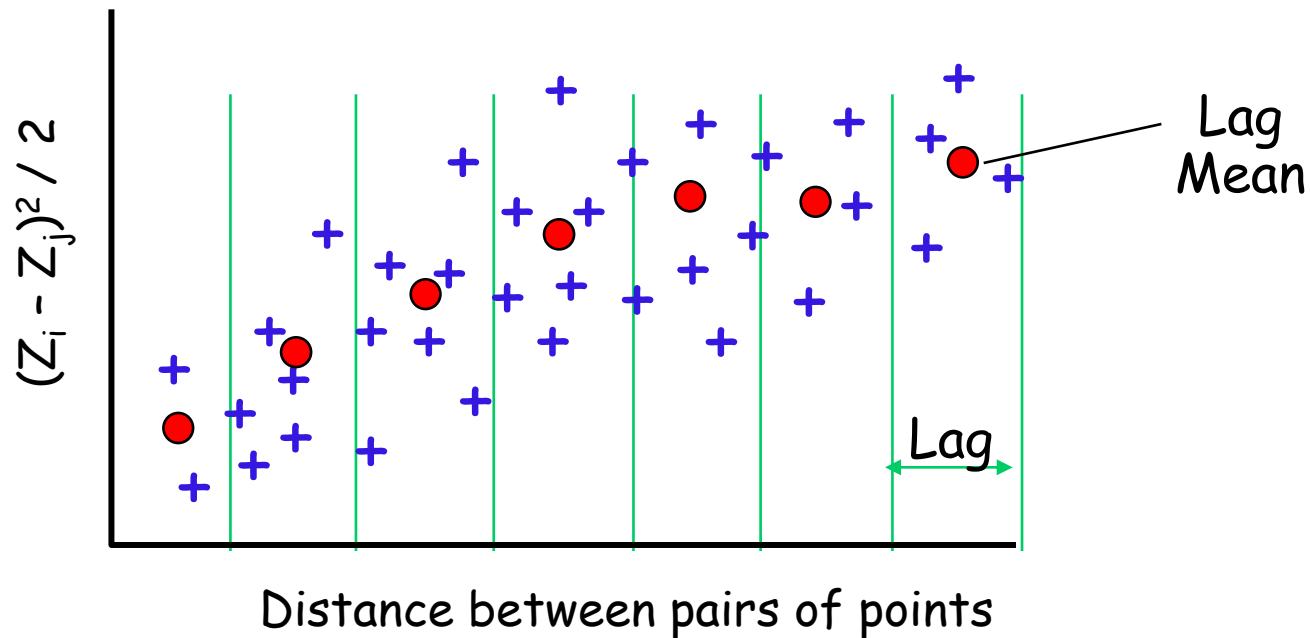


# Geostatistics & Spatial Interpolation



# Tobler's Law

- ⌘ “All places are related, but nearby places are related more than distant places”
  - Corollary: fields vary smoothly, slowly and show strong “spatial autocorrelation” - attribute(s) and location are strongly correlated  $z_i = f(x_i, y_i)$

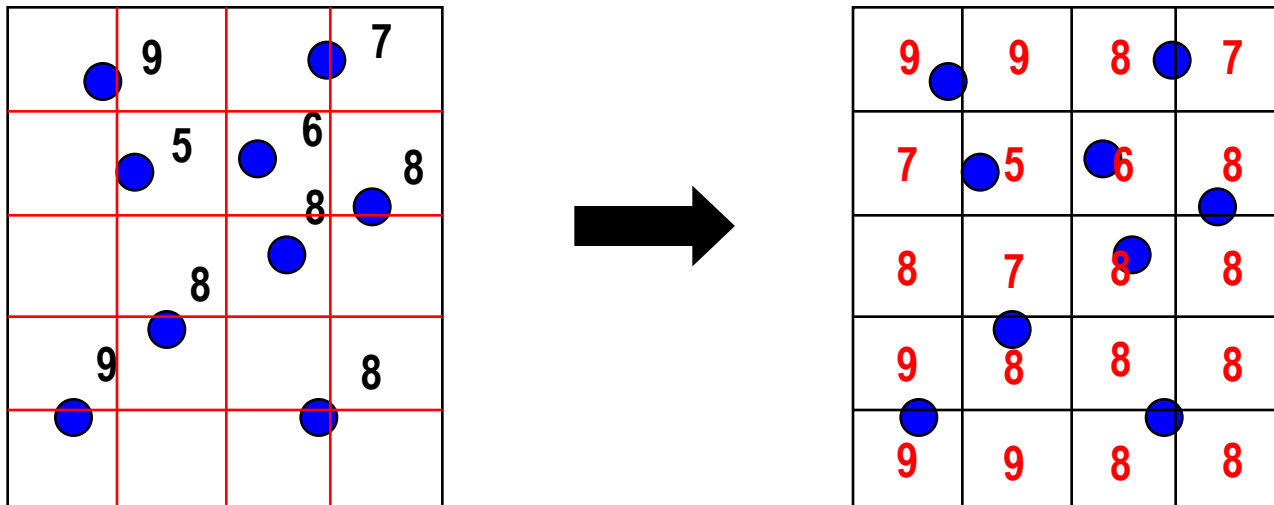
# Spatial Interpolation

- ⌘ Determination of unknown values or attributes on the basis of values nearby
  - Used for data that define continuous fields
    - E.g. temperature, rainfall, elevation, concentration
    - Contouring, raster resampling are applications already discussed

Spatial Interpolation = Spatial Prediction

# Spatial Interpolation

⌘ E.g. Interpolate between variably spaced data to create uniform grid of values



# Interpolation Methods

- ⌘ All address the meaning of “near” in Tobler’s law differently
  - How does space make a difference?
  - Statistical mean not best predictor if Tobler’s law is true

