Spatial interpolation and kriging

EDS 222

Tamma Carleton Fall 2021

• Final projects guidelines

- Final projects guidelines
- Change in office hours for week of 11/15 to Thursday 11/18 1:30pm-2:30pm

- Final projects guidelines
- **Change in office hours** for week of 11/15 to Thursday 11/18 1:30pm-2:30pm
- No class 11/11; remote class 11/23, no class 11/25

- Final projects guidelines
- **Change in office hours** for week of 11/15 to Thursday 11/18 1:30pm-2:30pm
- No class 11/11; remote class 11/23, no class 11/25
- Final project presentations: 12/2 9:30-10:45am (Bren Hall 1414); 12/7 8-10:30am (Bren Hall 14**2**4)
 - You will randomly be assigned a slot (slots announced 11/24)

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Points, vector, raster/field, dynamic raster/field

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Points, vector, raster/field, dynamic raster/field

A common challenge: spatial interpolation

Points to fields, interpolation

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Points, vector, raster/field, dynamic raster/field

A common challenge: spatial interpolation

Points to fields, interpolation

Kriging: a powerful form of interpolation

Variogram, kriging

Types of spatial data

Spatial Data can generally split into:

• Vector Data

Spatial Data can generally split into:

• Vector Data: points, lines, and polygons.

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- Vector Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- Vector Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- Vector Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Examples

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Examples : Points representing cities. Non-continuous polygons representing cities.

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Examples : Points representing cities. Non-continuous polygons representing cities.

• **Field View**: Every location within the study region (and world) has a measurable value.

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Examples : Points representing cities. Non-continuous polygons representing cities.

• **Field View**: Every location within the study region (and world) has a measurable value.

Examples 5 / 23

Spatial Data can generally split into:

- **Vector** Data: points, lines, and polygons.
- Raster Data: a grid of equally sized rectangles.

An **alternative framing**: object view versus field view

• **Object View**: The study region (and world) is a series of entities located in space.

Examples : Points representing cities. Non-continuous polygons representing cities.

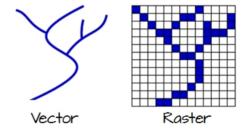
• **Field View**: Every location within the study region (and world) has a measurable value.

Examples: Elevation. Temperature. Wind direction.

Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

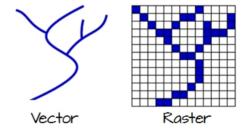
Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

A: Usually, but it depends.



Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

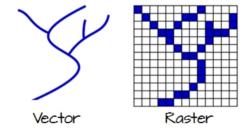
A: Usually, but it depends.



Usually it will be easier to represent objects with vector data and fields
with raster data, but ultimately this depends on what analysis you want
to run

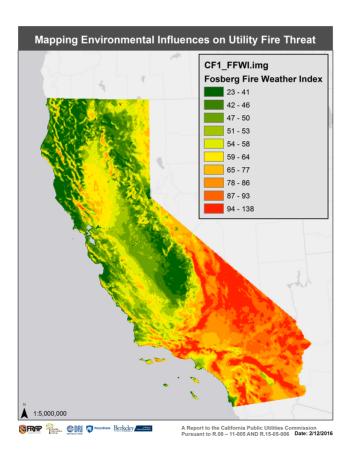
Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

A: Usually, but it depends.



- Usually it will be easier to represent objects with vector data and fields with raster data, but ultimately this depends on what analysis you want to run
- Luckily, R makes it easy to switch back and forth (but we need to be careful and intentional when transforming!)

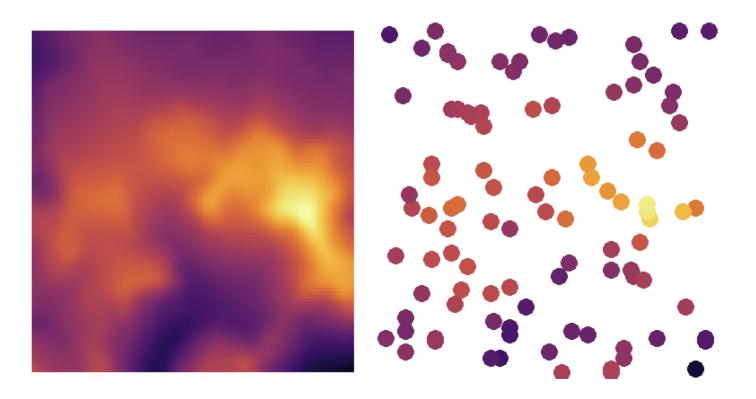
In environmental data science, we are **often interested in modeling fields**



But we are doing statistics!

