Geography 4203 / 5203

GIS Modeling

Class (Block) 9: Variogram & Kriging

Some Updates

- Today class + one proposal presentation
- Feb 22 Proposal Presentations
- Feb 25 Readings discussion (Interpolation)

Last Lecture

- You have seen the first part of spatial estimation which was about interpolation techniques
- You hopefully obtained an idea of what the basic idea of interpolation is and when and why me are supposed to make use of it
- You had some insights into the concepts of different techniques such as NN, pycnophylactiv I., IDW, Splines,...
- You hopefully understood the mathematical foundation of these approaches to better understand what you are doing in the lab

Today's Outline

- We will begin with Geostatistics which means we talk about Kriging
- It is important to understand the difference between Kriging and interpolation techniques we had so far
- We will talk about the conceptual basics, constraints and methods for Kriging without going too much into detail
- Here we need a deeper understanding of autocorrelation and regionalized variable theory as well as the incorporation of semivariogram models into estimations

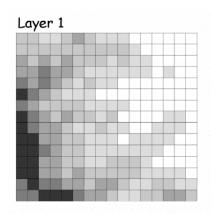
Learning Objectives

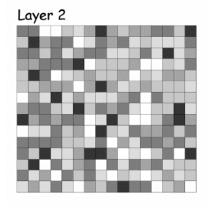
- You will understand how Kriging works and why it is called an optimized local interpolator
- You will better understand terms like autocorrelation, semivariance, covariance
- You will understand the mathematical foundation of Kriging and how we make use of spatial autocorrelation and semivariance to estimate weights for estimating

Back to How to Improve Spatial Estimation...

- Remember how we incorporated autocorrelation into interpolation so far
- "Implicitly" we just assumed the data show spatial dependence, we knew this from data exploration
- Parameter settings e.g. in IDW are arbitrary (Radius?, # neighbors?, Weighting?) we get more knowledge through testing different combinations
- How to make theory-based choices and parametersettings?
- This is where Geostatistical methods come into the picture to help us with this decision-making process

 Predictions can be improved by incorporating the knowledge of autocorrelation (knowing the value at one location provides information of locations nearby)





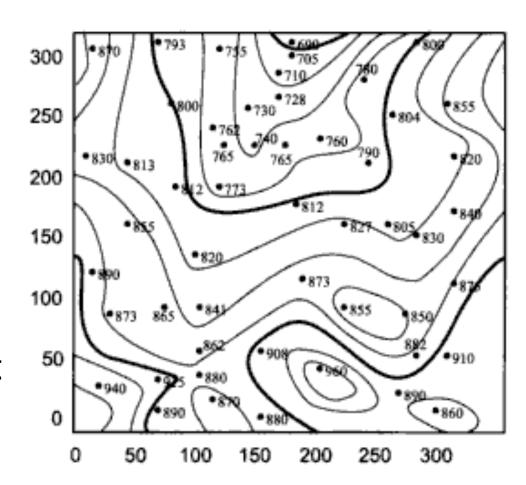
Geostatistics

- Too many definitions to go into detail
- Basically, it is about the analysis and inference of continuously-distributed variables (temperature, concentrations,...)
- Analysis: describing the spatial variability of the phenomenon under study
- Inference: Estimation of the values at unknown locations (unknown values)
- Overall we need techniques for statistical estimation of spatial phenomena and this is what Geostatistics provides...

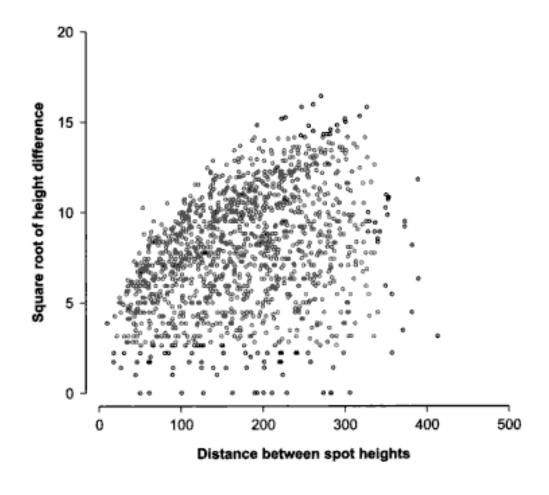
Tobler and his Message - how to...Theory-based