# Interpolation methods

## ⌘ Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW)

- Assumes influence of adjacent points decreases with distance

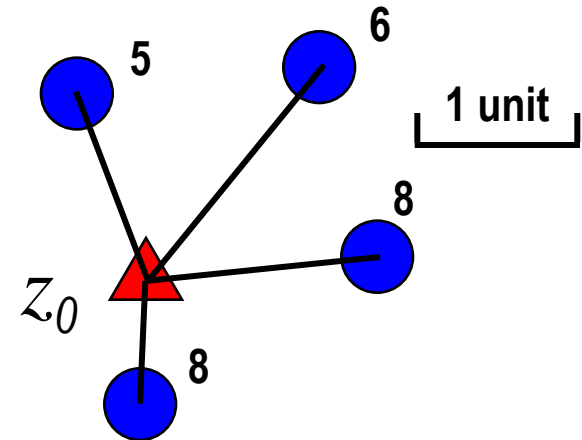
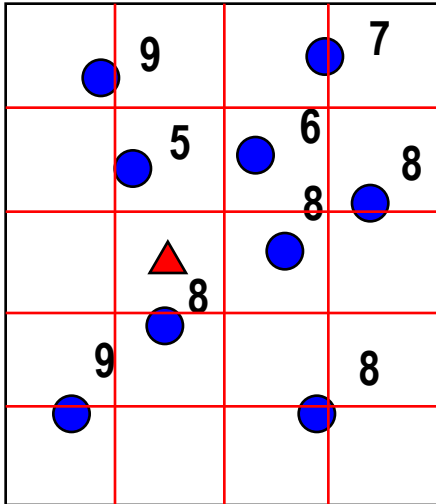
$$z_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i z_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

Where:  $z_0$  = value of estimation point

$z_i$  = value of neighboring point

$w_i$  = weighting factor; e.g. =  $1/(\text{distance from neighbor})^2$

# Inverse Distance Weighting



On basis of four nearest neighbors:

$$z_0 = (8/(1)^2 + 8/(2)^2 + 6/(2.5)^2 + 5/(2)^2)/(1.66)$$

$$z_0 = (8.0 + 2.0 + 0.96 + 1.25)/(1.66) = 7.36$$

# I.D.W.

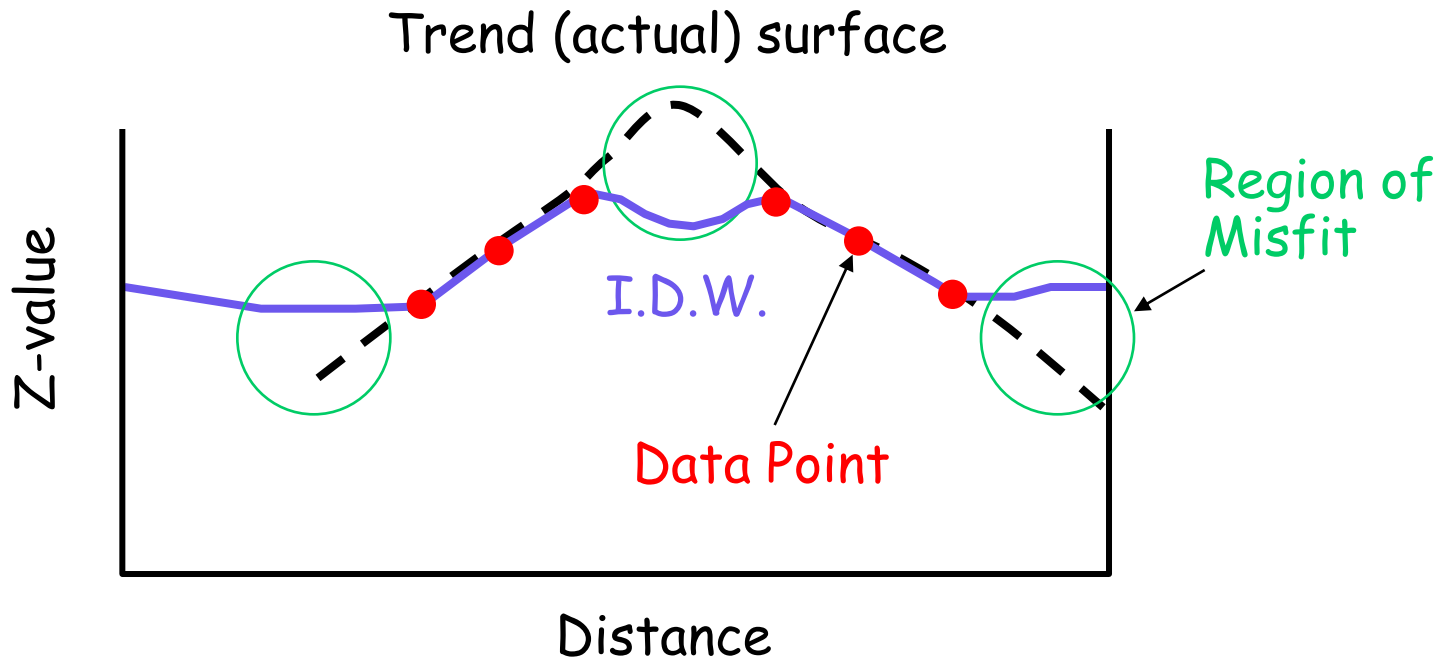
- ⌘ Unknown value is the average of the observed values, weighted by inverse of distance, squared
  - Distance to point doubles, weight decreases by factor of 4
- ⌘ Can alter IDW by:
  - Alter number of closest points
  - Choose points by distance/search radius
  - Weight be directional sectors
  - Alter distance weighting; e.g. cube instead of square

# I.D.W. Characteristics

- ⌘ Is an *exact method* of interpolation - will return measured values when applied to measured point.
  - Will not generate smoothness or account for trends, unlike methods that are "*inexact*"
- ⌘ Weights never negative -> interpolated values can never be less than smallest  $z$  or greater than largest  $z$ . "Peaks" and "pits" will never be represented.

