

# L8: Spatial statistics and interpolation

Longley et al., 2005, **Geographic Information Systems and Science:**

- ch. 4: The nature of geographic data
- ch. 14: Query, measurement and transformation

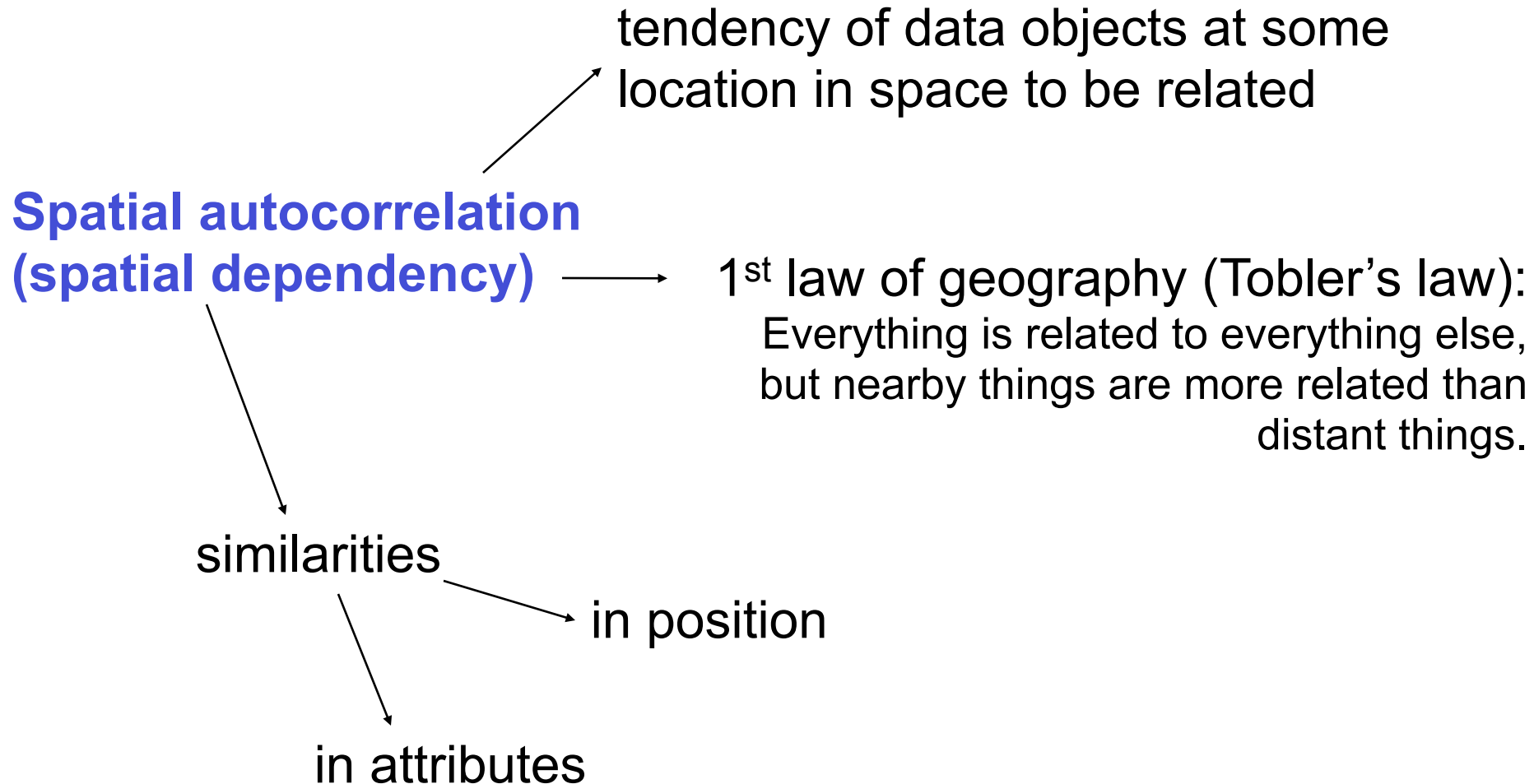
## Sampling of geographic data:

- spatial autocorrelation
- spatial heterogeneity
- sampling

## Interpolation

- why interpolation?
- Interpolation methods:
  - Global: classification
  - Local: Thiessen polygons, IDW
  - Geostatistical method: Kriging

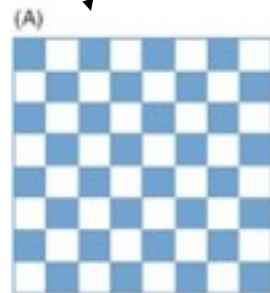
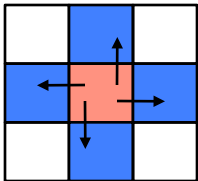
# Sampling of geographical data



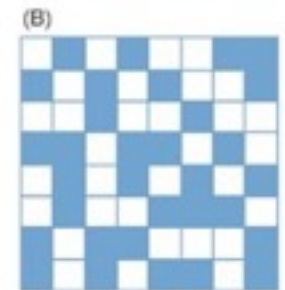
**Negative spatial autocorrelation:** objects that are close together in space are more dissimilar than objects that are further apart.

**Zero spatial autocorrelation:** attributes are independent of location.

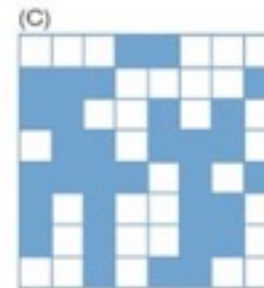
Neighbourhood: 4 direct neighbouring cells



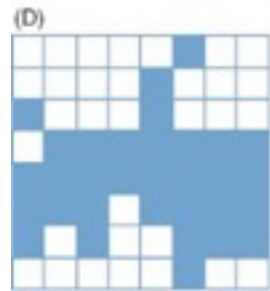
$I = -1.000$   
 $n_{row} = 112$   
 $n_{col} = 0$   
 $n_{row} = 0$



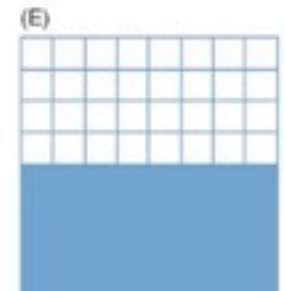
$I = -0.393$   
 $n_{row} = 78$   
 $n_{col} = 16$   
 $n_{row} = 18$



$I = 0.000$   
 $n_{row} = 56$   
 $n_{col} = 30$   
 $n_{row} = 26$



$I = +0.393$   
 $n_{row} = 34$   
 $n_{col} = 42$   
 $n_{row} = 36$



$I = +0.857$   
 $n_{row} = 8$   
 $n_{col} = 52$   
 $n_{row} = 52$

**Positive spatial autocorrelation:** objects that are similar in location are also similar in attributes.

# Spatial heterogeneity

tendency of geographic places and regions to be different from each other

Differences in

how the landscape looks

how the processes work on the landscape

Example



Sahara desert

Antarctic

Amazon basin

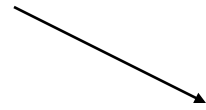
The Alps

differences

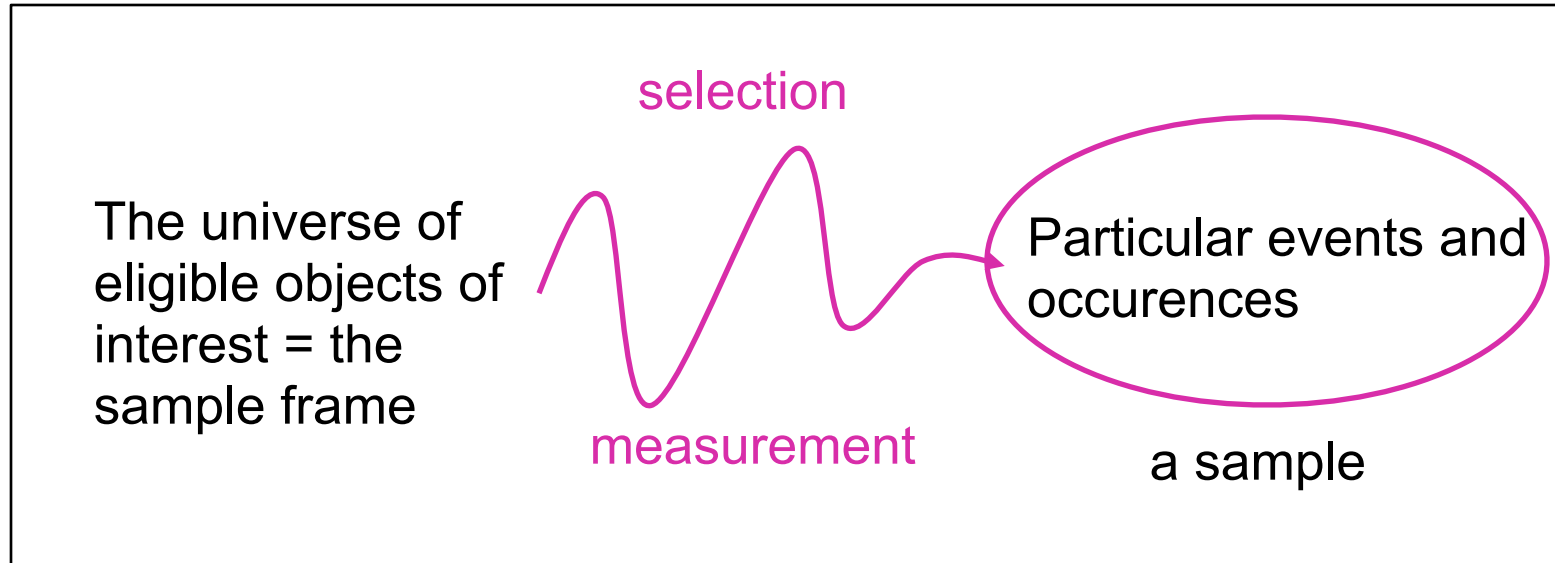


# Sampling

It is not possible to use all the objects/events/occurrences from the real world in the analysis and representation of geographic phenomena.



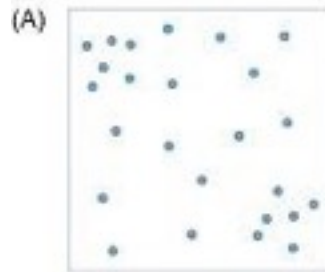
## Spatial sampling



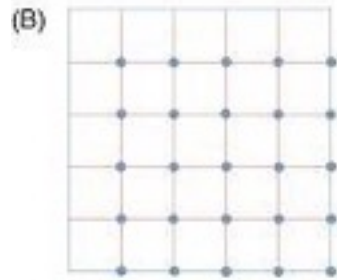
Methods for inference allow us to conclude about the characteristics of populations from which the samples were drawn.

# Types of spatial sampling

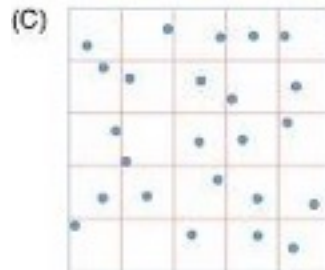
simple random  
sampling



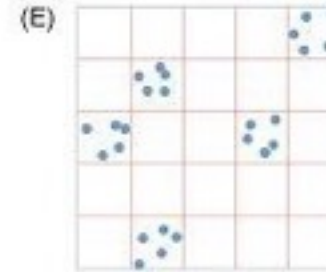
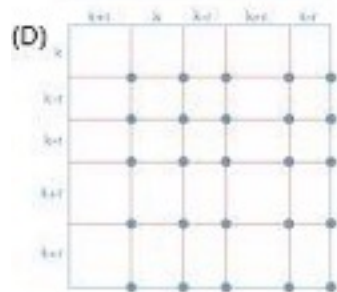
stratified  
sampling



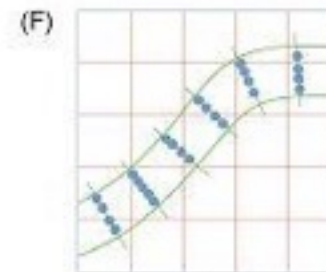
stratified  
random  
sampling



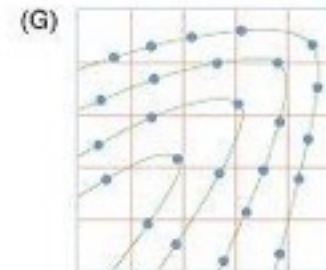
stratified  
sampling with  
random variation  
in grid size



clustered  
sampling



transect  
sampling

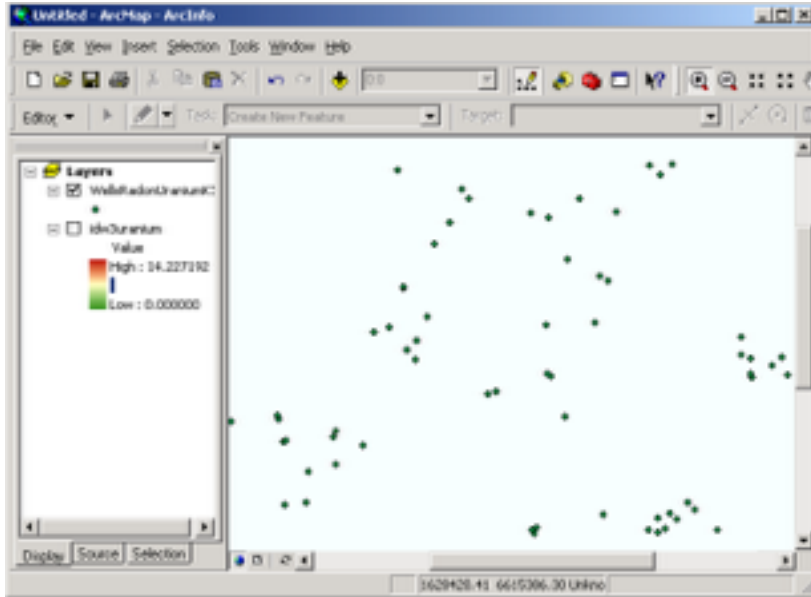


contour  
sampling

How do we select which locations to take the samples from?

