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Smoothing for Spatio-Temporal Models and its Application to Modelling Muskrat-Mink Interaction*

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Abstract

For a set of spatially dependent dynamical models, we propose to estimate parameters which control temporal dynamics by spatial smoothing. The new approach is particularly relevant for analyzing spatially distributed panels of short time series. The asymptotic results show that spatial smoothing will improve the estimation in the presence of nugget effect even when the sample size in each location is large. The proposed methodology is used to analyze the annual mink and muskrat data collected in a period of 25 years over 81 locations in Canada. Based on the proposed method, we are able to model the temporal dynamics which reflects the food-chain-interaction of the two species.

KEY WORDS: α -mixing; Canadian muskrat and mink data; Fixed-domain asymp-

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otics; Food chain interaction; Local linear regression; Nugget effect; Spatial smoothing; Spatio-temporal model; Threshold model; Time series.

1 Introduction

In the context of purely spatial data analysis, *kriging* is one of the most frequently used methods; it is typically used for the prediction of a random variable from neighboring observations by exploiting the statistical dependence between these observations and the unknown random variable (see e.g. Chapter 3, Cressie, 1993). Unfortunately this approach is no longer pertinent when we deal with spatio-temporal data and when we are particularly interested in estimating the temporal dynamics. In fact, we argue that it will be difficult, if ever possible, to estimate the temporal dynamics by relying on an approach which focuses on prediction. In this paper, we assume that (i) the temporal dynamics follows a certain known structure governed by an unknown parameter vector which varies smoothly over space, and (ii) the spatial dependence is driven by a series of noise processes which are correlated over space but independent over time. This setting can be viewed as an extension of Hjellvik and Tjøstheim (1999), in which they dealt with a panel of dependent linear time series and accommodated the (spatial) dependence in terms of a common noise term across the panel. We shall propose a spatio-temporal model approach, in which the functional form is assumed known up to some unknown parameters. We estimate the unknown parameters by spatial smoothing technique through local linear kernel regression. A spin-off of the proposed spatial smoothing is that, in the presence of the *nugget effect* (see e.g. p.59, Cressie, 1993), even the estimation at locations at which observations are available can be further improved.

Spatial smoothing is one of the very frequently used ideas in analyzing spatial data especially for spatial interpolation, although the form of smoothing is diverse. Kernel smoothing was used to estimate the intensity of the spatial pattern by Diggle (1985) and Diggle and Marron (1988), marginal density functions in Hallin, Lu and Tran (2001) and Yao (2003). The approach proposed in this paper is motivated by modeling the food chain interaction between mink and muskrat in

Canada. The available data consist of the annual numbers of both mink and muskrat fur sales at 81 posts over a period of 25 years, namely 1925 – 1949. In short, we have 81×2 time series, but each consisting of 25 points only. Most of these series exhibit cycles with a period of around 10 years. It is well-known that for many parts of Canada (such as those covered by boreal forests) there exists a close food-chain-interaction between the mink (as predator) and the muskrat (as prey). Biological studies suggest that the food-chain-interaction should be nonlinear, reflecting the changing behavior of the animals at different stages of the population cycle. The statistical analysis of this particular data set aims at a deeper understanding of the food-chain-interaction from a quantitative point of view. Thus, we seek a statistical model which can capture much of the temporal dynamical fluctuation and interaction of the two species as well as the pattern change in the fluctuation and the interaction over space. Briefly, our approach is as follows. We adopt the food-chain-interaction idea proposed by May (1981) and Stenseth *et al.* (1997, 1998a) and couple it with the idea of regime change dictated by a threshold variable (Tong 1990) to arrive at a model for the temporal dynamics at each of the 81 posts. We clothe the resulting temporal model for each post with spatially dependent noise as one (but not the only) way to induce spatial dependence in the data. By pooling the information from neighboring posts, we overcome the difficulties in estimation due to the shortage of data at each post. Further, we are able to identify the main factors which dominate the pattern change of the food-chain-interaction over space using the estimated models.

The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, we present a local linear approach for the estimation of spatially dependent parameters in a fairly general spatio-temporal model setup. In section 3, we explain why it is practically relevant to include the nugget effect in our setting, and present the asymptotic properties of the proposed estimators in the form of the *fixed-domain asymptotics*. We conduct some simulation in Section 4, which illustrates the improvement due to spatial smoothing. The analysis on mink and muskrat interaction over time and space based on the proposed method is reported in Section 5. The technical proof of our main result is given in an appendix.

2 Methodology

2.1 Model

For each fixed location $\mathbf{s} \equiv (u, v)' \in \mathcal{S}$, the process $\{(Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})), t = 1, 2, \dots\}$ is strictly stationary, where $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$ is a scalar, $\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})$ is a $p \times 1$ vector, and \mathcal{S} is a subset of R^2 . In a time series context, $\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})$ may include some lagged values of $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$. Further, we assume that at each location \mathbf{s} ,

$$Y_t(\mathbf{s}) = g\{\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}), \boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})\} + \varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}), \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (2.1)$$

where the form of function g is given and $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})$ is an unknown parameter vector and is continuous in \mathbf{s} . We assume that the noise processes $\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s})$ satisfy the condition below.

C1 $\{\varepsilon_1(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}, \{\varepsilon_2(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}, \dots$ is a sequence of independent spatial processes with identical distribution. Further, for each $t > 1$, $\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$ is independent of $\{(Y_{t-j}(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_{t+1-j}(\mathbf{s})), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S} \text{ and } j \geq 1\}$. The spatial covariance function

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) \equiv \text{Cov}\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_1), \varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_2)\} \quad (2.2)$$

is bounded over \mathcal{S}^2 .

We further assume that the noise $\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s})$ admits the decomposition below.

