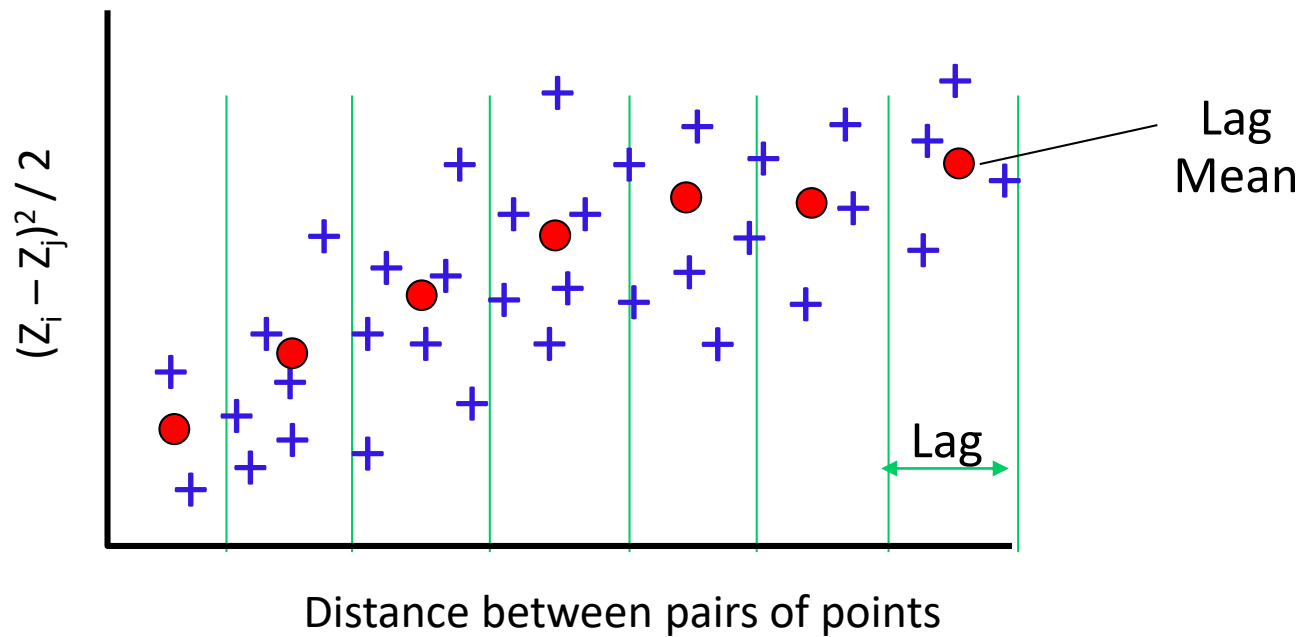


# Spatial Interpolation & Geostatistics



# 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, concentrations
    - ❑ Contouring, raster resampling are applications already discussed

Spatial Interpolation = Spatial Prediction

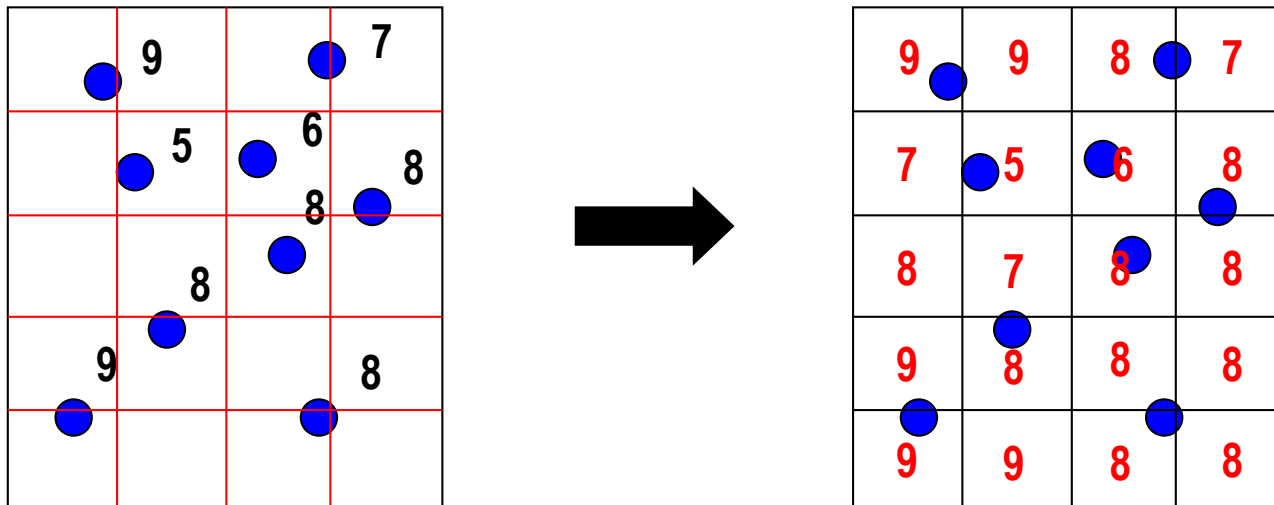
- ❑ Equivalent of contouring point measurements by hand, but with verifiable, quantitative methods. HOW?

