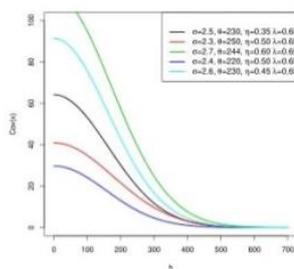
(d) Adaptive Parametric Model 2 for Gaussian Distribution



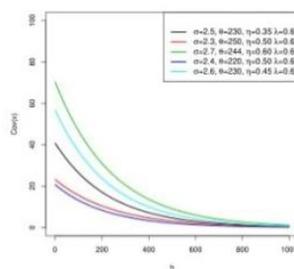
(e) Adaptive Parametric Model 2 for Exponential Distribution



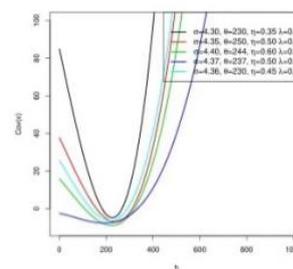
(f) Adaptive Parametric Model 2 for Spherical Distribution



(g) Adaptive Parametric Model 3 for Gaussian Distribution

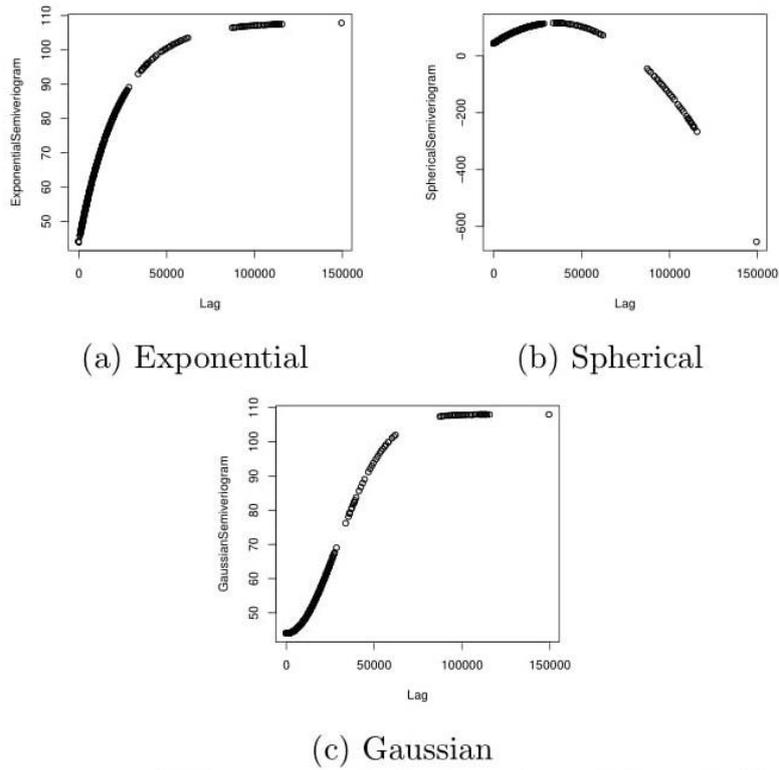


(h) Adaptive Parametric Model 3 for Exponential Distribution



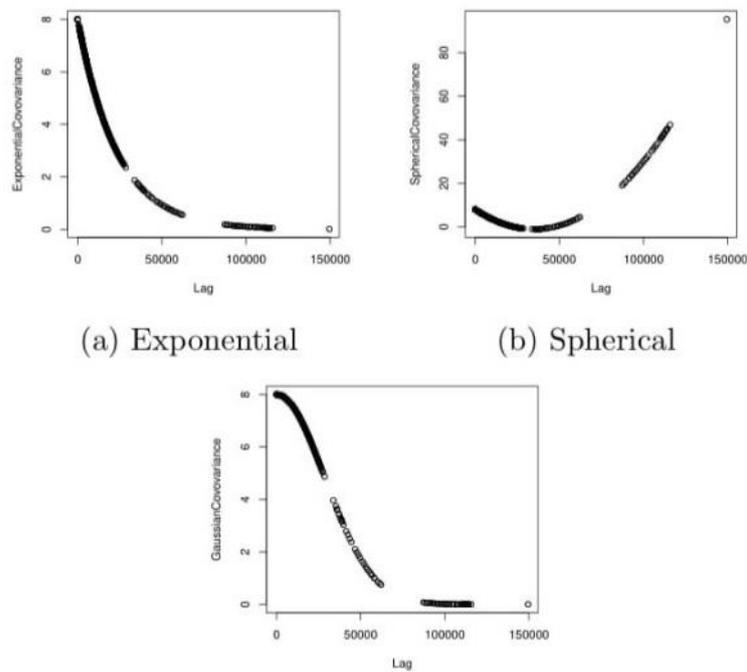
(i) Adaptive Parametric Model 3 for Spherical Distribution

**Figure 3.** Covariogram Plots for Different Values of Parameters with Various Models



**Figure 4.** Semivariogram of Tuoma and Ogbainbiri Oil and Gasline Pipeline Data

(a) Exponential (b) Spherical (c) Gaussian



**Figure 5.** Covariogram of Tuoma and Ogbainbiri Oil and Gasline Pipeline Data

(a) Exponential (b) Spherical (c) Gaussian  
 model is chosen as a better model for the data

## 5. CONCLUSION

We have derived the concept of locally adaptive model for nonstationary covariance spatial processes. The idea allows each location to be fitted with its own tuning parameters instead of adopting a unified turning parameter across all locations. Furthermore, this concept produces a simple way to obtaining a valid nonnegative definite covariance function irrespective of a given covariance matrix. On comparing the results with existing models, the adaptive models have the smallest standard error. The proposed models produced an estimate for nonstationary spatial covariance that are better than David and Williams (2002) parametric model and other classical existing models.

The study developed a new family of parametric models for spatial covariance function. A closed form solution to the family of continuous model for nonstationary spatial processes is also developed. An adaptive parameter that generate the optimal value of the propose model was also developed.

The adaptive parametric models was implemented in the genetic algorithm in Matlab 2017 and R 3.5.1 programs.

## 6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors wish to acknowledge Chief Thomas Boyi Aviokirhie for his immersed effort to make this study a reality.

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