C2 For any $t \geq 1$ and $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}) = \varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}) + \varepsilon_{2,t}(\mathbf{s}), \quad (2.3)$$

where $\{\varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}), t \geq 1, \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$ and $\{\varepsilon_{2,t}(\mathbf{s}), t \geq 1, \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$ are two independent processes, and both fulfill conditions imposed on $\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s})\}$ in C1 above. Further, $\Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) \equiv \text{Cov}\{\varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}_1), \varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}_2)\}$ is continuous in $(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2)$, and $\text{Cov}\{\varepsilon_{2,t}(\mathbf{s}_1), \varepsilon_{2,t}(\mathbf{s}_2)\} = \sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_1) \geq 0$ if $\mathbf{s}_1 = \mathbf{s}_2$, and 0 otherwise, where $\sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s})$ is continuous.

When $\sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}) > 0$, Condition C2 implies that the *nugget effect* exists in the spatial noise process $\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$. The nugget effect was introduced by G. Matheron in early 1960's. It reflects the

fact that the variogram $E\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_1) - \varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_2)\}^2$ does not converges to 0 as $\|\mathbf{s}_1 - \mathbf{s}_2\| \rightarrow 0$, where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean distance. In our notation, it is equivalent to the fact that the function $\gamma(\mathbf{s}) \equiv \Gamma(\mathbf{s}_1 + \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s}_1)$ is not continuous at $\mathbf{s} = 0$ for any given $\mathbf{s}_1 \in \mathcal{S}$. For example, C2 implies that $\Gamma(\mathbf{s}_1 + \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s}_1) = \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_1) + \sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_1)$ if $\mathbf{s} = 0$, and $\Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_1 + \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s}_1)$ otherwise. Note that decomposition (2.3) is one easy, but not the only, way to model a nugget effect. In this decomposition, $\varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s})$ represents system noise which typically has continuous sample path (in \mathbf{s}), while $\varepsilon_{2,t}(\mathbf{s})$ stands for *microscale* variation and/or measurement noise; see, e.g. Cressie (1993, esp. §2.3.1) and also Remark 2 in Section 3 below. Hjellvik and Tjøstheim (1999) adopted a similar, but different, noise decomposition to model the dependence in panels of time series data.

2.2 Estimation

Suppose that we have observations at N locations denoted by $\mathcal{S}_N \equiv \{\mathbf{s}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_N\} \subset \mathcal{S}$. For each location, we have observed data $\{(Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})), 1 \leq t \leq T\}$. The goal is to estimate $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ for a given location $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathcal{S}$. If we have observations at \mathbf{s}_0 (*i.e.* $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathcal{S}_N$), the least squares estimator $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ for $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ based on the data at the location \mathbf{s}_0 is the solution of minimizing the sum $\sum_{t=1}^T \{Y_t(\mathbf{s}_0) - g(\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}_0), \mathbf{a})\}^2$ over vector \mathbf{a} . When $\mathbf{s}_0 \notin \mathcal{S}_N$, we may estimate $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ by pooling the information from observations at nearby locations. This leads us to consider the local linear estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0) \equiv \hat{\mathbf{a}}$, where $(\hat{\mathbf{a}}, \hat{\mathbf{B}})$ is the minimizer of

$$\sum_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}_N} \sum_{t=1}^T \{Y_t(\mathbf{s}) - g(\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{a}) - \dot{g}(\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{a})' \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0)\}^2 K_h(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0). \quad (2.4)$$

Here $\dot{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{a}})g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$, \mathbf{B} is a matrix, $K(\cdot)$ is a kernel function, and $K_h(\mathbf{s}) = h^{-2}K(\mathbf{s}/h)$. Obviously, $\hat{\mathbf{B}}$ is an estimator for $\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$, where $\dot{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}) = (\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{S}})\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})$. For linear model $g(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\theta}$, the above sum of squares reduces to

$$\sum_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}_N} \sum_{t=1}^T \{Y_t(\mathbf{s}) - \mathbf{X}_t'(\mathbf{s})(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0))\}^2 K_h(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0).$$

When $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathcal{S}_N$, the estimator $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ based on the combined data from neighboring locations has a smaller asymptotic mean squared error than the ordinary least squares estimator $\tilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$

based on the data at the location \mathbf{s}_0 only; see Remark 1 below. From now on, we call $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ the *smoothed estimator* and $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ the *unsmoothed estimator*.

2.3 Bandwidth selection

The bandwidth h plays a crucial role in kernel smoothing. For a comprehensive discussion on bandwidth selection, we refer to Fan and Gijbels (1996, Ch.4) and Simonoff (1996, Ch.5). In this paper, we adopt the generalized cross-validation method proposed by Wahba (1977) and Craven and Wahba (1979) to select h .

Let $\widehat{Y}_{t_0}(\mathbf{s}_0) = g(\mathbf{X}_{t_0}(\mathbf{s}_0), \widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0))$, where $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ is the local linear estimator derived from (2.4). Then $\widehat{Y}_{t_0}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ can be written as a linear combination of $\{Y_t(\mathbf{s}), 1 \leq t \leq T, \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}_N\}$ with coefficients depending on $\{\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})\}$ and h only. Let \mathbf{Y} be the $(NT) \times 1$ vector with $\{Y_t(\mathbf{s}), 1 \leq t \leq T, \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}_N\}$ as its NT components and $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}}$ be the corresponding vector with $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$ replaced by $\widehat{Y}_t(\mathbf{s})$. Then we may write $\widehat{\mathbf{Y}} = H(h)\mathbf{Y}$, where $H(h)$ is a $(NT) \times (NT)$ coefficient matrix independent of $\{Y_t(\mathbf{s})\}$. The GCV selects h which minimizes

$$\text{GCV}(h) = NT \left\{ \text{tr}(I - H(h)) \right\}^{-2} (\mathbf{Y} - \widehat{\mathbf{Y}})'(\mathbf{Y} - \widehat{\mathbf{Y}}).$$

3 Asymptotic properties

We study the asymptotic properties of our estimator when both T and N tend to infinity. For the sake of simplicity, we only present the asymptotic results for linear models. Specifically, we always assume in this section that model (2.1) holds with $g(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\theta}$, and the smoothed estimator $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ is derived from (2.4). Similar results hold for a general nonlinear g but with more complicated notation. First we state some regularity conditions.