But we are doing statistics!

That means we only have data from a *sample*, not a census of the *population*



 Samples taken from a continuous spatial field often raise the need for spatial interpolation

 Samples taken from a continuous spatial field often raise the need for spatial interpolation

Definition:

Spatial interpolation is the process of using a **sample** of observed points to estimate values for **all locations** in a study region

 Samples taken from a continuous spatial field often raise the need for spatial interpolation

Definition:

Spatial interpolation is the process of using a **sample** of observed points to estimate values for **all locations** in a study region

For example:

- Predicting "gold grades" across South Africa using a few borehole samples (the problem of Daniel *Krige*!)
- Predicting depth to groundwater across California using monitoring wells
- Predicting air pollution across China using monitoring stations

ullet Let $Z(x_0)$ indicate the value (e.g., elevation) at a location x_0 that was not sampled

- Let $Z(x_0)$ indicate the value (e.g., elevation) at a location x_0 that was not sampled
- Let $Z(x_i)$ for $i=1,\ldots m$ indicate the values for locations $i=1,\ldots,m$ that were sampled

- Let $Z(x_0)$ indicate the value (e.g., elevation) at a location x_0 that was not sampled
- Let $Z(x_i)$ for $i=1,\ldots m$ indicate the values for locations $i=1,\ldots,m$ that were sampled

Spatial interpolation aims to predict $Z(x_0)$ using a linear combination of the values in the sampled locations:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i Z(x_i)$$

where λ_i are weights applied to each sampled location.

- Let $Z(x_0)$ indicate the value (e.g., elevation) at a location x_0 that was not sampled
- Let $Z(x_i)$ for $i=1,\ldots m$ indicate the values for locations $i=1,\ldots,m$ that were sampled

Spatial interpolation aims to predict $Z(x_0)$ using a linear combination of the values in the sampled locations:

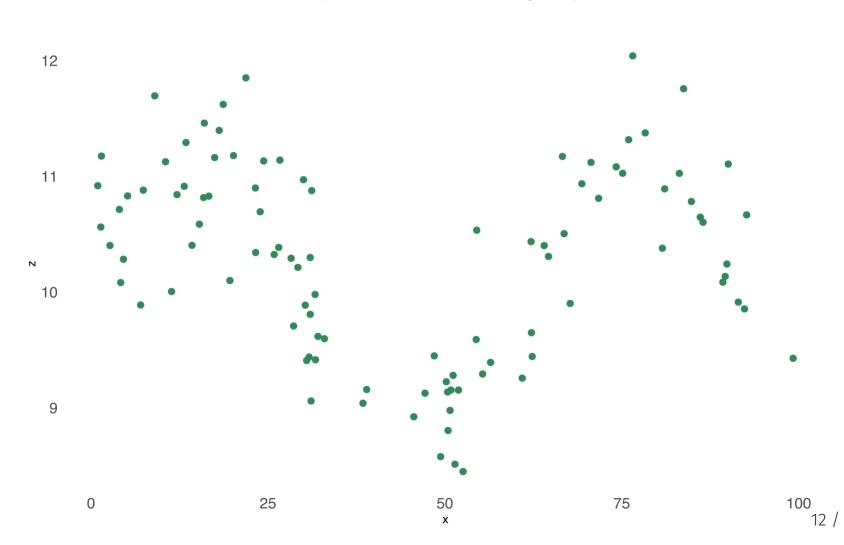
$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i Z(x_i)$$

where λ_i are weights applied to each sampled location.

