Spatial AI and Its Applications

Air Quality Prediction and Machines Reading Maps

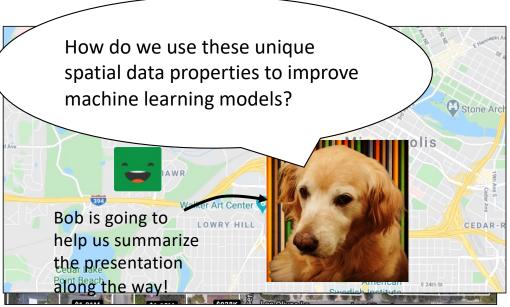
Yao-Yi Chiang

Associate Professor, Computer Science & Engineering Department University of Minnesota, Twin Cities yaoyi@umn.edu

> Knowledge Computing Lab https://knowledge-computing.github.io/people.html

What are spatial AI methods?

- Machine learning & data mining methods generally assume independent and identically distributed random variables – i.i.d.
- But spatial data are not i.i.d.
- Auto-correlation
 - Nearby things are similar
- Spatial non-stationarity
 - Models are difficult to generalize
- And more...



Air quality near highway I-394 can be very different Nearby houses have similar prices depending on their locations

Why do we care?

- Location is the key to link various types of data
 - e.g. can provide context-rich annotated (training) data (if we do it correctly)

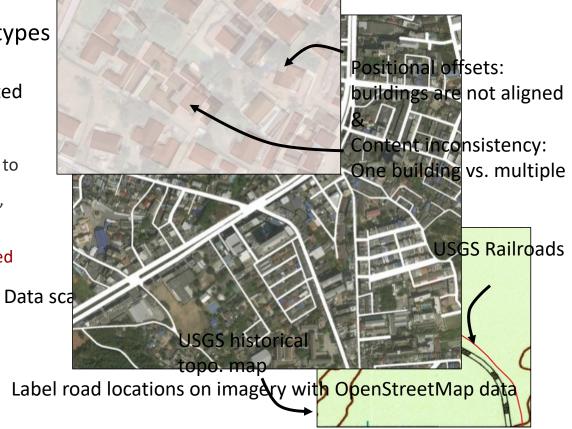


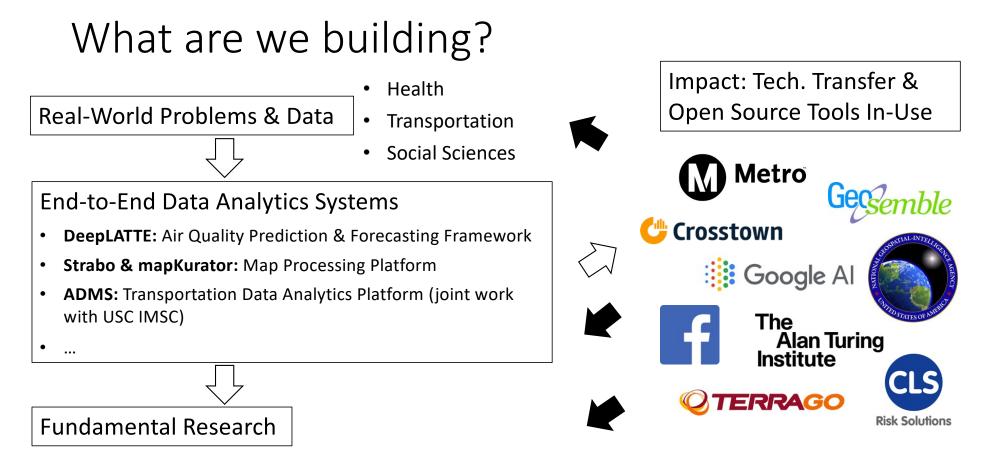
"By using the data in OSM, we were able to collect more than 100 million labeled examples to add to our training data set." "However, using OSM data for labels presented several challenges that required novel approaches to overcome."