# Root of All Interpolation Methods in 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 to a Grid of Values

- Interpolate between variably spaced data to a uniform grid of values, a surface raster



# Interpolation Methods – Many!

- 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 - IDW

- Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW)
  - Assumes influence of adjacent points decreases with distance

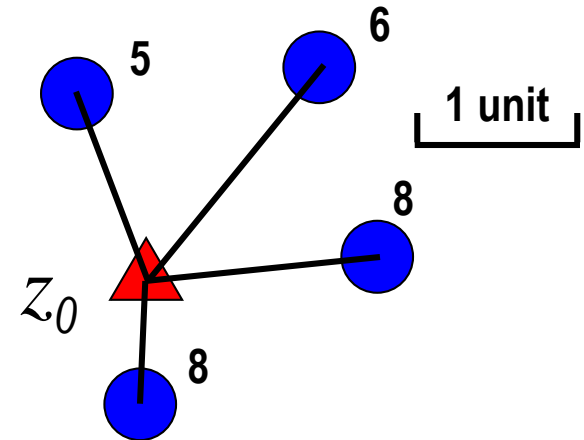
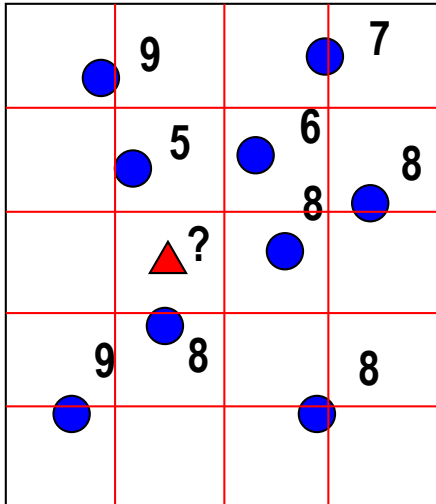
$$Z_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i z_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n w_i}$$

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:

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

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

# Inverse Distance Weighting (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

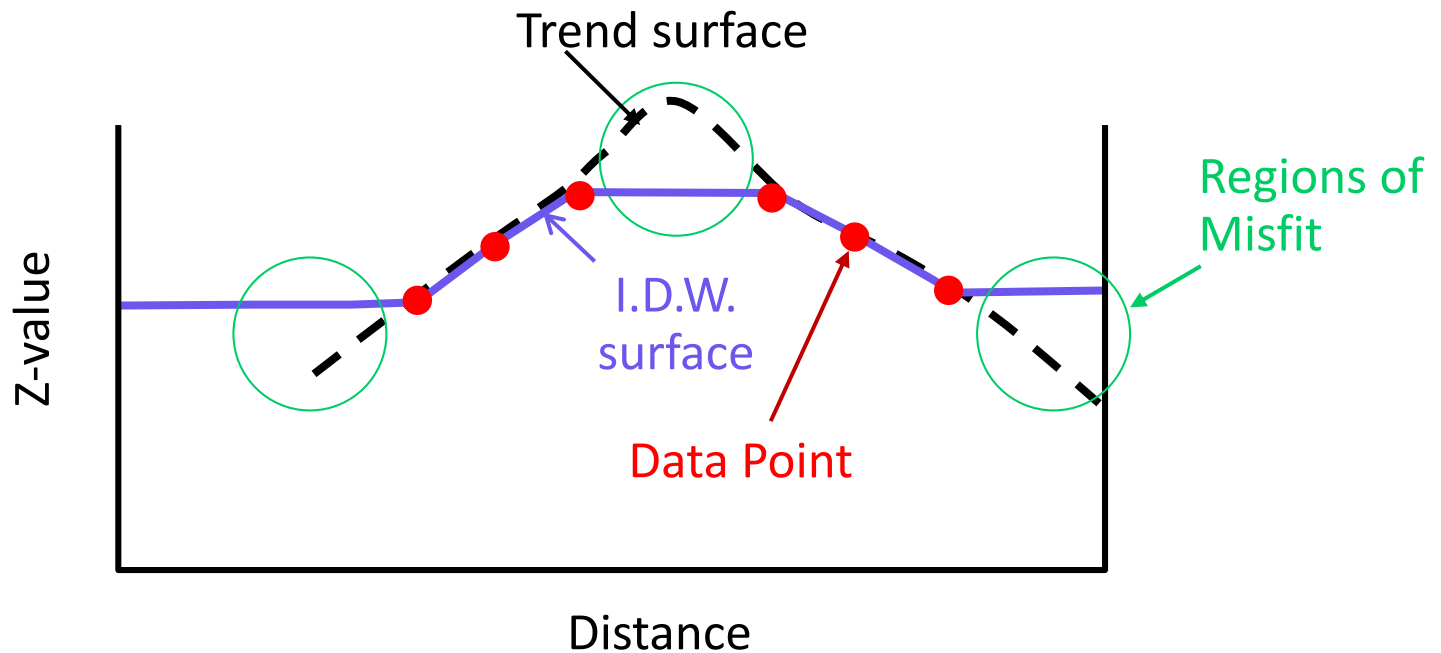


# I.D.W. Characteristics

- ❑ Is an *Exact Method* of interpolation – will return a *measured value* when applied to measured point.
  - ❑ Will not generate smoothness or account for trends, unlike methods that are “*inexact*”
  - ❑ Answer (a surface) passes through data points
- ❑ 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



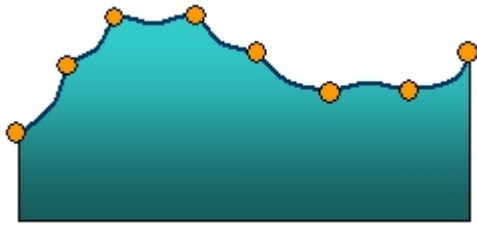
# Interpolation Methods - Others

- ❑ IDW is inappropriate for values that don't decrease as a function of distance (e.g. topography)
- ❑ Other *deterministic*, exact methods:
  - ❑ Spline
  - ❑ Natural Neighbor

# Exact Methods - Spline

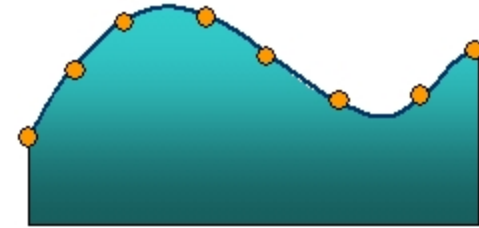
- ❑ Fit *minimum curvature* surface through observation points; interpolate value from surface
- ❑ Good for gently varying surfaces
  - ❑ E.g. topography, water table heights
- ❑ Not good for fitting large changes over short distances
- ❑ Surface is allowed to exceed highest and be less than lowest measured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

