Spatial interpolation and kriging

EDS 222

Tamma Carleton Fall 2021

Announcements/check-in

• Change in office hours today 1:30pm-2:30pm (by appointment) in Bren Hall 4327

Announcements/check-in

- **Change in office hours** today 1:30pm-2:30pm (by appointment) in Bren Hall 4327
- Remote class 11/23 (recorded), no class 11/25

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Vectors/objects, rasters/fields

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Vectors/objects, rasters/fields

A common challenge: spatial interpolation

Sample vs. population, points to fields

Today

Refresher: types of spatial data

Vectors/objects, rasters/fields

A common challenge: spatial interpolation

Sample vs. population, points to fields

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 / 46

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.

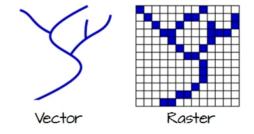
• **Field View**: Every location within the study region (and world) has a measurable value.

Examples: Elevation. Temperature. Wind direction.

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

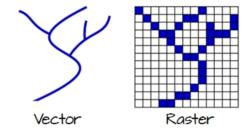
Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

A: Usually, but it depends.



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

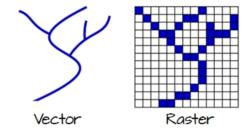
A: Usually, but it depends.



 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

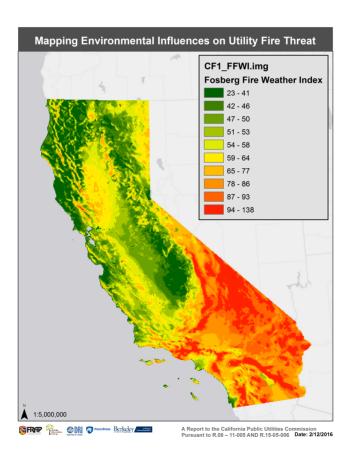
Q: Is there a *best* data type to represent objects or fields?

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!)

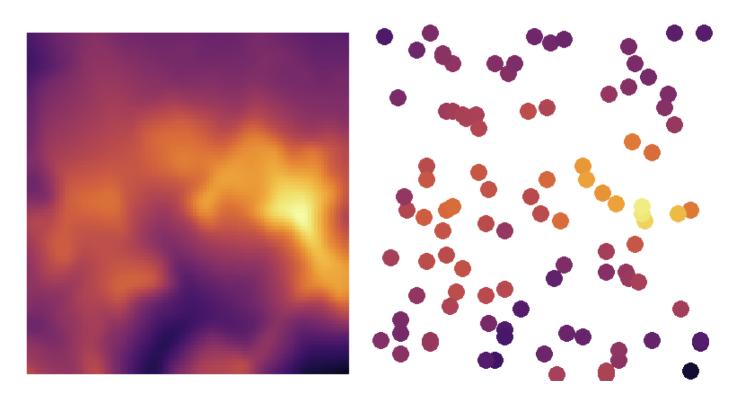
In environmental data science, we are **often interested in modeling fields**



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
- ??

• 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

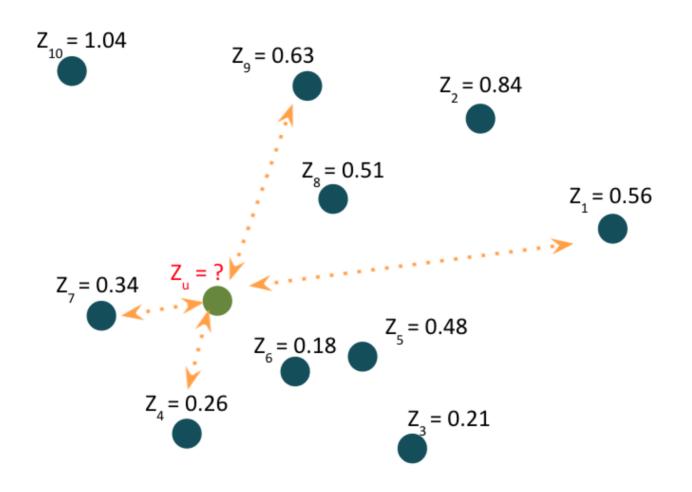
Spatial interpolation aims to predict $Z(x_0)$ using a linear combination of the values in the sampled locations:

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

where λ_i are weights applied to each sampled location.

