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1 A Comparison of Block and Semi-Parametric Bootstrap  
2 Methods for Variance Estimation in Spatial Statistics

3 N. Iranpanah<sup>a</sup>, M. Mohammadzadeh<sup>\*,b</sup>, C. C. Taylor<sup>c</sup>

4 <sup>a</sup>*Department of Statistics, University of Isfahan, 8174673441, Isfahan, Iran.*

5 <sup>b</sup>*Department of Statistics, Tarbiat Modares University, P.O. Box 14115-175 Tehran,*  
6 *Iran.*

7 <sup>c</sup>*Department of Statistics, University of Leeds, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK.*

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8 **Abstract**

Efron (1979) introduced the bootstrap method for independent data but it can not be easily applied to spatial data because of their dependency. For spatial data that are correlated in terms of their locations in the underlying space the moving block bootstrap method is usually used to estimate the precision measures of the estimators. The precision of the moving block bootstrap estimators is related to the block size which is difficult to select. In the moving block bootstrap method also the variance estimator is underestimated. In this paper, first the semi-parametric bootstrap is used to estimate the precision measures of estimators in spatial data analysis. In the semi-parametric bootstrap method, we use the estimation of spatial correlation structure. Then, we compare the semi-parametric bootstrap with a moving block bootstrap for variance estimation of estimators in a simulation study.

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\*Corresponding author. Tel. and fax: +98 21 82883483;  
Preprint submitted to *Computational Statistics and Data Analysis* October 31, 2012  
Email address: mosen.modares@tmu.ac.ir (M. Mohammadzadeh)

Finally, we use the semi-parametric bootstrap to analyze the coal-ash data.

9 *Key words:* Moving block bootstrap; Semi-parametric bootstrap; Plug-in  
10 kriging; Monte-Carlo simulation; Coal-ash data.

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## 11 **1. Introduction**

12 In environmental studies the data are usually spatially dependent. Deter-  
13 mination of the spatial correlation structure of the data and prediction are  
14 two important problems in statistical analysis of spatial data. To do so a valid  
15 parametric variogram model is often fitted to the empirical variogram of the  
16 data. Since there is no closed form for the variogram parameter estimates,  
17 they are usually computed numerically. In addition, when data behave as  
18 a realization of a non-Gaussian random field, the bootstrap method can be  
19 used for statistical inference of spatial data.

20 The bootstrap technique (Efron, 1979; Efron and Tibshirani, 1993) is a  
21 very general method to measure the accuracy of estimators, in particular for  
22 parameter estimation from independent identically distributed (iid) variables.  
23 For spatially dependent data, the block bootstrap method can be used with-  
24 out requiring stringent structural assumptions. This is an important aspect  
25 of the bootstrap in the dependent case, as the problem of model misspecifica-  
26 tion is more prevalent under dependence and traditional statistical methods

27 are often very sensitive to deviations from model assumptions. A prime ex-  
28 ample of this issue appears in the seminal paper by Singh (1981), who in  
29 addition to providing the first theoretical confirmation of the superiority of  
30 the Efron's bootstrap, also pointed out its inadequacy for dependent data.  
31 Different variants of spatial subsampling and spatial block bootstrap meth-  
32 ods have been proposed in the literature; see Hall (1985), Possolo (1991), Liu  
33 and Singh (1992), Politis and Romano (1993, 1994), Sherman and Carlstein  
34 (1994), Sherman (1996), Politis, Paparoditis and Romano (1998, 1999), Poli-  
35 tis, Romano and Wolf (1999), Bühlman and Künsch (1999), Nordman and  
36 Lahiri (2003) and references therein. Here we shall follow the moving block  
37 bootstrap (MBB) methods suggested by Lahiri (2003).

38 On the other hand, the semi-parametric bootstrap (SPB) method has  
39 been used by Freedman and Peters (1984) for linear models and Bose (1988)  
40 for autoregressive models in time series. In this paper, first, we apply SPB  
41 method for estimation of the sampling distribution of estimators in spatial  
42 data analysis. Then, the SPB and MBB methods are compared for variance  
43 estimation of estimators in a Monte-Carlo simulation study. Finally, the  
44 SPB method is used to estimate the bias, variance and distribution of plug-  
45 in kriging and variogram parameter estimation for the analysis of the coal-ash

46 data.

47 In Section 2, spatial statistics, kriging and plug-in kriging are briefly re-  
48 viewed. The MBB method is given in Section 3. We use the SPB algorithm  
49 for analysis of spatial data in Section 4. Section 5 consists of a Monte-Carlo  
50 simulation study for comparison of the SPB and MBB methods for variance  
51 estimation of estimators. These estimators are; sample mean, GLS plug-  
52 in estimator of mean, plug-in kriging and variogram parameters estimator;  
53 nugget effect, partial sill and range. In Section 6, we apply the SPB method  
54 for estimation of bias, variance and distribution of plug-in kriging and pa-  
55 rameter variogram estimators for coal-ash data. In the last section, we will  
56 end with discussion and results.

## 57 **2. Spatial Statistics and Kriging**

58 Usually a random field  $\{Z(s) : s \in D\}$  is used for modeling spatial  
59 data, where the index set  $D$  is a subset of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $d \geq 1$ .  
60 Suppose  $\mathcal{Z} = (Z(s_1), \dots, Z(s_N))^T$  denotes  $N$  realizations of a second-order  
61 stationary random field  $Z(\cdot)$  with constant unknown mean  $\mu = E[Z(s)]$  and  
62 covariogram  $\sigma(h) = \text{Cov}[Z(s), Z(s+h)]; s, s+h \in D$ . The covariogram  $\sigma(h)$   
63 is a positive definite function. At a given location  $s_0 \in D$  the best linear

64 unbiased predictor for  $Z(s_0)$ , the ordinary kriging predictor and its variance  
 65 are given by (Cressie, 1993)

$$\hat{Z}(s_0) = \lambda^T \mathcal{Z}, \quad \sigma_k^2(s_0) = \sigma(0) - \lambda^T \sigma + m, \quad (1)$$

66 where

$$\lambda^T = (\sigma + \mathbf{1}m)^T \Sigma^{-1}, \quad m = (1 - \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \sigma)(\mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1})^{-1}. \quad (2)$$

67 Here,  $\mathbf{1} = (1, \dots, 1)^T$ ,  $\sigma = (\sigma(s_0 - s_1), \dots, \sigma(s_0 - s_N))^T$  and  $\Sigma$  is an  $N \times N$   
 68 matrix whose  $(i, j)^{th}$  element is  $\sigma(s_i - s_j)$ .

