## Interpolation



- Along a line
  - geocoding with coordinates



In a triangle





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### In a rectangle



## Bilinear interpolation





- There are two ways to represent continuous surface : one is
  - a regular or gridded form, and the other is an irregular

#### form

- Regular: control points to gridded surface
- Irregular: control points to triangulated surface



## Introduction to gridded form interpolation

The primary assumption of spatial interpolation is that points near each other are more al away; therefore, any location's value based on the values of points near



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Interpolation is the process of estimating unknown values

that fall between known values.





#### What is spatial interpolation?

- Spatial interpolation calculates an unknown value from a set of sample points with known values that are distributed across an area.
- The distance from the cell with unknown value to the sample cells contributes to its final value estimation.



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#### Sample size

- Most interpolation methods allow you to control the number of sample points used to estimate cell values.
- For example, if you limit your sample to five points, the interpolator will use the five nearest points to estimate cell values.
- The distance to each sample point will vary depending on the distribution of the points.
- If you have a lot of sample points, reducing the size of the sample you use will speed up the interpolation process because a smaller set of numbers will be used to estimate each cell value.





#### Sample size radius

- You can also control your sample size by defining a search radius.
- The number of sample points found within a search radius can vary depending on how the points are distributed.
- You can choose to use some or all of the samples that fall within this radius to calculate the cell value.
- A variable search radius will continue to expand until the specified sample size is found.
- A fixed search radius will use only the samples contained within it, regardless of how many or how few that might be.





#### Interpolation barriers

- Most interpolators attempt to smooth over these differences by incorporating and averaging values on both sides of the barrier.
- The Inverse Distance Weighted method allows you to include barriers in the analysis.
- The barrier prevents the interpolator from using samples points on one side of it.



When you use a barrier with interpolation, the estimated cell value is calculated from sample points on one side of the barrier

## **INTERPOLATION METHODS**

#### Main interpolation methods



The Inverse Distance to a Power method

The Kriging Method

The Minimum Curvature Method

The Modified Shepard's Method

The Natural Neighbor Method

The Nearest Neighbor Method

The Polynomial Regression Method

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#### Other interpolation methods



The Radial Basis Function Interpolation Method

The Triangulation with Linear Interpolation Method

The Moving Average Method

The Data Metrics Methods

The Local Polynomial Method



# The Inverse Distance to a Power method

#### The Inverse Distance to a Power method



- The Inverse Distance to a Power method is a weighted average interpolator, which can be either exact or smoothing.
- With Inverse Distance to a Power, data are weighted during interpolation, so that the influence of one point, relative to another, declines with distance from the grid node.
- Weighting is assigned to data through the use of a weighting power, which controls how the weighting factors drop off as distance from the grid node increases.
- The greater the weighting power, the less effect the points, far removed from the grid node, have during interpolation.
- As the power increases, the grid node value approaches the value of the nearest point.
- For a smaller power, the weights are more evenly distributed among the neighboring data points. Normally, Inverse Distance to a Power behaves as an exact interpolator.



Inverse Distance Weighted (IDW): z = f (h) where h is distance to control known point 50
 As the distance increases, you v

values





- When calculating a grid node, the weights assigned to the data points are fractions, the sum of all the weights being equal to 1.0.
- When a particular observation is coincident with a grid node, the distance between that observation and the grid node is 0.0, that observation is given a weight of 1.0; all other observations are given weights of 0.0. Thus, the grid node is assigned the value of the coincident observation.



- > The smoothing parameter is a mechanism for buffering this behavior.
- When you assign a non-zero smoothing parameter, no point is given an overwhelming weight, meaning that no point is given a weighting factor equal to 1.0. One of the characteristics of Inverse Distance to a Power is the generation of "bull's-eyes" surrounding the observation position within the grid area.
- A smoothing parameter can be assigned during Inverse Distance to a Power to reduce the "bull's-eye" effect by smoothing the interpolated grid.