Meta Al

Facebook Map with Al

https://ai.facebook.com/blog/mapping-the-world-tohelp-aid-workers-with-weakly-semi-supervised-learning/





ACM SIGSPATIAL, ACM KDD, IEEE International Conference on Data Mining, IEEE BigData, IEEE Mobile Data Management, Extended Semantic Web Conference, International Journal of Geographical Information Science, Knowledge-Based Systems

Building Autocorrelation-Aware Representations for Fine-Scale Air Quality Prediction

Lin et al., 2020 (IEEE International Conference on Data Mining)



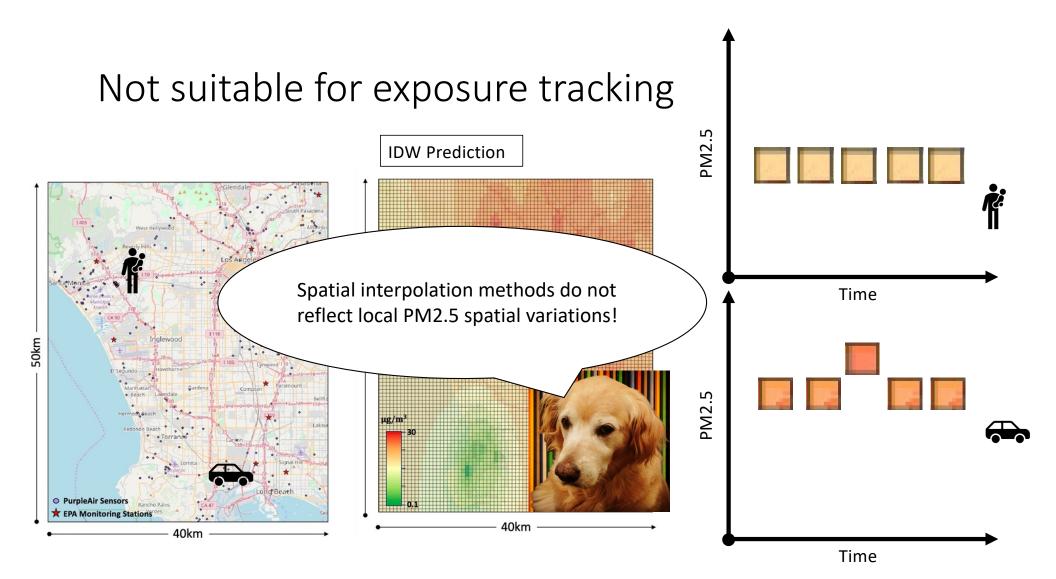
Motivation

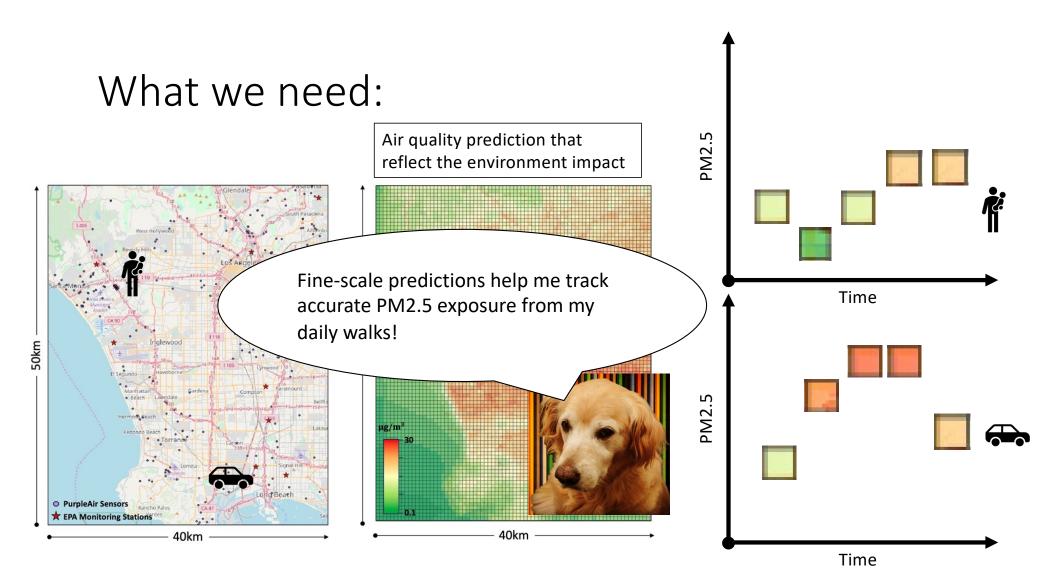


Traditional spatial interpolation methods (e.g., IDW – inverse distance weighting, Kriging) produce smooth results over the space.



https://airnow.gov/





Hypothesis

• Environmental characteristics significantly impact air quality (e.g., PM2.5)