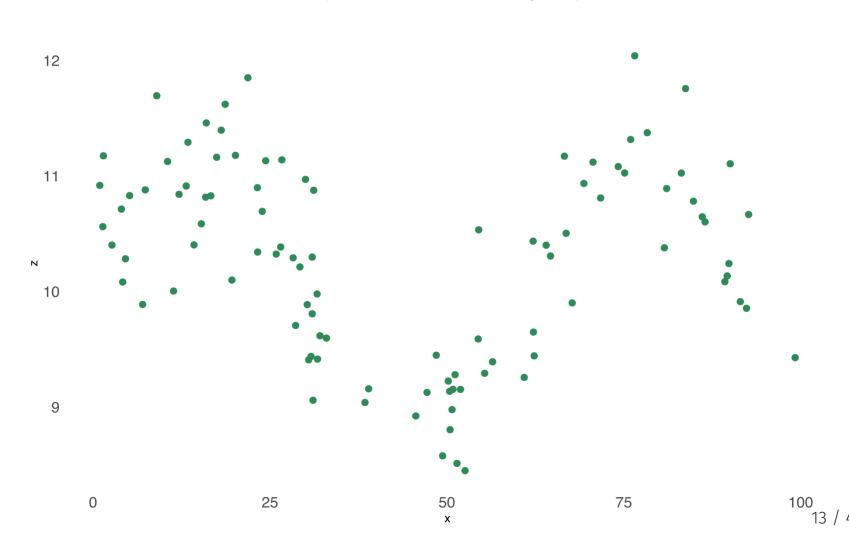
• All spatial interpolation methods assume or derive a set of λ 's to compute \hat{Z} 's