69 In reality, the covariogram is unknown and should be estimated based on  
 70 the observations. An empirical estimator of covariogram is given by

$$\hat{\sigma}(h) = N_h^{-1} \sum_{N(h)} [(Z(s) - \bar{Z})(Z(s+h) - \bar{Z})],$$

71 where  $\bar{Z} = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N Z(s_i)$  is the sample mean,  $N(h) = \{(s_i, s_j) : s_i - s_j =$   
 72  $h; i, j = 1, \dots, N\}$  and  $N_h$  is the number of elements of  $N(h)$ . The covari-  
 73 ogram estimator  $\hat{\sigma}(h)$  cannot be used directly for kriging predictor equations,  
 74 because it is not necessarily positive definite. The idea is to fit a valid para-  
 75 metric covariogram model  $\sigma(h; \theta)$  that is closest to the empirical covariogram  
 76  $\hat{\sigma}(h)$ . Various parametric covariogram models such as exponential, spheri-  
 77 cal, Gaussian, linear are presented in Journel and Huijbregts (1978). For

78 example, the exponential covariogram is given by

$$\sigma(h; \theta) = \begin{cases} c_0 + c_1 & \|h\| = 0 \\ c_1 \exp\left(\frac{-\|h\|}{a}\right) & \|h\| \neq 0, \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

79 where  $\theta = (c_0, c_1, a)^T$  are the nugget effect, partial sill and range, respectively.

80 The maximum likelihood (ML), restricted maximum likelihood (REML), or-

81 dinary least squares (OLS) and generalized least squares (GLS) methods can

82 be applied to estimate  $\theta$ . In these methods,  $\hat{\theta}$  is computed numerically with

83 the use of iterative algorithms since there is no closed form. For example,

84 Mardia and Marshall (1984) described the maximum likelihood method for

85 fitting the linear model when the residuals are correlated and when the co-

86 variance among the residuals is determined by a parametric model containing

87 unknown parameters. Kent and Mardia (1996) introduced the spectral and

88 circulant approximations to the likelihood for stationary Gaussian random

89 fields. Also, Kent and Mohammadzadeh (1999) obtained a spectral approx-

90 imation to the likelihood for an intrinsic random field. We will estimate

91  $\text{Var}(\hat{\theta})$  by SPB method.

92 The plug-in kriging predictor and the plug-in kriging predictor variance

93 are determined by using  $\hat{\theta}$  instead of  $\theta$  in the covariogram  $\hat{\sigma}(s_i, s_j) = \sigma(s_i, s_j; \hat{\theta})$

$$\hat{Z}(s_0) = \hat{Z}(s_0; \hat{\theta}); \quad \hat{\sigma}_k^2(s_0) = \sigma_k^2(s_0; \hat{\theta}). \quad (4)$$

95 The plug-in kriging predictor is a non-linear function of  $\mathcal{Z}$  because  $\hat{\theta}$  is a non  
 96 linear estimator of  $\theta$ . As a result, properties of the plug-in kriging predictor  
 97 and the plug-in kriging predictor variance — such as unbiasedness and vari-  
 98 ance — are unknown. Mardia, Southworth and Taylor (1999) discussed the  
 99 bias in maximum likelihood estimators. Under the assumption that  $Z(\cdot)$  is  
 100 Gaussian, Zimmerman and Cressie (1992) show that

$$E[\sigma_k^2(s_0; \hat{\theta})] \leq \sigma_k^2(s_0) \leq E[\hat{Z}(s_0; \hat{\theta}) - Z(s_0)]^2,$$

101 where  $\hat{\theta}$  is ML estimator of  $\theta$ . We can estimate the variance of the plug-in  
 102 kriging predictor  $\sigma^2(s_0) = \text{Var}[\hat{Z}(s_0)]$  using the SPB method.

### 103 3. Moving Block Bootstrap

104 Suppose that the sampling region  $D_n$  is obtained by inflating the proto-  
 105 type set  $D_0$  by the scaling constant  $\lambda_n$  as

$$D_n = \lambda_n D_0, \quad (5)$$

106 where  $\{\lambda_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  is a positive sequence of scaling factors such that  $\lambda_n \rightarrow \infty$   
 107 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $D_0$  is a Borel subset of  $(-1/2, 1/2]^d$  containing an open

108 neighborhood of the origin. Suppose that  $\{Z(s) : s \in \mathbb{Z}^d\}$  is a stationary  
 109 random field that is observed at finitely many locations  $\mathcal{S}_n = \{s_1, \dots, s_{N_n}\}$   
 110 given by the part of the integer grid  $\mathbb{Z}^d$  that lies inside  $D_n$ , i.e., the data are  
 111  $\mathcal{Z} = \{Z(s) : s \in \mathcal{S}_n\}$  for  $\mathcal{S}_n = D_n \cap \mathbb{Z}^d$ . Let  $N \equiv N_n$  denote the sample size  
 112 or the number of sites in  $D_n$  such that  $N$  and the volume of the sampling  
 113 region  $D_n$  satisfies the relation  $N = \text{Vol}(D_0)\lambda_n^d$ , where  $\text{Vol}(D_0)$  denotes the  
 114 volume of  $D_0$ .

115 Let  $\{\beta_n\}_{n \geq 1}$  be a sequence of positive integers such that  $\beta_n^{-1} + \beta_n/\lambda_n =$   
 116  $o(1)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Here,  $\beta_n$  gives the scaling factor for the blocks in the  
 117 spatial block bootstrap method. As a first step, the sampling region  $D_n$  is  
 118 partitioned using blocks of volume  $\beta_n^d$ . Let  $\mathcal{K}_n = \{k \in \mathbb{Z}^d : \beta_n(k + \mathcal{U}) \subset D_n\}$   
 119 denote the index set of all separate complete blocks  $\beta_n(k + \mathcal{U})$  lying inside  
 120  $D_n$  such that  $N = K\beta_n^d$ , where  $\mathcal{U} = (0, 1]^d$  denotes the unit cube in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and  
 121  $K \equiv K_n$  denotes the size of  $\mathcal{K}_n$ . We define a bootstrap version of  $\mathcal{Z}_n(D_n)$   
 122 by putting together bootstrap replicates of the process  $Z(\cdot)$  on each block of  
 123  $D_n$  given by

$$D_n(k) \equiv D_n \cap [\beta_n(k + \mathcal{U})], \quad k \in \mathcal{K}_n. \quad (6)$$

124 Let  $\mathcal{I}_n = \{i \in \mathbb{Z}^d : i + \beta_n\mathcal{U} \subset D_n\}$  denote the index set of all blocks  
 125 of volume  $\beta_n^d$  in  $D_n$ , with starting points  $i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ . Then,  $\mathcal{B}_n = \{i + \beta_n\mathcal{U} :$

126  $i \in \mathcal{I}_n\}$  gives a collection of cubic blocks that are overlapping and contained  
 127 in  $D_n$ . For the MBB method, for each  $k \in \mathcal{K}_n$ , one block is resampled at  
 128 random from the collection  $\mathcal{B}_n$  independently of the other resampled blocks,  
 129 giving a version  $\mathcal{Z}_n^*(D_n(k))$  of  $\mathcal{Z}_n(D_n(k))$  using the observations from the  
 130 resampled blocks. The bootstrap version  $\mathcal{Z}_n^*(D_n)$  of  $\mathcal{Z}_n(D_n)$  is now given by  
 131 concatenating the resampled blocks of observations  $\{\mathcal{Z}_n^*(D_n(k)) : k \in \mathcal{K}_n\}$ .