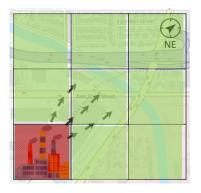
Authors	Study area	Monitor counts	Dependent variables	Independent variables	Buffer size	(Adjusted) R ²
Briggs et al. (2000)	Huddersfield (UK) Sheffield (UK) Northampton (UK)	20, 28 and 35	NO ₂	Road traffic, urban land, and topography (altitudes)	300 m	0.58 to 0.76
Ross et al. (2007)	New York City (US)	28–49	PM _{2.5}	Traffic, land use, census	50, 100, 300, 500 and 1000 m	0.607 to 0.642
Su et al. (2008)	Greater Vancouver Regional District, (Canada)	116	NO/NO ₂	Road, traffic, meteorology (wind speed, wind direction and cloud cover/insolation)	3000 m	0.53 to 0.60
Mavko et al. (2008)	Portland, (US)	77	NO ₂	Traffic-related; Land use-related; Elevation; height from MSL; distance to a river; wind; direction	50, 100, 250, 300, 350, 400, 500, 750 m.	0.66 to 0.81

Source: [Liu et al., 2016]

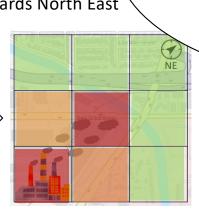
Challenges

- How to learn from thousands of feature characteristics with only sparse ap
- How to jointly model spatiotery

Wind blowing towards North East



9 am



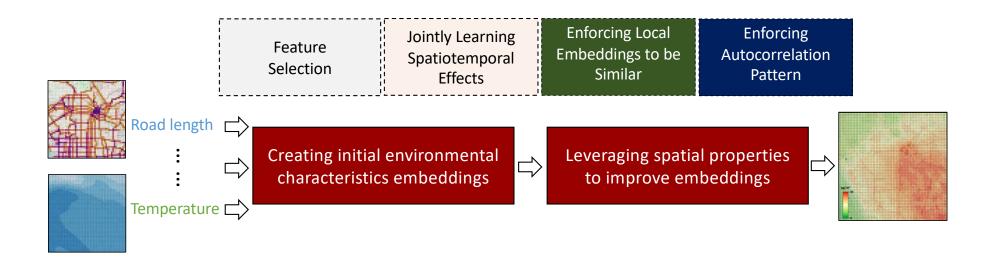
Existing approaches either require expert knowledge or does not deal with space and time together and cannot handle sparse and unevenly distributed observations (e.g., [Briggs et al. 1997; Zheng et al. 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Lin et al. 2017])



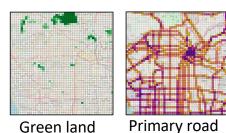
10 am

We build DeepLATTE

- Learn from thousands of features describing the environmental characteristics
- Learn to jointly model spatiotemporal effects
- Learn from sparse and unevenly distributed observations



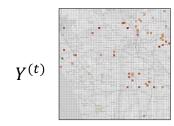
Formally

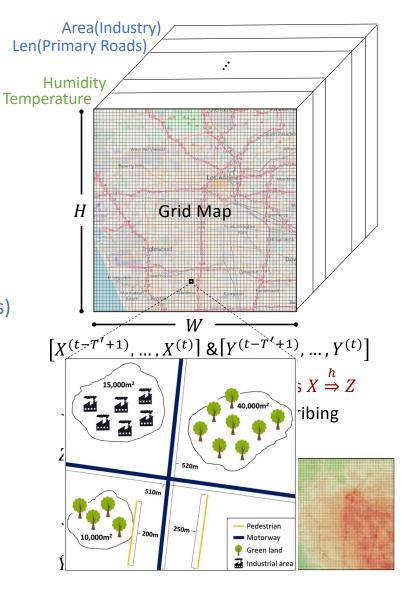


• Input: multi-dimension matrix

X = (F, H, W)