- According to Tobler we expect attribute values close together to be more similar than those more distant
- This expectation drives the idea of interpolation and Geostatistical methods
- A graphical representation of this is the variogram cloud
- Presentation of the square root of the difference between attribute pairs against the distance between them

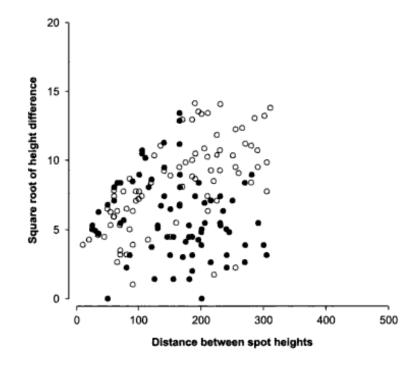
- Let's look at one example from O'Sullivan and Unwin (2003)
- Might be we understand more about spatial autocorrelation and how to catch it
- Do we have a trend in here?



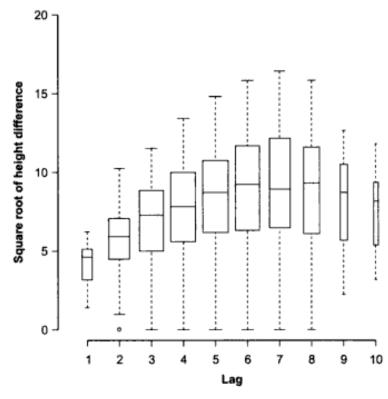
- Can you see a trend?
- If so what does it mean?
- Remember the visual trend in the surface...



- This is the representation of N-S (open circles) and E-W (filled circles) directions
- Which one shows a clearer trend and why?
- How do we call this effect?
- Why are there so few sample points now?



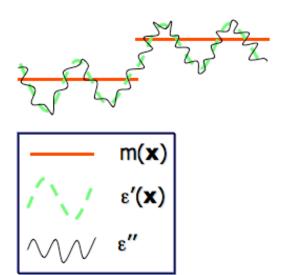
- For only few points we have lots of pairs to be represented and a variogram or semivariogram becomes hard to be interpreted
- How to summarize the variogram cloud?
- One way is to use box-plots showing means, medians, quartiles and extremes for individual lags



Regionalized Variable Theory (RVT)

- By putting together the last slides you can understand what RVT means
- The value of a variable in space (at location x) can be expressed by summing together three components:
 - A **structural component** (e.g., a spatial trend or just the mean, **m(x)**)
 - Random, spatially autocorrelated ("regionalized") variable (local spatial autocorrelation = ε'(x))
 - Random "noise" (stochastic variation, not dependent on location = ϵ ")

$$Z(x) = m(x) + \varepsilon'(x) + \varepsilon''$$



Regionalized Variable Theory (RVT)

- Combination of these three components in a mathematical model to develop an estimation function (function is applied to measured data to estimate values across area)
- **m(x)** is our trend (global trend surface)
- ε" is the random component that has nothing to do with location
- ε'(x) is our regionalized component and describes the local variation of the variable in space
- This latter relationship can be represented by a dispersion measure...

Experimental Semivariance

• ... here we call it the **experimental semivariance** for lag h:

$$\hat{\gamma}(\vec{h}) = \frac{1}{2N(\vec{h})} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N(h)} \left[z(u_{\alpha}) - z(u_{\alpha} + \vec{h}) \right]^2$$