• All spatial interpolation methods assume or derive a set of λ 's to compute \hat{Z} 's

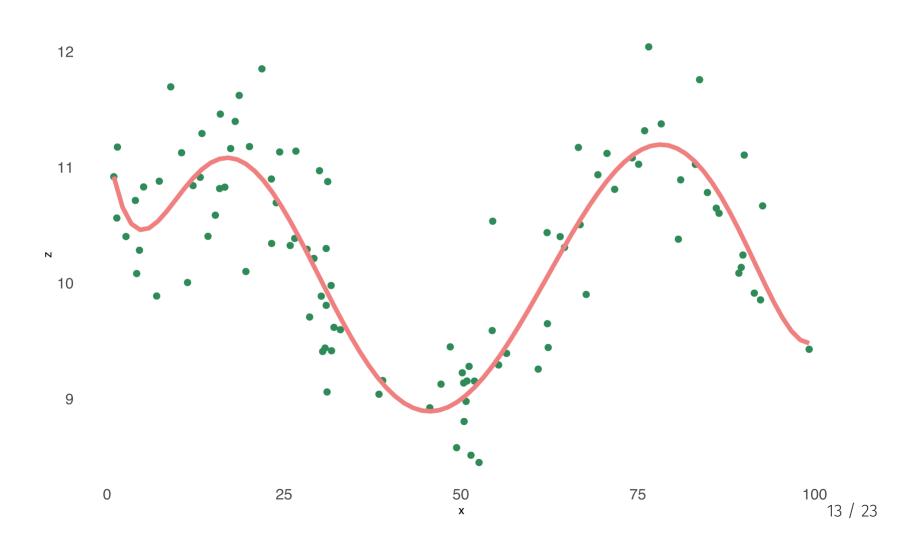
Interpolation in one dimension

Consider one-dimensional space where values $oldsymbol{y}$ depend on location $oldsymbol{x}$



Interpolation in one dimension

Consider one-dimensional space where values z depend on location x



Interpolation in two dimensions

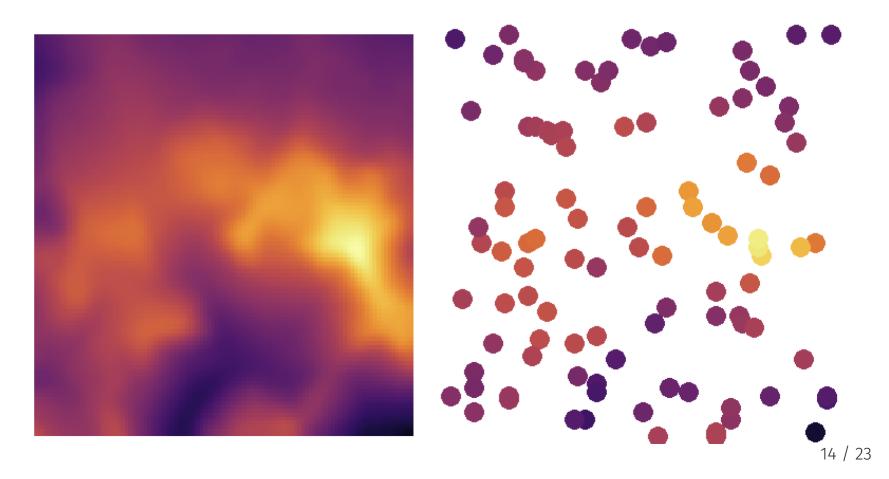
Often we have data for an outcome z observed in 2-D space: z(x,y)

[Draw it!]

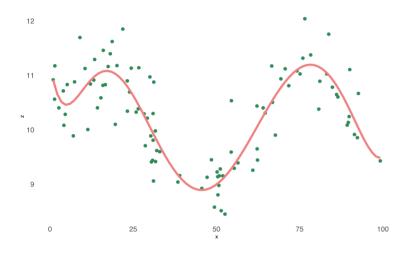
Interpolation in two dimensions

Often we have data for an outcome z observed in 2-D space: z(x,y)

[Draw it!]