- C3** For any $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}$, there exists a constant C_0 such that $E\|\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})\|^{2\delta} < C_0 < \infty$ for some $\delta > 2$. Further, the process $\{(Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})), t \geq 1\}$ is α -mixing with the mixing coefficient $\alpha(k)$ satisfying the condition $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \{\alpha(k)\}^{1-2/\delta} < \infty$.

C4 The kernel $K(\cdot)$ is a symmetric (*i.e.* $K(\mathbf{x}) = K(-\mathbf{x})$) density function on R^2 with a bounded support.

C5 As $N \rightarrow \infty$, $N^{-1} \sum_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}_N} I(\mathbf{s} \in A) \rightarrow \int_A f(\mathbf{s}) d\mathbf{s}$ for any measurable set $A \subset \mathcal{S}$, where f is a *sampling intensity* (*i.e.* density) function on \mathcal{S} . Further, $f > 0$ in a neighborhood of $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathcal{S}$.

C6 The matrix function $\mathbf{A}_1(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) \equiv E\{\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}_1) \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}_2)'\}$ admits the decomposition

$$\mathbf{A}_1(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) = \mathbf{A}_{1,1}(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) + \mathbf{A}_{1,2}(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2), \quad (3.1)$$

where $\mathbf{A}_{1,1}(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2)$ is continuous, $\mathbf{A}_{1,2}(\mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{s}_2) = 0$ if $\mathbf{s}_1 \neq \mathbf{s}_2$, $\mathbf{A}_{1,2}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s})$ is continuous (as a function of \mathbf{s}), and both $\mathbf{A}_{1,1}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s})$ and $\mathbf{A}_{1,2}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s})$ are non-negative definite matrices. Further, $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})$ is twice continuously differentiable.

Condition C5 assumes that all the locations are within a fixed area determined by the intensity function f when $N \rightarrow \infty$. Note that N is the number of locations where the observations are taken. Our approach belongs to the category of the *fixed-domain asymptotics*. Fixed-domain asymptotics is one of two frequently used asymptotic frameworks in the analysis of spatial statistics; see, e.g. Cressie (1993, §3.3). Note that the process $\{Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$ (as well as $\{\mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$) may exhibit a nugget effect when such an effect exists with noise process $\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}\}$; see (2.3). This is reflected in the decomposition (3.1) in C6. On the other hand, condition C3 requires that at each given location, multiple time series $\{(Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})), t \geq 1\}$ is α -mixing. It is known that many frequently used time series are α -mixing. For example, linear and causal ARMA time series with continuously-distributed innovations are α -mixing with exponentially decaying mixing coefficients. For further discussion on mixing properties of time series, see section 2.6 of Fan and Yao (2003).

We introduce some notation. Let $\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{A}_1(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s})$, $\mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbf{A}_{1,1}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s})$, $\sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0) = \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{s}_0)$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{i,1} &= \int \int u^i K(u, v) dudv, & \mu_{i,2} &= \int \int v^i K(u, v) dudv, \\ \nu_{i,1} &= \int \int u^i K^2(u, v) dudv, & \nu_{i,2} &= \int \int v^i K^2(u, v) dudv. \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1. *Let conditions C1 – C6 hold. As $T \rightarrow \infty$, $N \rightarrow \infty$ and $h \rightarrow 0$, it holds for $\mathbf{s} \in \mathcal{S}$ that,*

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0) - \boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0) = \frac{1}{2}h^2\mathbf{b}(\mathbf{s}_0)\{1 + o_P(1)\} + \gamma T^{-1/2}\boldsymbol{\xi}\{1 + o_P(1)\}.$$

where $\boldsymbol{\xi}$ is a $p \times 1$ random vector with zero mean and identity covariance matrix, and

$$\gamma^2 = \sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0)\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0)\mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}_0)\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) + \frac{\nu_{0,1}\sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0)}{Nh^2f(\mathbf{s}_0)}\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0), \quad \mathbf{b}(\mathbf{s}) = \mu_{2,1}\frac{\partial^2\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})}{\partial u^2} + \mu_{2,2}\frac{\partial^2\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s})}{\partial v^2}.$$

Remark 1. It may be shown that when $\mathbf{s}_0 \in \mathcal{S}_N$,

$$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0) - \boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0) = \{\sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0) + \sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0)\}^{1/2}T^{-1/2}\mathbf{A}^{-1/2}(\mathbf{s}_0)\boldsymbol{\xi}\{1 + o_P(1)\}.$$

It is easy to see that to minimize the mean squared error of $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s})$, we should use the bandwidth h of the order $(NT)^{-1/6}$. Further by choosing $h = O\{(NT)^{-1/6}\}$, Theorem 1 implies that the mean squared error of the smoothed estimator $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ is smaller than that of $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ under the condition $T = o(N^2)$. Furthermore, the smaller is $\sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0)/\sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0)$ (the system-noise-to-measurement-noise ratio), the larger is the improvement due to spatial smoothing. In particular, if $\sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0) = 0$, the mean squared error of $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ is an order of magnitude smaller than that of the method using the data at location \mathbf{s}_0 only.