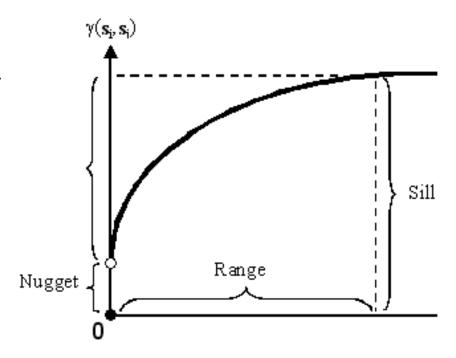
- N(h) is the number of pairs separated by lag h (+/- lag tolerance)
- h lag width or the distance between pairs of points
- z is the value of a point at u or u+h
- Remember what we did with the variogram cloud by "binning" the amount of data points

The Experimental Semiviogram

Nugget: Initial semivariance when autocorrelation is highest (intercept); or just the uncertainty where distance is close to 0 (ϵ ")

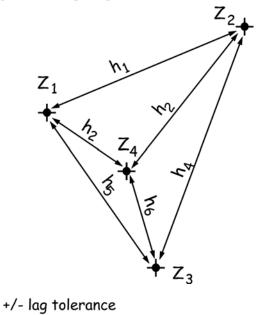
Sill: Point where the curve levels off (inherent variation where there is little autocorrelation)

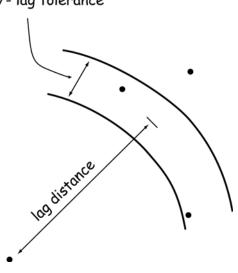
Range: Lag distance where the sill is reached (over which differences are spatially dependent)



Lag and Lag Tolerance

- This has to do with "binning"
- Lag distance is the direct (planar) distance between points a and b
- Tolerances used to define sets of values that are "similar" distances apart (distances rarely repeat in reality)





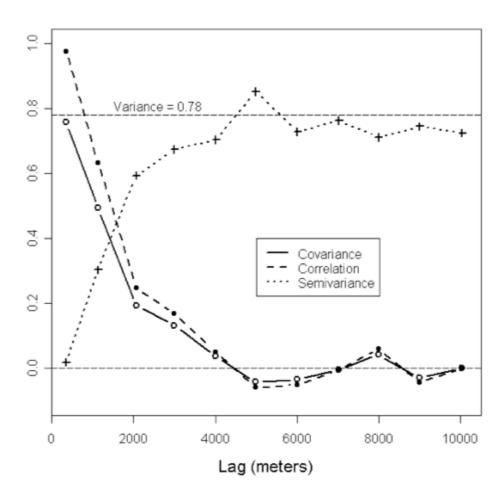
Semivariance, Covariance and Correlation

Spread vs. Similarity

Covariance:
$$C(\mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{N(\mathbf{h})} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N(\mathbf{h})} z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha}) \cdot z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha} + \mathbf{h}) - m_0 \cdot m_{+\mathbf{h}}$$

Correlation:
$$\rho(\mathbf{h}) = \frac{C(\mathbf{h})}{\sqrt{\sigma_0 \cdot \sigma_{+\mathbf{h}}}}$$

Semivariance:
$$\gamma(\mathbf{h}) = \frac{1}{2N(\mathbf{h})} \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N(\mathbf{h})} [z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha} + \mathbf{h}) - z(\mathbf{u}_{\alpha})]^2$$



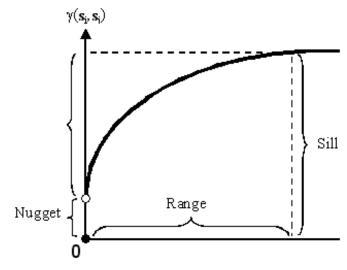
from Bohling (2005)

Semivariogram Model

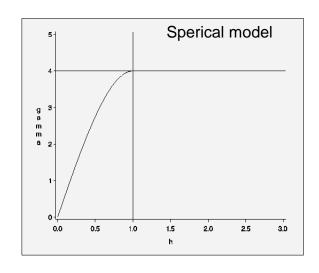
- The empirical semivariogram allows us to derive a semivariogram model to represent semivariance as a function of separation distance
- Thus we can infer the characteristics of the underlying process using the model
- Compute the semivariance between points
- Interpolate between sample points using an optimal interpolator ("kriging")