# Interpolation

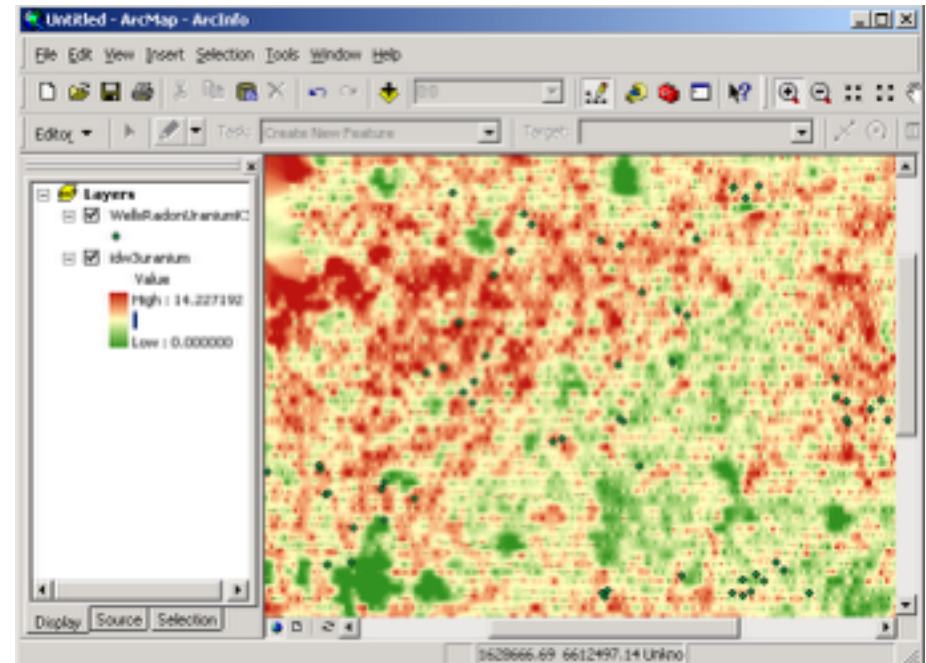
## Why interpolation?



Values of a field have been measured at a number of sample points

How to infer values at unsampled locations?

Spatial interpolation





**Interpolation** is the procedure of predicting the value of attributes at unsampled sites from measurements made at point locations within the same area

(Burrough, 1998)

**When do we need to interpolate?**

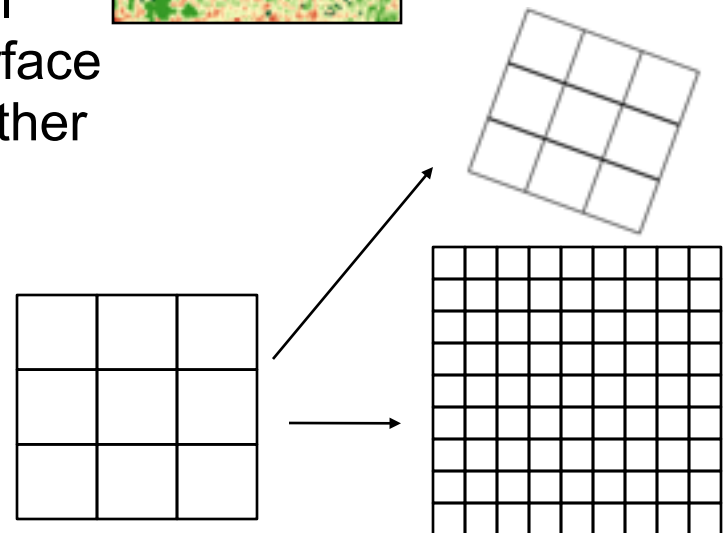
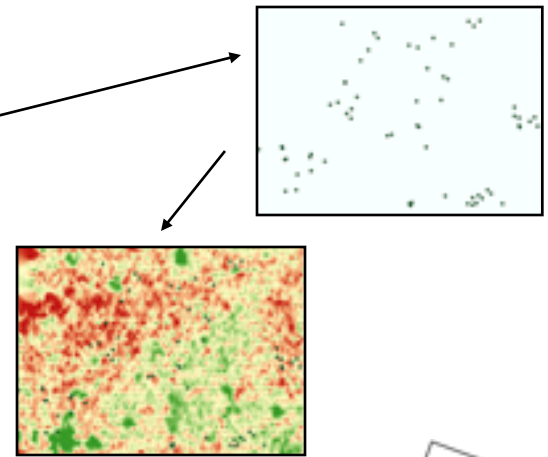
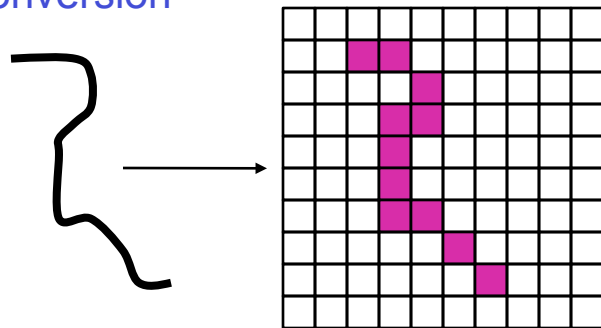
A different data model is needed to represent a continuous surface.

converting point data to a continuous field

Resolution or cell orientation of surface is needed in another format.

Vector to raster conversion

Conversion of scanned images



# Interpolation methods

use all available data

## Global methods

Global prediction with classification models

use data in the nearest neighbourhood

## Local methods

Inverse-distance weighting (IDW)

Density estimation

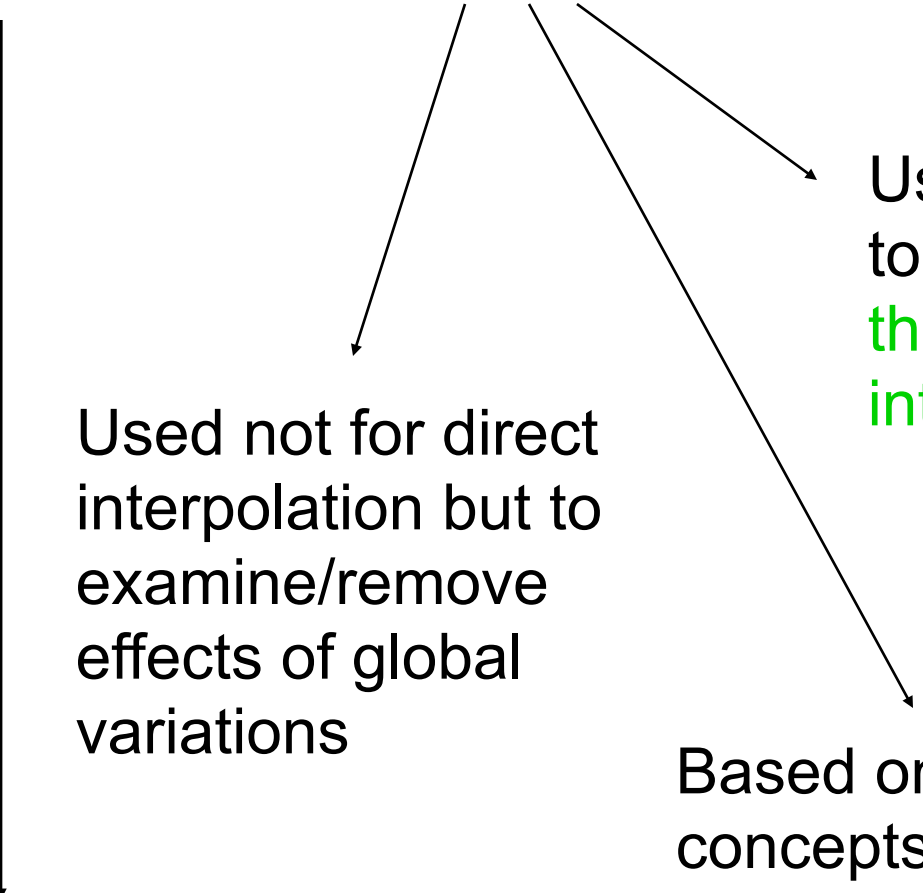
Thiessen polygons

## Geostatistics

Kriging

L3

## Global interpolation methods



Used not for direct interpolation but to examine/remove effects of global variations

Use **all available data** to predict values for **the whole area of interest**

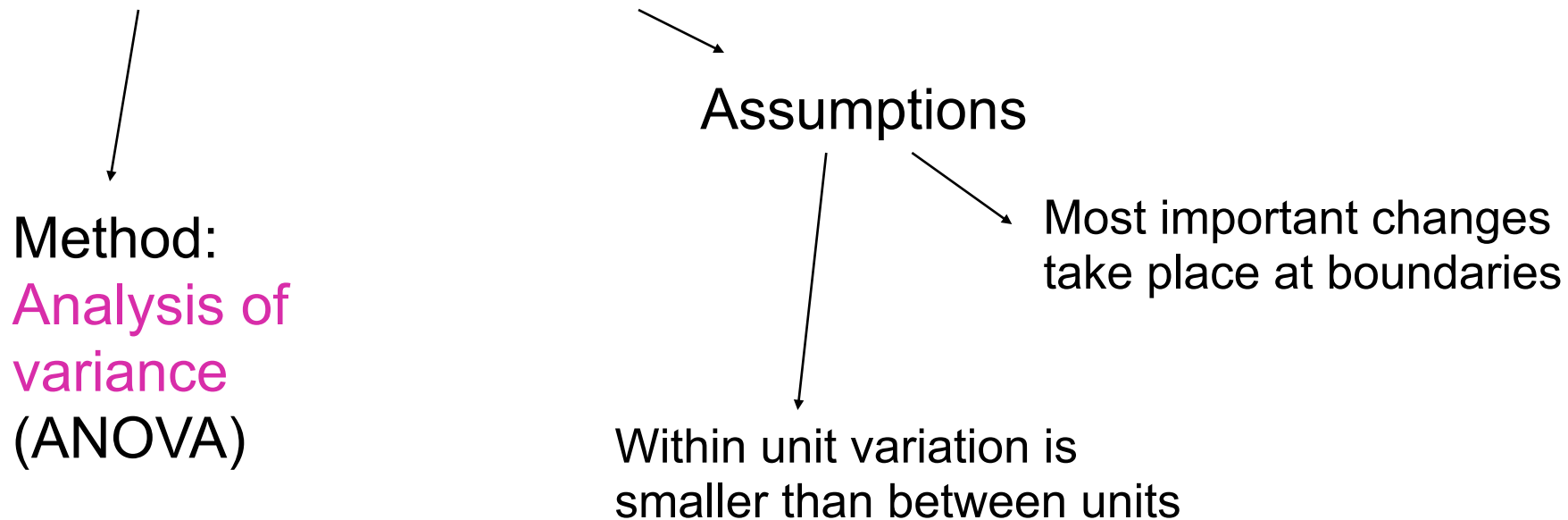
Based on standard statistical concepts of mean and variance

Common methods:  
prediction by classification models,  
trend surfaces, global regression, etc.

## Global prediction using classification models

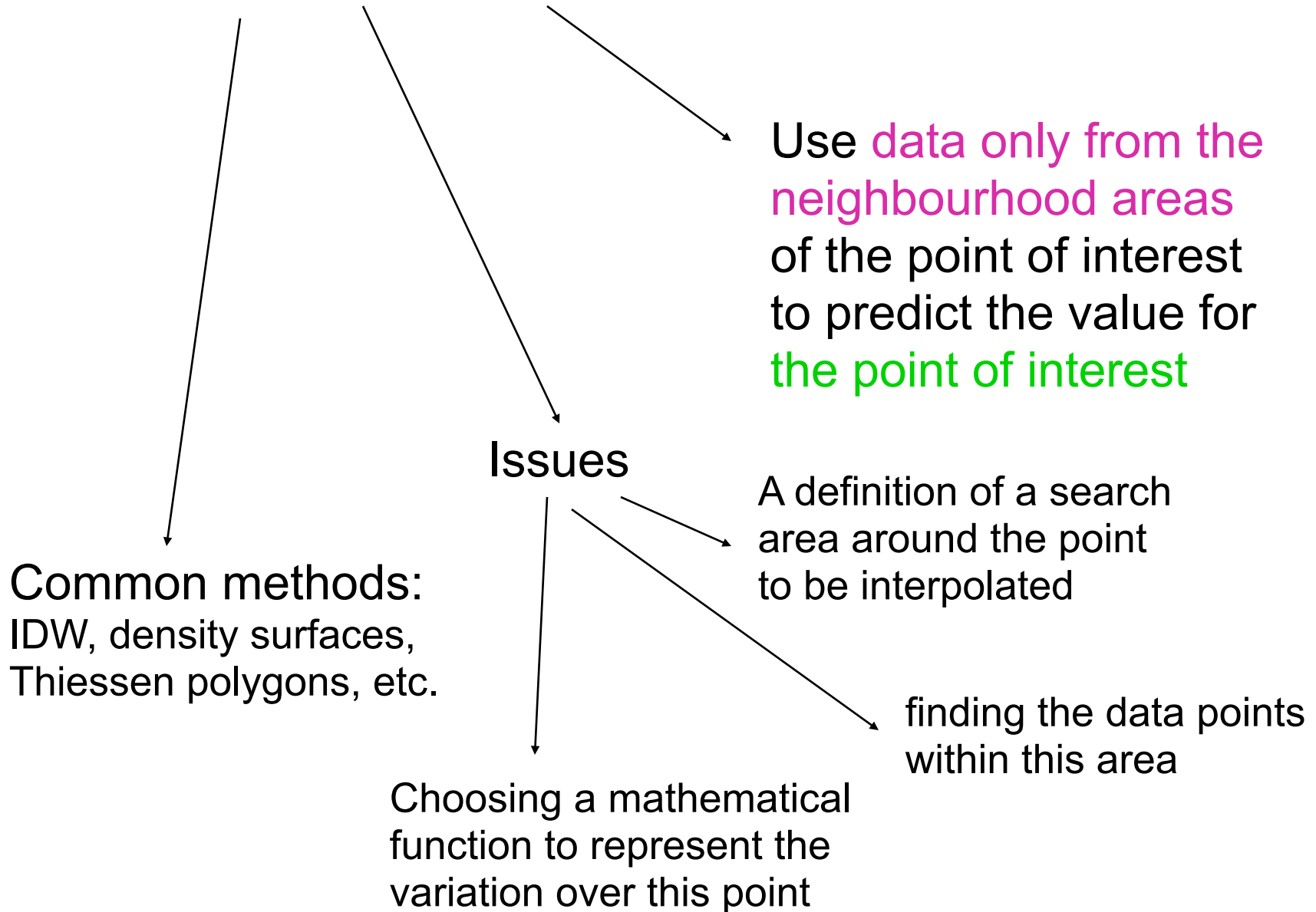
Areas are divided into regions that can be characterised by the statistical means and variance of attributes measured.