# I.D.W. Characteristics

- ⌘ No peaks or pits possible; interpolated values must lie within range of known values



# Interpolation Methods

- ⌘ IDW is inappropriate for values that don't decrease as a function of distance (e.g. topography)
- ⌘ Other deterministic techniques:
  - Spline
  - Trend

# Exact Methods - Spline

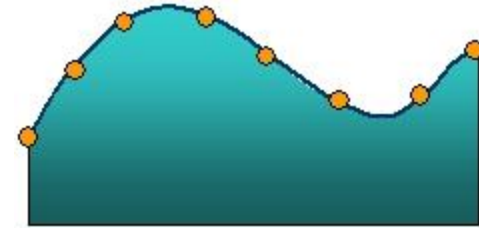
- Fit *minimum curvature* surface through observation points; interpolate value from surface
- Good for gently varying surfaces
  - E.g. topography, water table heights
- Not good for fitting large changes over short distances
- Surface is allowed to exceed highest and be less than lowest measured values

# Exact Methods: IDW vs. Spline



IDW:

(images from ArcGIS 9.2 Help files)

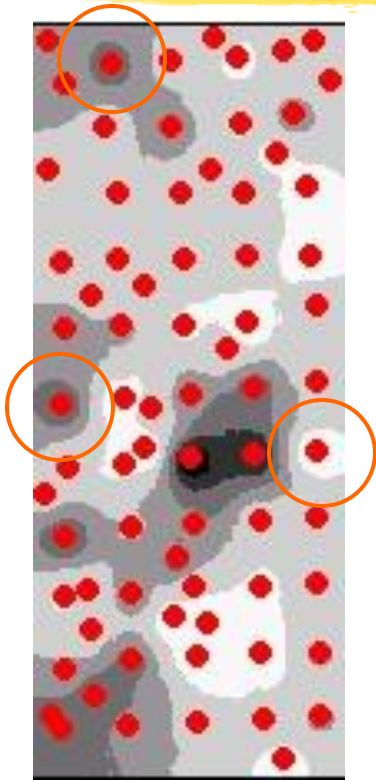


Spline:

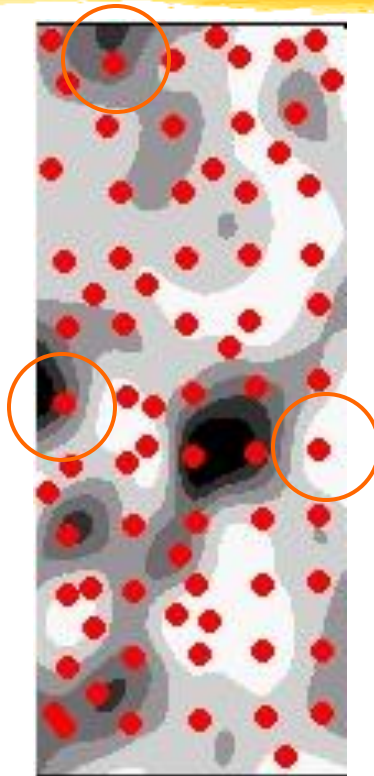
- ⌘ No predicted highs or lows above max. or min. values
- ⌘ No smoothing; surface can be rough

- ⌘ Minimum curvature result good for producing smooth surfaces
- ⌘ Can't predict large changes over short distances

# Comparisons



IDW, 6 nearest,  
contoured for 6  
classes



Spline, contoured  
for same 6  
classes

⌘ Note smoothing of  
Spline

⌘ IDW contours  
less continuous,  
fewer inferred  
maxima and minima

# Inexact (Approximate) Methods

- ⌘ Trend surface -curve fitting by least squares regression
- ⌘ Kriging - weight by distance, consider trends in data

# Approximate Methods - Trend

- Fits a polynomial to input points using least squares regression.
- Resulting surfaces minimize variance w.r.t. input values, i.e. sum of difference between actual and estimated values for all inputs is minimized.
- Surface rarely goes through actual points
- Surface may be based on all data ("Global" fit) or small neighborhoods of data ("Local" fits).

# Trend Surfaces

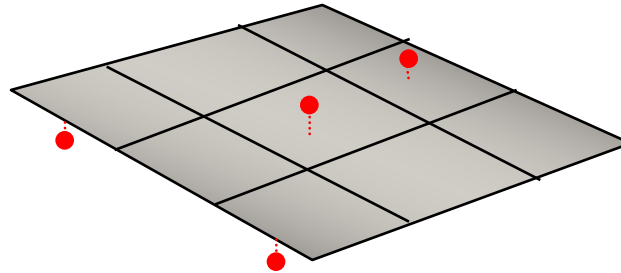
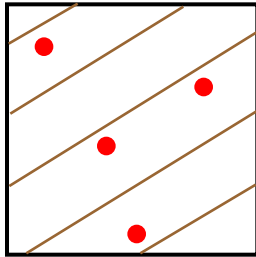
Equations are either:

- Linear - *1<sup>st</sup> Order: fit a plane*
  - $Z = a + bX + cY$
- Quadratic - *2<sup>nd</sup> Order: fit a plane with one bend*
  - $Z = (1^{\text{st}} \text{ Order}) + dX^2 + eXY + fY^2$
- Cubic - *3<sup>rd</sup> Order: fit a plane with 2 bends*
  - $Z = (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ Order}) + gX^3 + hX^2Y + iXY^2 + Y^3$

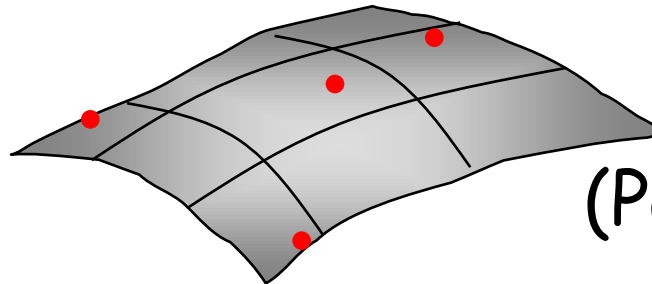
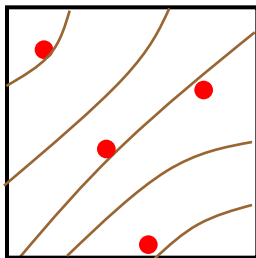
Where: a, b, c, d, etc. = constants derived from solution of simultaneous equations