# Exact Methods: IDW vs. Spline



IDW:

(images from ArcGIS 9.2 Help files)

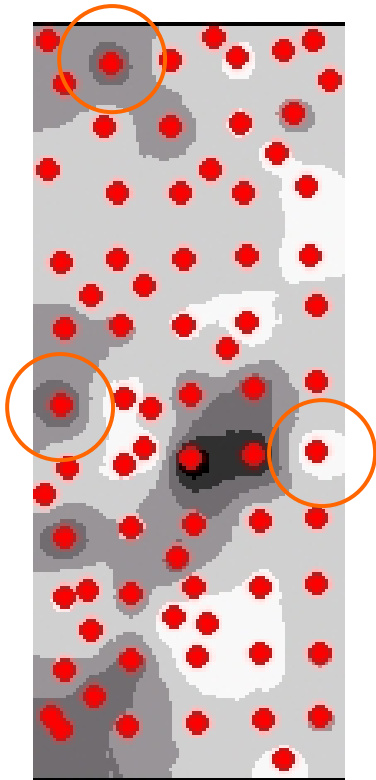


Spline:

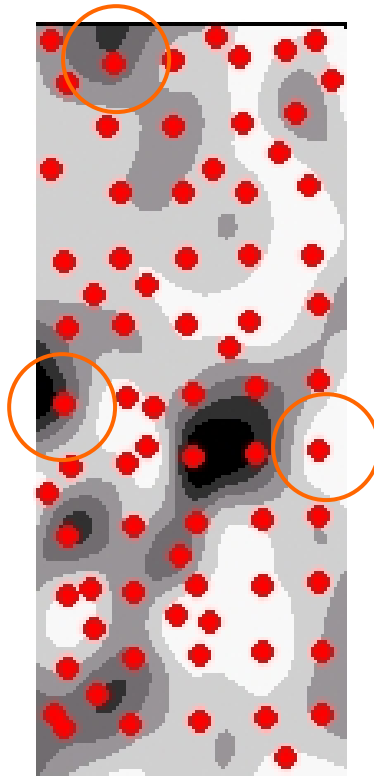
- ❑ No predicted highs or lows above max. or min. values
- ❑ No smoothing; surface can be rough

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

# Comparisons-IDW. vs. Spline



IDW, 6 nearest,  
contoured for 6  
classes



Spline, contoured  
for same 6  
classes

- Note smoothing of Spline – less “spikey”
- IDW contours less continuous, fewer inferred maxima and minima

# Inexact (Approximate) Methods

Inexact = Answer (surface) need not pass through input data points

- Trend surface – curve fitting by least squares regression
  - Deterministic – one output, no randomness allowed
- Kriging – weight by distance, consider trends in data
  - Stochastic – incorporates randomness

# 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 (parabolic)*

□  $Z = (1^{\text{st}} \text{ Order}) + dX^2 + eXY + fY^2$

□ Cubic – *3<sup>rd</sup> Order: fit a plane with 2 bends (hyperbolic)*

□  $Z = (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ Order}) + gX^3 + hX^2Y + iXY^2 + Y^3$

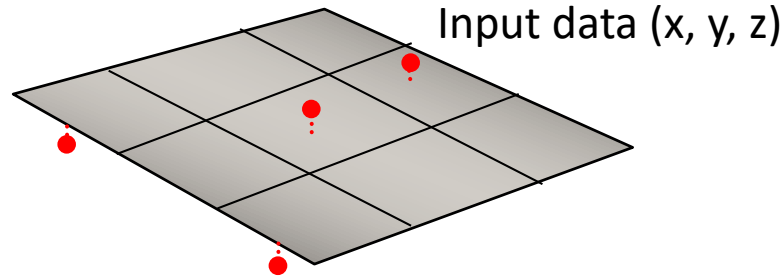
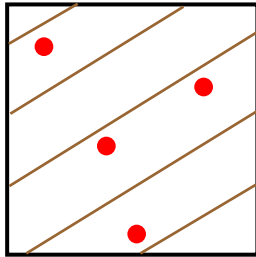
Where:

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

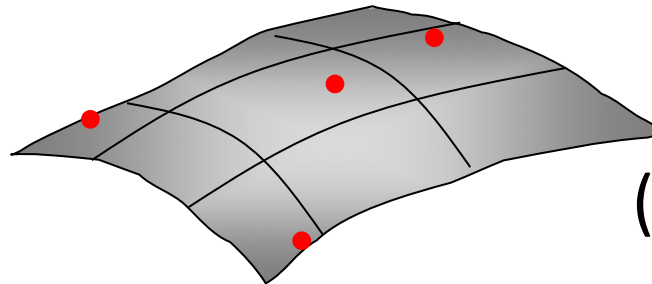
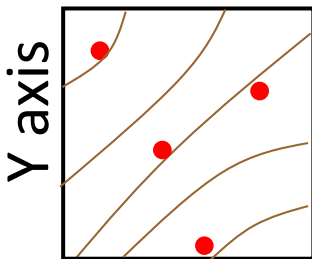
X, Y = geographic coordinates

# Trend Surfaces – “Global Fitting”

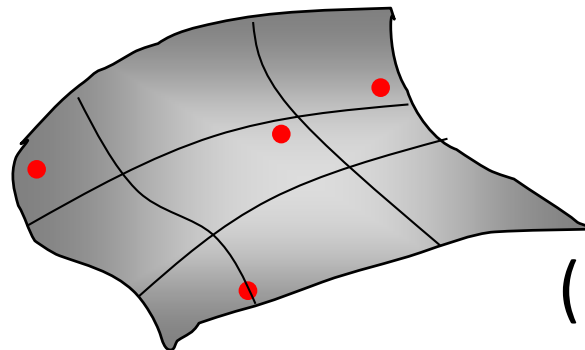
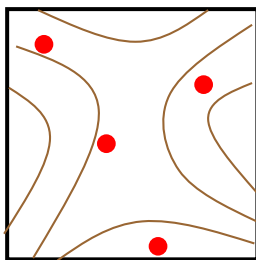
Contour maps of trend surfaces for Z