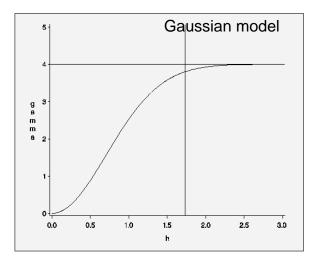
Constraints for a Semivariogram Model

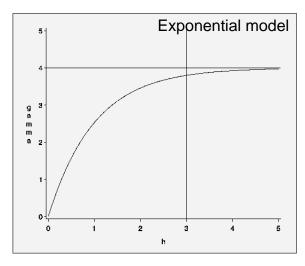
- Monotonically increasing
- Asymptotic max (sill)
- Non-negative intercept (nugget)
- Anisotropy



Semivariogram Models







$$\gamma_z(h) = \begin{cases} c_0 \left[\frac{3}{2} \frac{h}{a_0} - \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{h}{a_0} \right)^3 \right], & \text{for } h \leq a_0 \\ c_0, & \text{for } h > a_0 \end{cases} \quad \gamma_z(h) = c_0 \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h^2}{a_0^2} \right) \right] \quad \gamma_z(h) = c_0 \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{h}{a_0} \right) \right]$$

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a - range

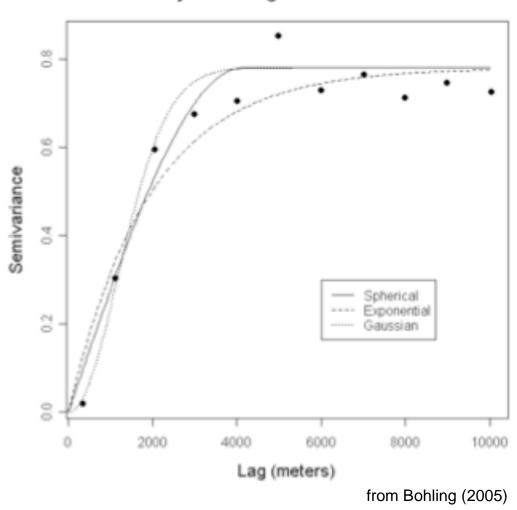
c - (nugget + sill)

...however fitting the semivariogram is complex

What can you think of would happen if there is a trend in the data?

Where is the Best Fit?

Porosity Semivariogram with Three Models



Why is Anisotropy Important

- So far an isotropic structure of spatial correlation has been assumed
- The semivariogram depends on the lag distance not on direction (omnidirectional semivariogram)
- In reality we often have differences in different directions and need an anisotropic semivariogram
- One model is geometric anisotropy (same sill in all direction but within different ranges)

Geometric Anisotropy

- Find ranges in three orthogonal principal directions and create a three-dimensional lag vector h = (hx,hy,hz)
- Transform this 3D vector into an equivalent **isotropic** lag: $h = \sqrt{(h_x/a_x)^2 + (h_y/a_y)^2 + (h_z/a_z)^2}$

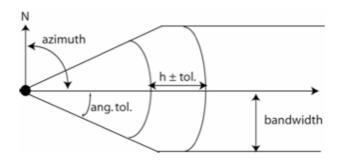
azimuth

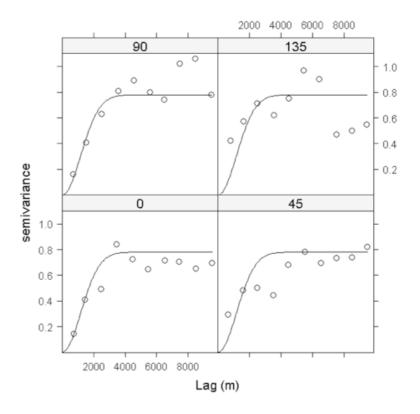
h ± tol.

 Semivariance values computed for pairs that fall within directional bands and prescribed lag limits (searching for directional dependence)

Geometric Anisotropy

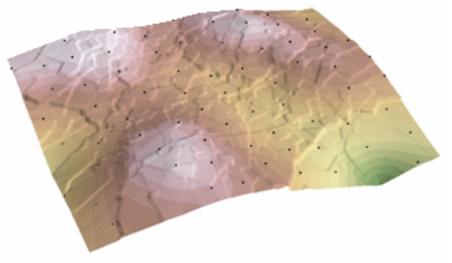
- These directional bands are defined by azimuthal direction, angular tolerance and bandwidth
- You did this already in the lab and hopefully knew what you were doing...