X, Y = geographic coordinates

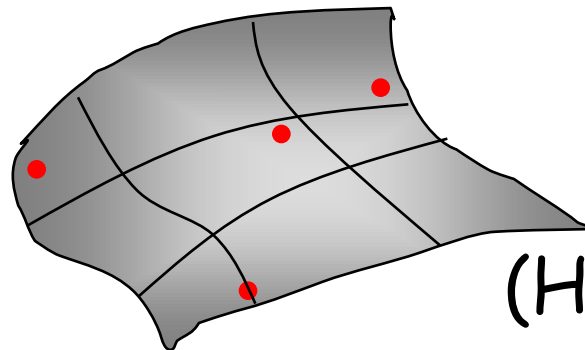
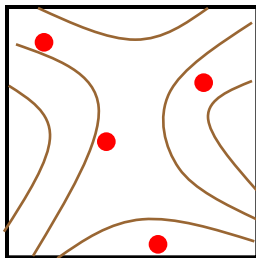
# Trend Surfaces - "Global Fitting"



Linear  
(Plane)



Quadratic  
(Parabolic surface)

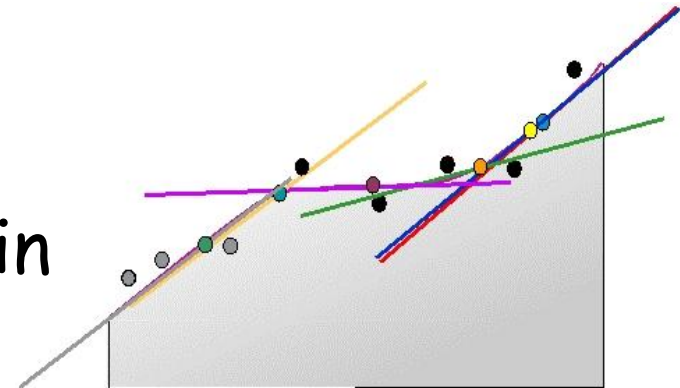
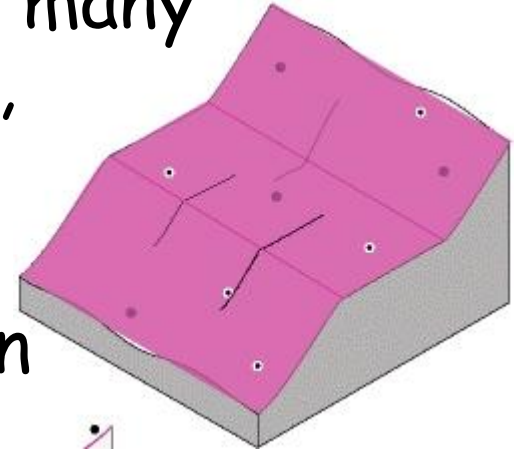


Cubic  
(Hyperbolic surface)

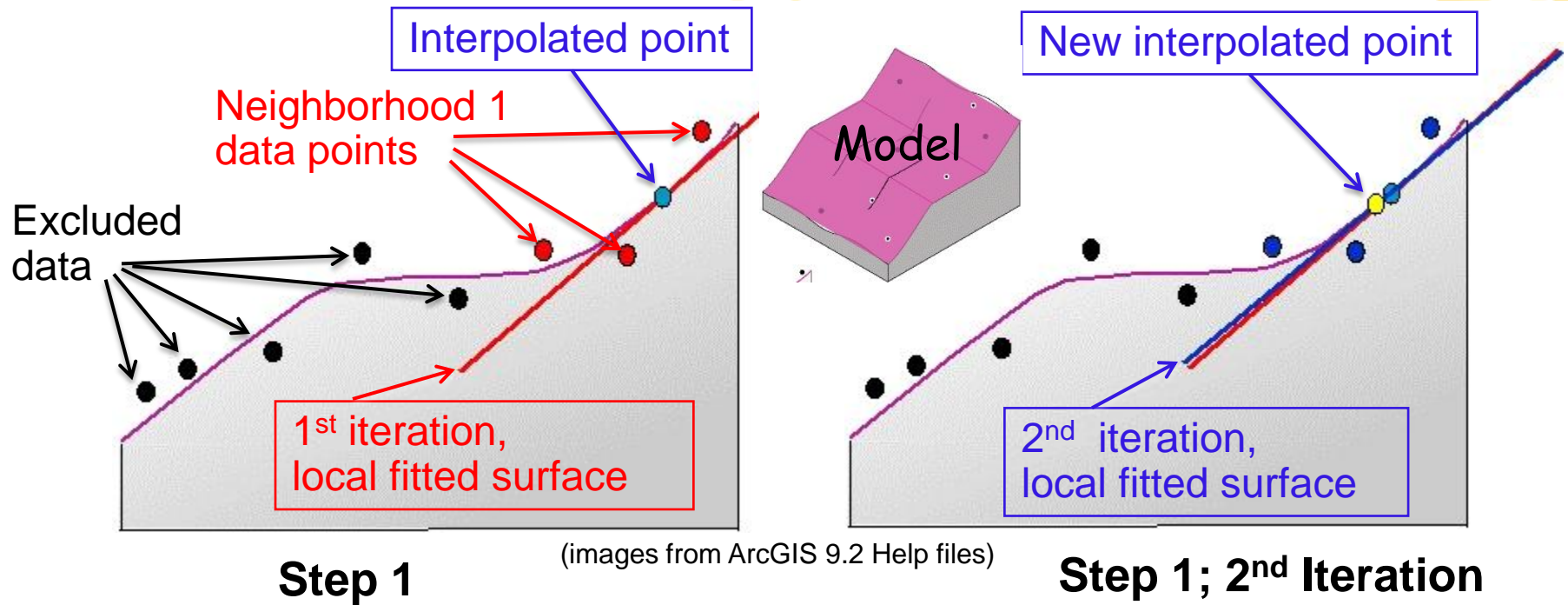
Source: Burrough, 1986

# Trend Surfaces - Local fitting

- ❖ Local Polynomial interpolation fits many polynomials, each within specified, overlapping "neighborhoods".
- ❖ Neighborhood surface fitting is iterative; final solution is based on minimizing RMS prediction error
- ❖ Final surface is composed of best fits to all neighborhoods
- ❖ Can be accomplished with tool in ESRI Geostatistical Analyst extension