Predictions are based on **the mean** of all attribute values and **the variance** in a particular region



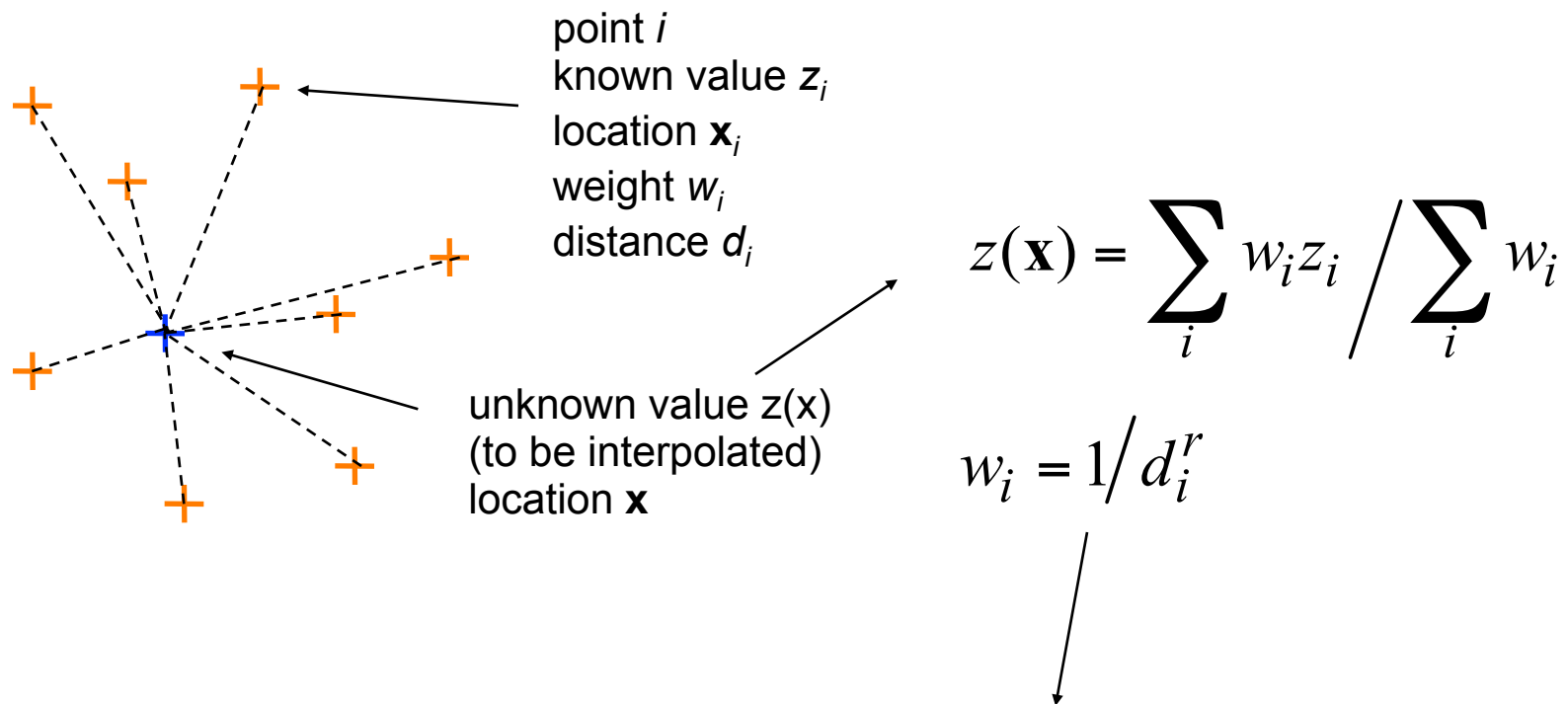
Typically used in **geology**: geological maps (bedrock), soil maps

## Local interpolation methods



## Inverse-distance weighting (IDW)

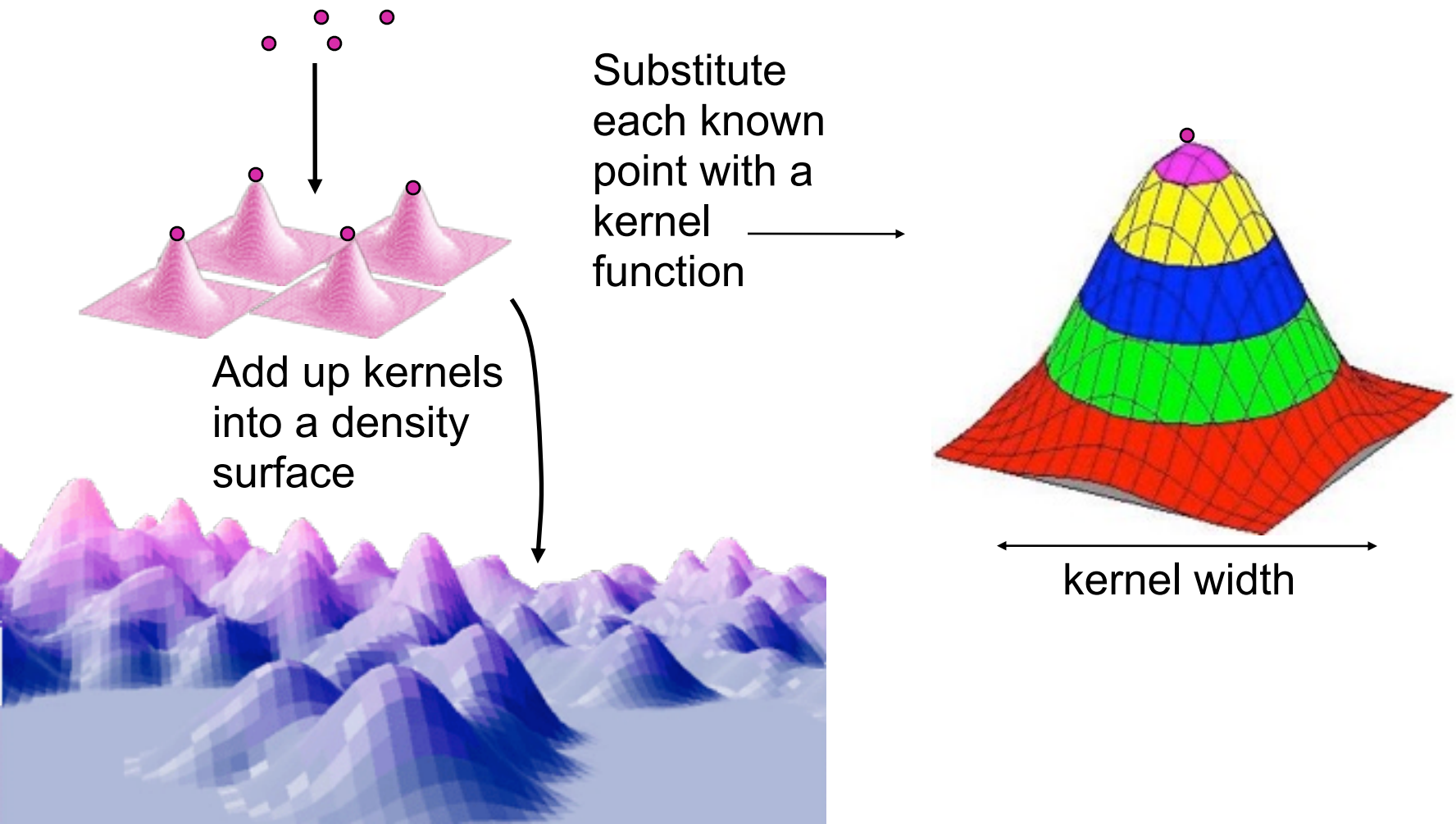
The unknown value of a field  $z$  at a point  $x$  is estimated by taking a **weighted average** over the known values:



Each known value is weighted by its **distance from the point  $x$** : weights decrease with the  $r^{\text{th}}$  power of distance (usually  $r=2$ ).

## Density estimation

Density estimation creates a field from discrete point objects: the field's value at any point is an estimate of the density of discrete objects at that point.



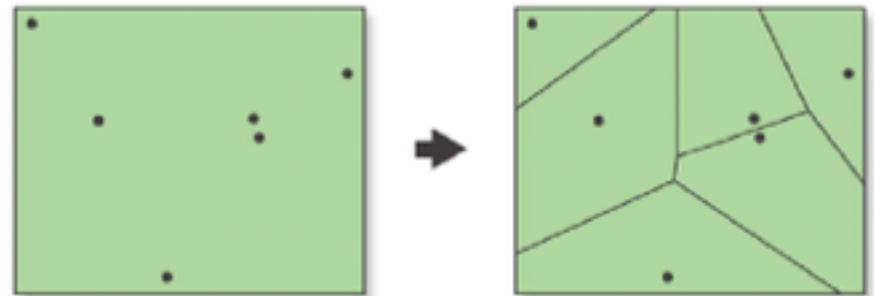
## Thiessen polygons

Predictions are provided by the attribute of the nearest sampled point

Also known as:  
nearest neighbour  
interpolation

The form of the surface is determined by distribution of observations. Each point defines a polygon with the following two characteristics:

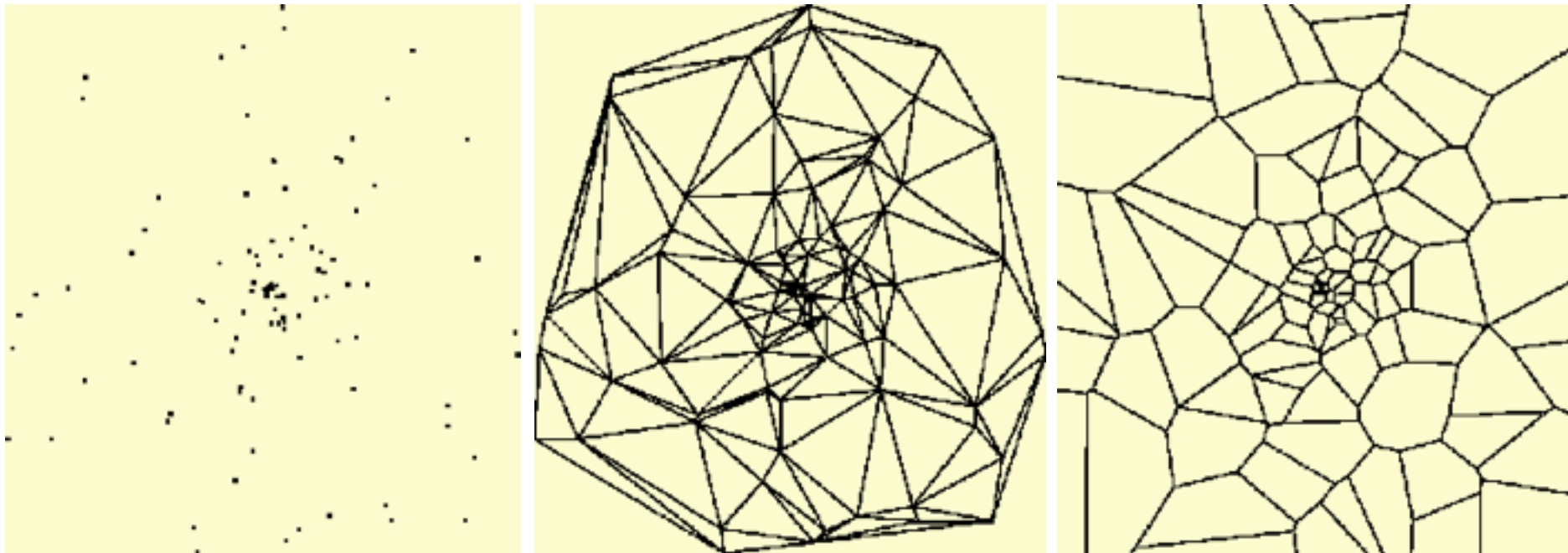
- each polygon contains exactly one input point
- any location within a polygon is closer to its associated point than to any other point.