Interpolation in pictures



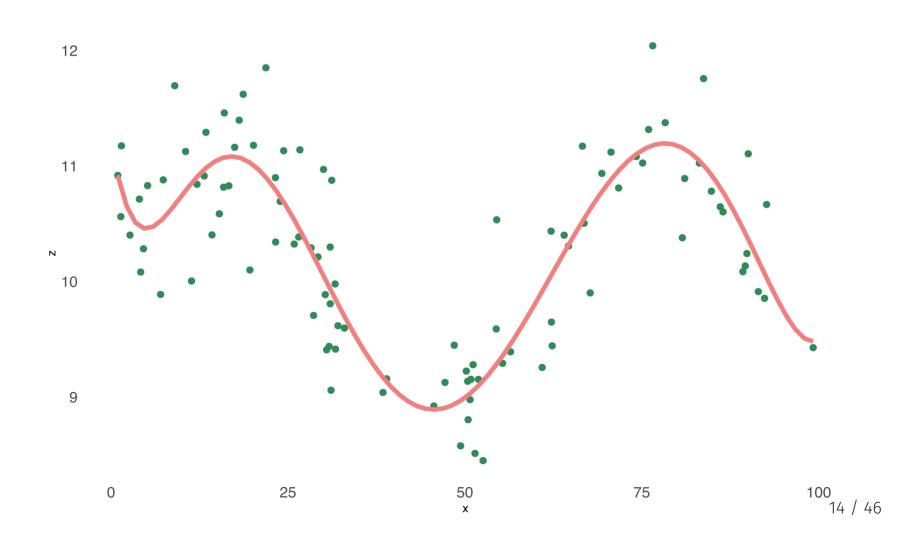
Interpolation in one dimension

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

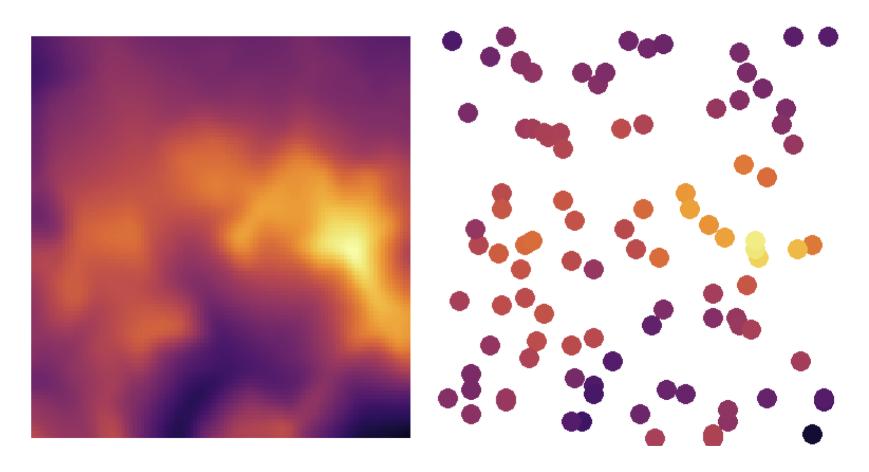


Interpolation in two dimensions

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

Interpolation in two dimensions

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



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 location:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0 + \hat{eta}_4 x_0^2 + \hat{eta}_5 y_0^2 + \dots$$

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 location:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0 + \hat{eta}_4 x_0^2 + \hat{eta}_5 y_0^2 + \dots$$

- 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 location:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0 + \hat{eta}_4 x_0^2 + \hat{eta}_5 y_0^2 + \dots$$

- 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 location:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0,y_0) = \hat{eta}_0 + \hat{eta}_1 x_0 + \hat{eta}_2 y_0 + \hat{eta}_3 x_0 y_0 + \hat{eta}_4 x_0^2 + \hat{eta}_5 y_0^2 + \dots$$

• 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 variables

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

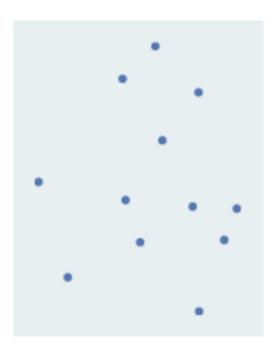
Nearest Neighbors (NN)

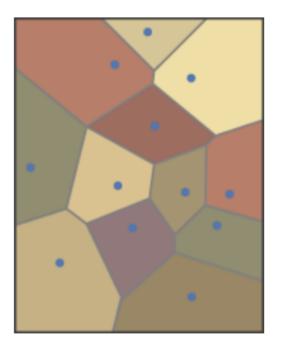
Nearest Neighbors (NN)

• Simple: Assign value of nearest observation in space

Nearest Neighbors (NN)

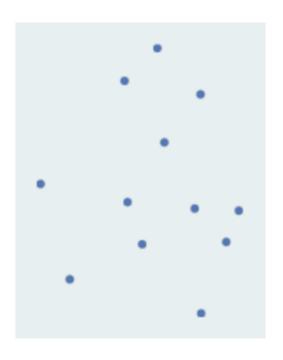
• Simple: Assign value of nearest observation in space

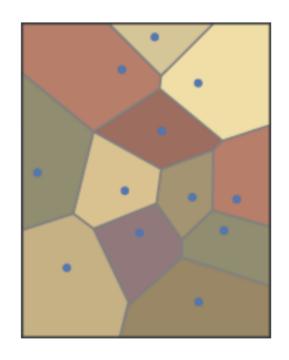




Nearest Neighbors (NN)

• 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 voronoi() 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 voronoi() 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

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:

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

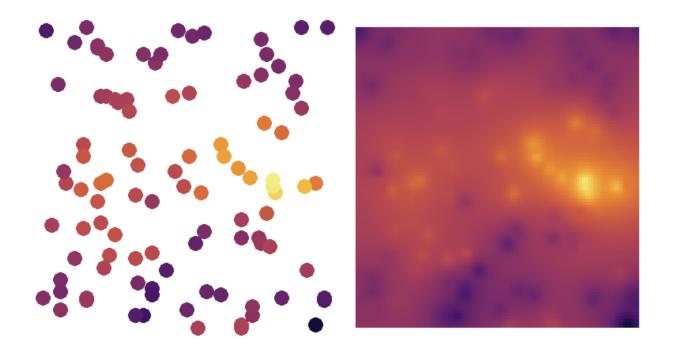
where p is the "power parameter" determining how fast the weight declines as the distance between the points grows larger

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, result can be "clumpy"

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, result can be "clumpy"



Inverse distance weighting

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.