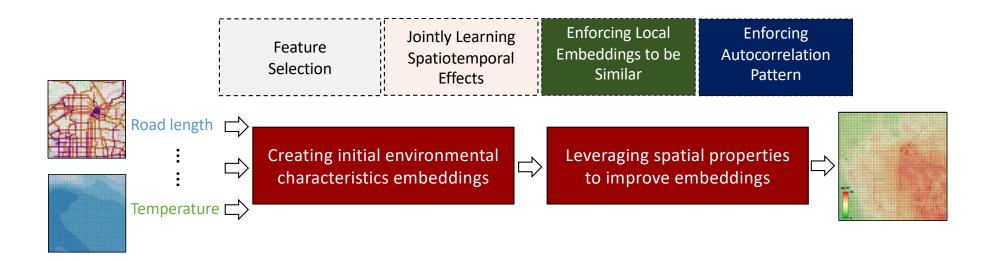
- Each cell in X contains $F = [F_d, F_s]$, describing the environment
- F_d is dynamic (e.g., weather) and F_s is static (e.g., roads)
- Y=(O,H,W)
 - Each cell in Y contains *O*, the air quality observation, dimension=1
 - Many empty cells (limited observations)





We build DeepLATTE (recap)

- Learn from thousands of features describing the environmental characteristics
- Learn to jointly model spatiotemporal effects
- Learn from sparse and unevenly distributed observations

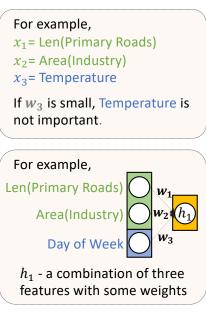


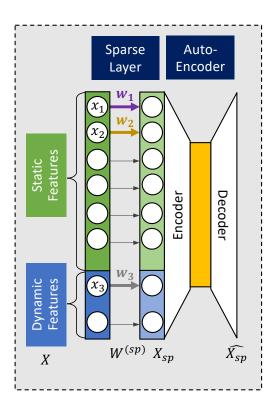
Feature selection and compacting

- Eliminating irrelevant features
- Compacting feature embeddings while capturing important feature interactions
- Feature Selection
 - Adding L1 regularization $L_{sp} = \sum_{w \in W^{(sp)}} ||w||$
 - i.e., minimizing $(|w_1| + |w_2| + |w_3| + ...)$
- Learning Feature Interactions
 - Minimize $\operatorname{Diff}(X_{sp}, \widehat{X_{sp}})$ to ensure that the condensed feature embeddings effectively captures useful information



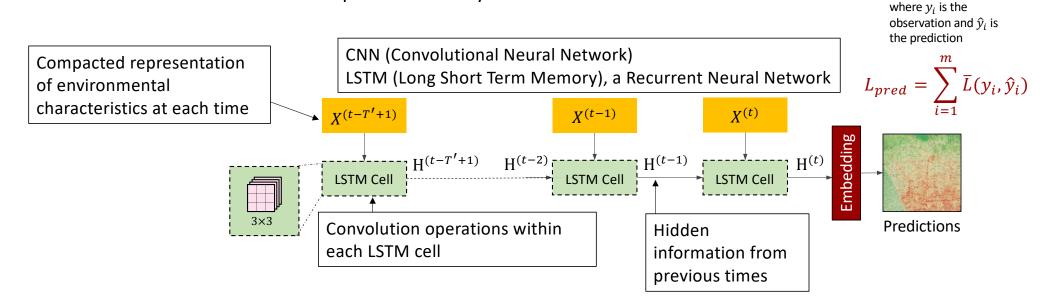






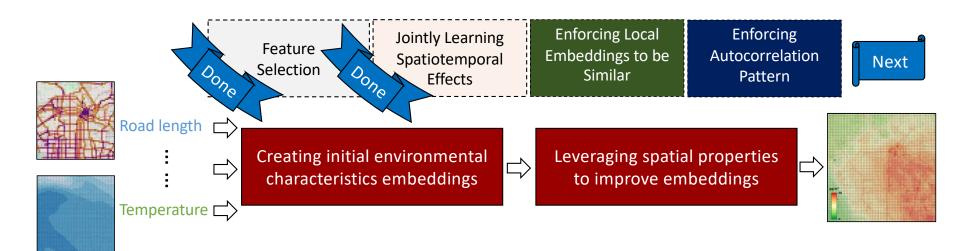
Learning Spatiotemporal Effects

- Capture spatiotemporal effects: current air quality is correlated with the environmental characteristics now, in the past, and from neighboring locations.
- Conv-LSTM layer (Shi et al., 2015)
 - Add the convolution operation directly in the recurrent neural network



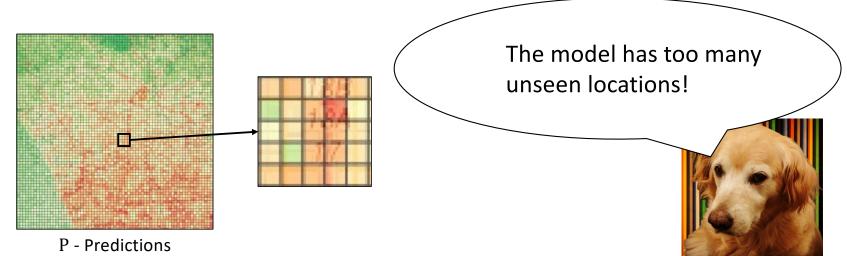
Are we done yet...