Thiessen polygons or  
Voronoi polygons



## How Thiessen polygons are calculated:



Original data points



Delaunay triangulation

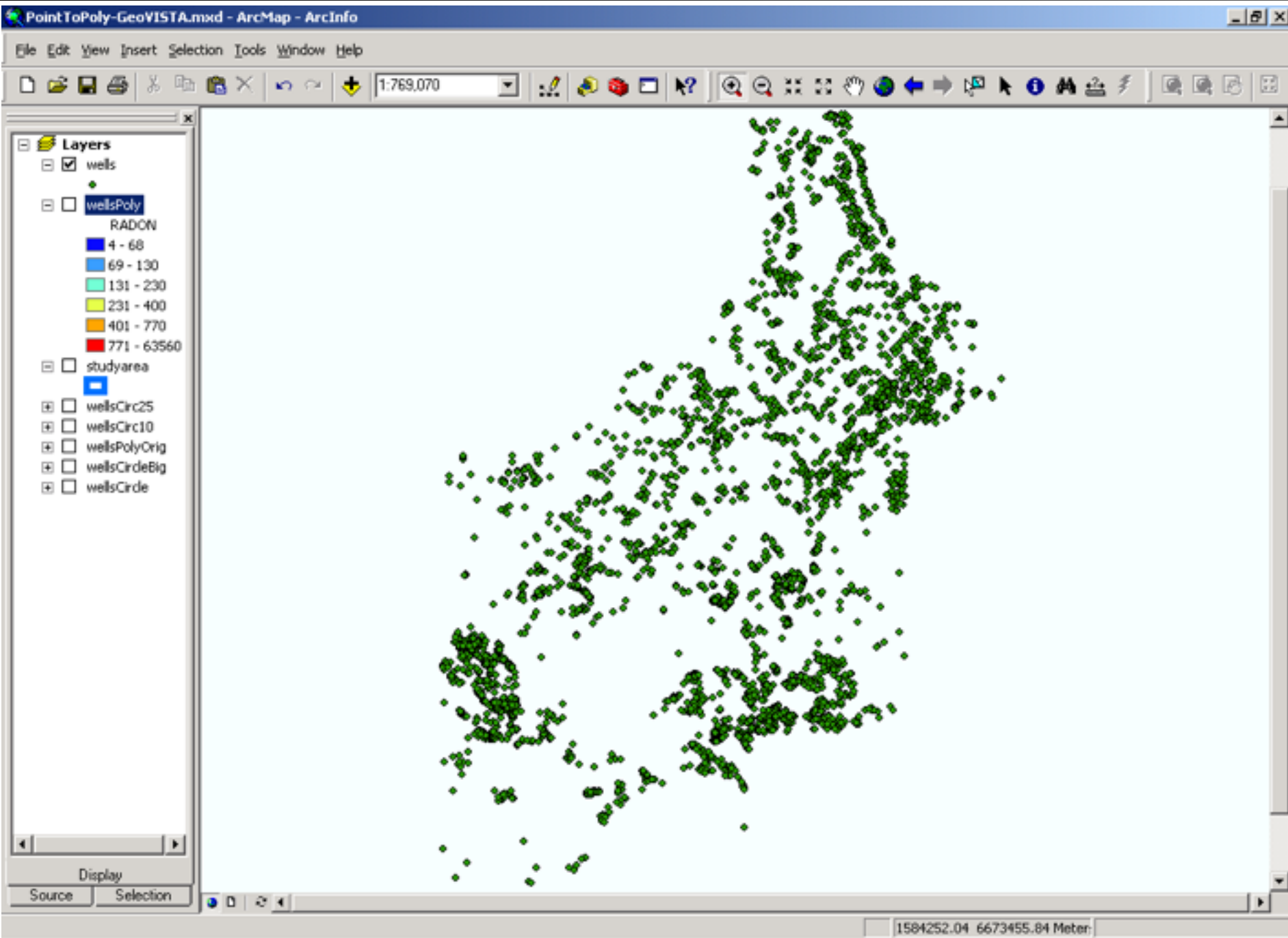
Thiessen polygons

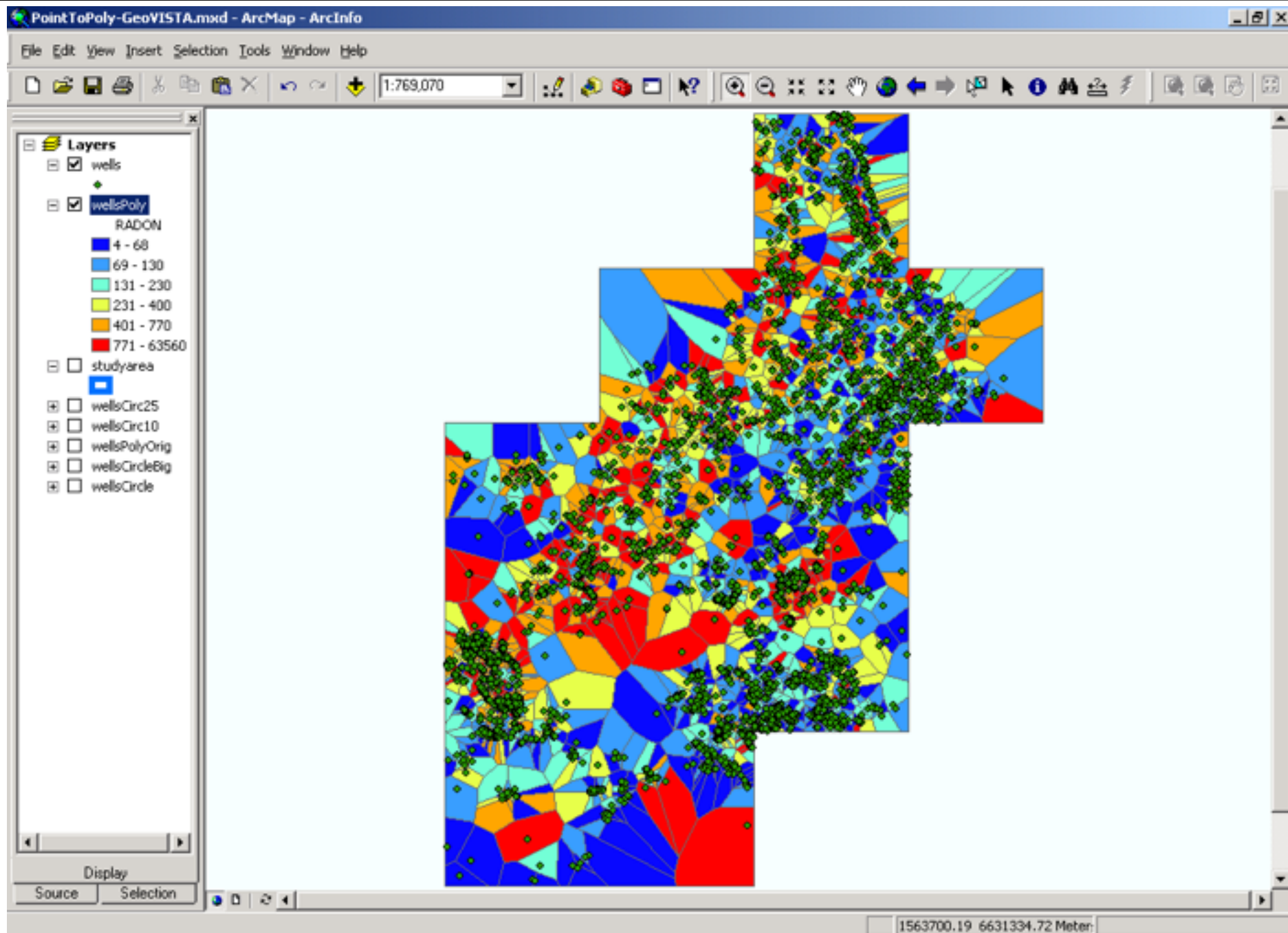
A triangulation of the vertex set with the property that no vertex in the vertex set falls in the interior of the circumcircle (circle that passes through all three vertices) of any triangle in the triangulation.

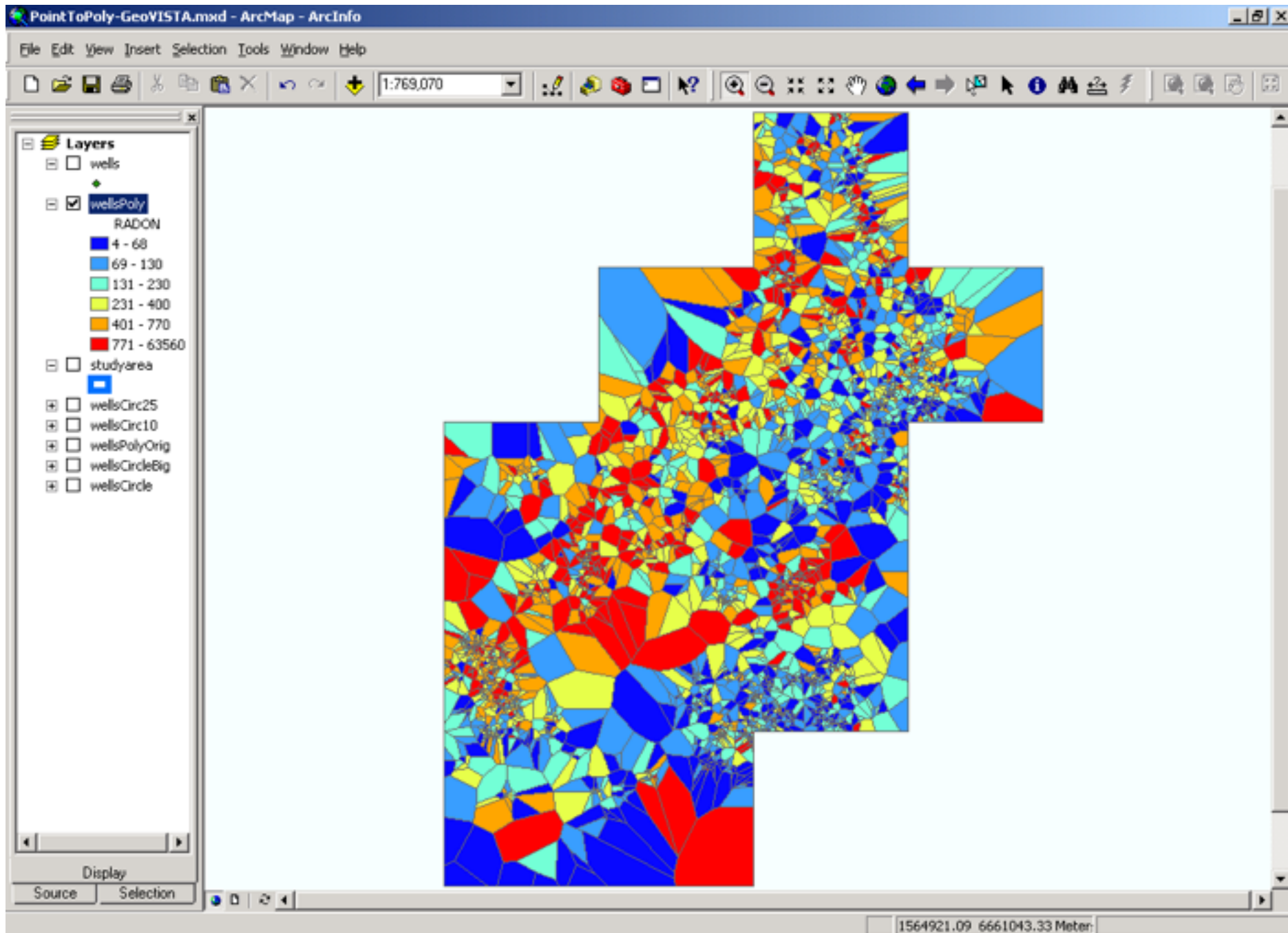
TIN – triangulated irregular network

the geometric dual

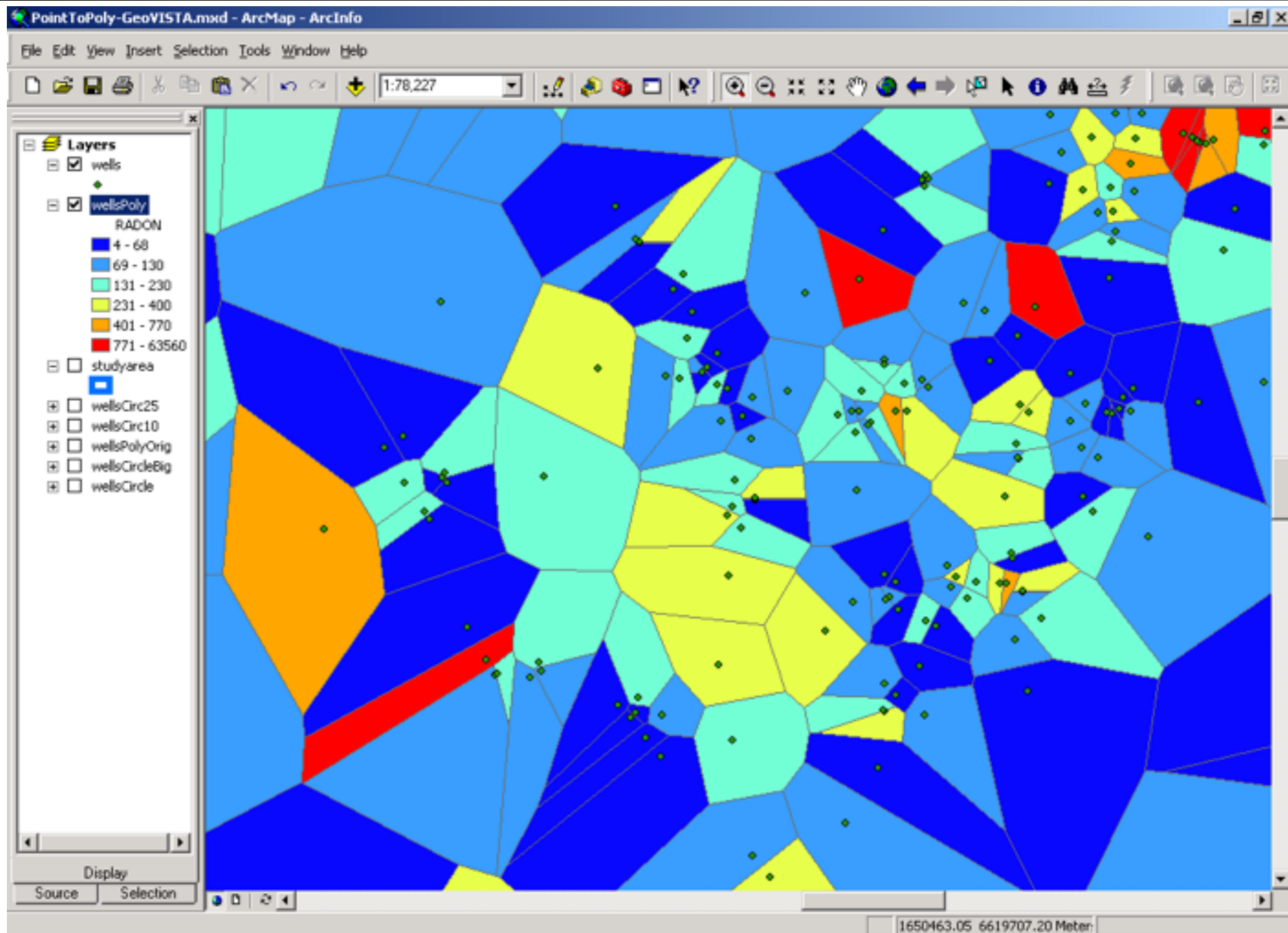
Each polygon is assigned the attribute value of the point that belongs to it.











## A geostatistical interpolation method: Kriging

### Previous interpolation methods

What is the quality of the estimates ?

No detailed/reliable information on how to:

- define the number of points needed to compute the local average
- define the size/shape/orientation of neighbourhood
- Ways to estimate the interpolation weight?
- estimate errors associated with interpolated value

### Kriging

A technique of spatial interpolation firmly grounded in geostatistical theory

Developed for use in the mining industry

Underlying principle for kriging: **spatial variation** of any continuous attribute is **too irregular** to be modelled by a simple, smooth mathematical function.



Variation is instead described by a stochastic surface, obtained as **a weighted combination** of neighbouring point values, where weights are derived using **a semivariogram**.

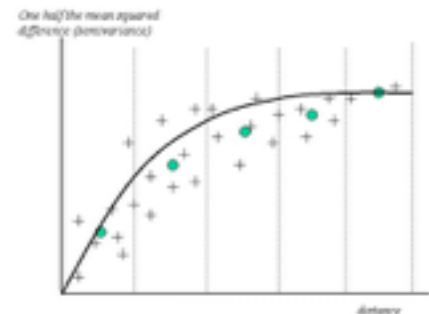
Similar to IDW



The semivariogram reflects Tobler's Law

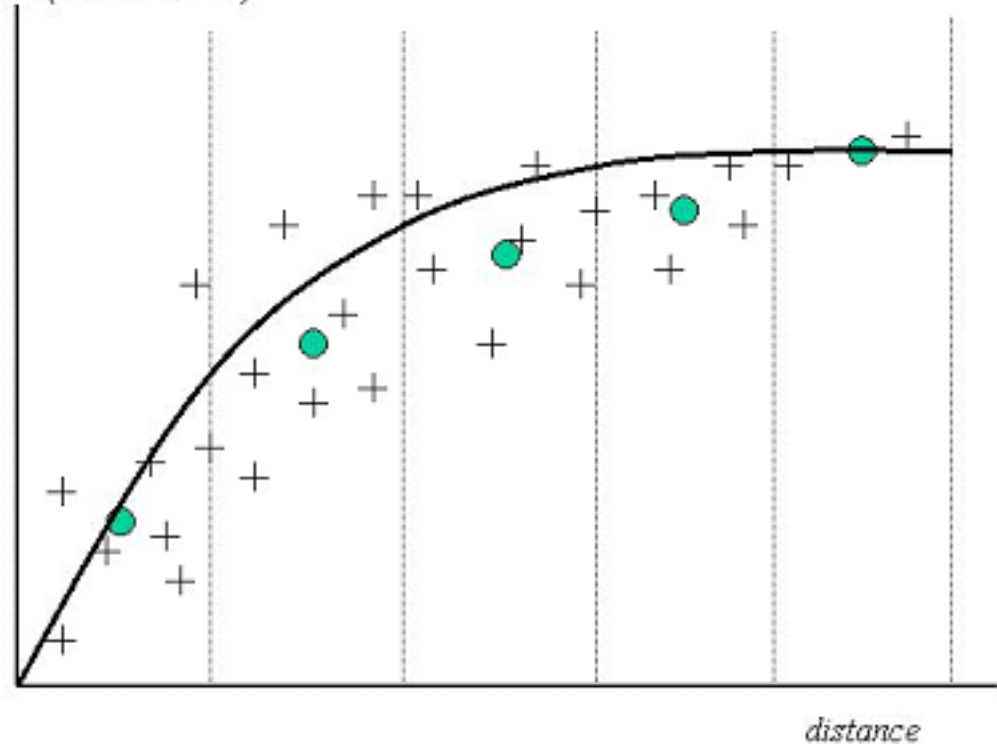
differences within a small neighborhood are likely to be small

differences rise with distance



$$\gamma(x) = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^n \{z(x_i) - z(x)\}^2$$

One half the mean squared  
difference (semivariance)



**A semivariogram.** Each cross represents a pair of points. The solid circles are obtained by averaging within the ranges or *bins* of the distance axis. The solid line represents the best fit to these five points, using one of the standard mathematical functions.