Linear  
(Plane)



Quadratic  
(Parabolic surface)



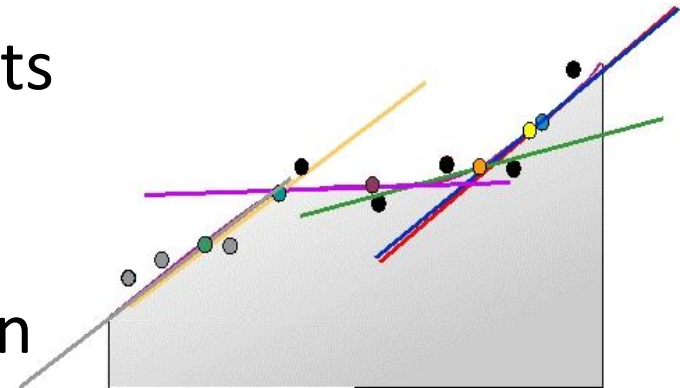
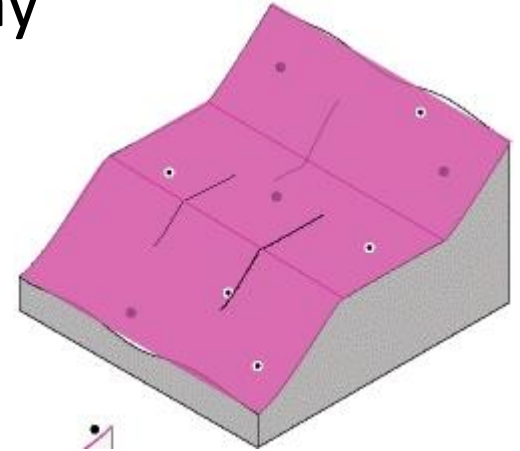
Cubic  
(Hyperbolic surface)

X axis

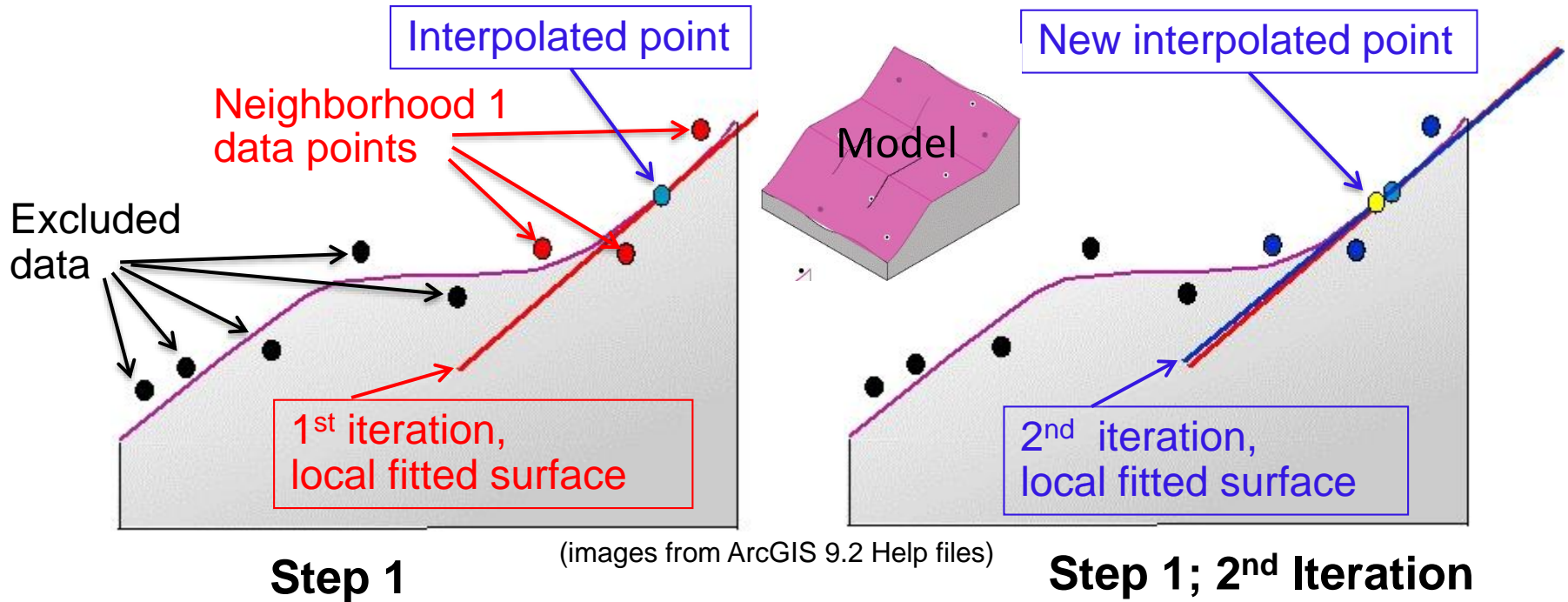
Source: Burrough, 1986

# 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 error
- ❑ Final surface is composed of best fits to all neighborhoods
- ❑ Can be accomplished with tool in ESRI Geostatistical Analyst extension