- Can compact features and capture important feature interactions
- Can capture spatiotemporal effects
- But we only have sparse and unevenly distributed observations
 - limited variations of environmental characteristics in the training data



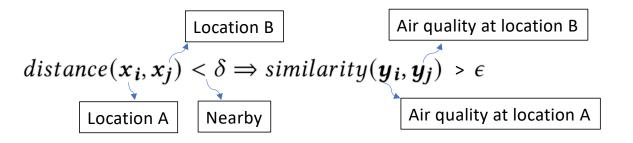
Sparse & unevenly distributed observations

- Sparse & unevenly distributed observations make the model focus on the labeled locations
 - Learned predictions focus on a few locations can fluctuate within a small distance, e.g., 1,000m



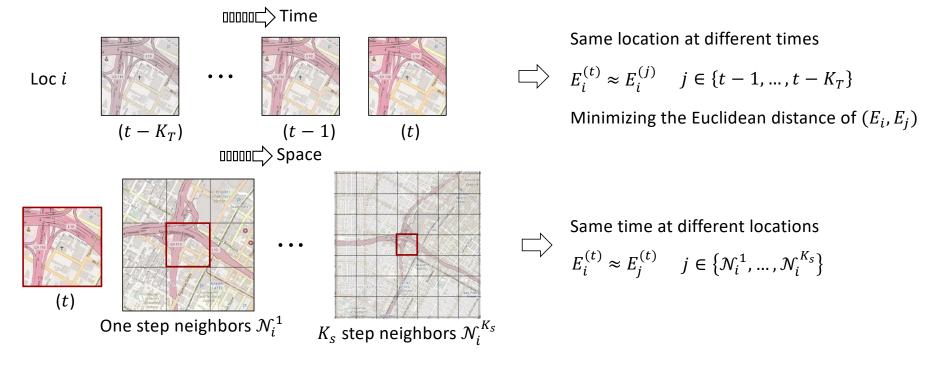
Use spatial data properties to our advantage

• Tobler's First Law of Geography: Everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things.



Use Tobler's first law of geography

- Enforcing spatially and temporally neighboring embeddings to be similar
 - i.e., environmental characteristics change gradually in space and time

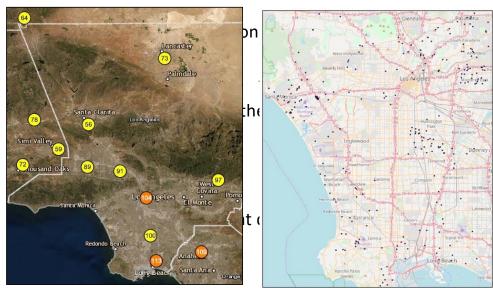


Use Tobler's first law of geography

- Enforcing spatially and temporally neighboring embeddings to be similar
 - i.e., environmental characteristics change gradually in space and time

BUT this only benefits dense and evenly distributed sensor networks. In practice, most sensors do not have nearby neighbors.





South Coast AQMD Monitors https://gispub.epa.gov/airnow/

PurpleAir Sensors https://www2.purpleair.com/ (50km×40km geographic area)

Extend Tobler's first law of geography

- Enforcing neighboring embeddings to have similar air quality
- Embedding • Nearby locations have similar air quality implies locations with a similar "environment" have similar air quality

Location B distance $(x_i, x_j) < \delta \Rightarrow similarity(z_i, z_j) > \epsilon_1$ Embedding at location A Location similarity $(z_i, z_j) > \epsilon_1 \Rightarrow similarity(y_i, y_j) > \epsilon_2$

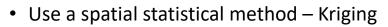
Can we learn how to quantify how distance similarity implies environment similarity and then air quality similarity?