Kriging

- Statistically-based "optimal" estimator of spatial variables
- Predictions based on regionalized variable theory - you know this now!
- Kriging first used by Matheron (1963) in honour of D.G. Krige - a south African mining engineer who laid the groundwork for "geostatistics"



Kriging Principles

- Similar to IDW, weights are used with measured variables to estimate values at unknown locations (a weighted average)
- Weights are given in a statistically optimal fashion (given a specific model, assumptions about the trend, autocorrelation and stochastic variation in the predicted variable)
- In other words: We use the semivariance model to formulate the weights

Ordinary Kriging

- For a basic understanding we look at Ordinary Kriging
- Weighting of data points according to distance
- Estimated values z are the sum of a regional mean m(x) and a spatially correlated random component ε'(x)
- (m(x) is implicit in the system)
- Assumptions:

no trend isotropy

variogram can be defined with math model same semivariogram applies for the whole study area (variation is a function of distance, not location + constant mean - stationarity of the spatial process)

Ordinary Kriging

- You see it looks similar to IDW
- But: Weight computation is much more complex based on the inverted variogram
- Weights reach the value zero when we reach the range a
- Ordinary: no trend, regional mean is estimated from sample



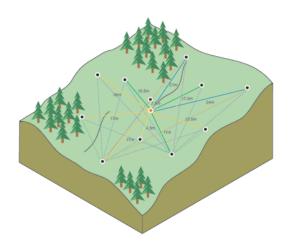
where:

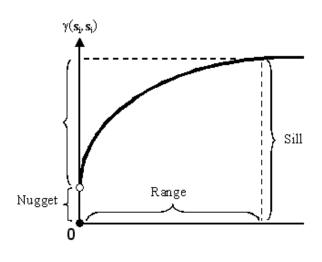
 $Z(s_i)$ = the measured value at the ith location.

 λ_i = an unknown weight for the measured value at the ith location.

 s_0 = the prediction location.

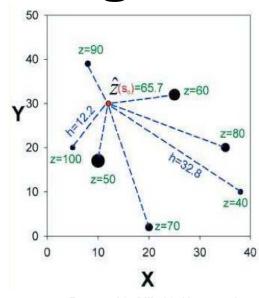
N = the number of measured values.



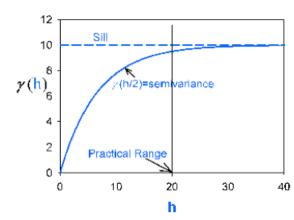


How Semivariance Determines Kriging Weights

- Weighted average of the observed attribute values
- Weights are a function of the variogram model & sum to 1 (they should to be unbiased!)
- You see the sizes of the points proportional to their weights they get
- Points with distances > range will have a weight of zero, WHY?

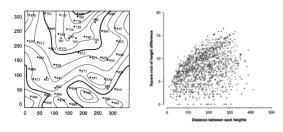


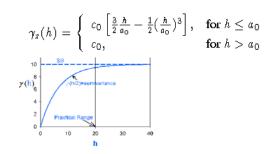
Range=20, Sill=10, Nugget=0

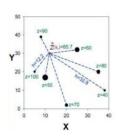


Typical Working Steps

- Describing the data / identifying spatial autocorrelation and trends (experimental semivariogram)
- Building the semivariogram model by using the mathematical function
- Using the semivariogram model for defining the weights
- Evaluate interpolated surfaces









A First Summary

- Kriging is complex
- Here you obtained a first overview of the principles of this technique
- Weights are derived from the semivariogram model to intelligently infere unmeasured values
- You have seen the underlying rules of the semivariogram and hopefully understood why autocorrelation, directional trends and stationarity are important
- You also understood the difference to other local interpolators, don't you?