Remark 2. In the case of no nugget effect (*i.e.* $\sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0) = 0$ and $\mathbf{A}_{1,2}(\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{s}_0) = 0$), spatial smoothing cannot reduce the asymptotic variance of the unsmoothed estimator $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$. This is due to the fact that the spatial smoothing uses effectively the data at locations within a distance h from \mathbf{s}_0 . Due to the continuity of the function $\Gamma_1(\cdot, \cdot)$ stated in C2, all the $\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s})$'s from those locations are asymptotically identical. (The conventional weighted least squares approach using correlation coefficients as weights leads to an estimator with a constant bias, and is therefore not applicable here.) We argue that asymptotic theory under this setting presents an excessively gloomy picture. Adding a nugget effect in the model brings the theory closer to reality since in practice the data used in local spatial smoothing usually contain some noise components which are not identical even within a very small neighborhood. Note that the nugget effect is not detectable

in practice since we can never estimate $\Gamma(\mathbf{s} + \Delta, \mathbf{s})$ defined in (2.2) for $\|\Delta\|$ less than the minimum pairwise-distance among observed locations.

Remark 3. Theorem 1 above does not require the process $\{Y_t(\mathbf{s}), \mathbf{X}_t(\mathbf{s})\}$ to be stationary over space; see conditions C1 and C2. The asymptotic properties were in fact derived under the mixing property over time (condition C3), the continuity over space (conditions C2 and C6), and the assumption of i.i.d. temporal noise at each given location (condition C1). If the asymptotic normality of $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0)$ is desired, we would have to impose certain form of stationarity over space.

4 Numerical properties

Theorem 1 above shows that a smoothed estimator has a smaller mean squared error than its unsmoothed counterpart. In this section, we illustrate the finite sample properties of the method with two simulated examples. The improvement due to spatial smoothing has been observed in both Example 1, which fulfills the conditions of Theorem 1, and also Example 2, which indicates the usefulness of the smoothing is beyond the circumstance confined to the conditions of Theorem 1.

Here and also in section 5, we use kernel $K(\mathbf{s}) = (1 - u^2 - v^2)_+$ and select the bandwidth h by the GCV method described in section 2.3. In both the examples below, we set the sample size $T = 25$. The observations are taken over $N = m^2$ grid points on the square $[0, 6]^2$ with $m = 3, 6$ and 9, and the grid points $\{(u_i, v_j), 1 \leq i, j \leq m\}$ are defined as

$$u_i = 6(i - 1)/(m - 1), \quad v_j = 6(j - 1)/(m - 1).$$

We generate the process $\{X_t(u_i, v_j), 1 \leq i, j \leq m\}$, which is independent in t , with the formula

$$X_t(u_i, v_j) = \frac{1}{49} \sum_{k=-3}^3 \sum_{l=-3}^3 e_{i+k+3, j+l+3},$$

where $e_{i,j}$ are independent $N(0, 1)$ random variables. We replicate the simulation 100 times for each setting.

Example 1: Consider the model

$$Y_{t+1}(u, v) = a_1(u, v) + a_2(u, v)X_t(u, v) + a_3(u, v)Y_t(u, v) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(u, v),$$

where

$$a_1(u, v) = 0.2 \sin(u + v), \quad a_2(u, v) = u + v, \quad a_3(u, v) = \frac{1}{6} \cos^2(u + v),$$

and the noise process $\{\varepsilon_t(u, v)\}$ satisfies conditions C1 and C2. More specifically, it admits the decomposition (2.3) with both $\varepsilon_{1,t}(u, v)$ and $\varepsilon_{2,t}(u, v)$ normal with mean 0 and the common variance σ_\star^2 , and

$$\text{Corr}\{\varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}_1), \varepsilon_{1,t}(\mathbf{s}_2)\} = \exp\{-\|\mathbf{s}_1 - \mathbf{s}_2\|\}.$$

We select σ_\star^2 such that the ratio of noise to signal defined as

$$\text{Var}\{\varepsilon_t(u, v)\} / \text{Var}[g\{\mathbf{X}_t(u, v), \boldsymbol{\theta}(u, v)\}]$$

is equal to 0.2. Note that at each fixed location (u, v) , the time series $\{Y_t(u, v)\}$ defined above is a causal linear AR(1) process with independent normal innovations $a_2(u, v)X_t(u, v) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(u, v)$, and, therefore, is also α -mixing with the exponentially decaying coefficients (see, for example, section 2.6.1 of Fan and Yao, 2003).

For each $k = 1, 2, 3$, the mean squared error, defined by

$$\text{MSE}(\hat{a}_k) = \frac{1}{m^2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m E\{\hat{a}_k(u_i, v_j) - a_k(u_i, v_j)\}^2,$$

is employed as the criterion to compare the empirical performance of the (new) smoothed estimator and the (more conventional) unsmoothed estimator for $a_k(u, v)$. Table 1 lists the values of

$$\text{RMSE}(a_k) = \text{MSE1}(a_k) / \text{MSE2}(a_k),$$

where $\text{MSE1}(a_k)$ and $\text{MSE2}(a_k)$ are respectively the MSE for the smoothed estimator and the unsmoothed estimator of $a_k(u, v)$. Note that all the entries in Table 1 are less than 1, and some of them by a large margin. This indicates that the gain from spatial smoothing is substantial even when m is moderate.

(Put Table 1 here)

Example 2. Consider the threshold model

$$Y_{t+1}(u, v) = \begin{cases} a_1(u, v) + a_2(u, v)X_t(u, v) + a_3(u, v)Y_t(u, v) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(u, v) & X_t(u, v) \leq 0.6, \\ a_4(u, v) + a_5(u, v)X_t(u, v) + a_6(u, v)Y_t(u, v) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(u, v) & X_t(u, v) > 0.6, \end{cases}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} a_1(u, v) &= 1 + u + v, & a_2(u, v) &= 0.5(u^2 + v^2), & a_3(u, v) &= 0.2 \sin(u + v), \\ a_4(u, v) &= u + 3v, & a_5(u, v) &= 0.5(u^2 + 2v^2), & a_6(u, v) &= 0.5 \cos(u + v), \end{aligned}$$

and we generate the noise process $\{\varepsilon_t(u_i, v_j), 1 \leq i, j \leq m\}$, which is independent in t , with the formula

$$\varepsilon_t(u_i, v_j) = \frac{\sigma}{25} \sum_{k=-2}^2 \sum_{l=-2}^2 e_{i+2+k, j+2+l}, \quad (4.1)$$

where $e_{i,j}$ are independent $N(0, 1)$ random variables. We select $\sigma > 0$ such that the ratio of noise to signal is equal to 0.2. Table 2 lists the values of $\text{RMSE}(a_k)$ from a simulation with 100 replications, which exhibits the similar pattern as in Table 1.