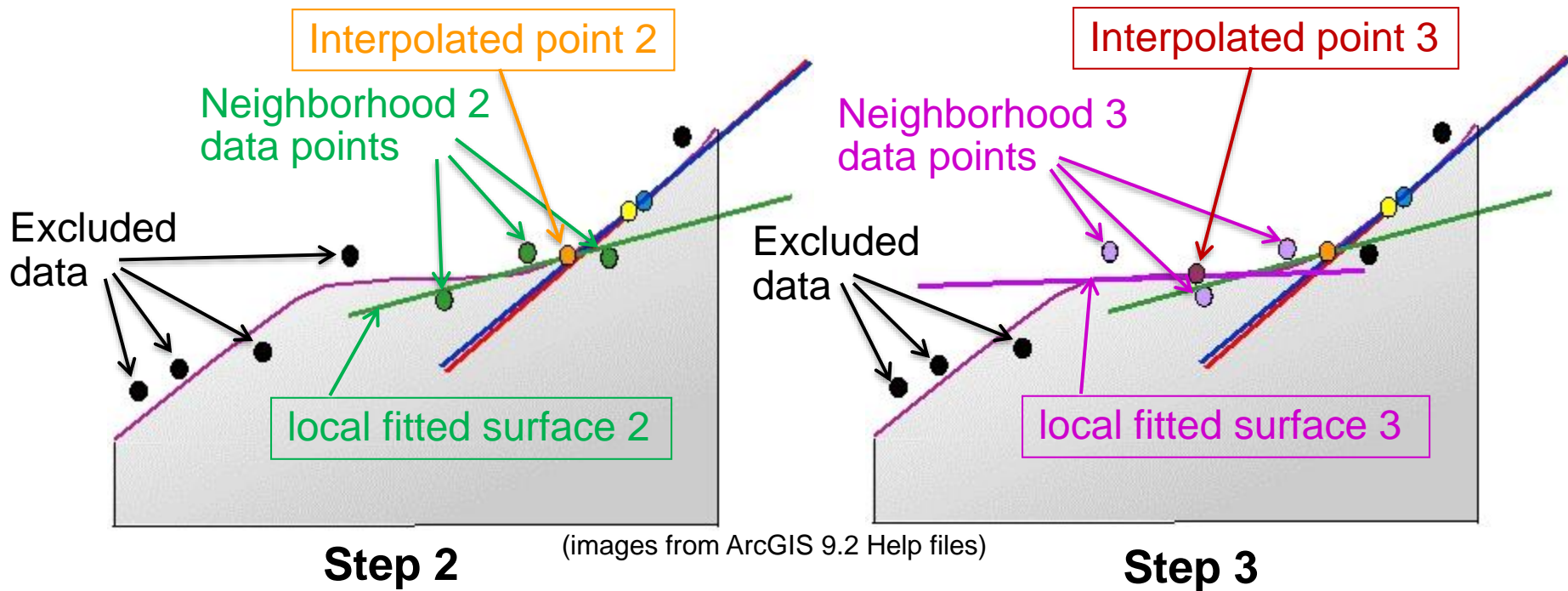
# Trend Surfaces – Local fitting



□ 2-D profile view of a model surface

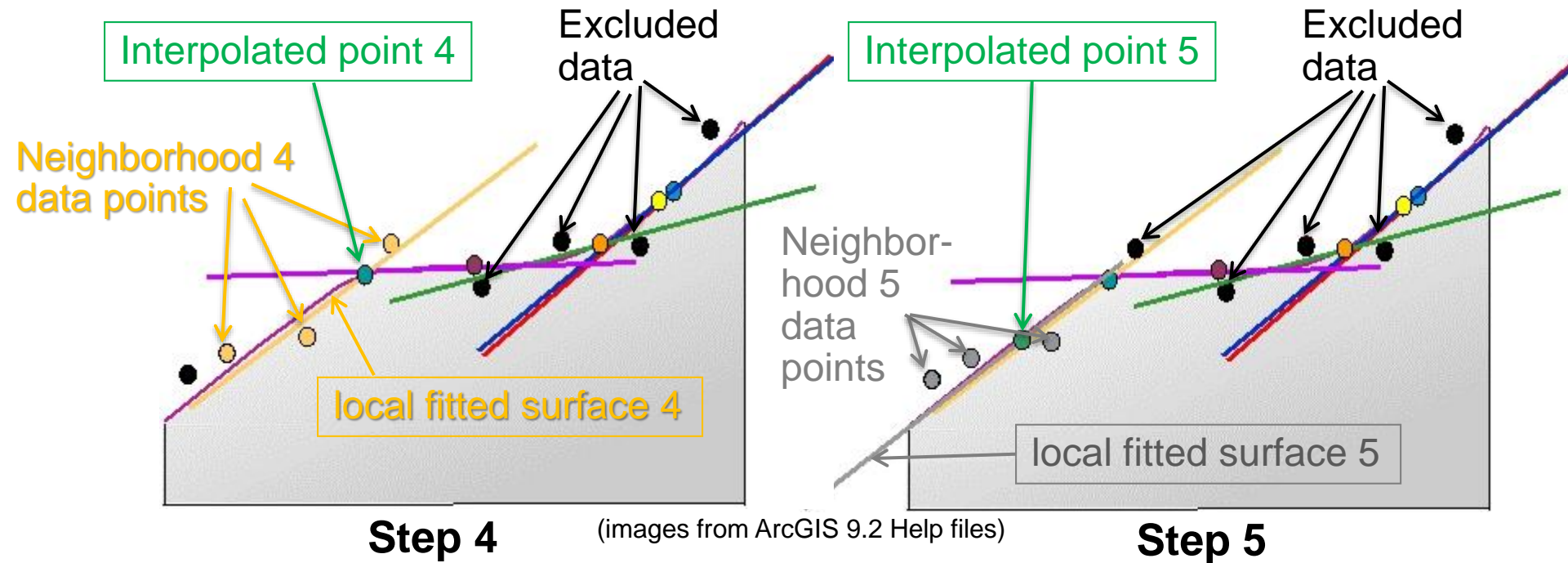
□ Neighborhood 1 points (red) are being fit to a plane by iteration (2 steps are shown) and an interpolated point is being created