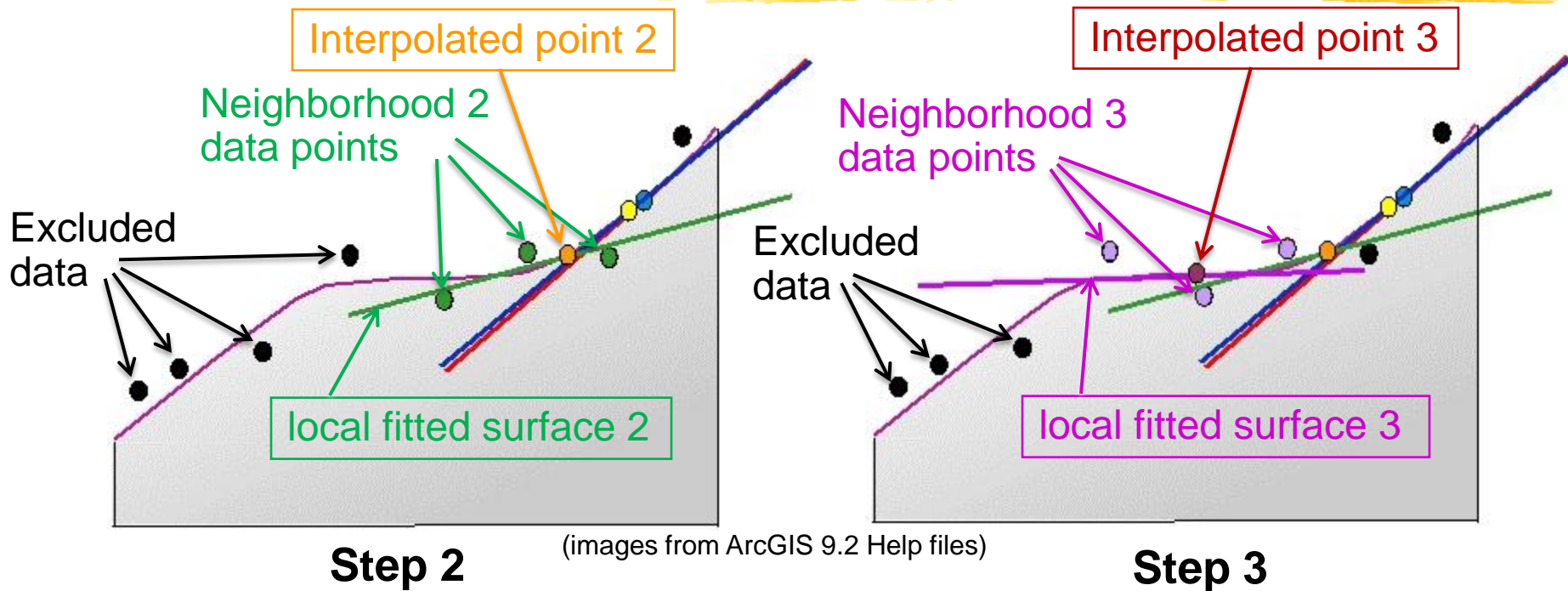


# Trend Surfaces - Local fitting



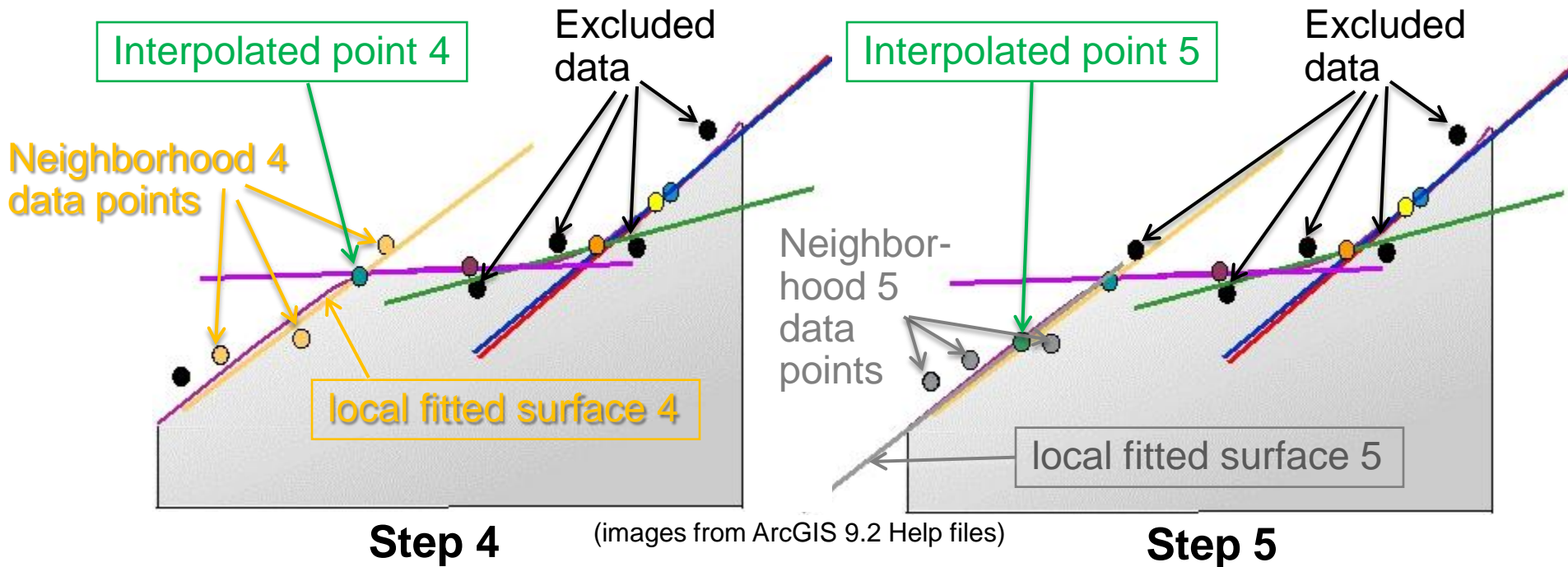
- ❖ 2-D profile view of a model surface
  - Neighborhood 1 points (red) are being fit to a plane by iteration (2 steps are shown) and an interpolated point is being created