# Spline method



#### Spline

- Spline virtually guarantees you a smooth-looking surface.
- Imagine stretching a rubber sheet so that it passes through all of your sample points





- Spline functions imitates a thin flexible sheet forced to pass close to the data points
- The equilibrium shape of the sheet minimizes the bending energy which is closely related to the surface curvature
- Repeatedly applies a smoothing equation (piecewise polyno -Resul' -Resul' j=1 
   Repeatedly applies a smoothing equation (piecewise polyno for a second second

# Kriging method





- Kriging: z = f (h, v) + r where v is the semivariogram model, and r is the residual (i.e. difference between model and observed value)
- Similar to IDW in that
  - A grid is overlaid on top of control points, and the goal is to derive values at a grid point from control points
  - Values at a grid are determined by values at nearby control points weighted by inverse distance

#### Different from IDW in that

- It builds the model of spatial autocorrelation from known values (called "semivariogram"), and the weights are determined such that observed values are best fitted into the specified model
- By model-fitting mechanism, the estimated values are supposed to reflect the spatial structure of given data;
   it also provides the way to validate the weights (e.g. standard error of the estimate)



Kriging methods can be classified as linear and non-linear methods. All nonlinear kriging algorithms are actually linear kriging applied to specific nonlinear transforms of the original data.





- Simple Kriging (SK)
- Ordinary Kriging (OK)
- Universal Kriging (UK)
- Disjunctive Kriging (DK)
- Indicator Kriging (IK)
- CoKriging (COK)
- Lognormal Kriging (LK)



Simple, ordinary, and Universal Kriging predictors are all linear predictors, meaning that prediction at any location is obtained as a weighted average of neighboring data.



#### Kriging

- Kriging is one of the most complex and powerful interpolators.
- It applies sophisticated statistical methods that consider the unique characteristics of your dataset. In order to use Kriging interpolation properly, you should have a solid understanding of geostatistical concepts and methods.





- Kriging is based on the idea that you can make inferences regarding a random function Z(x), given data points Z(x1), Z(x2), ...Z(xn)
- The basis of this technique is the rate at which the variance between points changes over space
- This is expressed in the semivariogram which shows how the average difference between values at points changes with distance between points

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- In this example, we want to estimate a value for point 0 (65E, 137N), based on the 7 surrounding sample points.
- The table indicates the (x,y) coordinates of the 7 sample points, their corresponding values of Z (which is the variable we are interested in) and their distance to point 0.



Νο	X	Y	Z	Dis From 0
0	65	137	7777	0.000
1	61	139	477	4.472
2	63	140	696	3.606
-	64	120	227	8 062
5	69	129	646	0.497
4	68	128	646	9.487
5	71	140	606	6.708
6	73	141	791	8.944
7	75	128	783	13.454









×	v —	7	Die	From 0_	w-1/dA2	<b>→*\</b> \/
0	65	137		riomo	w—1/u^2	2 11
-						
1	61	139	477	4.472	0.050003	23.85145
2	63	140	696	3.606	0.076904	53.52514
2	<b>.</b>	100	~~-			2 400501
3	64	129	227	8.062	0.015386	3.492531
4	68	128	646	9.487	0.011111	7.177525
5	71	140	606	6.708	0.022224	13.46749
6	73	141	791	8.944	0.012501	9.888101
7	75	120	707	12 454		4 225725
/	75	128	783	13.454	0.005525	4.325725
			tota	al	0.193652	115.728
				Z= 11	15.7279559	9 / 0.1936

Kriging matrices





 $\mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{D}$  $\mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}$  $\mathbf{I} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}$  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D}$ 

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#### First, the distance matrix.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0.000	4.472	3.606	8.062	9.487	6.708	8.944	13.454
1	4.472	0.000	2.236	10.440	13.038	10.050	12.166	17.804
2	3.606	2.236	0.000	11.045	13.000	8.000	10.050	16.971
3	8.062	10.440	11.045	0.000	4.123	13.038	15.000	11.045
4	9.487	13.038	13.000	4.123	0.000	12.369	13.928	7.000
5	6.708	10.050	8.000	13.038	12.369	0.000	2.236	12.649
6	8.944	12.166	10.050	15.000	13.928	2.236	0.000	13.153
7	13.454	17.804	16.971	11.045	7.000	12.649	13.153	0.000

variances will be calculated based on the distance between points using Exponential model :