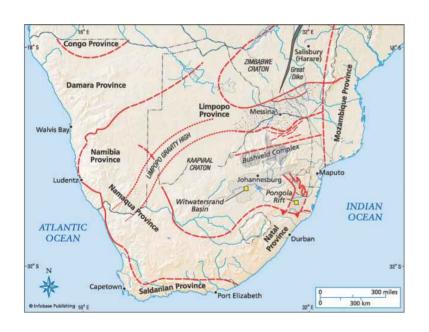
Why?

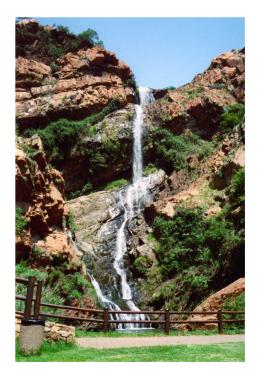
- It is *flexible* (i.e., less researcher decisions, more data-driven)
- Under certain assumptions it is the "best linear unbiased estimate" (sound like OLS yet??)
- You can recover an estimate and a standard error (i.e., it is stochastic)

Next up: Kriging details!

Kriging

The Witwatersrand ("Rand") in South Africa is known for its gold content. Mining engineers wanted to know where in the Rand was most likely to have a high gold content per block of ore.





- Many individual ore samples have been taken (vector data -- points)
- Underlying data is the content of the rock (raster data -- field)

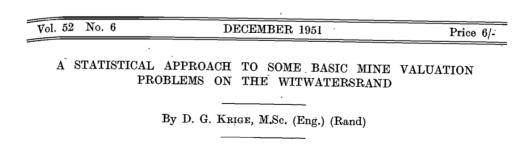
- Many individual ore samples have been taken (vector data -- points)
- Underlying data is the content of the rock (raster data -- field)

Spatial interpolation is highly valuable!

- Many individual ore samples have been taken (vector data -- points)
- Underlying data is the content of the rock (raster data -- field)

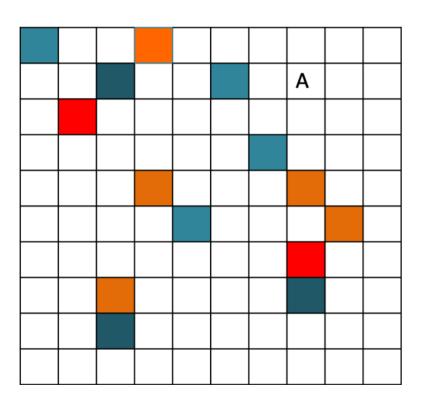
Spatial interpolation is highly valuable!

- Danie Krige's solution: [in his master's thesis!]
 - Use an estimator that minimizes the mean squared prediction error (very similar to OLS)
 - Show that it has a bunch of nice properties relative to other forms of spatial interpolation



Correlations in space

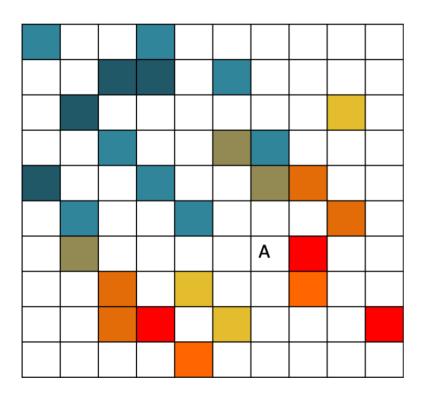
Q: If there is **no correlation** between values in nearby locations, can we predict new values based on our sample?