132 Now the bootstrap version of a random variable  $T_n = t_n(\mathcal{Z}_n(D_n); \theta)$  is  
 133 given by  $T_n^* = t_n(\mathcal{Z}_n^*(D_n); \hat{\theta}_n)$ . For example, the bootstrap versions of  $T_n =$   
 134  $\sqrt{N}(\bar{Z}_n - \mu)$ , where  $\bar{Z}_n = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N Z(s_i)$  and  $\mu = E[Z(0)]$  is given by  
 135  $T_n^* = \sqrt{N}(\bar{Z}_n^* - \hat{\mu}_n)$ , where  $\bar{Z}_n^* = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N Z^*(s_i)$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_n = E_*(\bar{Z}_n^*)$ , and  $E_*$   
 136 denotes the conditional expectation given  $\mathcal{Z}$ .

137 Lahiri (2003) shows that the MBB method can be used to derive a con-  
 138 sistent estimator of the variance of the sample mean, and more generally,  
 139 of statistics that are smooth functions of the sample mean. Suppose that  
 140  $\hat{\theta}_n = H(\bar{Z}_n)$  be an estimator of a parameter of interest  $\theta = H(\mu)$ , where  $H$  is  
 141 a smooth function. Then, the bootstrap version of  $\hat{\theta}_n$  is given by  $\theta_n^* = H(\bar{Z}_n^*)$ ,  
 142 and the bootstrap estimator of  $\sigma_n^2 = N\text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n)$  is given by  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2 \equiv \hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n) =$   
 143  $N\text{Var}_*(\theta_n^*)$ . He shows that under a weak dependence condition for the ran-  
 144 dom field  $\{Z(s) : s \in \mathbb{Z}^d\}$ , like a strong mixing condition, then  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2 \xrightarrow{p} \sigma_\infty^2$  as

145  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ , where  $\sigma_\infty^2 \equiv \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n) = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}(D_0)} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^d} EW(0)W(i)$ , with  
 146  $W(i) = \sum_{|\alpha|=1} D^\alpha H(\mu)(Z(i) - \mu)^\alpha$ ,  $H$  is continuously differentiable and the  
 147 partial derivatives  $D^\alpha H(\cdot)$ ,  $|\alpha| = 1$ , satisfy Holder's condition. Nordman and  
 148 Lahiri (2003) and Lahiri (2003) determined the optimal block size by com-  
 149 puting  $\text{Bias}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)] = \beta_n^{-2}\gamma_2^2 + o(\beta_n^{-1})$  and  $\text{Var}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)] = N^{-1}\beta_n^d\gamma_1^2 + (1 + o(1))$   
 150 and minimizing  $\text{MSE}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)] = N^{-1}\beta_n^d\gamma_1^2 + \beta_n^{-2}\gamma_2^2 + o(N^{-1}\beta_n^d + \beta_n^{-2})$  to obtain

$$\beta_n^{\text{opt}} = N^{\frac{d}{d+2}} [2\gamma_2^2/d\gamma_1^2]^{\frac{1}{d+2}} (1 + o(1)), \quad (7)$$

151 where  $\gamma_1^2 = (\frac{2}{3})^d \cdot \frac{2\sigma_\infty^4}{(\text{Vol}(D_0))^3}$  and  $\gamma_2 = -\frac{1}{\text{Vol}(D_0)} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}^d} |i| \sigma_W(i)$  with  $\sigma_W(i) =$   
 152  $\text{Cov}(W(0), W(i))$ ,  $i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$  and  $|i| = i_1 + \dots + i_d$  for  $i = (i_1, \dots, i_d) \in \mathbb{Z}^d$ . The  
 153  $\text{Bias}[\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)]$  shows that the MBB estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)$  is an underestimator of  
 154  $\sigma_n^2$ . Lahiri, Furukawa and Lee (2007) suggested a nonparametric plug-in  
 155 rule for estimating optimal block sizes in various block bootstrap estimation  
 156 problems. The optimal block size determination is difficult and sometimes  
 157 impossible. On the other hand, when using the MBB method the variance  
 158 estimator  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\beta_n)$  is underestimated. Therefore, we use the SPB method for  
 159 spatial data analysis.

160 **4. Semi-Parametric Bootstrap**

161 Suppose  $\mathcal{Z} = (Z(s_1), \dots, Z(s_N))^T$  are observations of a random field  
 162  $\{Z(s) : s \in D \subset \mathbb{R}^d\}$  with decomposition  $Z(s) = \mu(s) + \delta(s)$ , where  $\mu(\cdot) =$   
 163  $E[Z(\cdot)]$  and the error term  $\delta(\cdot)$  is a zero-mean stationary random field having  
 164  $N \times N$  positive-definite covariance matrix  $\Sigma \equiv (\sigma(s_i - s_j))$ . The Cholesky  
 165 decomposition allows  $\Sigma$  to be decomposed as the matrix product  $\Sigma = LL^T$ ,  
 166 where  $L$  is a lower triangular  $N \times N$  matrix. Let  $\epsilon \equiv (\epsilon(s_1), \dots, \epsilon(s_N))^T =$   
 167  $L^{-1}(\mathcal{Z} - \mu)$ , be a vector of uncorrelated random variables with zero mean  
 168 and unit variance from an unknown cumulative distribution  $F(\epsilon)$ , where the  
 169 mean  $\mu = (\mu(s_1), \dots, \mu(s_N))^T$ . In the SPB method, we need an empirical  
 170 distribution  $F_N(\epsilon)$  to estimate  $F(\epsilon)$ . The SPB algorithm is described by the  
 171 following steps:

172 **Step 1.** *Estimation and removal of mean structure.*

173 The trend or mean structure  $\mu(\cdot)$  is estimated by the median polish algorithm  
 174 (Cressie, 1993) or generalized additive models (Hastie, and Tibshirani, 1990)  
 175 and is removed to obtain  $R(s_i) = Z(s_i) - \hat{\mu}(s_i); \quad i = 1, \dots, N$ .