# Trend Surfaces – Local fitting, Step 2



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

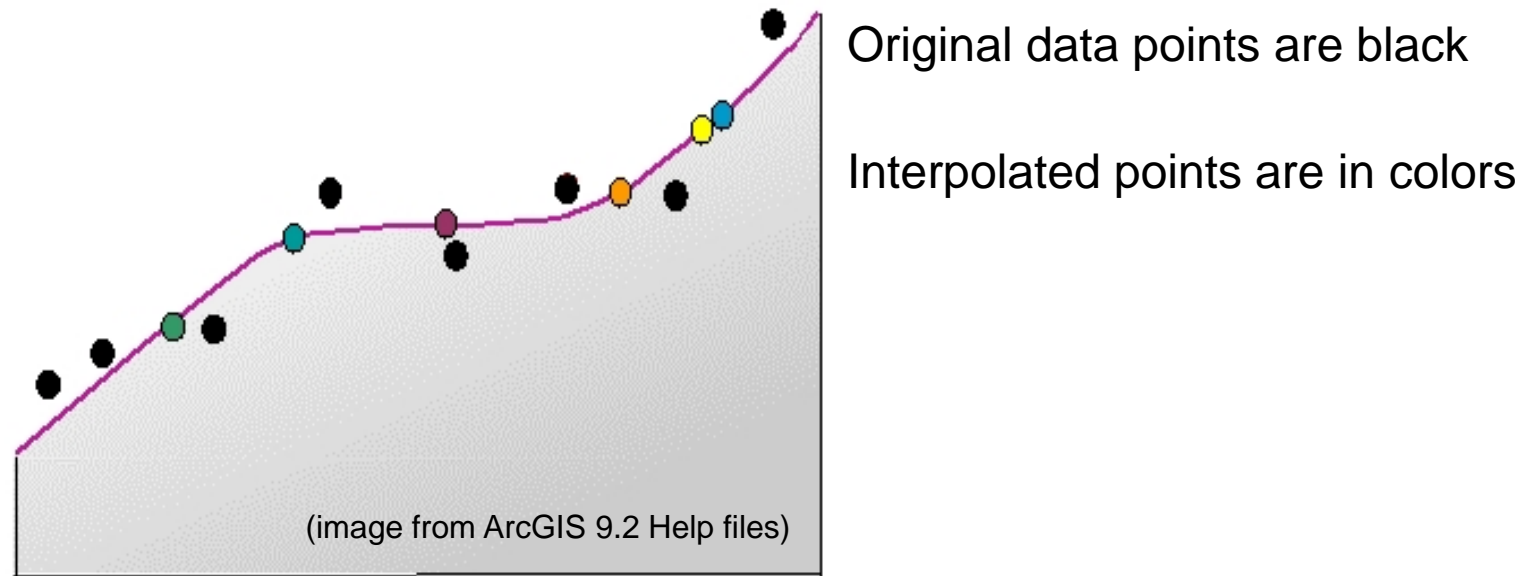
# Trend Surfaces – Local fitting, Step 3



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

# Trend Surfaces – Local fitting, Step 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



# Deterministic vs. Geostatistical Models

- Deterministic: purely a function of distance
  - No associated uncertainties are used or derived
  - E.g. IDW, Trend, Spline
- Geostatistical: based on statistical properties
  - Uncertainties incorporated and provided as a result
  - **Kriging**

# Approximate Methods - Kriging

## □ Kriging

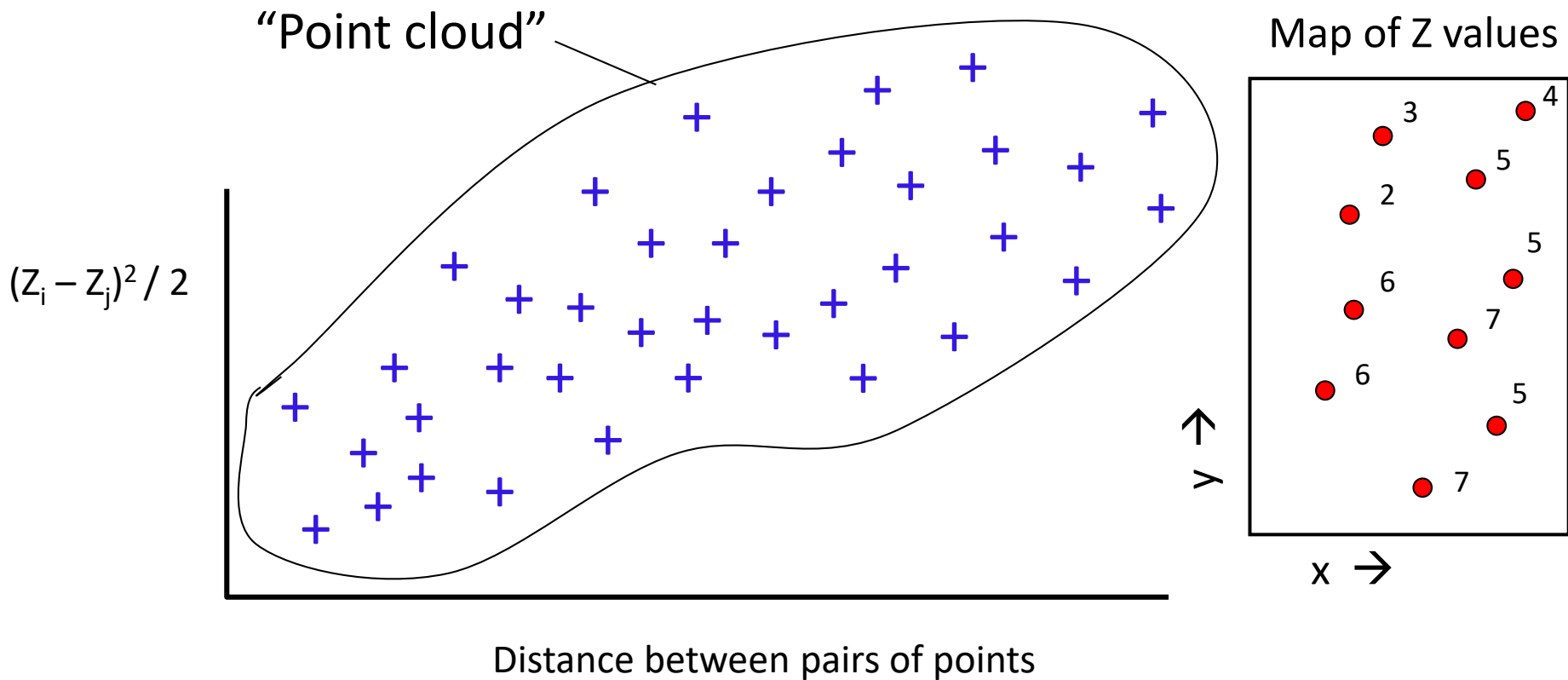
- Another inverse distance method
- Considers distance, cluster and spatial covariance (autocorrelation) – look for patterns in data
- Fit function to selected points; look at correlation, covariance and/or other statistical parameters to arrive at weights – interactive process
- Good for data that are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