- Blue = low gold content; Red = high gold content
- **Zero** correlation between values in nearby locations
- Can you predict the gold content in location A based on this sample?

Correlations in space

Q: If there is **no correlation** between values in nearby locations, can we predict new values based on our sample?



- Blue = low gold content; Red = high gold content
- **Positive** correlation between values in nearby locations
- Now can you predict the gold content in location A based on this sample?
- Why?

Key takeaway: quantifying spatial dependence is key to spatial interpolation

Key takeaway: quantifying spatial dependence is key to spatial interpolation

A **variogram** describes spatial dependence:

Key takeaway: quantifying spatial dependence is key to spatial interpolation

A **variogram** describes spatial dependence:

A **variogram** shows the variance of values within groups of observations as a function of the *distance* between them

Key takeaway: quantifying spatial dependence is key to spatial interpolation

A **variogram** describes spatial dependence:

A **variogram** shows the variance of values within groups of observations as a function of the *distance* between them

Key concept: Variograms give us a way of understanding how correlated spatial observations are to those around them, and how that correlation "decays" as points get further apart

Key takeaway: quantifying spatial dependence is key to spatial interpolation

A **variogram** describes spatial dependence:

A **variogram** shows the variance of values within groups of observations as a function of the *distance* between them

Key concept: Variograms give us a way of understanding how correlated spatial observations are to those around them, and how that correlation "decays" as points get further apart

Mining example: Variogram gives a measure of how much two samples taken from the mining area will vary in gold percentage depending on the distance between the samples. Samples farther apart will vary more than those taken close together.

Let Z(x) be the value at location x, and Z(x+h) be the value at a location h units away from x.

Let Z(x) be the value at location x, and Z(x+h) be the value at a location h units away from x.

Variogram:

$$2\gamma(x+h,x) = var(Z(x+h)-Z(x))$$

Let Z(x) be the value at location x, and Z(x+h) be the value at a location h units away from x.

Variogram:

$$2\gamma(x+h,x) = var(Z(x+h)-Z(x))$$

We often discuss the **semi-variogram**, which is:

$$\gamma(x+h,x)=rac{1}{2}var(Z(x+h)-Z(x))$$

Let Z(x) be the value at location x, and Z(x+h) be the value at a location h units away from x.

Variogram:

$$2\gamma(x+h,x) = var(Z(x+h)-Z(x))$$

We often discuss the **semi-variogram**, which is:

$$\gamma(x+h,x)=rac{1}{2}var(Z(x+h)-Z(x))$$

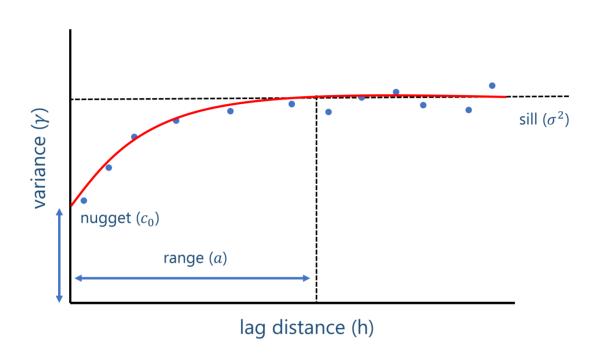
Why? Recall:

$$var(a-b) = var(a) + var(b) - 2cov(a,b)$$

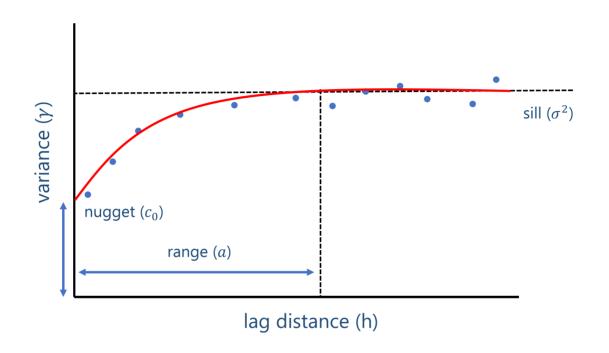
So, for a "stationary" variogram, we have

$$\gamma(x+h,x) = var(Z(x)) - cov(Z(x),Z(x+h))$$

Variogram: in pictures



Variogram: in pictures



- **Nugget:** At h=0, residual variance is from microscale effects or measurement error
- Sill: The stationary maximum variance -- no more covariance
- Range: Separation distance beyond which there is no covariance