# Trend Surfaces - Local fitting 2



- ❖ Model surface generated by many local fits
  - Note that several neighborhoods share some of the same data points: neighborhoods overlap

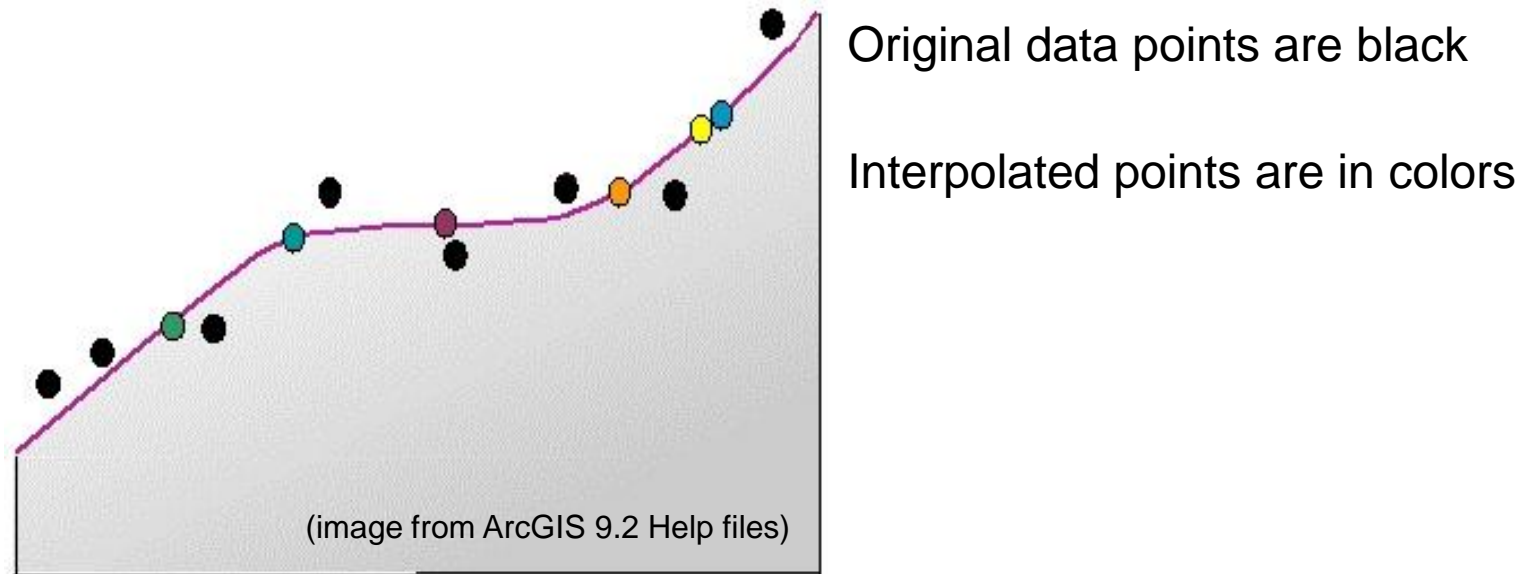
# Trend Surfaces - Local fitting 3



- ❖ Five different polynomials generate five local fits; in this example all are 1<sup>st</sup> Order.

# Trend Surfaces - Local fitting 4

## ⌘ Result:



- ❖ Note that model surface (purple) passes through interpolated points, not measured data points.

# Why Trend, Spline or IDW Surfaces?

- ⌘ No strong reason to assume that  $z$  correlated with  $x, y$  in these simple ways
- ⌘ Fitted surface doesn't pass through all points in Trend
- ⌘ *Data aren't used to help select model*
  - Exploratory, *deterministic* techniques, but theoretically weak