176 **Step 2.** *Estimation and removal of correlation structure.*

177 Estimate the spatial dependence structure of residual  $R(s_i)$  by the covariance  
 178 matrix  $\hat{\Sigma}$ . Note that,  $\hat{\Sigma}$  is an  $N \times N$  symmetric positive definite matrix whose

179  $(i, j)^{th}$  element is an estimate of the covariogram  $\hat{\sigma}(s_i - s_j) = \sigma(s_i - s_j; \hat{\theta})$ .  
 180 Then  $\hat{\epsilon} \equiv (\hat{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \hat{\epsilon}(s_N))^T = \hat{L}^{-1}\mathcal{R}$  is a vector of uncorrelated residuals,  
 181 where,  $\hat{L}$  is a lower triangular  $N \times N$  matrix from Cholesky decomposition  
 182  $\hat{\Sigma} = \hat{L}\hat{L}^T$  and  $\mathcal{R} \equiv (R(s_1), \dots, R(s_N))^T$  is the vector of residuals.

183 **Step 3.** *Computation of empirical distribution  $F_N(\varepsilon)$ .*

184 Suppose that  $\tilde{\epsilon} \equiv (\tilde{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \tilde{\epsilon}(s_N))^T$  is a vector of standardized values  $\hat{\epsilon}$ ,  
 185 where  $\tilde{\epsilon}(s_i) = (\hat{\epsilon}(s_i) - \bar{\epsilon})/s_{\tilde{\epsilon}}$  and  $\bar{\epsilon}$ ,  $s_{\tilde{\epsilon}}$  denote the sample mean and stan-  
 186 dard deviation of the residuals, respectively. The empirical distribution func-  
 187 tion formed from standardized uncorrelated residuals  $\{\tilde{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \tilde{\epsilon}(s_N)\}$  is  
 188  $F_N(\varepsilon) = N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^N I(\tilde{\epsilon}(s_i) \leq \varepsilon)$ , where  $I(\tilde{\epsilon}(\cdot) \leq \varepsilon)$  is the indicator function  
 189 equal to 1 when  $\tilde{\epsilon}(\cdot) \leq \varepsilon$  and equal to 0 otherwise.

190 **Step 4.** *Resampling and Bootstrap sample.*

191 Efron's (1979) bootstrap algorithm is used for the vector of standardized  
 192 uncorrelated residuals  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ . We generate  $N$  iid bootstrap random variables  
 193  $\epsilon^*(s_1), \dots, \epsilon^*(s_N)$  having common distribution  $F_N(\varepsilon)$ . In other words,  $\epsilon^* \equiv$   
 194  $(\epsilon^*(s_1), \dots, \epsilon^*(s_N))^T$  is a simple random sample with replacement from the  
 195 standardized uncorrelated residuals  $\{\tilde{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \tilde{\epsilon}(s_N)\}$ . The bootstrap sam-  
 196 ple  $\mathcal{Z}^* \equiv (Z^*(s_1), \dots, Z^*(s_N))^T$  can be determined using an inverse transform  
 197  $\mathcal{Z}^* = \hat{\mu} + \hat{L}\epsilon^*$ , where  $\hat{\mu} = (\hat{\mu}(s_1), \dots, \hat{\mu}(s_N))^T$  estimates the mean structure.

198 **Step 5.** *Bootstrap version of  $T$ .*

199 If  $\hat{T} = t(\mathcal{Z}; \hat{\mu}, \hat{\theta})$  is a plug-in estimator of  $T = t(\mathcal{Z}; \mu, \theta)$ , where  $\hat{\theta}$  is the plug-in  
200 estimator of  $\theta$ , then, the SPB version of  $\hat{T}$  is given by  $T^* = t(\mathcal{Z}^*; \hat{\mu}, \hat{\theta})$ .

201 **Step 6.** *Bootstrap estimators.*

202 The bootstrap estimators of the bias, variance and distribution of  $T$  are given

203 by

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Bias}_*(T^*) &= E_*(T^*) - \hat{T}, \\ \text{Var}_*(T^*) &= E_*[(T^*) - E_*(T^*)]^2, \\ G_*(t) &= P_*(T^* \leq t),\end{aligned}$$

204 where  $E_*$ ,  $\text{Var}_*$  and  $P_*$  denote the bootstrap conditional expectation, variance  
205 and probability given  $\mathcal{Z}$ .

206 **Step 7.** *Monte-Carlo approximation.*

207 When the above bootstrap estimators have no closed form, the precision  
208 measures of  $T^*$  may be evaluated by Monte-Carlo simulation as follows. We  
209 repeat Steps 4 and 5,  $B$  (e.g.,  $B = 1000$ ) times to obtain bootstrap repli-  
210 cates  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$ . Then the Monte-Carlo approximations of the bootstrap  
211 estimators in step 6 are given by

$$\widehat{\text{Bias}}_*(T^*) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b^* - \hat{T}, \quad (8)$$

$$\widehat{\text{Var}}_*(T^*) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B (T_b^* - \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B T_b^*)^2, \quad (9)$$

$$\widehat{G}_*(t) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^B I(T_b^* \leq t). \quad (10)$$

## 212 5. Simulation Study

213 In this section, we conduct a simulation study to compare the MBB and  
 214 SPB estimator of  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(T)$ , where  $T$  is a statistic of interest. We consider  
 215 four examples for  $T$ : the sample mean; GLS plug-in mean estimator; plug-  
 216 in kriging; and covariogram parameters estimator. Let  $\{Z(s) : s \in Z^2\}$  be  
 217 a zero mean second-order stationary Gaussian process with the exponential  
 218 covariogram (3) using parameter values  $\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$  (weak dependence)  
 219 and  $\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$  (strong dependence). We generate realizations of the  
 220 Gaussian random field  $Z(\cdot)$  over three rectangular regions  $D = n \times n$ ;  $n =$   
 221 6, 12, 24 as spatial sample  $\mathcal{Z} = (Z(s_1), \dots, Z(s_N))^T$  where  $N = n^2$ .

222 To apply the MBB method, we identify the above rectangular regions  $D$   
 223 as  $[-3, 3) \times [-3, 3)$ ,  $[-6, 6) \times [-6, 6)$  and  $[-12, 12) \times [-12, 12)$ , the scaling  
 224 constants  $\lambda = 6, 12, 24$  respectively and the prototype set  $D_0 = [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \times$   
 225  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$ . For example, for the sample size  $N = \lambda^2 = 144$  and  $\beta = 2$ , there are  
 226  $K = |\mathcal{K}| = 36$  subregions in the partition (6), given by  $D(k) = [2k_1, 2k_1 +$   
 227  $2) \times [2k_2, 2k_2 + 2)$ ;  $k \in \mathcal{K} = \{(k_1, k_2)^T \in Z^2, -3 \leq k_1, k_2 < 3\}$ . To define

228 the MBB version of the random field  $Z(\cdot)$  over  $D$  we randomly resample 36  
 229 times, with replacement from the collection of all observed moving blocks

$$\mathcal{B}(i) = [i_1, i_1 + 2) \times [i_2, i_2 + 2); \quad i \in \mathcal{I} = \{(i_1, i_2)^T \in Z^2, -6 \leq i_1, i_2 < 4\}.$$

230 The MBB sample  $\mathcal{Z}^* = \mathcal{Z}^*(D) = (Z^*(s_1), \dots, Z^*(s_N))^T$  is given by concate-  
 231 nating the  $K$ -many resampled blocks to size  $\beta$  of observations  $\{\mathcal{Z}^*(D(k)) :$   
 232  $k \in \mathcal{K}\}$ .