(Put Table 2 here)

The numerical results from different settings (i.e. with different values of m_0 and T) present the same profile as Tables 1 and 2, and therefore are not presented here. Note that the process $\{\varepsilon_t(u, v)\}$ used in Example 2 does not facilitate a decomposition of the form (2.3); see (4.1). However the setting still ensures that for any $1 \leq i, j, k, l \leq m$ and $(i, j) \neq (k, l)$,

$$E\{\varepsilon_t(u_i, v_j) - \varepsilon_t(u_k, v_l)\}^2 \geq \frac{\sigma^2}{(2m_0 + 1)^4} > 0,$$

no matter how small $\|(u_i, v_j) - (u_k, v_l)\|$ is. Hence Example 2 lends further support to the assertion that the proposed smoothed estimator outperforms the unsmoothed estimator when there exists a nugget effect in the sense that $E\{\varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_1) - \varepsilon_t(\mathbf{s}_2)\}^2 \not\rightarrow 0$ as $\|\mathbf{s}_1 - \mathbf{s}_2\| \rightarrow 0$. (See also Remark 2.)

5 Modelling food-chain-interaction between mink and muskrat

From the records compiled by the Hudson Bay Company on fur sales at auction in 1925-1949, we can extract annual numbers of mink and muskrats caught over 81 trapping regions (each represented by a post where the fur were collected) in Canada for a period of 25 years. Based on the population dynamic structure, Yao *et al.* (2000) arrived at a grouping which divided the 81 posts into three groups, namely the western group (29 posts), the central group (43 posts),

and the eastern group (9 posts). Let $Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i)$ and $X_t(\mathbf{s}_i)$ be the mink observation and the muskrat observation respectively, on a natural logarithmic scale, for the i -th post and at time t .

5.1 Initial fitting

Biological considerations suggest nonlinear temporal dynamics. In ecological population modeling, threshold autoregression has been found to be a simple approach which often offers interesting biological insights; see, for example, Framstad *et al.* (1997) and Stenseth *et al.* (1998a,b). We apply our smoothing approach to this class of models in the context of the food-chain-interaction between mink and muskrat. The class of models is of the form

$$X_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) = \begin{cases} a_1(\mathbf{s}_i) + a_2(\mathbf{s}_i)Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + a_3(\mathbf{s}_i)X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq r_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ a_4(\mathbf{s}_i) + a_5(\mathbf{s}_i)Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + a_6(\mathbf{s}_i)X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > r_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \quad (5.1)$$

$$Y_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) = \begin{cases} b_1(\mathbf{s}_i) + b_2(\mathbf{s}_i)X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + b_3(\mathbf{s}_i)Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq r_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ b_4(\mathbf{s}_i) + b_5(\mathbf{s}_i)X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + b_6(\mathbf{s}_i)Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \varepsilon_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > r_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \quad (5.2)$$

$t = 1, \dots, 24$, $i = 1, \dots, 81$. Here, $\mathbf{s}_i = (\text{latitude}, \text{longitude})$ is the location of the i th post. The pattern of the food-chain-interaction between the two species is reflected by the signs and the magnitudes of the coefficients a_i and b_i and thresholds r_i (see the discussion towards the end of section 5.2 below).

It is clear that if we estimate the above parameters for each post using observations from that post only, large variability will result because only 24 observations are available to estimate at least 7 parameters of interest. The estimation proposed in section 2.2, which involves smoothing, provides a natural remedy for this problem by pooling the information from nearby posts within the same group. We denote $\hat{a}_i(\mathbf{s})$, $\hat{b}_i(\mathbf{s})$ and $\hat{r}_i(\mathbf{s})$ the estimators derived from the smoothed method. We have also conducted an analysis of variance for the estimated coefficients $\hat{a}_i(\mathbf{s})$, $\hat{b}_i(\mathbf{s})$ and $\hat{r}_i(\mathbf{s})$. As expected, the variation within (the three) groups are much smaller than the variation between groups.

To further extract the common features in the food-chain-interaction among nearby posts, we apply, as an exploratory tool, a principal component analysis to the estimated coefficients

$\{(\hat{b}_1(\mathbf{s}_j), \dots, \hat{b}_6(\mathbf{s}_j), \hat{r}_2(\mathbf{s}_j))'\}$ in each of the three regions. The coefficients of the first two principal components, produced by Splus, are presented in Table 4, which account for 93.6%, 94.5% and 88.2% of total variation in western, central and eastern regions respectively. Note that Splus suppresses small coefficients by default. Although such a censoring lacks firm statistical underpinnings, it suggests that, for example, in the western region the major (spatial) variation of model (5.2) occurs in the coefficients $b_1(\mathbf{s}), b_4(\mathbf{s})$ and $r_2(\mathbf{s})$, and we may set $b_j(\mathbf{s}) \equiv b_j$ for $j = 2, 3, 5, 6$. If we ignore a ‘small’ coefficient in the fourth row of Table 4, the same argument may apply to the central region. Similarly we may set $b_j(\mathbf{s}) \equiv b_j$ for $j = 2, 3, 5, 6$ in the eastern region. The same analysis for the estimates $\{(\hat{a}_1(\mathbf{s}_j), \dots, \hat{a}_6(\mathbf{s}_j), \hat{r}_1(\mathbf{s}_j))'\}$ for each of the three regions leads to the suggestion that $a_j(\mathbf{s}) \equiv a_j$ for $j = 2, 3, 5, 6$ in model (5.1) for all the three regions.