# Approximate Methods - Kriging

## ⌘ Kriging

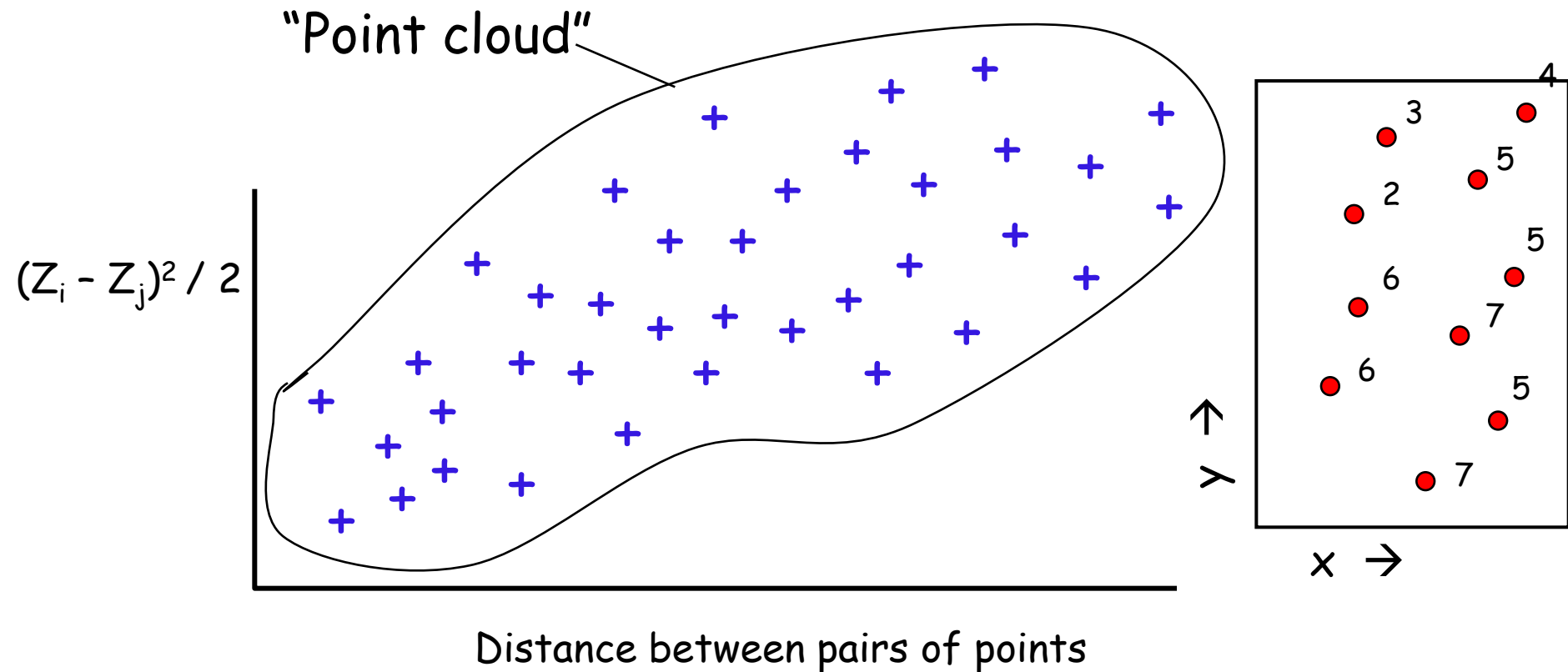
- Another inverse distance method
- Considers distance, cluster and spatial covariance (autocorrelation) - look for patterns in data
- Fit function to selected points; look at correlation, covariance and/or other statistical parameters to arrive at weights - interactive process
- Good for data that are spatially or directionally correlated (e.g. element concentrations)

# Kriging

- ⌘ Look for patterns over distances, then apply weights accordingly.
- ⌘ Steps:
  - 1) Make a description of the spatial variation of the data - *variogram*
  - 2) Summarize variation by a function
  - 3) Use this model to determine interpolation weights