Polynomial regression



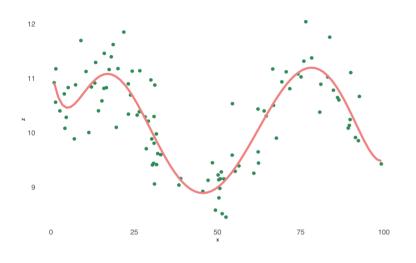
• In one-dimensional space:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 x_0^2 {+} \ldots {+} \hat{eta}^p x_0^p$$

• In two-dimensional space with (x_0,y_0) the unknown value:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0$$

Polynomial regression



• In one-dimensional space:

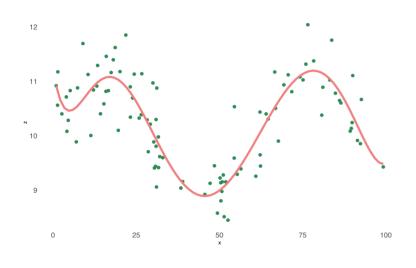
$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 x_0^2 + \ldots + \hat{eta}^p x_0^p$$

• In two-dimensional space with (x_0,y_0) the unknown value:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0$$

- Pros: Easy, analytical expression, continuous & differentiable surface
- **Cons:** Errors can be large, *inexact*

Polynomial regression



• In one-dimensional space:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 x_0^2 + \ldots + \hat{eta}^p x_0^p$$

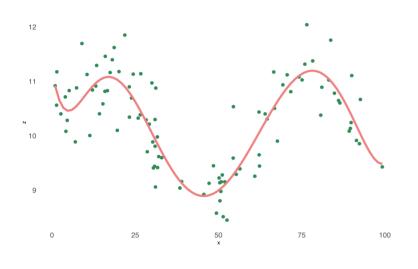
• In two-dimensional space with (x_0,y_0) the unknown value:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0$$

- Pros: Easy, analytical expression, continuous & differentiable surface
- **Cons:** Errors can be large, *inexact*

Exact: Predicts a value identical to the measured value.

Polynomial regression



• In one-dimensional space:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 x_0^2 + \ldots + \hat{eta}^p x_0^p$$

• In two-dimensional space with (x_0,y_0) the unknown value:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0$$

• Pros: Easy, analytical expression, continuous & differentiable surface

• Cons: Errors can be large, inexact

Exact: Predicts a value identical to the measured value.

Inexact: Does *not* predict a value identical to the measured value.

Polynomial regression interpolation

This is just **multiple linear regression** using spatial information as the independent variable

```
mod = lm(z~poly(x,8))
predictions = augment(mod)$.fitted
```

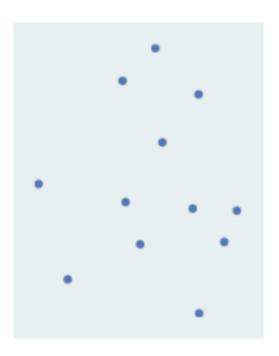
Nearest Neighbors (NN)

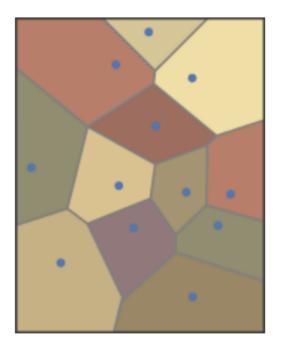
Nearest Neighbors (NN)

• Simple: Assign value of nearest observation in space

Nearest Neighbors (NN)

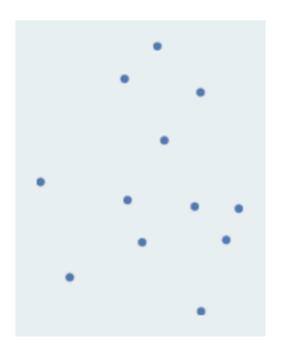
• Simple: Assign value of nearest observation in space

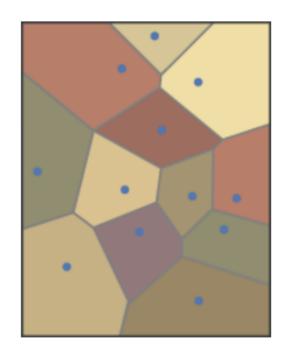




Nearest Neighbors (NN)

• Simple: Assign value of nearest observation in space





 Creates what are called "Theissen Polygons", which allocate space to the nearest sampled point

 \mathbb{Q} : What would the weight vector λ look like for NN interpolation?