# The semivariogram

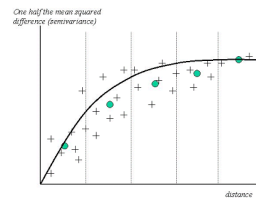
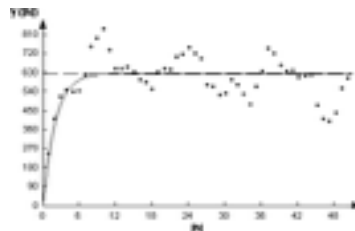
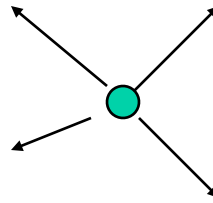
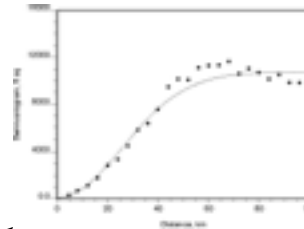
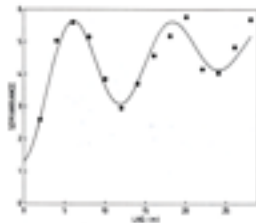
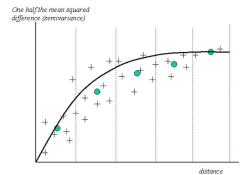
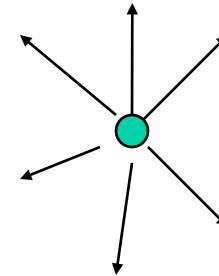
isotropic

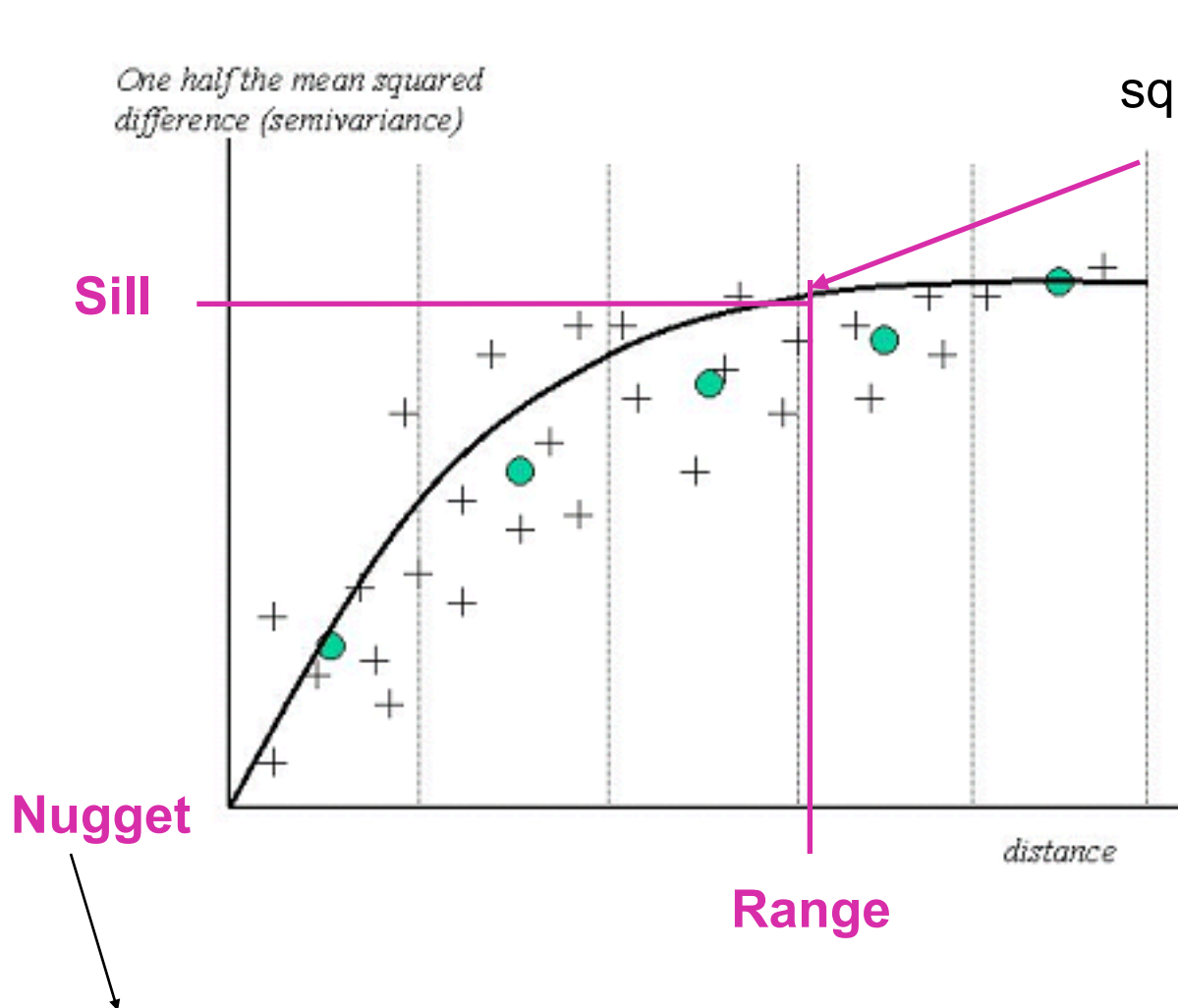
Behaviour of the phenomenon is the same in all directions.

anisotropic

A separate semivariogram is needed for each direction.

Behaviour of the phenomenon is very different in different directions.



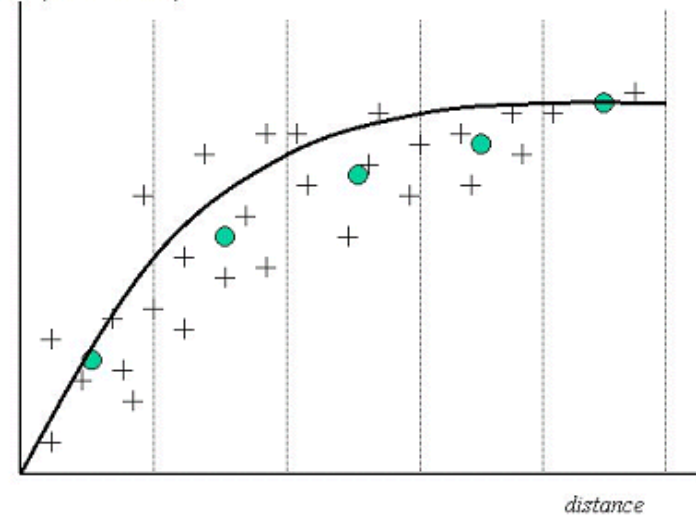


The difference in squared distance increases steeply to a certain point and then no more.

**Nugget:** the squared difference never falls to zero, not even at zero distance – this is the variation among repeated measurements at the same point.

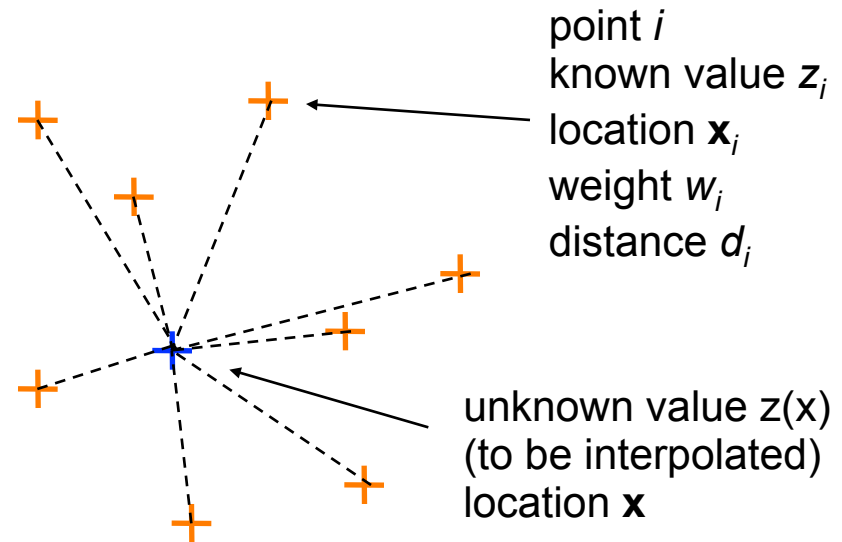
Once we have the experimental semivariogram (the crosses in this graph), one of the standard mathematical functions is **fitted** to it (the thick black line in this picture).

*One half the mean squared difference (semivariance)*



This function is used to calculate **the optimal weights  $w_i$**  for the interpolation, where the unknown value is calculated as a weighted combination of known values (same as with IDW):

$$z(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\sum_i w_i z_i}{\sum_i w_i}$$



The interpolated surface replicates statistical properties of the semivariogram.

type of function to be fitted

range

isotropy/  
anisotropy

sill

nugget

Geostatistical Wizard: Step 2 of 4 - Semivariogram/Covariance Modeling

View  
Semivariogram | Covariance

$\gamma \cdot 10^{-5}$

9.9  
7.92  
5.84  
3.96  
1.98

0 6.7 13.4 20.1 26.8 33.5 40.2 46.9 53.6

Distance,  $h \cdot 10^{-3}$

Semivariogram/Covariance Surface

Show Search Direction

Angle Direction: 0.0

Angle Tolerance: 45.0

Bandwidth (lags): 6.0

Semivariogram/Covariances:  
Var1 & Var1

Models

Model 1  Model 2  Model 3

Circular  
Spherical  
Tetraspherical  
Pentaspherical  
Exponential  
Gaussian  
Rational Quadratic  
Hole Effect  
K-Bessel  
J-Bessel  
Stable

Major Range: 26087

Anisotropy

Minor Range:

Direction:

Parameter:

Partial Sill: 368340

Nugget: 213290

Error Modeling

Shifts

X: Y:

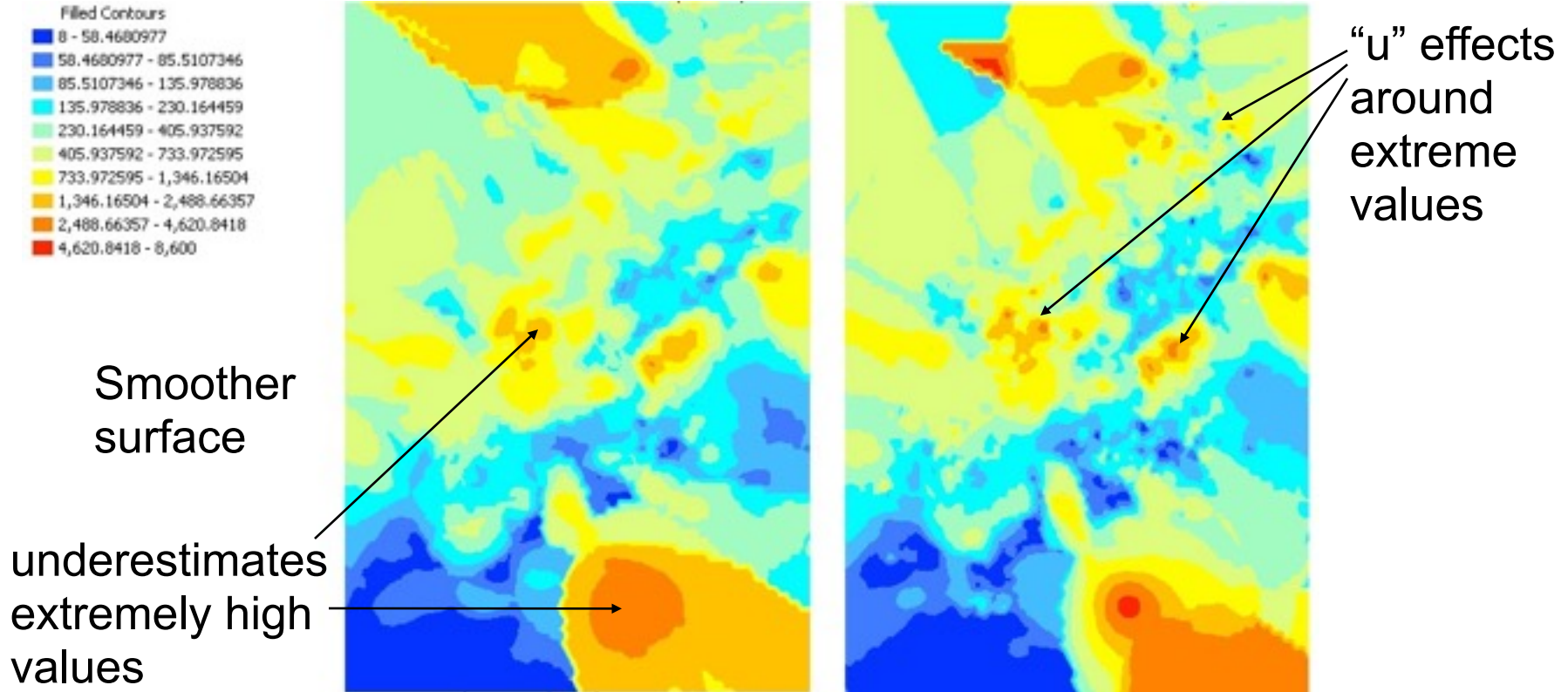
Lag Size: 4410.5

Number of Lags: 12

368340\*Spherical(26087)+213290\*Nugget

< Back Next > Finish Cancel

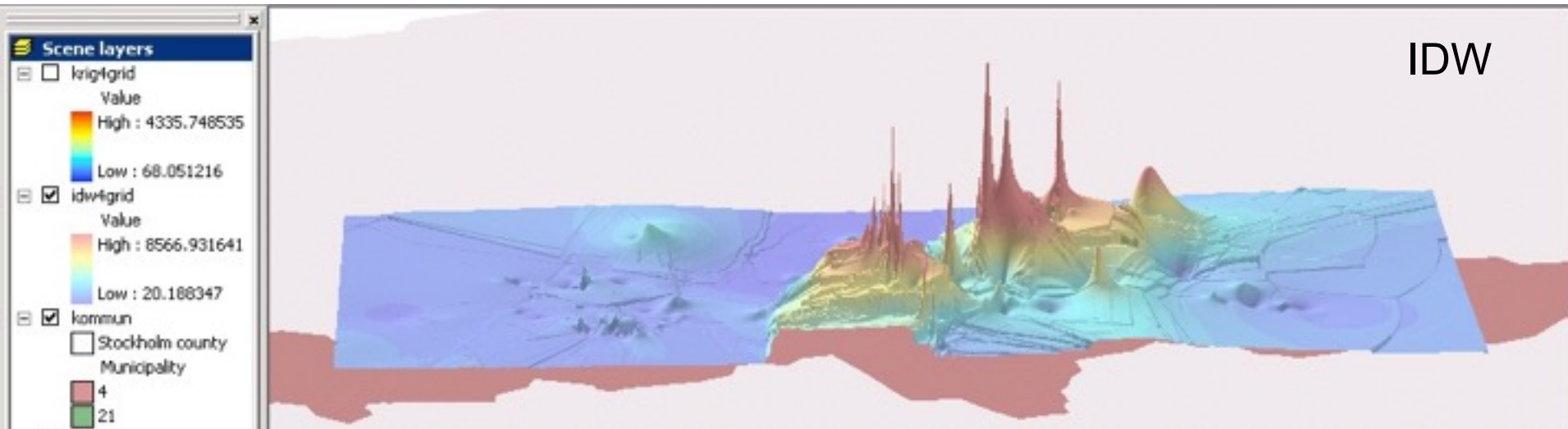
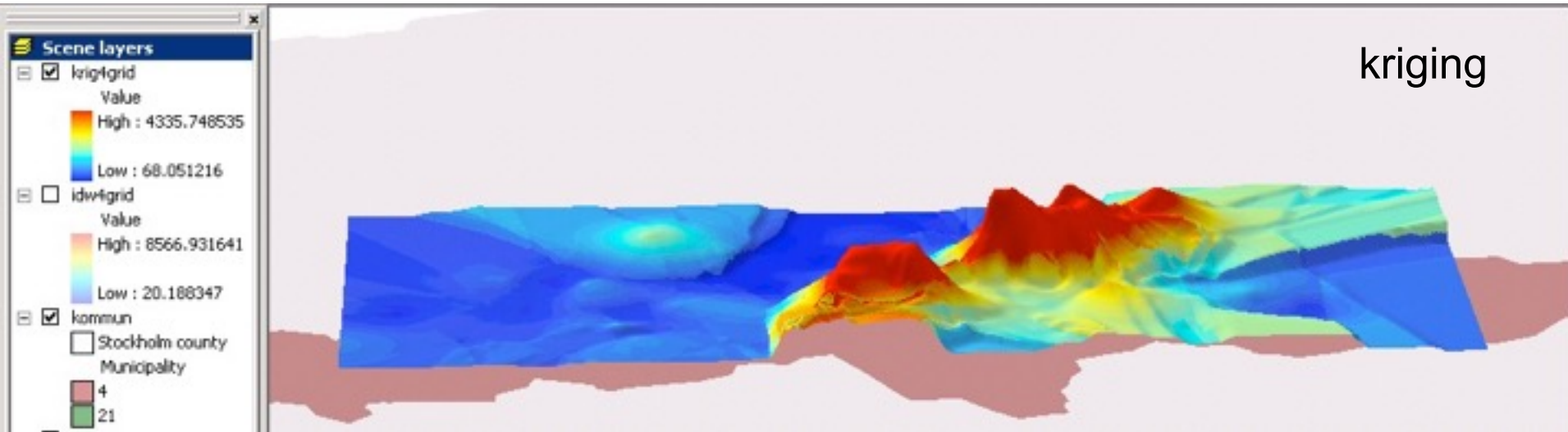
## Kriging vs. IDW



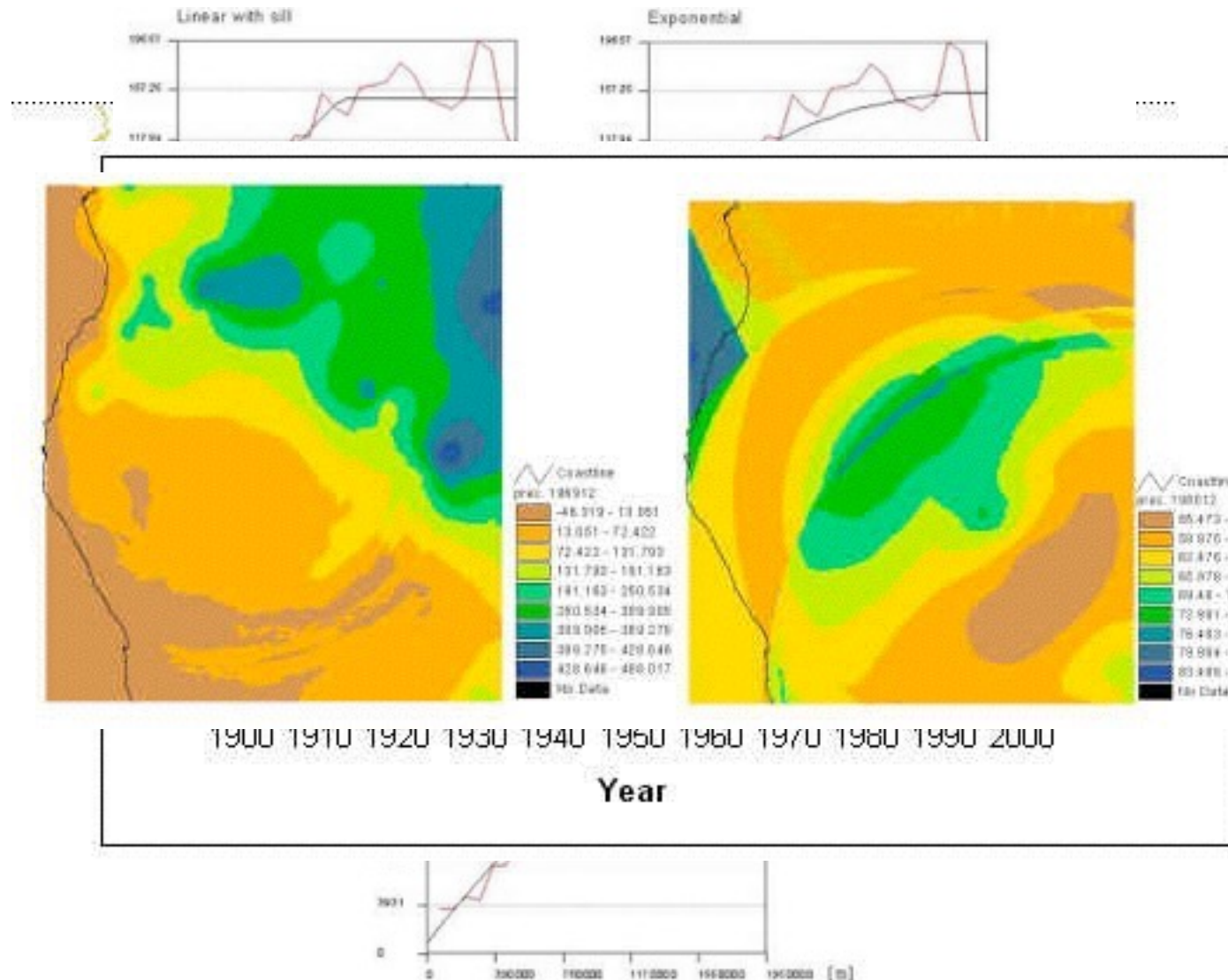
Comparison of kriging surface with the IDW surface of the same data using the same classification (quantile into 10 classes) and colour scheme for both surfaces.



# Kriging vs. IDW

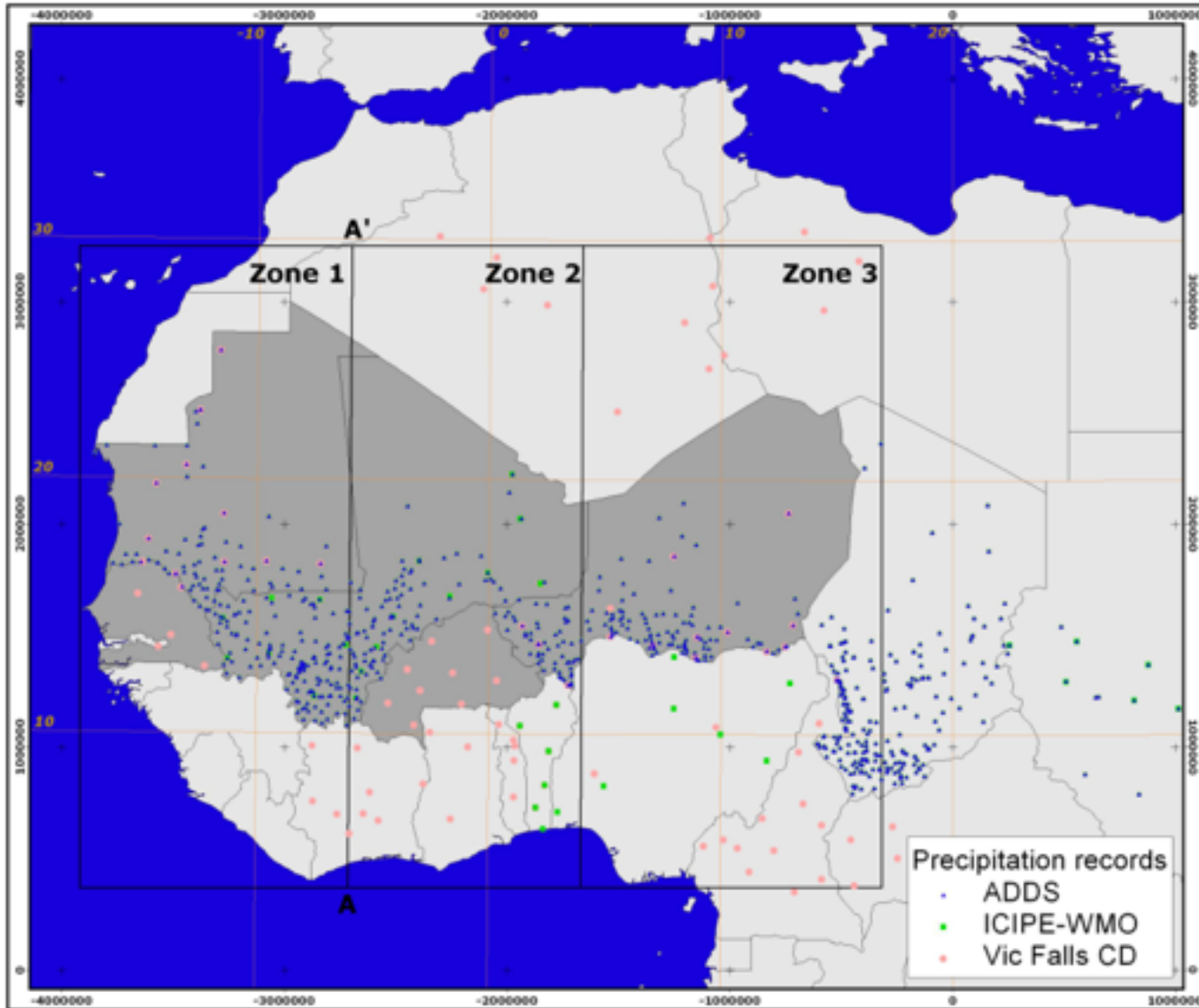


# Geostatistisk Interpolering av nederbörden över Okavango



# Geostatistisk Interpolering av nederbörden över Sahel

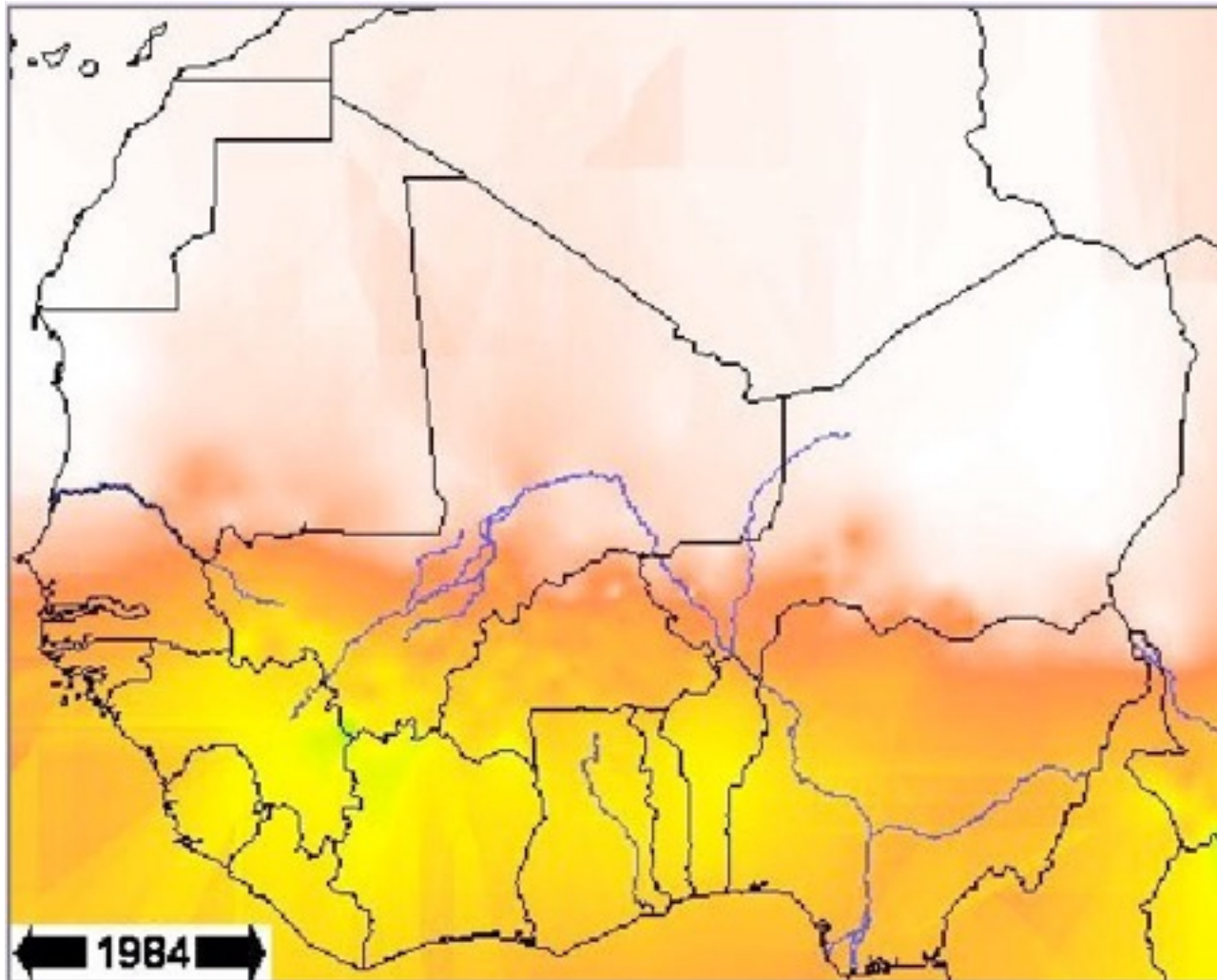
## Sahel rainfall stations 1930-1996





# Geostatistisk Interpolering av nederbörden över Sahel

Sahel rainfall average 1984



# Multi-Criteria Evaluation - MCE

MCE is a method for decision support where a number of **different criteria** are combined to meet one or several objectives and help to make a decision.