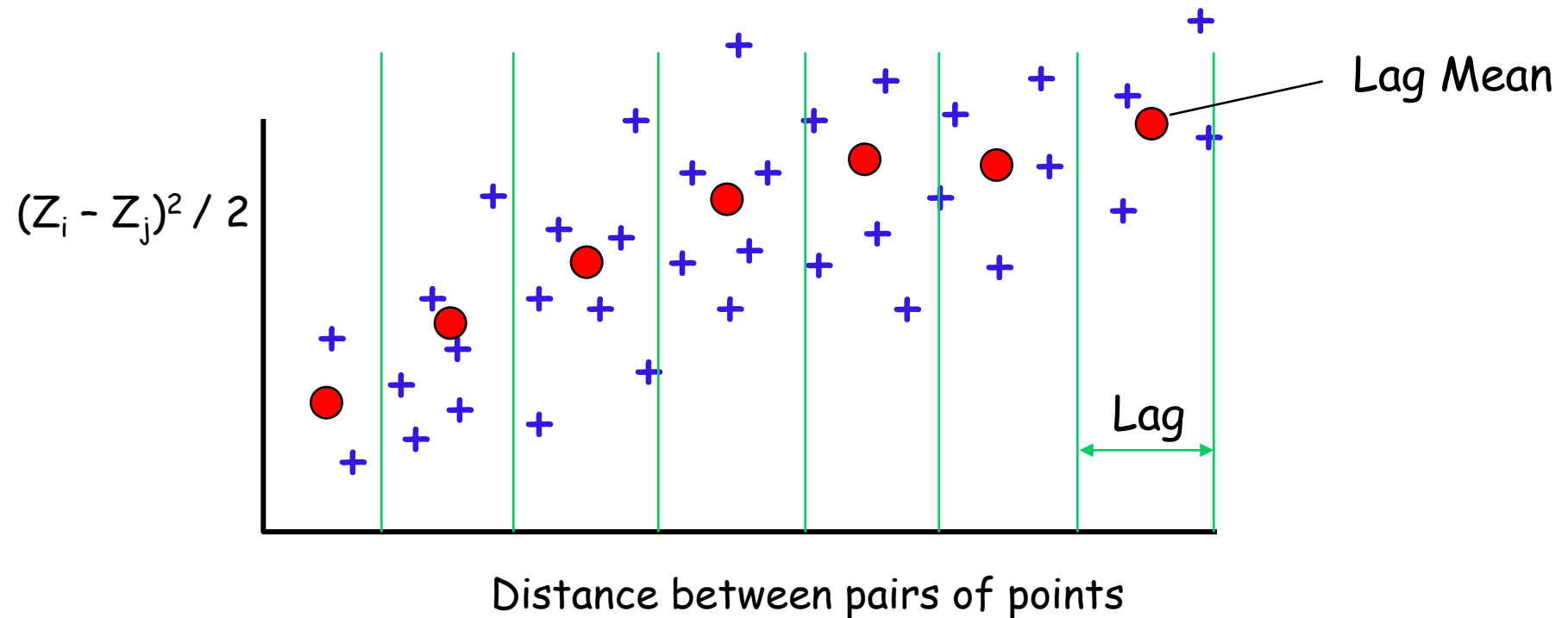
# Kriging - Step 1

⌘ Describe spatial variation with *Semivariogram*



# Kriging - Step 1

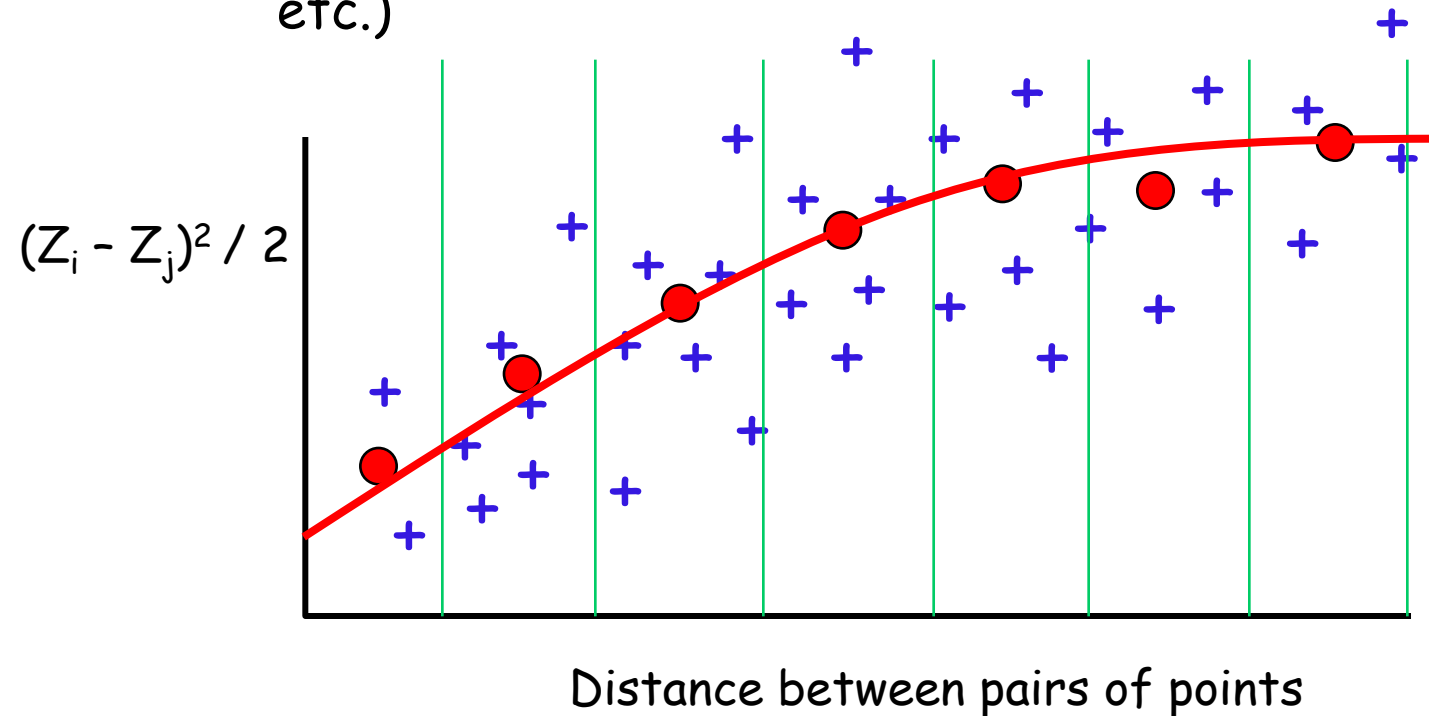
- ⌘ Divide range into series of "lags" ("buckets", "bins")
- ⌘ Find mean values of lags



# Kriging - Step 2

## ⌘ Summarize spatial variation with a function

- Several choices possible; curve fitting defines different types of Kriging (circular, spherical, exponential, gaussian, etc.)



# Kriging - Step 2

⌘ Key features of fitted variogram:



**Nugget:** semivariance at  $d = 0$

**Range:**  $d$  at which semivariance is constant

**Sill:** constant semivariance beyond the range

# Kriging - Step 2

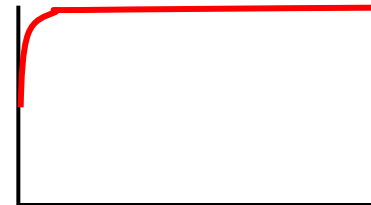
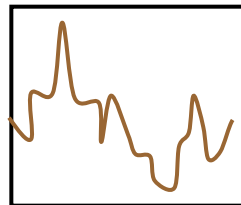
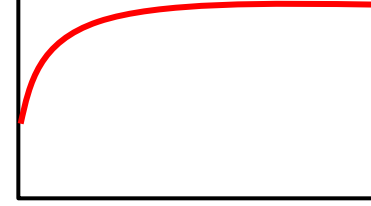
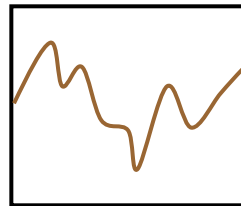
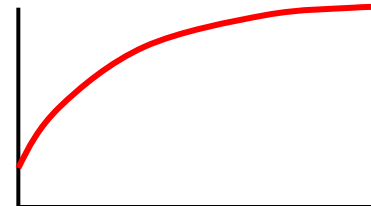
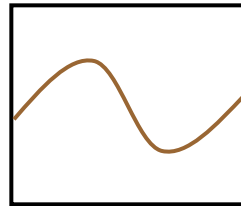
## ⌘ Key features of fitted variogram:

- Nugget - Measure of uncertainty of  $z$  values; precision of measurements
- Range - No structure to data beyond the range; no correlation between distance and  $z$  beyond this value
- Sill - Measure of the approximate total variance of  $z$

# Kriging - Step 2

## ⌘ Model surface profiles and their variograms:

⌘ As local variation in surface increases, *range* decreases, *nugget* increases



Source: O'Sullivan and Unwin, 2003

# Kriging - Step 3

## ⌘ Determine Interpolated weights

- Use fitted curve covariances to arrive at weights - not explained here; see O'Sullivan and Unwin, 2003 for explanation
- In general, nearby values are given greater weight (like IDW), but direction can be important (e.g. "shielding" can be considered)

# Some Forms of Kriging

- ⌘ **Simple** - weights assigned assuming predicted value equals mean value - use fitted curve
- ⌘ **Ordinary** - assume mean value unknown but constant; local variation about mean incorporated to assign weights
- ⌘ **Universal** - can account for underlying trend surface and noise, in addition to surface roughness
- ⌘ **Cokriging** - extends analysis to 2 or more variables
- ⌘ **Indicator** - used when z values are binary or nominal
- ⌘ **Disjunctive** - gives probability of z exceeding a threshold value