- \mathbb{Q} : What would the weight vector λ look like for NN interpolation?
- Q: What type of function does NN interpolation produce for 1-D space? [draw it!]

- \mathbb{Q} : What would the weight vector λ look like for NN interpolation?
- Q: What type of function does NN interpolation produce for 1-D space? [draw it!]
 - **Pros:** Easy, intuitive, field may actually be discontinuous, exact
 - Cons: Discontinuous, error-prone if field is smooth

- \mathbb{Q} : What would the weight vector λ look like for NN interpolation?
- Q: What type of function does NN interpolation produce for 1-D space? [draw it!]
 - **Pros:** Easy, intuitive, field may actually be discontinuous, exact
 - Cons: Discontinuous, error-prone if field is smooth

Implementation in R

• Easy with the voroni() function from the dismo package:

```
library(dismo)
v ← voronoi(dta)
plot(v)
```

- \mathbb{Q} : What would the weight vector λ look like for NN interpolation?
- Q: What type of function does NN interpolation produce for 1-D space? [draw it!]
 - **Pros:** Easy, intuitive, field may actually be discontinuous, exact
 - Cons: Discontinuous, error-prone if field is smooth

Implementation in R

• Easy with the voroni() function from the dismo package:

```
library(dismo)
v ← voronoi(dta)
plot(v)
```

Helpful tutorial here

Inverse distance weighting

Basic idea: weights are a decreasing function of distance from x_0 to x_i

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \sum_{i=1}^m rac{Z(x_i) Dist(x_i, x_0)^{-p}}{\sum_{i=1}^m Dist(x_i, x_0)^{-p}}$$

Equivalently:

$$\lambda_i^{IDW} = rac{1/Dist(x_i,x_0)^p}{\sum_{i=1}^m 1/Dist(x_i,x_0)^p}$$

where p is the "power parameter" determining how fast the weight declines as the distance between the points grows larger

Inverse distance weighting

- **Pros:** Smooth, exact
- **Cons:** Difficult/computationally intensive (you need to compute distances for *all* pairs of points in the region!), all sampled observations influence $\hat{Z}(x_0)$, have to choose p somehow

Inverse distance weighting

- **Pros:** Smooth, exact
- **Cons:** Difficult/computationally intensive (you need to compute distances for *all* pairs of points in the region!), all sampled observations influence $\hat{Z}(x_0)$, have to choose p somehow

Implementation in R

```
library(phylin)
idw(values, coords, grid, method = "Shepard", p = 2, R = 2, N = 15,
    distFUN = geo.dist, ...)
```

- Note the method argument: "Shepard" follows the math on the previous slide
- Note the p argument: Need to specify power parameter

There are many more!

- Piecewise linear interpolation / Delany triangulation
- Local polynomial regression
- Radial basis function (RBF)
- Kriging (of many forms)
- Many new machine-learning based methods
- Learn more in Li and Heap (2014)

Enter: Kriging

Kriging is the most widely used form of spatial interpolation in spatial statistics.

Enter: Kriging

Kriging is the most widely used form of spatial interpolation in spatial statistics.

Why?

- It is *flexible* (i.e., less researcher decisions, more data-driven)
- Under certain assumptions it is the "best linear unbiased estimate" (sound like OLS yet??)
- You can recover an estimate and a standard error (i.e., it is stochastic)

Enter: Kriging

Kriging is the most widely used form of spatial interpolation in spatial statistics.

Why?

- It is *flexible* (i.e., less researcher decisions, more data-driven)
- Under certain assumptions it is the "best linear unbiased estimate" (sound like OLS yet??)
- You can recover an estimate and a standard error (i.e., it is stochastic)

We will study **kriging** and its implementation in R in the next lecture and lab

Slides created via the R package **xaringan**.