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- where c0 is the nugget effect.
  γ(h) = c\_0 + c\_1 (1 e^{-h/\alpha})
  where c0 is the nugget effect.
  γ(h) = C(0) C(h) C(h) = 10 e^{-0.3|h|}
  The sill is c0+c1.
- The range for the exponential model is defined to be 3a at which the variogram is of 95% of the sill









1	1.000	0.260	0.490	0.200	0.436	5.113	10.000
1	0.062	0.490	0.907	0.202	0.364	10.000	5.113
1	0.364	0.111	0.200	2.903	10.000	0.364	0.436
1	1.225	0.153	0.245	10.000	2.903	0.202	0.200
1	0.225	5.113	10.000	0.245	0.200	0.907	0.490
1	0.193	10.000	5.113	0.153	0.111	0.490	0.260
1	10.000	0.193	0.225	1.225	0.364	0.062	0.048
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

 $\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{C}_{11} & \tilde{C}_{12} & \tilde{C}_{13} & \tilde{C}_{14} & \tilde{C}_{15} & \tilde{C}_{16} & \tilde{C}_{17} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{21} & \tilde{C}_{22} & \tilde{C}_{23} & \tilde{C}_{24} & \tilde{C}_{25} & \tilde{C}_{26} & \tilde{C}_{27} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{31} & \tilde{C}_{32} & \tilde{C}_{33} & \tilde{C}_{34} & \tilde{C}_{35} & \tilde{C}_{36} & \tilde{C}_{37} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{41} & \tilde{C}_{42} & \tilde{C}_{43} & \tilde{C}_{44} & \tilde{C}_{45} & \tilde{C}_{46} & \tilde{C}_{47} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{51} & \tilde{C}_{52} & \tilde{C}_{53} & \tilde{C}_{54} & \tilde{C}_{55} & \tilde{C}_{56} & \tilde{C}_{57} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{61} & \tilde{C}_{62} & \tilde{C}_{63} & \tilde{C}_{64} & \tilde{C}_{65} & \tilde{C}_{66} & \tilde{C}_{67} & 1 \\ \tilde{C}_{71} & \tilde{C}_{72} & \tilde{C}_{73} & \tilde{C}_{74} & \tilde{C}_{75} & \tilde{C}_{76} & \tilde{C}_{77} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

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The Inverse of C is:								
0.128	-0.075	-0.011	-0.006	-0.006	-0.007	-0.022	0.113	
-0.078	0.129	-0.011	-0.010	-0.016	-0.009	-0.004	0.135	
-0.013	-0.010	0.098	-0.042	-0.010	-0.010	-0.013	0.159	
-0.009	-0.009	-0.042	0.102	-0.009	-0.009	-0.024	0.141	
-0.008	-0.015	-0.010	-0.009	0.130	-0.077	-0.011	0.119	
-0.009	-0.008	-0.010	-0.009	-0.077	0.126	-0.012	0.143	
-0.012	-0.011	-0.014	-0.025	-0.012	-0.013	0.086	0.191	
0.138	0.123	0.158	0.143	0.119	0.143	0.177	-2.205	

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{C}_{10} \\ \tilde{C}_{20} \\ \tilde{C}_{30} \\ \tilde{C}_{40} \\ \tilde{C}_{50} \\ \tilde{C}_{60} \\ \tilde{C}_{60} \\ \tilde{C}_{70} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2.614 \\ 3.390 \\ 0.890 \\ 0.581 \\ 1.337 \\ 0.683 \\ 0.177 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



0.162	Kriging weights:						
0.324		0.0	, 3				
0.130	1	$w_1$	1				
0.087		$w_2$					
0.152		$w_3$					
0.058	$\mathbf{w} =$	$w_4$	$= \mathbf{C}^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{D} =$				
0.087		$w_5$					
-0.918		$w_7$					
	l	μ					

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- Estimated value for point O:
- (477)(0.162)+ (696)(0.324)+(227)(0.130)+(646)( 0.087)+(606)(0.152)+(791)(0.058)+(783)(0.087) = 594.5796



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