233 To define the SPB version of the random field  $Z(\cdot)$  over  $D$ , we apply  
 234 steps 2–4 in SPB method. First, the covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is estimated  
 235 using the plug-in estimator of the covariogram  $\hat{\sigma}(h; \theta) = \sigma(h; \hat{\theta})$ , where  
 236  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{c}_0, \hat{c}_1, \hat{a})^T$  is an estimator of  $\theta$  (e.g. ML estimator). Let  $\hat{L}$  be the  
 237 Cholesky decomposition of  $\hat{\Sigma}$ , then  $\hat{\epsilon} = \hat{L}^{-1} \mathcal{Z}$  is a vector of uncorrelated val-  
 238 ues. Hence, the bootstrap vector  $\epsilon^* = (\epsilon^*(s_1), \dots, \epsilon^*(s_N))^T$  is generated as a  
 239 simple random sample with replacement from  $\{\tilde{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \tilde{\epsilon}(s_N)\}$ , where  $\tilde{\epsilon}(\cdot)$   
 240 denotes standardized uncorrelated values of  $\hat{\epsilon}(\cdot)$ . Finally, the SPB sample  
 241  $\mathcal{Z}^* = (Z^*(s_1), \dots, Z^*(s_N))^T$  is given by the inverse transform  $\mathcal{Z}^* = \hat{L} \epsilon^*$ .

242 Suppose that  $T = t(\mathcal{Z})$  is the statistic of interest, then the MBB and SPB  
 243 versions of  $T$  are given by  $T^* = t(\mathcal{Z}^*)$ . The MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}^2 =$   
 244  $\text{Var}_*(T^*)$  of  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}(T)$  are approximated based on  $B = 1000$  bootstrap  
 245 replicates (9). For each region  $D$  and covariance structure, we compute the

246 variance estimator  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  and approximate the normalized bias, variance and  
 247 mean squared error(MSE)

$$\text{NBias}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = E(\hat{\sigma}^2/\sigma^2) - 1,$$

$$\text{NVar}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = \text{Var}(\hat{\sigma}^2/\sigma^2),$$

$$\text{NMSE}(\hat{\sigma}^2) = E[(\hat{\sigma}^2/\sigma^2) - 1]^2,$$

248 by its empirical version based on 10000 simulations. In MBB method, the  
 249 variance estimator is determined as  $\hat{\sigma}^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2(\beta^{opt})$ , where the optimal block  
 250 size  $\beta^{opt}$  is based on minimal NMSE over various block sizes  $\beta$ .

251 **Example 1. The Sample mean**

252 In this example, we compare the MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \text{NVar}_*(\bar{Z}^*)$   
 253 of  $\sigma_1^2 = \text{NVar}(\bar{Z}) = N^{-1}\mathbf{1}^T\Sigma\mathbf{1}$ , where the sample mean  $\bar{Z} = N^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^N Z(s_i)$   
 254 is the OLS estimator of mean  $\mu$  and  $\bar{Z}^*$  is a bootstrap sample mean. We con-  
 255 sider version  $T_1^*$  of the sample mean  $T_1 = \sqrt{N}\bar{Z}$  based on a bootstrap sample  
 256  $\mathcal{Z}^*$  by  $T_1^* = \sqrt{N}\bar{Z}^*$ . The MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \text{NVar}_*(\bar{Z}^*)$  are ap-  
 257 proximated based on  $B = 1000$  bootstrap replicates (9). The covariogram  
 258 models that we considered are exponential, spherical and unknown.

259 Table 1 shows approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB  
 260 estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  for various block sizes  $\beta$  based on the exponential covariogram

261 model. The asterisk (\*) denotes the minimal value of the NMSE. From Table  
 262 1, the optimum block size  $\beta^{opt}$  can be determined based on minimal value of  
 263 the NMSE. For example, for  $\theta_1$  and  $n = 6, 12, 24$  the optimum block size is  
 264  $\beta^{opt} = 2, 3, 6$  and for  $\theta_2$  and  $n = 6, 12, 24$ ,  $\beta^{opt} = 3, 4, 8$ . We have used the  
 265 optimum block sizes  $\beta^{opt}$  for MBB method in Table 2. To conserve space, we  
 266 will not further mention the determination of  $\beta^{opt}$  as in Table 1.

267 Tables 2-4 show true values of  $\sigma_1^2$ , estimates of the NBias, NVar and  
 268 NMSE for MBB (based on  $\beta^{opt}$ ) and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  based on exponential  
 269 covariogram, spherical covariogram with parameter values  $\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$  and  
 270  $\theta_3 = (0, 2, 4)^T$  and unknown covariogram.

### 271 **Example 2. The GLS plug-in mean estimate**

272 Let  $\hat{\mu} = \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathcal{Z} / \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}$  be the GLS estimator of mean  $\mu$  with variance  
 273  $1 / \mathbf{1}^T \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{1}$ . We compare MBB and SPB estimators of  $\sigma_2^2 = N \text{Var}(\hat{\mu})$ , where  
 274  $\hat{\hat{\mu}} = \mathbf{1}^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathcal{Z} / \mathbf{1}^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}$  is GLS plug-in estimator of  $\mu$ . We define a version  
 275  $T_2^*$  of the GLS plug-in mean  $T_2 = \sqrt{N} \hat{\mu}$  based on a bootstrap sample  $\mathcal{Z}^*$  by  
 276  $T_2^* = \sqrt{N} \mu^*$ , where  $\mu^* = \mathbf{1}^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathcal{Z}^* / \mathbf{1}^T \hat{\Sigma}^{-1} \mathbf{1}$ .

### 277 **Example 3. Plug-in kriging**

278 To compare MBB and SPB variance estimators of  $\sigma_3^2 = \text{Var}[\hat{Z}(s_0)]$ , we define  
 279 the  $T_3^*$  version of plug-in ordinary kriging predictor  $T_3 = \hat{Z}(s_0) = \hat{\lambda}^T \mathcal{Z}$ , based

Table 1: Approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2 = \hat{\sigma}_1^2(\beta)$  based on exponential covariogram. The asterisk (\*) denotes the minimal value of MSE.