(Put Table 3 here.)

Note that the principal component analysis above merely serves as a data-analytic tool to synchronize the fittings across different posts, in which the dependence among estimated coefficients from different posts was ignored. In the same vein, we apply a simple one-sample t -test for testing, for example, the null hypothesis $a_2(\mathbf{s}) - a_5(\mathbf{s}) = 0$ in each of the three regions based on the estimated coefficients $\{\hat{a}_2(\mathbf{s}) - \hat{a}_5(\mathbf{s})\}$. This is effectively to check whether, for example, in model (5.1) the effect of $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$ is nonlinear. The p -values of those tests are reported in Table 4. Setting a significance level at 5%, we may treat $a_2(\mathbf{s}) = a_5(\mathbf{s})$ for all the three regions, $b_3(\mathbf{s}) = b_6(\mathbf{s})$ for central region, $a_1(\mathbf{s}) = a_4(\mathbf{s})$ for eastern region, and $b_1(\mathbf{s}) = b_4(\mathbf{s})$ in the western (with p -value 5.3%) and the eastern region.

(Put Table 4 here.)

5.2 Refined fitting

The above exploratory analysis of the estimated coefficients suggests that we may impose some constraints on models (5.1) and (5.2) in fitting the mink and muskrat data. We only report the results from the western and central regions where the food-chain-interaction between mink

and muskrat is evident. For example, in western region the fitted model, under appropriate constraints, is

$$\begin{aligned} X_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) &= \begin{cases} \hat{a}_1(\mathbf{s}_i) - 0.226Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.856X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq \hat{r}_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ \hat{a}_4(\mathbf{s}_i) - 0.226Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 1.009X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > \hat{r}_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \\ Y_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) &= \begin{cases} \hat{b}_1(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.260X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.478Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq \hat{r}_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ \hat{b}_1(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.182X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.656Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > \hat{r}_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

The above model is obtained as follows. We first estimate model (5.1) with constraint $a_2(\mathbf{s}) \equiv a_5(\mathbf{s})$ and model (5.2) using the proposed smoothing method. We then replace $\hat{a}_j(\mathbf{s}_i)$ and $\hat{b}_j(\mathbf{s}_i)$, respectively, by their mean values over the 29 posts for $j = 2, 3, 5, 6$. This idea of estimating constant coefficients was explored in Fan and Zhang (2000). Note that the coefficients of $Y_t(\mathbf{s})$ in the upper regime and the lower regime in the muskrat model are the same, suggesting that the influence of mink over muskrat in the western region does not depend on the value of threshold variable $X_t(\mathbf{s})$. The spatial variation is limited to intercepts and thresholds only.

The fitted model for the central region under the constraints is

$$\begin{aligned} X_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) &= \begin{cases} \hat{a}_1(\mathbf{s}_i) - 0.208Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.848X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq \hat{r}_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ \hat{a}_4(\mathbf{s}_i) - 0.208Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 1.024X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > \hat{r}_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \\ Y_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) &= \begin{cases} \hat{b}_1(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.220X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.534Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) \leq \hat{r}_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \\ \hat{b}_4(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.351X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + 0.534Y_t(\mathbf{s}_i) + \hat{\varepsilon}_{t+1}(\mathbf{s}_i) & X_t(\mathbf{s}_i) > \hat{r}_2(\mathbf{s}_i), \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

This model presents a similar pattern as those for the western region, except that now the self-influence of mink is also the same in the upper and the lower regimes.

The above fitted model may be interpreted biologically as follows. First in both regions the mink is affected positively by the presence of its prey muskrat. The effect is about the same in both regions. Further the effect of the mink on the muskrat population is the same in both the upper and the lower regimes, whereas the effect of the muskrat on the mink is not. This seems to indicate that the muskrat is more important for the mink in the upper regime (corresponding to the increase and peak population phase; see Yao *et al.* 2000) in the central region which indeed may be due to the possibility that this region may be the mink-muskrat's core area within which

they are most closely linked with each other. Furthermore, in both regions self-regulation within the muskrat population is stronger in the lower regime (corresponding to the decrease phase of the population cycle), during which competition within the population is likely to be stronger. A similar pattern is found for the mink in the western region but not in the central region, which indeed is consistent with the central region being a region of strong interaction between the species.

In conclusion, ecological time series are typically short, but there may be many of them for each single species or system (see, e.g., Stenseth 1999). By pooling information from nearby locations through kernel smoothing, we have derived reliable estimation for the food-chain-interaction models between mink and muskrat thereby enabling relevant biological interpretation.

Appendix – Proof of Theorem 1

Let

$$\mathbf{X}_i = \Omega_i \otimes \left(1, (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0)' / h\right), \quad \text{with} \quad \Omega_i = \left(\mathbf{X}_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \dots, \mathbf{X}_T(\mathbf{s}_i)\right)', \quad i = 1, \dots, N.$$

$$\mathbf{Y}' = (\mathbf{Y}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Y}_N), \quad \text{with} \quad \mathbf{Y}_i = \left(Y_1(\mathbf{s}_i), \dots, Y_T(\mathbf{s}_i)\right).$$

$$\mathbf{X} = (\mathbf{X}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}'_N)', \quad W = \text{diag}\left(K_h(\mathbf{s}_1 - \mathbf{s}_0), \dots, K_h(\mathbf{s}_N - \mathbf{s}_0)\right) \otimes I_T,$$

we use $e_{k,m}$ to denote the unit vector of length m with 1 at the k -th position. Solving (2.4), we obtain the estimator of $\boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0)$

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0) = I_p \otimes e_{1,3}^T (\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{Y}. \quad (\text{A.1})$$