## Criterion:

A basis for a decision that can be measured and evaluated

### Factor

enhances or detracts  
from the suitability  
under consideration

Particular soil types are better for  
growing wheat than other soil types.

### Constraint

limits the alternatives  
under consideration

A new residential area can not  
be built inside a national park.

**Decision rule** – the procedure that combines criteria, often into a single composite index.

Examples

Classification

Classify areas according to how sensitive they are to landslides or erosion

Selection

Choose areas suitable for a particular purpose

Implementation of the decision rule = **Multi-Criteria Evaluation**

## MCE in a raster GIS

1. Create maps for each criterion.



1	1	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	0
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

2. Standardise the criteria maps

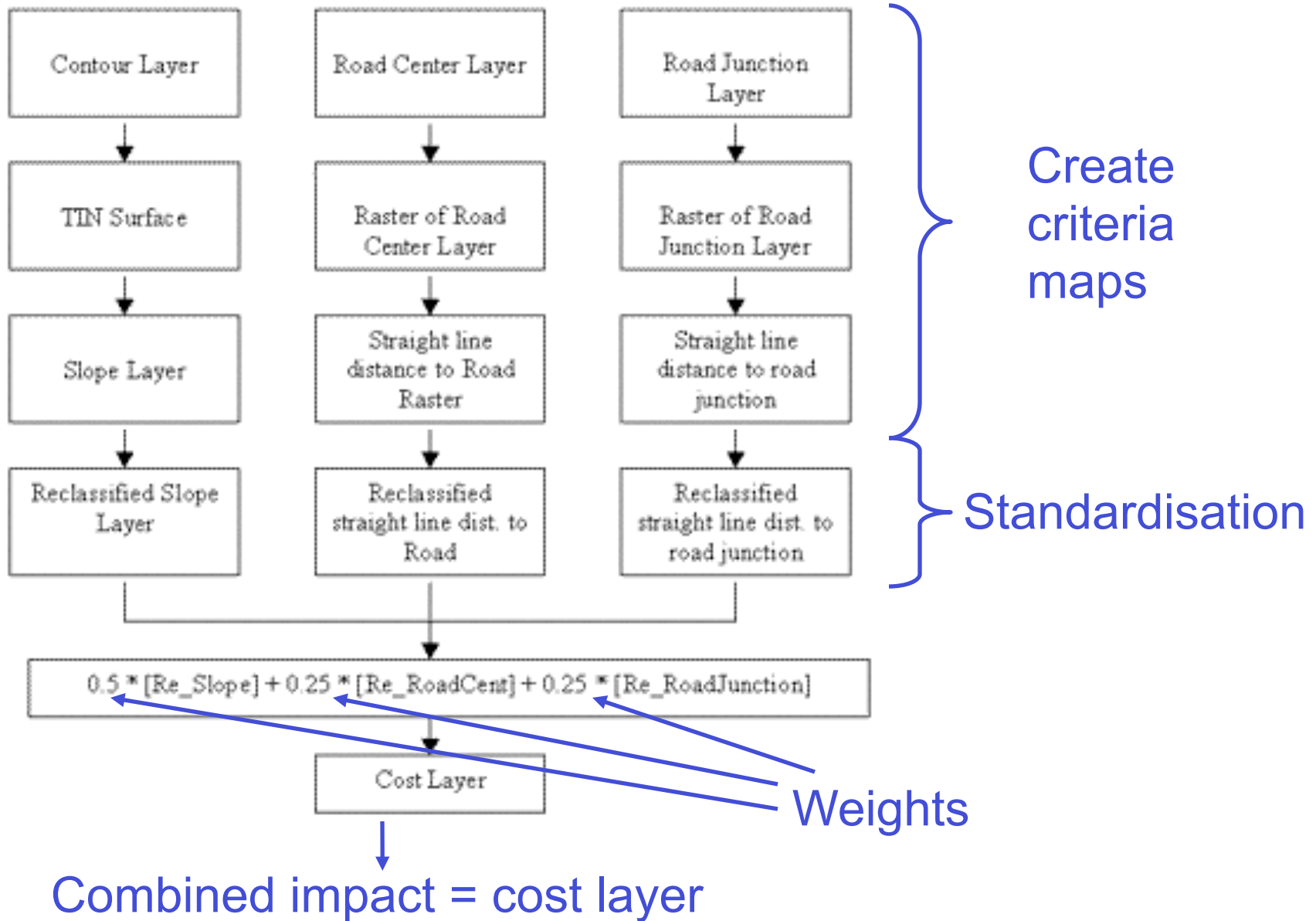
→ Same value range  
for all criteria

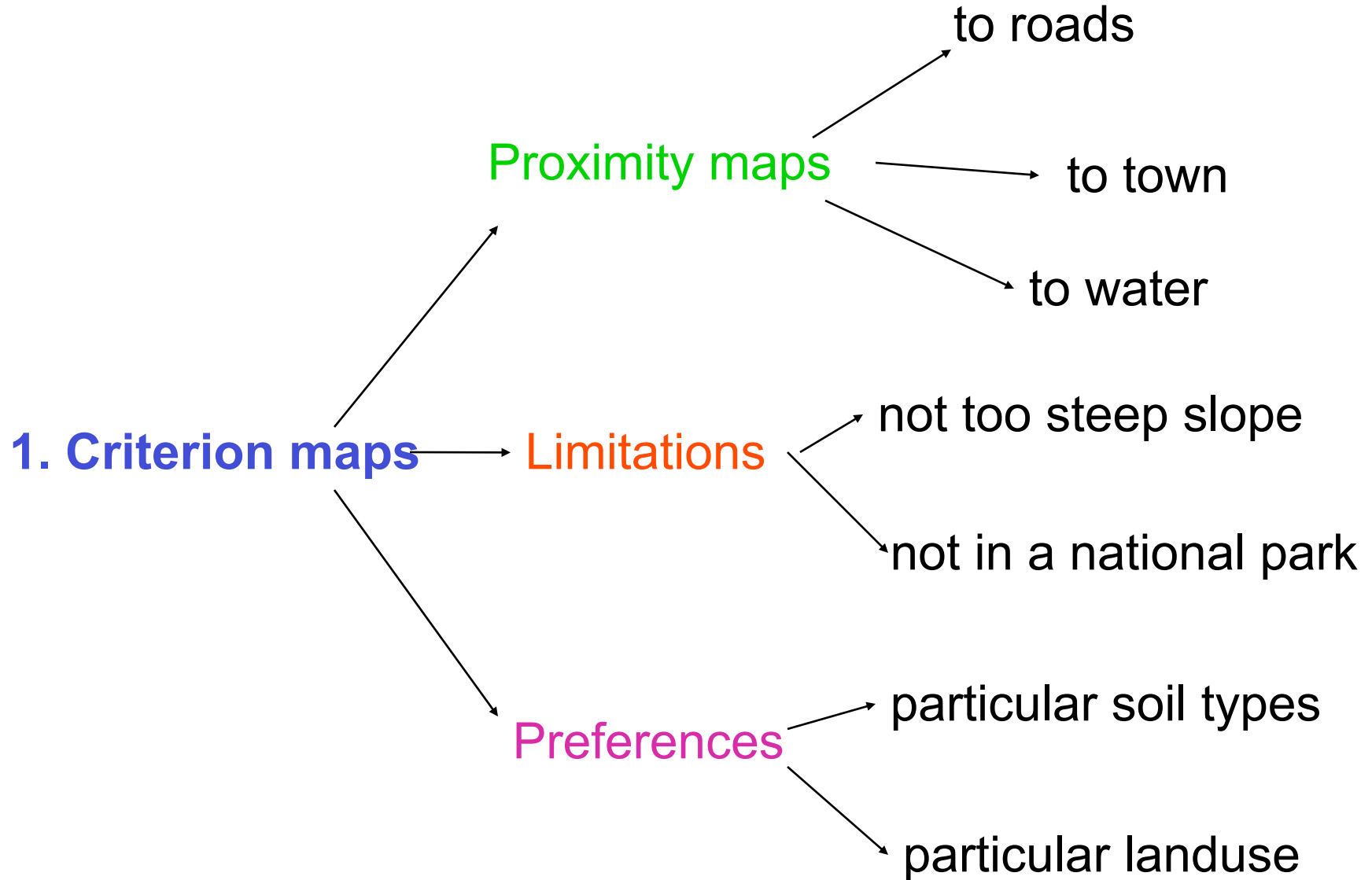


3. Assign weights to each criterion



4. Calculate the combined impact of all the criteria by combining all the standardised criteria maps with respective weights





## 2. Standardisation

Perform scaling so that all factor maps have **the same range**:

↓  
**Example**

↓  
Linear scaling:

$$x_i = (R_i - R_{\min}) / (R_{\max} - R_{\min}) * m \longrightarrow \text{Puts the values in the } [0, m] \text{ interval}$$

The desirable feature has to get a **high value**.

↓  
Areas near to roads should get 1, areas far from roads get 0.

### 3. Assign weights

Many different methods for assigning the weights.

Example: pair-wise comparison of the factors

Each stakeholder produces a comparison matrix for the factors -  $W_i$ :

	waterfac	powerfac	roadfac	landfac	Slopefac
waterfac	1				
powerfac	1/5	1			
roadfac	1/3	7	1		
landfac	1/5	5	1/5	1	
slopefac	1/8	1/3	1/7	1/7	1

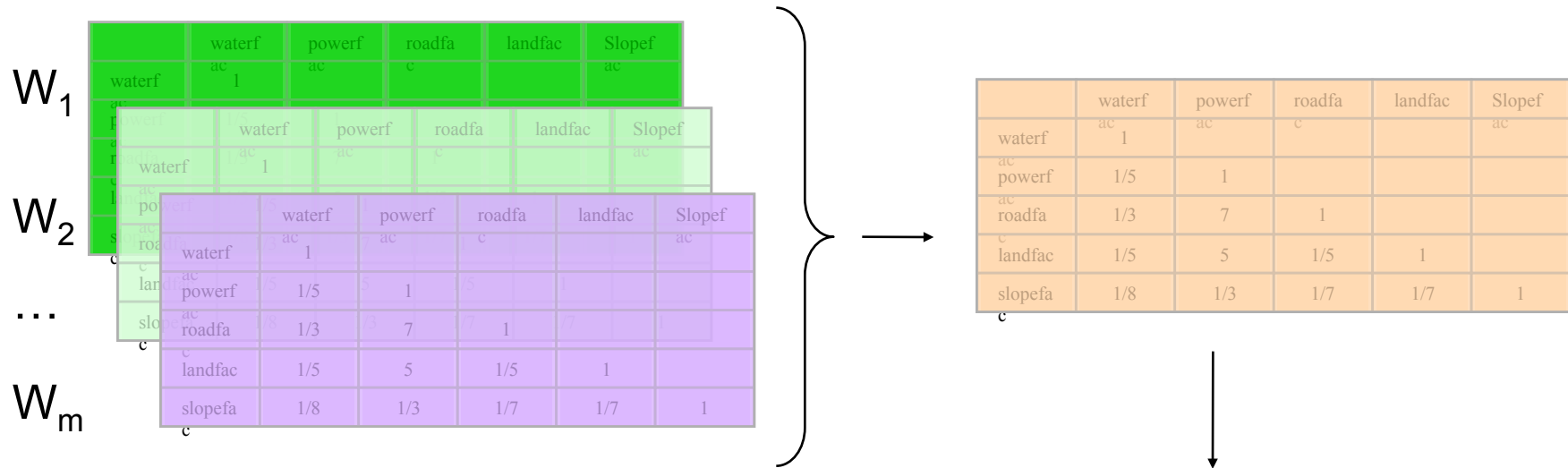
less important

more important

1/9      1/7      1/5      1/3      1      3      5      7      9  
 extremely very strongly strongly moderately equally moderately strongly very strongly extremely



All comparison matrices are combined into one (matrix W):



Weights = eigenvalues  
of the matrix W

This is a very complicated method for  
assigning the weights.

↓ **But,**

weight assignment is **a difficult issue**, as there are usually many stakeholders involved in the process, who usually disagree on how the factors should be combined.