$n$	$\beta$	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$			$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$		
		NBias	NVar	NMSE	NBias	NVar	NMSE
6	2	-0.569	0.039	0.362*	-0.853	0.008	0.736
	3	-0.624	0.057	0.446	-0.844	0.013	0.725*
	2	-0.561	0.011	0.326	-0.864	0.002	0.750
12	3	-0.475	0.033	0.258*	-0.786	0.009	0.626
	4	-0.452	0.063	0.267	-0.732	0.021	0.557*
	6	-0.563	0.080	0.397	-0.751	0.033	0.597
24	2	-0.575	0.003	0.333	-0.874	0.001	0.764
	3	-0.463	0.009	0.233	-0.790	0.003	0.626
	4	-0.369	0.018	0.174	-0.710	0.008	0.512
24	6	-0.320	0.053	0.155*	-0.595	0.029	0.383
	8	-0.328	0.087	0.195	-0.541	0.058	0.351*
	12	-0.507	0.102	0.359	-0.648	0.064	0.484

Table 2: True values of  $\sigma_1^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  based on exponential covariogram.

Method	n	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
		$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	5.279	2	-0.572	0.039	0.366	19.994	3	-0.846	0.014	0.729
SPB				-0.254	0.295	0.359			-0.327	0.367	0.474
MBB	12	6.311	3	-0.471	0.033	0.254	32.074	4	-0.740	0.021	0.569
SPB				-0.059	0.239	0.242			-0.067	0.343	0.347
MBB	24	6.890	6	-0.310	0.054	0.150	40.598	8	-0.558	0.057	0.369
SPB				0.012	0.142	0.143			0.039	0.193	0.195

Table 3: True values of  $\sigma_1^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  based on spherical covariogram.

Method	n	$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$					$\theta_3 = (0, 2, 4)^T$				
		$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	4.728	2	-0.398	0.078	0.236	14.069	3	-0.703	0.051	0.546
SPB				-0.042	0.231	0.232			-0.302	0.275	0.366
MBB	12	5.072	3	-0.285	0.053	0.134	17.046	4	-0.493	0.063	0.306
SPB				-0.046	0.048	0.048			-0.122	0.120	0.135
MBB	24	5.249	4	-0.188	0.029	0.064	18.638	6	-0.313	0.057	0.155
SPB				-0.026	0.011	0.012			-0.048	0.020	0.022

Table 4: True values of  $\sigma_1^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_1^2$  based on unknown covariogram.

Method	n	weak dependence					strong dependence				
		$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_1^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	2.593	2	-0.125	0.124	0.140	35.637	3	-0.927	0.004	0.863
SPB				-0.026	0.101	0.102			-0.620	0.353	0.737
MBB	12	3.896	3	-0.032	0.031	0.032	78.315	4	-0.880	0.006	0.781
SPB				-0.011	0.013	0.013			-0.482	0.465	0.697
MBB	24	4.681	4	-0.006	0.009	0.009	126.930	8	-0.754	0.024	0.592
SPB				-0.003	0.004	0.004			-0.422	0.349	0.527

Table 5: True values of  $\sigma_2^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$ .

Method	n	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
		$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	5.700	2	-0.574	0.044	0.374	16.355	2	-0.749	0.031	0.592
SPB				-0.341	0.201	0.317			-0.274	0.406	0.481
MBB	12	6.242	3	-0.434	0.046	0.235	27.771	4	-0.643	0.045	0.458
SPB				-0.108	0.202	0.214			-0.116	0.286	0.299
MBB	24	6.504	4	-0.329	0.025	0.133	36.802	6	-0.521	0.043	0.315
SPB				-0.039	0.123	0.124			0.006	0.166	0.166

Table 6: True values of  $\sigma_3^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_3^2$ .

Method	n	$s_0$	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
			$\sigma_3^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_3^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	(3.5,3.5)	0.496	2	-0.386	0.404	0.553	1.530	2	-0.510	0.133	0.393
SPB					-0.297	0.414	0.503			-0.372	0.168	0.306
MBB	12	(6.5,6.5)	0.415	3	-0.212	0.252	0.297	1.436	4	-0.215	0.114	0.160
SPB					-0.128	0.265	0.282			-0.111	0.087	0.099
MBB	24	(12.5,12.5)	0.381	8	-0.036	0.132	0.133	1.385	8	-0.068	0.059	0.063
SPB					-0.018	0.115	0.115			0.001	0.036	0.036

280 on a bootstrap sample  $\mathcal{Z}^*$  by  $T_3^* = Z^*(s_0) = \hat{\lambda}^T \mathcal{Z}^*$ .

281 The MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2 = NVar_*(\mu^*)$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_3^2 = Var_*[Z^*(s_0)]$   
282 are approximated based on  $B = 1000$  bootstrap replicates (9). Tables 5 and  
283 6 show true values of  $\sigma_2^2$  and  $\sigma_3^2$ , estimates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for  
284 MBB (based on  $\beta^{opt}$ ) and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_2^2$  and  $\hat{\sigma}_3^2$  based on exponential  
285 covariogram for each region  $D$  and covariogram parameters  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ .

286 **Example 4. Covariogram parameters estimator**

287 Let  $\hat{\theta} = (T_4, T_5, T_6) = (\hat{c}_0, \hat{c}_1, \hat{a})$  be the MLEs of the covariogram parameters  
288  $\theta = (c_0, c_1, a)$ . Note that the estimator of  $\hat{\theta}$  is computed numerically based

Table 7: True values of  $\sigma_4^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_4^2$ .

Method	n	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
		$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	0.639	2	-0.547	0.240	0.539	0.026	3	-0.037	0.141	0.142
SPB				-0.114	0.237	0.250			-0.072	0.129	0.134
MBB	12	0.378	4	-0.091	0.312	0.321	0.011	4	-0.055	0.100	0.103
SPB				-0.083	0.220	0.227			0.073	0.092	0.097
MBB	24	0.198	6	-0.102	0.291	0.301	0.003	8	-0.148	0.010	0.032
SPB				0.069	0.193	0.198			0.040	0.003	0.005

289 on the spatial sample  $\mathcal{Z}$  as  $T_i = t_i(\mathcal{Z})$ ;  $i = 4, 5, 6$  and has no closed form,  
290 so  $\sigma_i^2 = \text{Var}(T_i)$  is unknown. We define a version  $T_i^* = t_i(\mathcal{Z}^*)$  of the esti-  
291 mator  $T_i$  based on bootstrap samples  $\mathcal{Z}^*$ . The MBB and SPB estimators  
292  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2 = \text{Var}_*(T_i^*)$  are approximated based on  $B = 1000$  bootstrap replicates  
293 (9). Tables 7–9 show true values of  $\sigma_i^2$ , estimates of the NBias, NVar and  
294 NMSE for MBB (based on  $\beta^{opt}$ ) and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_i^2$  based on exponential  
295 covariogram for each region  $D$  and covariogram parameters  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$ .

## 296 Results

297 Tables 1–9 show that the MBB variance estimations  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  are underestimated.

Table 8: True values of  $\sigma_5^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_5^2$ .