Put

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}'_i = \left(1, (\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0)' / h\right), \quad B = \left(I_p \otimes \text{diag}(1, h, h)\right),$$

note that $\mathbf{X}_i = (\Omega_i \otimes \boldsymbol{\alpha}'_i)B$ we have

$$B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X}B^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\Omega'_i \Omega_i) \otimes (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \boldsymbol{\alpha}'_i) K_h(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0),$$

and

$$B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{Y} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\Omega'_i \otimes \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i) \mathbf{Y}_i K_h(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0).$$

For any $3p$ -dimensional vector Z with $Z'Z = 1$, we have

$$\frac{1}{NT}Z'B^{-1}(\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})B^{-1}Z = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N\left[\frac{1}{T}Z'\{(\Omega_i'\Omega_i)\otimes(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i')\}Z\right]K_h(\mathbf{s}_i-\mathbf{s}_0)$$

Let

$$\xi_i = \frac{1}{T}Z'\{(\Omega_i'\Omega_i)\otimes(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i')\}Z,$$

we have

$$\text{Var}\{(NT)^{-1}Z'B^{-1}(\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})B^{-1}Z\} \leq \left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^N(\text{Var}(\xi_i))^{1/2}K_h(\mathbf{s}_i-\mathbf{s}_0)\right\}^2.$$

Let

$$\xi_{i,j} = Z'\{\mathbf{X}_j(\mathbf{s}_i)\mathbf{X}_j'(\mathbf{s}_i)\otimes(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i')\}Z,$$

we have

$$\xi_i = \frac{1}{T}\sum_{j=1}^T\xi_{i,j}.$$

For $k < 0$, let $\text{Cov}(\xi_{i,1}, \xi_{i,1+k}) = \text{Cov}(\xi_{i,1}, \xi_{i,1-k})$, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Var}(\xi_i) &= \frac{1}{T^2}\sum_{1\leq j,k\leq T}\text{Cov}(\xi_{i,j}, \xi_{i,k}) = \frac{1}{T}\sum_{k=-(T-1)}^{T-1}\left(1-\frac{|k|}{T}\right)\text{Cov}(\xi_{i,1}, \xi_{i,1+k}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{T}\sum_{k=-(T-1)}^{T-1}\text{Cov}(\xi_{i,1}, \xi_{i,1+k}).\end{aligned}$$

By Davydov's inequality, we get

$$\text{Cov}(\xi_{i,1}, \xi_{i,1+k}) \leq \frac{2\delta}{\delta-2}\{2\alpha(k)\}^{1-2/\delta}\{E|\xi_{i,1}|^\delta\}^{2/\delta},$$

this together with condition C3 leads to

$$\text{Var}(\xi_i) \leq \frac{C}{T}\sum_{k=0}^{T-1}\{\alpha(k)\}^{1-2/\delta} \leq C_1T^{-1}$$

where C and C_1 are constants, and free of i, T . This gives

$$\text{Var}\{(NT)^{-1}Z'B^{-1}(\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})B^{-1}Z\} = O(T^{-1}).$$

Moreover,

$$\begin{aligned}E\{(NT)^{-1}Z'B^{-1}(\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})B^{-1}Z\} &= \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^NZ'\{\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}_i)\otimes(\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i')K_h(\mathbf{s}_i-\mathbf{s}_0)\}Z \\ &= Z'\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}_0)\otimes\text{diag}(1, \mu_{2,1}, \mu_{2,2})f(\mathbf{s}_0)Z(1+o(1)).\end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\frac{1}{NT}B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X}B^{-1} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \text{diag}(1, \mu_{2,1}, \mu_{2,2})f(\mathbf{s}_0)(1 + o_P(1)). \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Let $\Sigma = \Sigma_2 \otimes I_T$, Σ_2 is a $n \times n$ matrix with the (i, j) th element $\Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j)$.

$$B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W\Sigma W\mathbf{X}B^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N (\Omega'_i \Omega_j) \otimes (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \boldsymbol{\alpha}'_j) K_h(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0) K_h(\mathbf{s}_j - \mathbf{s}_0) \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j),$$

similar to the derivation for (A.2), and note that

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \mathbf{A}_1(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j) \otimes (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \boldsymbol{\alpha}'_j) K_h(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0) K_h(\mathbf{s}_j - \mathbf{s}_0) \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_i, \mathbf{s}_j) \\ &= N^2 f(\mathbf{s}_0)^2 \mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \Delta(1 + o(1)), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\Delta = \int \int (1, \mathbf{u}'_1)' (1, \mathbf{u}'_2) K(\mathbf{u}_1) K(\mathbf{u}_2) \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_0 + h\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{s}_0 + h\mathbf{u}_2) d\mathbf{u}_1 d\mathbf{u}_2,$$

we obtain

$$B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W\Sigma W\mathbf{X}B^{-1} = N^2 T f(\mathbf{s}_0)^2 \mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \Delta(1 + o_P(1)), \quad (\text{A.3})$$

and

$$e'_{1,3} \Delta e_{1,3} = \int \int K(\mathbf{u}_1) K(\mathbf{u}_2) \Gamma_1(\mathbf{s}_0 + h\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{s}_0 + h\mathbf{u}_2) d\mathbf{u}_1 d\mathbf{u}_2 = \sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0)(1 + o(1)).$$

Similar to (A.2), we have

$$\frac{1}{NT}B^{-1}\mathbf{X}'W^2\mathbf{X}B^{-1} = h^{-2} \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \text{diag}(\nu_{0,1}, \nu_{2,1}, \nu_{2,2})f(\mathbf{s}_0)(1 + o_P(1)). \quad (\text{A.4})$$

By Taylor expansion, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_j(u, v) &= \theta_j(u_0, v_0) + \left(\Delta_u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \Delta_v \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \right) \theta_j(u_0, v_0) \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \left(\Delta_u \frac{\partial}{\partial u} + \Delta_v \frac{\partial}{\partial v} \right)^2 \theta_j(u_0, v_0) + O\{(\Delta_u^2 + \Delta_v^2)^{3/2}\} \end{aligned}$$

where $(u, v) = \mathbf{s}$, $(u_0, v_0) = \mathbf{s}_0$, $\Delta_u = u - u_0$, $\Delta_v = v - v_0$. This gives