Estimating a (semi)variogram

Empirical semivariogram

$$\hat{\gamma}(h\pm\delta) = rac{1}{2N(h\pm\delta)} \sum_{(i,j)\in N(h\pm\delta)} \left|z_i-z_j
ight|^2.$$

Estimating a (semi)variogram

Empirical semivariogram

$$\hat{\gamma}(h\pm\delta) = rac{1}{2N(h\pm\delta)} \sum_{(i,j)\in N(h\pm\delta)} \left|z_i-z_j
ight|^2$$

Why?

• You probably don't have many samples exactly h units apart

Estimating a (semi)variogram

Empirical semivariogram

$$\hat{\gamma}(h\pm\delta) = rac{1}{2N(h\pm\delta)} \sum_{(i,j)\in N(h\pm\delta)} \left|z_i-z_j
ight|^2.$$

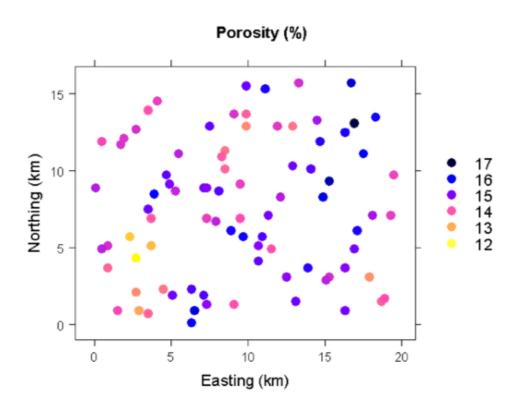
Why?

• You probably don't have many samples exactly h units apart

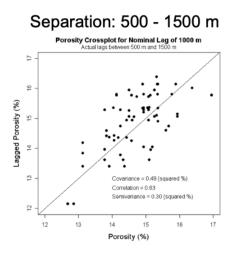
How?

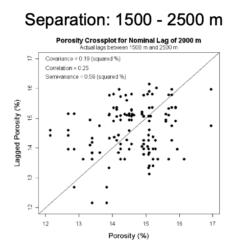
- ullet Draw "donuts" of width δ and average distance h around each point
- Compute differences in values for each pair of points, square them
- Take an average!

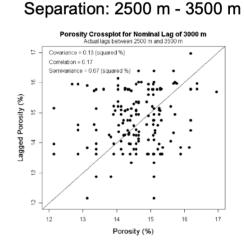
- Bohling's Introduction to Geostatistics and Variogram Analysis
- Porosity values in a bean field
- 85 wells sampled



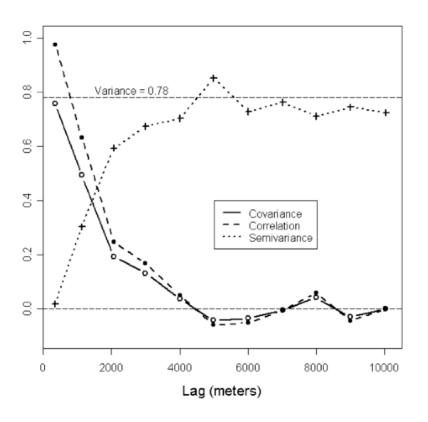
For various values of h and a fixed δ , compute semivariance:







Plot your semivariances:



Then choose (or optimize) a **variogram model** to fit through the semivariance points:

- Exponential
- Spherical
- Gaussian
- ..