## 4. Combine criteria

Combined impact of all the criteria:

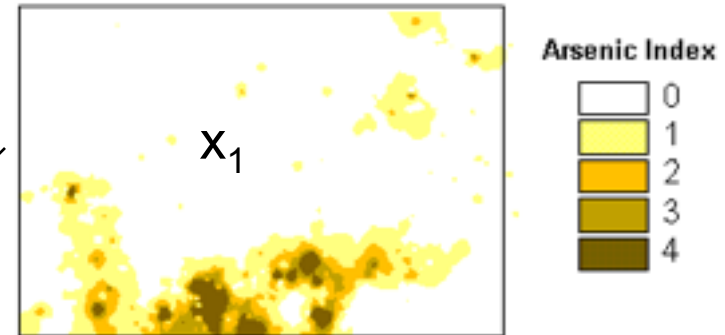
- a weighted linear combination of standardised factors

$$I = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_nx_n$$

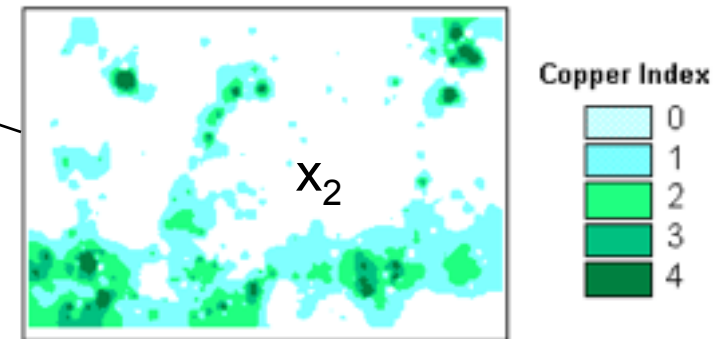
Calculated by map algebra

Result: a suitability map

Element Concentrations in Lake Sediments

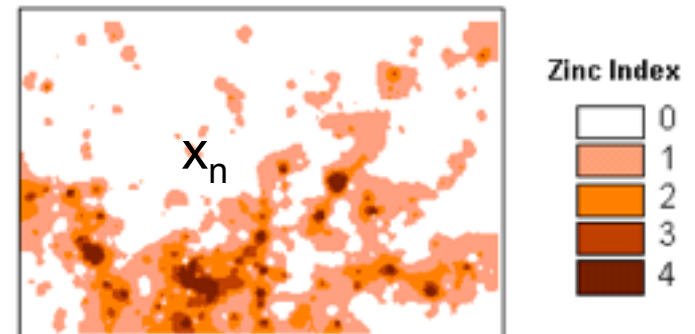


$w_1$



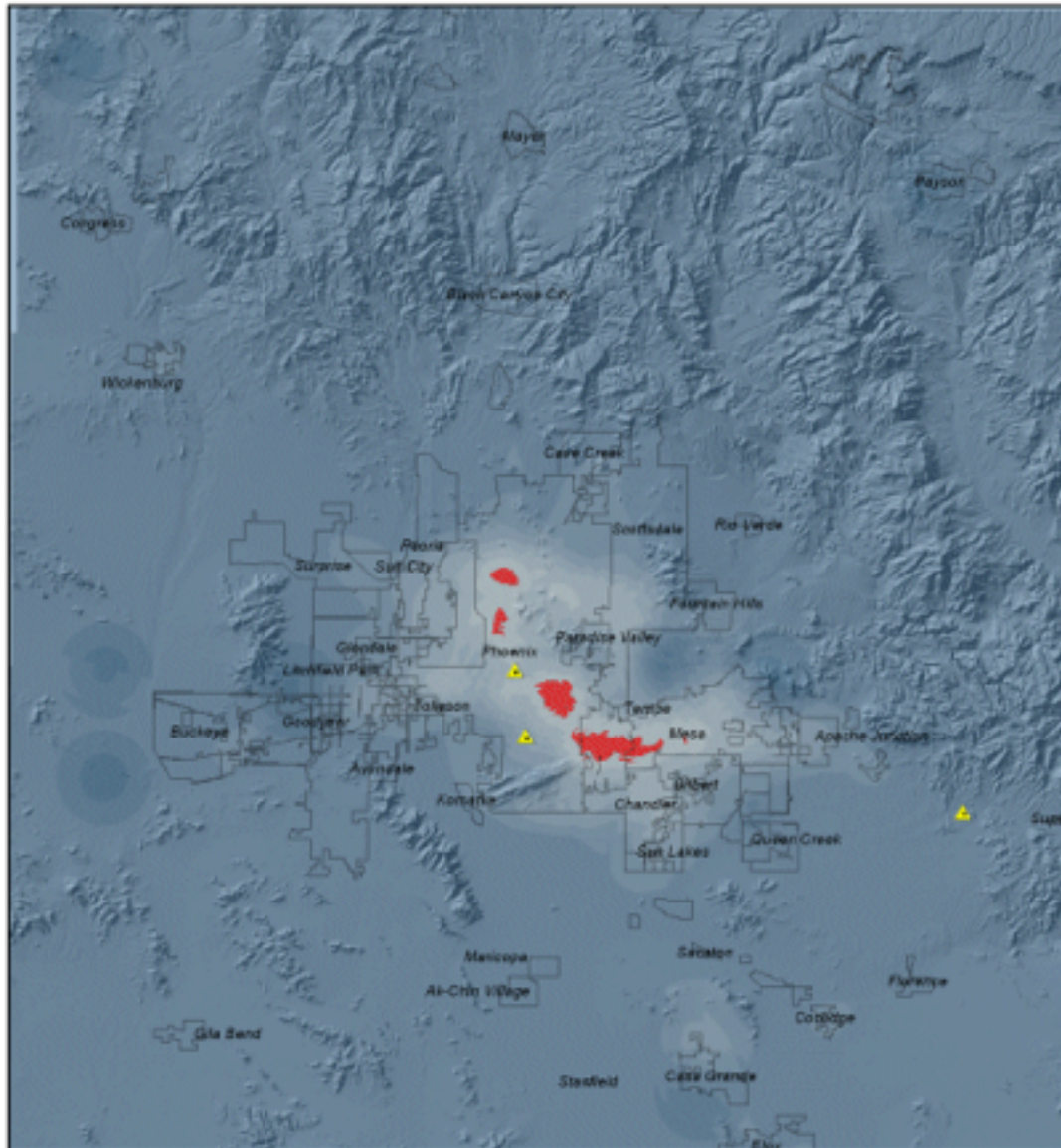
$w_2$

$w_n$



Zinc Index

# Suitability for air quality monitors in the Phoenix region, Arizona



## Placement of Monitors

Density of AADT = 40%

-Higher density is more suitable

Density of Total Population = 20%

-Higher density is more suitable

Density of Point Sources = 10%

-Low density is more suitable

Distance to Airports = 10%

-Closer to airports is more suitable

Distance from Existing Sites = 20%

-Away from sites is more suitable

### Suitability Analysis

 High Suitability



Medium Suitability

Low Suitability



0 5 10 20 30 Miles

## Evaluation of the suitability map

Select cells with highest suitability until a certain number is reached.



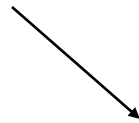
Cells with a suitability higher than a certain value are classified as **suitable for a particular objective**



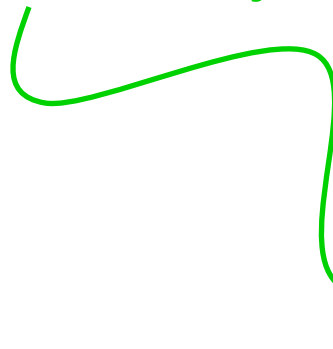
### Examples



Suitable for growing a particular kind of crop

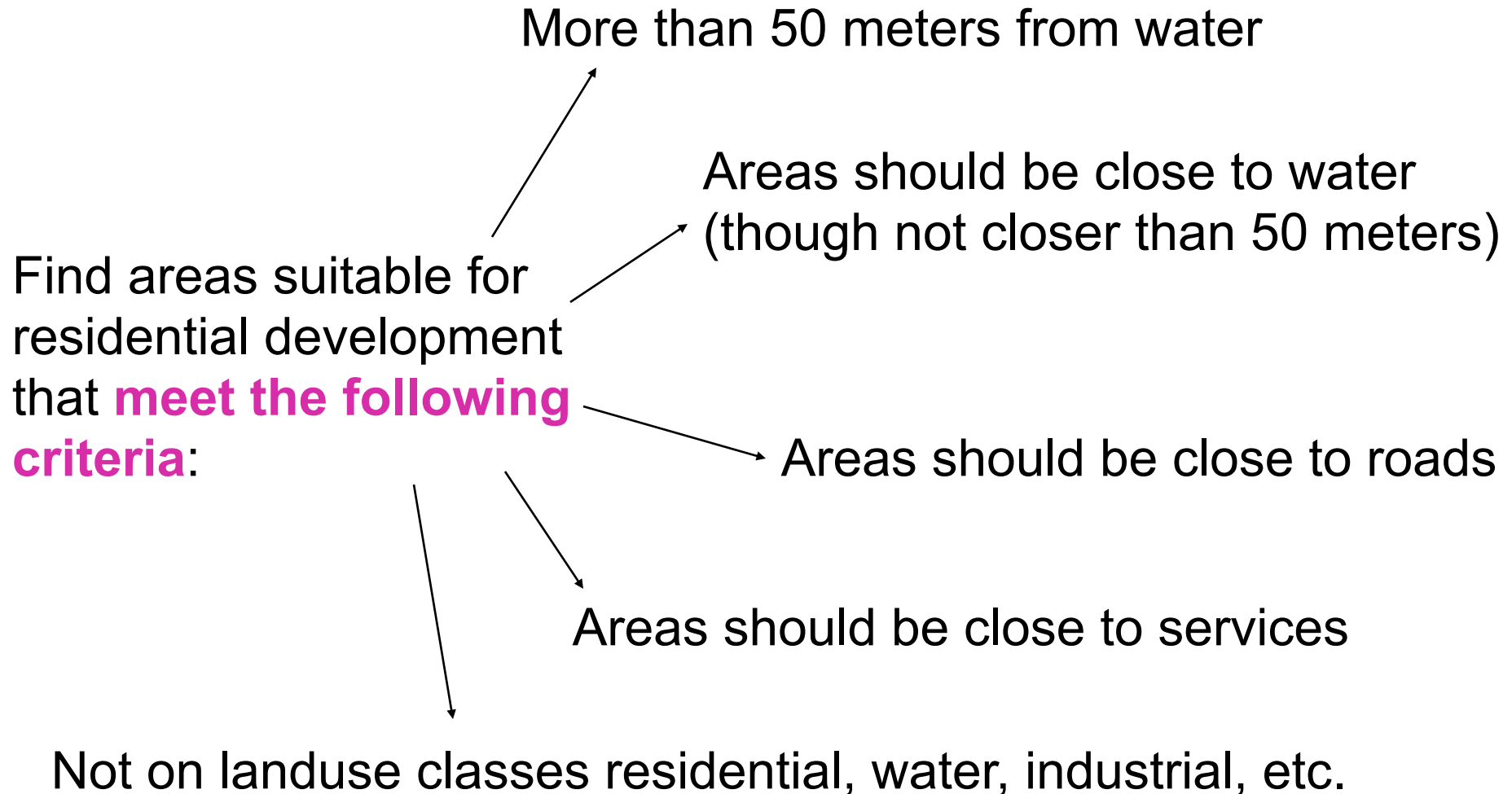


Sensitive to erosion



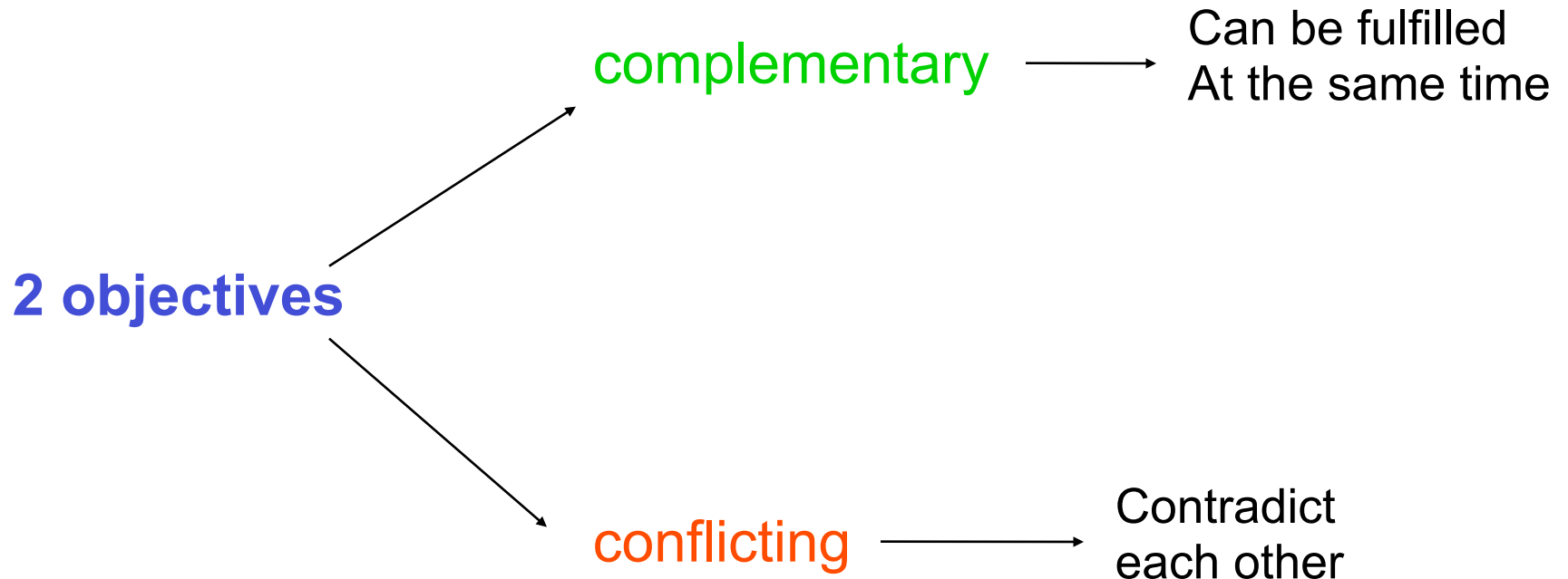
**Basis for decision-making**

## A MCE example



## Multi-objective decisions

What if more than one objective needs to be fulfilled?



**Complementary objectives:**

- find areas suitable for both objectives

Create a suitability map for each objective



Combine these in a new MCE procedure

**Conflicting objectives:**

2 possible solutions

Prioritised solution: put the most important objective first

Conflict resolution: find a compromise between competing objectives.



## Is MCE an optimal solution for the decision-making?

How do we **choose**  
**which criteria** are  
relevant?

How do we **assign**  
**the weights**?

Geographical data sets often have a **high degree of uncertainty**.

This uncertainty propagates through  
the procedure.

The decision-makers need to be aware of this.

# MCE in Idrisi

**Criteria maps**

**Assigning the weights**

**Module Results**

The eigenvector of weights is :

```

waterfac : 0.4635
powerfac : 0.0552
roadfac  : 0.3121
markfac  : 0.1380
slopefac : 0.0304
  
```

Consistency ratio = 0.14 (low). Consider re-evaluating the matrix.

In the following consistency matrix, values near zero show good consistency. Higher absolute values indicate comparisons that should be reconsidered.

	waterfac	powerfac	roadfac	markfac	slopefac
waterfac	0.00	----	----	----	----
powerfac	-3.39	0.00	----	----	----
roadfac	1.52	-1.35	0.00	----	----
markfac	1.46	-2.49	2.75	0.00	----
slopefac	-1.00	1.18	-2.00	2.43	0.00

**wght1 - AHP weight derivation**

Pairwise Comparison 3 Point Continuous Scale

1/9 1/7 1/5 1/3 1 3 5 7 9  
 extremely very strongly strongly moderately equally moderately strongly very strongly extremely  
 Less Important More Important

Pairwise comparison file to be saved: capet industry calculate weights

	waterfac	powerfac	roadfac	markfac	slopefac
waterfac	1				
powerfac	1/5	1			
roadfac	1/3	7	1		
markfac	1/5	5	1/5	1	
slopefac	1/9	1/3	1/7	1/7	1

OK Cancel Help

Module Results

File Contents Save to File Copy to Clipboard Cancel Help

c: 598 r: 224 x: 347085.111421 y: 3063451.929655 1/24/2001 11:54:03 PM

# MCE für Cypern

## MOLA - Multi Objective Land Allocation