Method	n	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
		$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	0.863	2	-0.655	0.233	0.662	0.686	2	-0.363	0.764	0.896
SPB				-0.120	0.258	0.272			-0.297	0.689	0.777
MBB	12	0.409	3	-0.118	0.288	0.302	0.246	4	-0.309	0.702	0.797
SPB				-0.084	0.181	0.188			-0.273	0.507	0.581
MBB	24	0.203	4	-0.145	0.2775	0.298	0.078	6	-0.294	0.624	0.710
SPB				-0.074	0.139	0.144			0.220	0.358	0.406

Table 9: True values of  $\sigma_6^2$  and approximates of the NBias, NVar and NMSE for MBB and SPB estimators  $\hat{\sigma}_6^2$ .

Method	n	$\theta_1 = (1, 1, 1)^T$					$\theta_2 = (0, 2, 2)^T$				
		$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE	$\sigma_2^2$	$\beta^{opt}$	NBias	NVar	NMSE
MBB	6	0.471	2	-0.714	0.459	0.969	1.477	3	-0.377	0.761	0.903
SPB				-0.616	0.447	0.826			-0.247	0.594	0.655
MBB	12	0.258	4	-0.552	0.312	0.616	0.592	6	-0.302	0.702	0.793
SPB				-0.434	0.195	0.383			-0.206	0.488	0.530
MBB	24	0.162	8	-0.400	0.278	0.438	0.151	8	-0.260	0.639	0.707
SPB				-0.260	0.145	0.213			0.117	0.384	0.398

298 Tables 2–9 show that the MBB and SPB variance estimations  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  are asymp-  
299 totically unbiased and consistent. Tables 2–9 also indicate that the SPB  
300 estimators are preferable to the MBB versions, especially for stronger de-  
301 pendence structure and larger sample sizes. In Tables 5–9, true values of  
302  $\sigma_i^2 = \text{Var}(T_i)$ ;  $i = 2, \dots, 6$  have no closed form and they can be approxi-  
303 mated based on Monte-Carlo simulation by 10000 times replicates.

## 304 **6. Analysis of Coal-Ash Data**

305 In this section, we apply the SPB method to analyze the coal-ash data  
306 (Cressie, 1993) from Greene County, Pennsylvania. These data are collected  
307 with sample size  $N = 206$  at locations  $\{Z(x, y) : x = 1, \dots, 16; y = 1, \dots, 23\}$   
308 with west coordinates greater than 64 000 ft; spatially this defines an approx-  
309 imately square grid, with 2500 ft spacing (Cressie, 1993; Fig. 2.2). Our goal  
310 is estimation of bias, variance and distribution of plug-in kriging predictor  
311 and variogram parameters estimator by SPB method.

312 The SPB algorithm is used to estimate and remove the correlation struc-  
313 ture. To estimate the correlation structure of the residuals, first, the spherical

$$\gamma(h; \theta) = \begin{cases} 0 & \|h\| = 0 \\ c_0 + c_1 \left( \frac{3}{2} \frac{\|h\|}{a} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\|h\|}{a} \right)^3 \right) & 0 < \|h\| \leq a \\ c_0 + c_1 & \|h\| \geq a \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

315 is fitted to the empirical semi-variogram estimation of coal-ash data with

$\hat{\theta} = (\hat{c}_0, \hat{c}_1, \hat{a}) = (0.817, 0.815, 15.787)$ . Figure 1(a) shows the fitted spherical

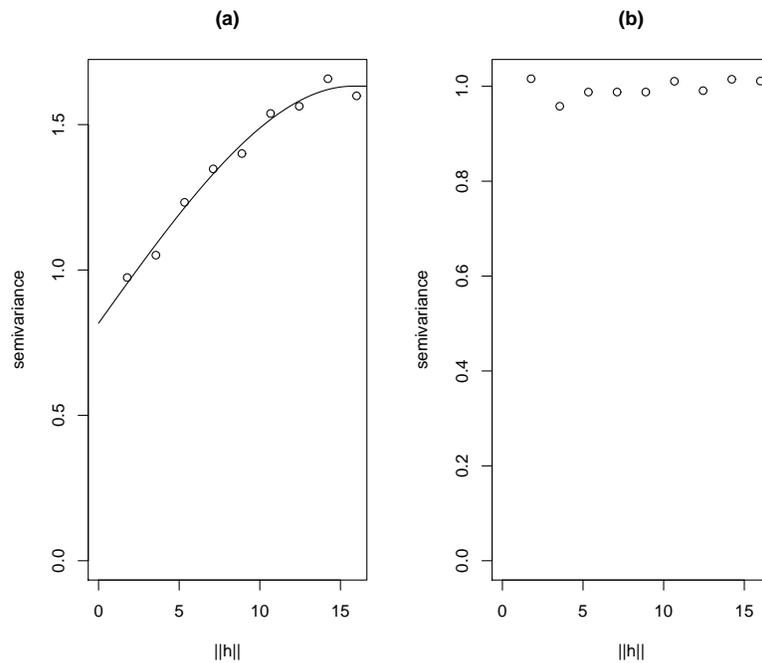


Figure 1: (a) Spherical semi-variogram model  $\hat{\gamma}(h; \theta)$  fitted to the empirical semi-variogram  $\hat{\gamma}(h)$  before removal correlation structure. (b) Empirical semi-variogram  $\hat{\gamma}(h)$  for standardized residuals after removal correlation structure.

317 semi-variogram. The covariance matrix can be estimated as  $\hat{\Sigma} = \sigma(h; \hat{\theta}) =$   
 318  $\sigma(0; \hat{\theta}) - \gamma(h; \hat{\theta})$ . Then, the uncorrelated residuals  $\hat{\epsilon} = \hat{L}^{-1}R$  are used to  
 319 compute the standardized uncorrelated residuals  $\tilde{\epsilon}(s_i) = (\hat{\epsilon}(s_i) - \bar{\hat{\epsilon}})/s_{\hat{\epsilon}}$ ;  $i =$   
 320  $1, \dots, N$ . Figure 1(b) shows the fit of a linear semi-variogram to the em-  
 321 pirical semi-variogram estimate of the standardized residuals. The linear  
 322 semi-variogram model in Figure 1(b) shows that the standardized residuals  
 323  $(\tilde{\epsilon}(s_1), \dots, \tilde{\epsilon}(s_N))$  are uncorelated. Finally, the bootstrap samples are deter-  
 324 mined by  $\mathcal{Z}^* = \hat{\mu} + \hat{L}\epsilon^*$ , where the bootstrap vector  $\epsilon^*$  is generated by simple  
 325 random sampling with replacement from the standardized uncorrelated resid-  
 326 uals vector  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ .

327 Now suppose that the plug-in ordinary kriging  $T_1 = \hat{Z}(s_0)$  and variogram  
 328 parameter estimators  $\hat{\theta} = (T_2, T_3, T_4) = (\hat{c}_0, \hat{c}_1, \hat{a})$  are the estimators of in-  
 329 terest, where  $T_i = t_i(\mathcal{Z})$ . For example, if  $s_0 = (5, 6)$  is a new location then,  
 330  $\hat{Z}(s_0) = \hat{\lambda}^T \mathcal{Z} = 10.696$  and also  $\hat{\theta} = (\hat{c}_0, \hat{c}_1, \hat{a}) = (0.817, 0.815, 15.787)$ . The  
 331 SPB version  $T_i^*$  of  $T_i$  is  $T_i^* = t_i(\mathcal{Z}^*)$ , where  $\mathcal{Z}^*$  is the SPB sample. We es-  
 332 timate the precision measures  $\text{Bias}(T_i)$  and  $\text{Var}(T_i)$  and distribution  $G_{T_i}(t)$   
 333 by SPB method and  $B$  bootstrap replicates  $T_{i,1}^*, \dots, T_{i,B}^*$ ;  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$  in  
 334 relations (8)–(10). Table 10 shows estimates of SPB bias and variance for  
 335 plug-in kriging and estimates of variogram parameters based on  $B = 1000$

Table 10: Estimates of SPB bias and variance for plug-in kriging and variogram parameters for coal-ash data.

$T_i^*$	Bias <sub>*</sub>	Var <sub>*</sub>
$Z^*(s_0)$	-0.901	0.706
$c_0^*$	0.002	0.017
$c_1^*$	0.066	0.037
$a^*$	-5.829	21.602

336 bootstrap replicates. Figure 2 shows the histogram of plug-in kriging and  
 337 variogram parameters estimator based on  $B = 1000$  bootstrap replicates.

## 338 7. Discussion and Results

339 Spatial data analysis is based on the estimate of correlation structure, for  
 340 example, kriging predictor. The estimation of correlation structure is based  
 341 on parametric covariogram models. Unfortunately, the estimates of covari-  
 342 ogram parameters have no closed form and so are computed numerically. If  
 343 we can estimate the correlation structure as well, then we will use knowledge  
 344 of the covariogram model which describes the dependence structure in the  
 345 SPB method. For spatial data the MBB method is usually used to estimate

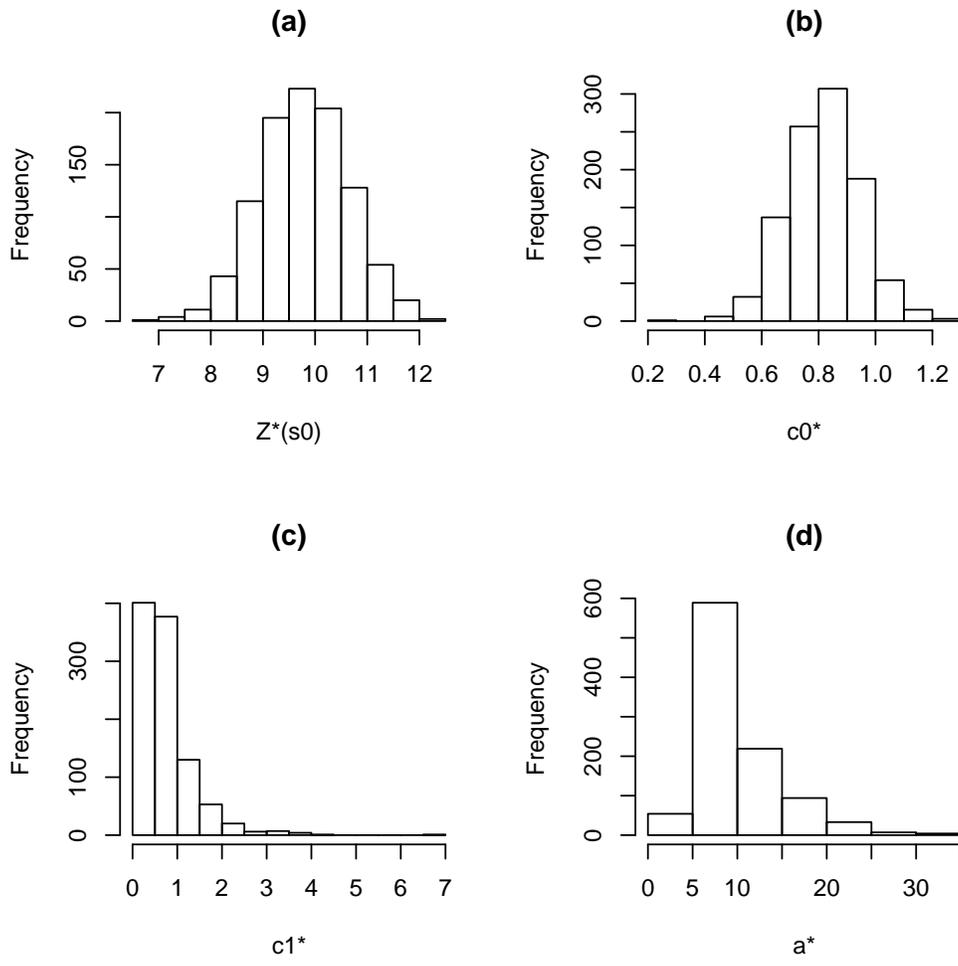


Figure 2: Histogram of (a) plug-in kriging and variogram parameters estimator: (b) nugget effect, (c) partial sill and (d) range for coal-ash data.

346 the precision measures of the estimators. However, as already pointed out,  
347 the MBB method has limitations and weaknesses. We now summarize some  
348 advantages of the SPB method as compared with the MBB method:

349 The precision of the MBB estimators is related to the optimal block size  
350  $\beta_n^{opt}$  in (7) which depends on unknown parameters which are difficult to  
351 estimate. In our simulations it is clear that the optimal block size differs  
352 for various estimators or precision measures. Note also that the optimal  
353 block size determination is impossible for estimators that have no closed  
354 form (e.g. covariogram parameters estimator). For some data sets we may  
355 not be able to find the block size that satisfies  $N = K\beta_n^d$ . In other words,  
356 there is not always complete blocking and then  $N_1 = K\beta_n^d < N$  is the total  
357 number of data-values in the resampled complete blocks. As a result,  $N - N_1$   
358 observations are ignored.

359 Establishing the consistency of MBB estimators and estimation of block  
360 size requires that the random field satisfies strong-mixing conditions. In  
361 the MBB method, our simulations indicate that the variance estimators  $\hat{\sigma}^2$   
362 are underestimated. Moreover, our simulations show that the MBB and  
363 SPB variance estimations  $\hat{\sigma}^2$  are asymptotically unbiased and consistent. In  
364 this study, the SPB estimators are more accurate than the MBB estimator,

365 for variance estimation of estimators in spatial data analysis, especially for  
366 stronger dependence structure and larger sample sizes. In the SPB method,  
367 we use the estimation of spatial correlation structure, therefore the SPB  
368 method will perform better than the MBB method. We are studying on  
369 comparison of estimation of distribution, spatial prediction interval and con-  
370 fidence interval by SPB and MBB methods.

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