Then choose (or optimize) a **variogram model** to fit through the semivariance points:

- Exponential
- Spherical
- Gaussian
- ...

Many more details on variograms here or in any geostatistics textbook (e.g., Cressie and Wikle, 2011)

Back to kriging

Recall that our goal is a prediction of a value $\hat{Z}(x_0)$ based on observations in all sampled locations:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \sum_i^m \lambda_i Z(x_i)$$

Back to kriging

Recall that our goal is a prediction of a value $\hat{Z}(x_0)$ based on observations in all sampled locations:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \sum_i^m \lambda_i Z(x_i)$$

In **kriging** (and many spatial interpolation methods), the λ_i weights **decay** as distance between x_0 and x_i grows larger

--

How do we find the weights in kriging?

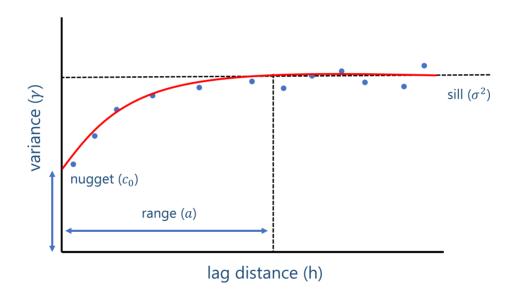
Kriging weights

How do we find the weights in kriging?

Kriging weights

How do we find the weights in kriging?

Hint:



The **variogram** tells us how correlated values are with other values near them, and how this correlation falls as distance grows. It is a **key input** into the kriging solution.

39 / 46

Note: full derivation in Cressie and Wikle (2011) [this is a very shorthand version]

Goal: minimize mean squared prediction error

$$min_{\lambda} \ E[(Z(x_0) - \sum_i^m \lambda_i Z(x_i))^2] ext{ subject to } \sum_i^m \lambda_i = 1$$

Note: full derivation in Cressie and Wikle (2011) [this is a very shorthand version]

Goal: minimize mean squared prediction error

$$min_{\lambda} \ E[(Z(x_0) - \sum_i^m \lambda_i Z(x_i))^2] ext{ subject to } \sum_i^m \lambda_i = 1$$

To solve:

- 1. Take derivatives with respect to each λ_i
- 2. Set each first order condition = 0
- 3. Solve system of equations for λ_i^* values that minimize mean squared error

Result:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \underbrace{\{ ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0) + \mathbf{1}(1 - \mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1} ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0))/(\mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}\mathbf{1})\}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}}_{\hat{\lambda}}Z$$

- where $ilde{\gamma}(x_0)$ is the vector containing the semivariogram evaluated between x_0 and every other point, and
- Γ_Z is the m imes m matrix containing all semivariogram evaluations for all sampled point pairs.

Result:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \underbrace{\{ ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0) + \mathbf{1}(1-\mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1} ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0))/(\mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}\mathbf{1})\}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}}_{\hat{\lambda}}Z$$

- where $ilde{\gamma}(x_0)$ is the vector containing the semivariogram evaluated between x_0 and every other point, and
- Γ_Z is the m imes m matrix containing all semivariogram evaluations for all sampled point pairs.
- See Cressie and Wikle (2011) for similar derivation for $\sigma^2(x_0)$, an estimate of the prediction error

Result:

$$\hat{Z}(x_0) = \underbrace{\{ ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0) + \mathbf{1}(1 - \mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1} ilde{m{\gamma}}(x_0))/(\mathbf{1}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}\mathbf{1})\}'m{\Gamma}_Z^{-1}}_{\hat{\lambda}}Z$$

- where $ilde{\gamma}(x_0)$ is the vector containing the semivariogram evaluated between x_0 and every other point, and
- Γ_Z is the m imes m matrix containing all semivariogram evaluations for all sampled point pairs.
- See Cressie and Wikle (2011) for similar derivation for $\sigma^2(x_0)$, an estimate of the prediction error

Other helpful resources here

There are **three** main forms of kriging:

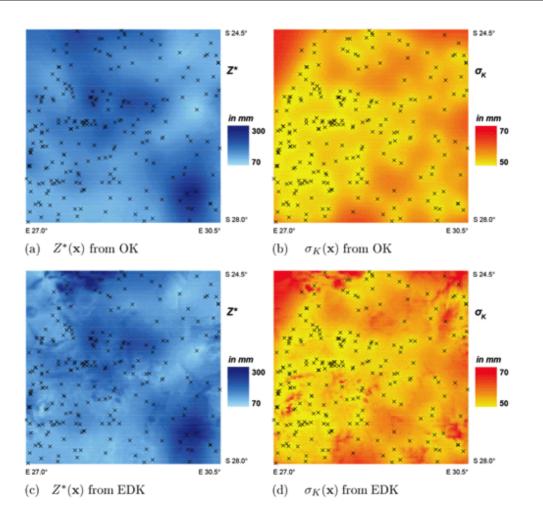
1. **Simple:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** and **known** [restrictive, not usually realistic]

- 1. **Simple:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** and **known** [restrictive, not usually realistic]
- 2. **Ordinary:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** but **unknown** [derivation shown above; most common]

- 1. **Simple:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** and **known** [restrictive, not usually realistic]
- 2. **Ordinary:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** but **unknown** [derivation shown above; most common]
- 3. **Universal:** The mean of the field varies over space and can be estimated using measured variables [requires knowledge of and reason for trend in mean]

- 1. **Simple:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** and **known** [restrictive, not usually realistic]
- 2. **Ordinary:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** but **unknown** [derivation shown above; most common]
- 3. **Universal:** The mean of the field varies over space and can be estimated using measured variables [requires knowledge of and reason for trend in mean]
- There are also other forms! E.g., quantile kriging, log-normal kriging, IRFk-kriging, etc.

- 1. **Simple:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** and **known** [restrictive, not usually realistic]
- 2. **Ordinary:** The mean of the entire field is **constant** but **unknown** [derivation shown above; most common]
- 3. **Universal:** The mean of the field varies over space and can be estimated using measured variables [requires knowledge of and reason for trend in mean]
- There are also other forms! E.g., quantile kriging, log-normal kriging, IRFk-kriging, etc.
- We will work on implementation in R in the next lab.



Source: Lebrenz and Bardossy (2019)

Kriging summary

Pros:

- Under each set of assumptions specific to the kriging form, kriging is the best linear unbiased predictor ("BLUP")
- Weights are determined almost entirely by the data, instead of a-priori assumptions
- Exact
- Provides a measure of precision: $\sigma^2(x_0)$

Kriging summary

Pros:

- Under each set of assumptions specific to the kriging form, kriging is the best linear unbiased predictor ("BLUP")
- Weights are determined almost entirely by the data, instead of a-priori assumptions
- Exact
- Provides a measure of precision: $\sigma^2(x_0)$

Cons:

- Nonlinear methods may perform better (e.g., ML methods)
- Variogram has to be approximated/estimated
- Complex/computationally intensive

All spatial interpolation approaches work best if:

• The observed data are relatively **dense and well distributed** throughout the region of interest

All spatial interpolation approaches work best if:

- The observed data are relatively **dense and well distributed** throughout the region of interest
- You have a lot of observations

All spatial interpolation approaches work best if:

- The observed data are relatively **dense and well distributed** throughout the region of interest
- You have a lot of observations

All spatial interpolation approaches should be used cautiously, especially if:

All spatial interpolation approaches work best if:

- The observed data are relatively **dense and well distributed** throughout the region of interest
- You have a lot of observations

All spatial interpolation approaches should be used cautiously, especially if:

• You have **highly clustered** data with a lot of open space between them

All spatial interpolation approaches work best if:

- The observed data are relatively **dense and well distributed** throughout the region of interest
- You have a lot of observations

All spatial interpolation approaches should be used cautiously, especially if:

- You have **highly clustered** data with a lot of open space between them
- You don't have very many observations

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