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{s}_0) - \boldsymbol{\theta}(\mathbf{s}_0) = \mathbf{J}_1 h^2 + \mathbf{J}_2 + o_P(h^2), \quad (\text{A.5})$$

where

$$\mathbf{J}_1 = \frac{1}{2} (I_p \otimes e'_{1,3}) (\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'W\Psi\boldsymbol{\gamma}, \quad \mathbf{J}_2 = (I_p \otimes e'_{1,3}) (\mathbf{X}'W\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'W(\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(1)} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(2)}),$$

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma &= \frac{1}{2}(\ddot{\theta}'_1, \dots, \ddot{\theta}'_p)', \quad \ddot{\theta}_i = \left(\frac{\partial^2 \theta_i(u_0, v_0)}{\partial u^2}, \frac{\partial^2 \theta_i(u_0, v_0)}{\partial u \partial v}, \frac{\partial^2 \theta_i(u_0, v_0)}{\partial v^2} \right)' \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(1)} &= \left(\varepsilon_1^{(1)}(\mathbf{s}_1), \dots, \varepsilon_T^{(1)}(\mathbf{s}_1), \dots, \varepsilon_1^{(1)}(\mathbf{s}_N), \dots, \varepsilon_T^{(1)}(\mathbf{s}_N) \right)', \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(2)} &= \left(\varepsilon_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{s}_1), \dots, \varepsilon_T^{(2)}(\mathbf{s}_1), \dots, \varepsilon_1^{(2)}(\mathbf{s}_N), \dots, \varepsilon_T^{(2)}(\mathbf{s}_N) \right)', \quad \boldsymbol{\Psi} = (\boldsymbol{\Psi}'_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\Psi}'_N)'\end{aligned}$$

with

$$\boldsymbol{\Psi}_i = \Omega_i \otimes \boldsymbol{\beta}'_i, \quad \boldsymbol{\beta}'_i = \left((u_i - u_0)^2, 2(u_i - u_0)(v_i - v_0), (v_i - v_0)^2 \right) / h^2.$$

Note that

$$B^{-1} \mathbf{X}' W \boldsymbol{\Psi} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\Omega'_i \Omega_i) \otimes (\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \boldsymbol{\beta}'_i) K_h(\mathbf{s}_i - \mathbf{s}_0),$$

and using the similar argument for getting (A.2), we can obtain

$$\frac{1}{NT} B^{-1} \mathbf{X}' W \boldsymbol{\Psi} = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \begin{pmatrix} \mu_{2,1} & 0 & \mu_{2,2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} f(\mathbf{s}_0) (1 + o_P(1)).$$

This together with (A.2) leads to

$$\mathbf{J}_1 = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{b} (1 + o_P(1)) \tag{A.6}$$

Now, we discuss \mathbf{J}_2 . Let

$$\boldsymbol{\eta} = \left\{ T^{-1} \sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) + (NT h^2 f(\mathbf{s}_0))^{-1} \nu_{0,1} \sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) \right\}^{-1/2} \mathbf{J}_2 \tag{A.7}$$

From (A.2), we get

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\eta} &= \left\{ T^{-1} \sigma_1^2(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}_0(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) + (NT h^2 f(\mathbf{s}_0))^{-1} \nu_{0,1} \sigma_0^2(\mathbf{s}_0) \mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) \right\}^{-1/2} \times \\ &\quad (NT)^{-1} \left(\mathbf{A}^{-1}(\mathbf{s}_0) \otimes \mathbf{e}'_{1,3} \right) f(\mathbf{s}_0)^{-1} B^{-1} \mathbf{X}' W (\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(1)} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{(2)}) (1 + o_P(1)).\end{aligned}$$

By (A.3), (A.4)

$$\text{Cov}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = I_p (1 + o(1)),$$

which together with (A.5), (A.6) and (A.7) leads to the result of Theorem 1.

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Table 1: Empirical Performance Comparison for Example 1

m	RMSE(a_1)	RMSE(a_2)	RMSE(a_3)
3	0.692	0.716	0.783
6	0.244	0.272	0.638
9	0.177	0.212	0.465

Table 2: Empirical Performance Comparison for Example 2

m	RMSE(a_1)	RMSE(a_2)	RMSE(a_3)	RMSE(a_4)	RMSE(a_5)	RMSE(a_6)
3	0.865	0.941	0.907	0.680	0.772	0.883
6	0.403	0.463	0.378	0.502	0.495	0.562
9	0.263	0.342	0.026	0.046	0.088	0.008

Table 3: First Two Principal Components of Smoothing Estimates

western (first)	-0.15	0	0	0.50	0	0	0.85
western (second)	-0.76	0	0	-0.60	0	0	0.21
central (first)	-0.27	0	0	-0.85	0	0	0.44
central (second)	-0.93	0	0.14	0.33	0	0	0
eastern (first)	0	0	0	-0.85	0	0	0.51
eastern (second)	-0.98	0	0.13	0	0	0	0

Table 4: p -values for one-sample t -tests

Null Hypothesis	Western	Central	Eastern
$a_1(\mathbf{s}) = a_4(\mathbf{s})$	0.000	0.000	0.377
$a_2(\mathbf{s}) = a_5(\mathbf{s})$	0.422	0.282	0.456
$a_3(\mathbf{s}) = a_6(\mathbf{s})$	0.000	0.000	0.090
$b_1(\mathbf{s}) = b_4(\mathbf{s})$	0.053	0.000	0.292
$b_2(\mathbf{s}) = b_5(\mathbf{s})$	0.000	0.000	0.118
$b_3(\mathbf{s}) = b_6(\mathbf{s})$	0.000	0.639	0.050