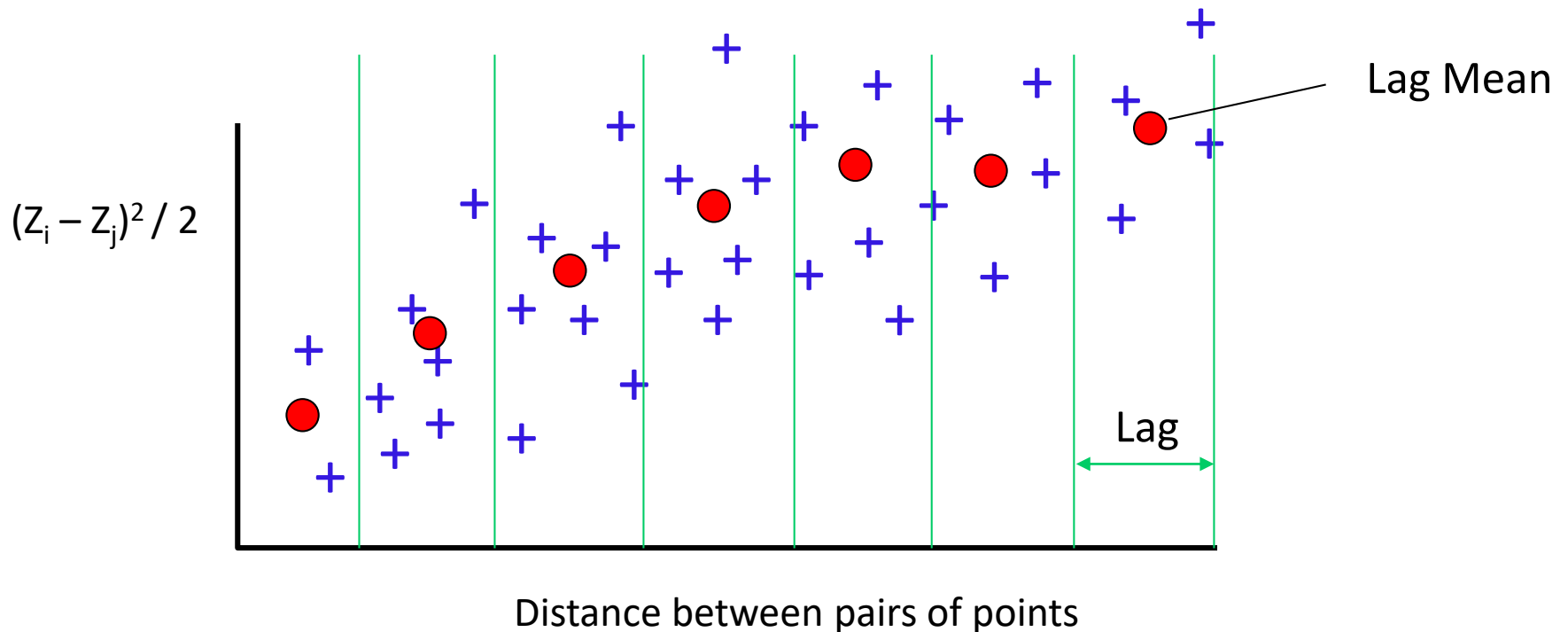
# Kriging – Step 1

- Describe spatial variation with *Semivariogram*



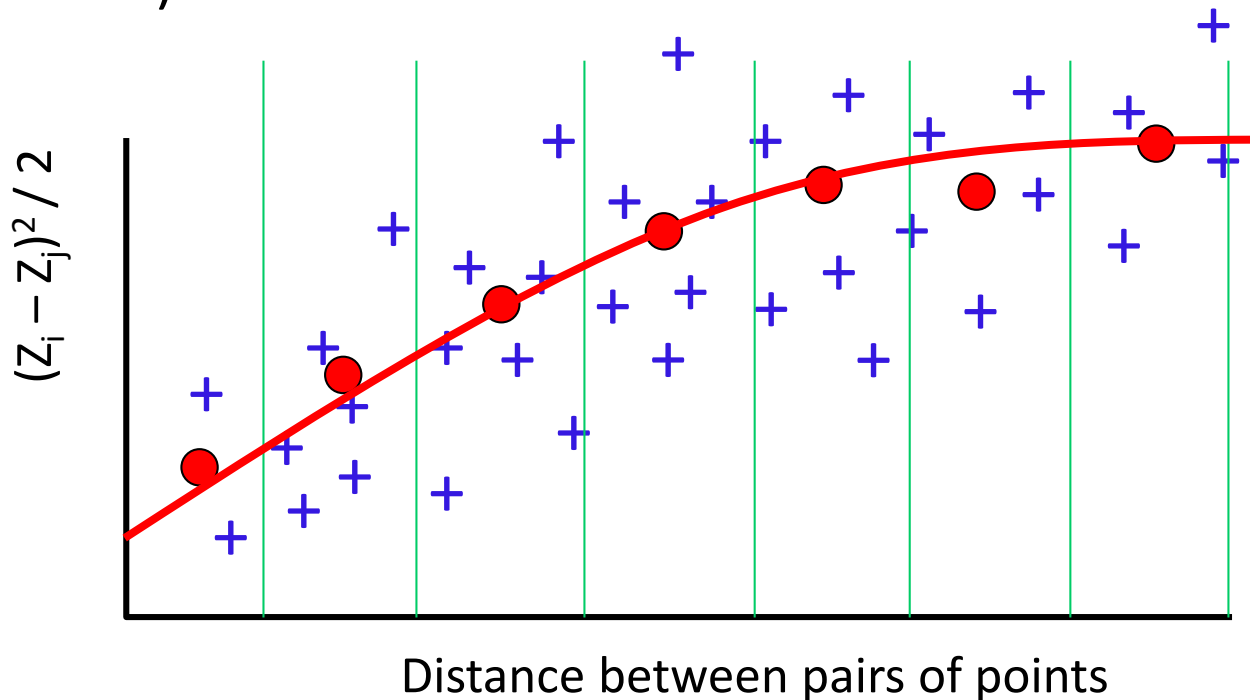
# Kriging – Step 1

- ❑ Divide range into series of “lags” (“buckets”, “bins”)
- ❑ Find mean values of lags



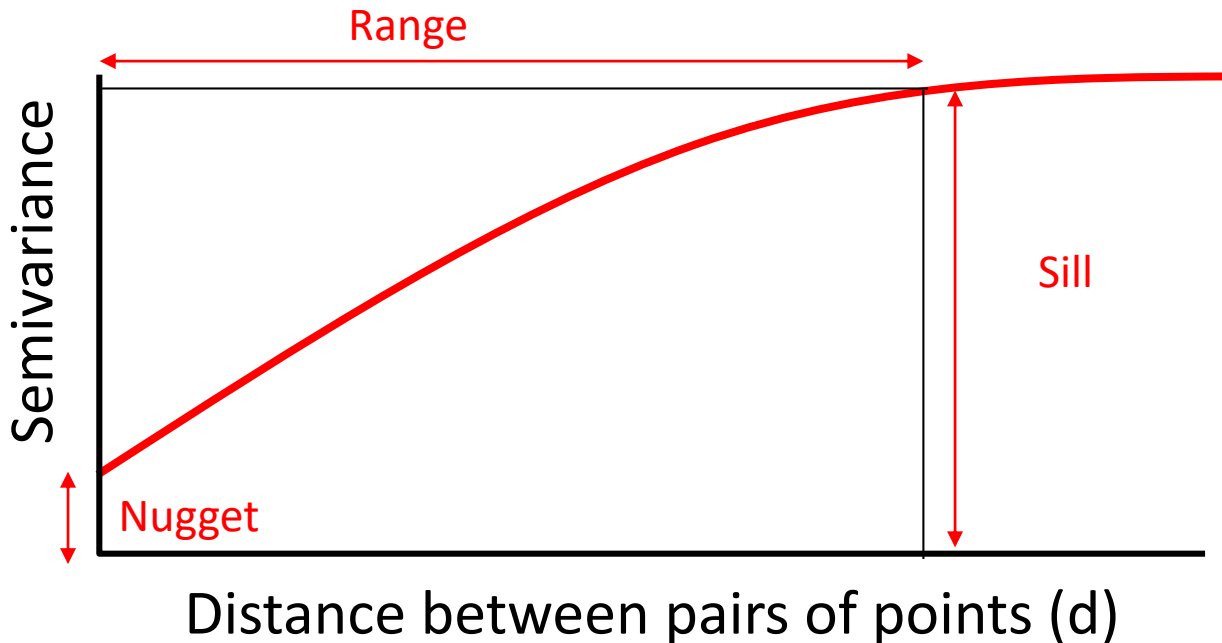
# Kriging – Step 2

- 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

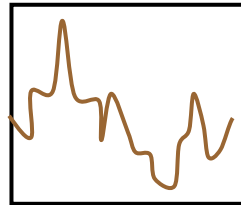
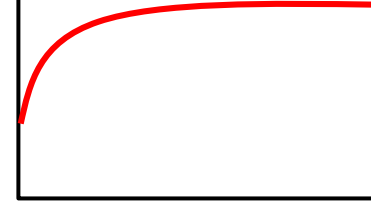
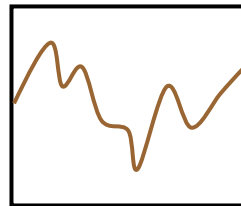
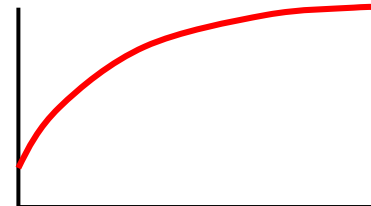
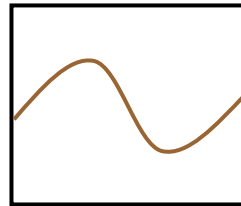
- Key features of fitted variogram:
  - Nugget – Measure of uncertainty of  $z$  values; precision of measurements
  - Range – No structure to data beyond the range; no correlation between distance and  $z$  beyond this value
  - Sill – Measure of the approximate total variance of  $z$



# 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 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)

# Review:

## Deterministic vs. Geostatistical Models

- ❑ *Deterministic*: interpolation purely a function of distance
  - ❑ No associated uncertainties are used or derived
  - ❑ E.g. IDW, Trend, Spline
  
- ❑ *Geostatistical*: interpolation is statistically based
  - ❑ Uncertainties incorporated and provided as a result
    - ❑ **Kriging** – *next time*