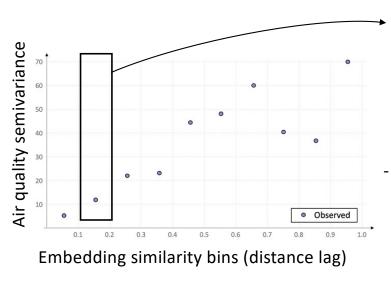


Learning autocorrelation pattern in the embedding space

• First, quantifying the spatial autocorrelation pattern that nearby embeddings have a similar air quality

$$\underbrace{Embeddings}_{similarity(z_i, z_j) > \epsilon_1} \Rightarrow similarity(y_i, y_j) > \epsilon_2$$





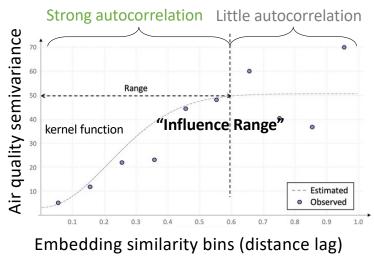
For every distance lag (bin), computing the semivariance, $\gamma(h)$

$$\gamma(h) = \frac{1}{2N(h)} \sum_{i} \sum_{j \neq i} \left(Y(E_i) - Y(E_j) \right)^2$$

where N(h) is the number of pairs in a bin

Learning autocorrelation pattern in the embedding space

- First, quantifying the spatial autocorrelation pattern that nearby embeddings have a similar air quality
- Use a spatial statistical method Kriging
- Quantify the embedding autocorrelation with a kerne function



The kernel function tells us: 1) within an influence range, two nearby embeddings would have similar air quality; 2) theoretically how embedding distance implies air quality similarity (the dashed blue line)



Enforcing autocorrelation to refine embeddings

similarity $(z_i, z_j) < \epsilon_1 \Rightarrow similarity(y_i, y_j) > \epsilon_2$

0

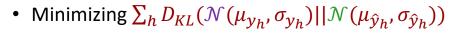
- Predictions should have a similar autocorrelation pattern as the observations within the influence range
 - i.e., the purple (observation) and green (prediction) dashed lines (indicate autocorrelation strength) should be similar

Observed $(y_i - y_j)^2$ \bigwedge Observed $\mathcal{N}(\mu_y, \sigma_y)$ Predicted $(\hat{y}_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ \bigwedge Predicted $\mathcal{N}(\mu_{\hat{y}}, \sigma_{\hat{y}})$

0.9

1.0

Represent pairwise embedding distances in each bin as 7



Encourage the network to learn from unlabeled locations since we can describe each location with an embedding!

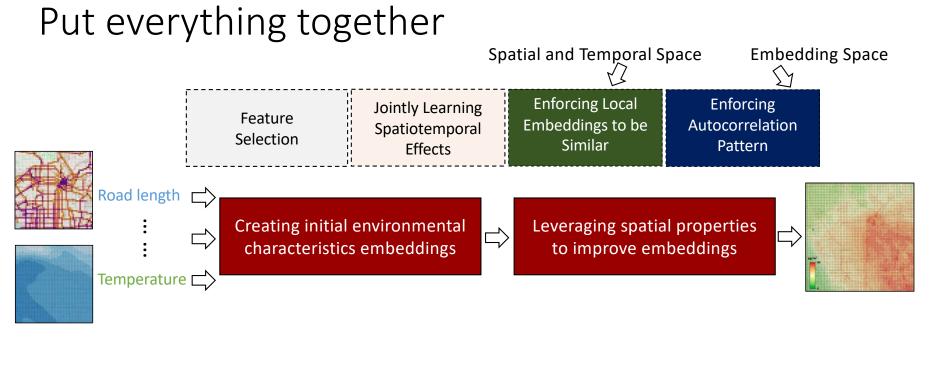


Embedding similarity bins (distance lag)

0.4

Range

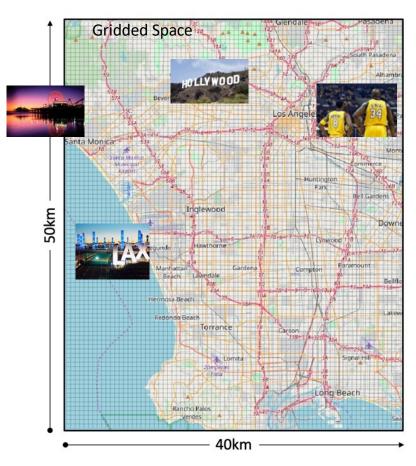
Air quality semivariance

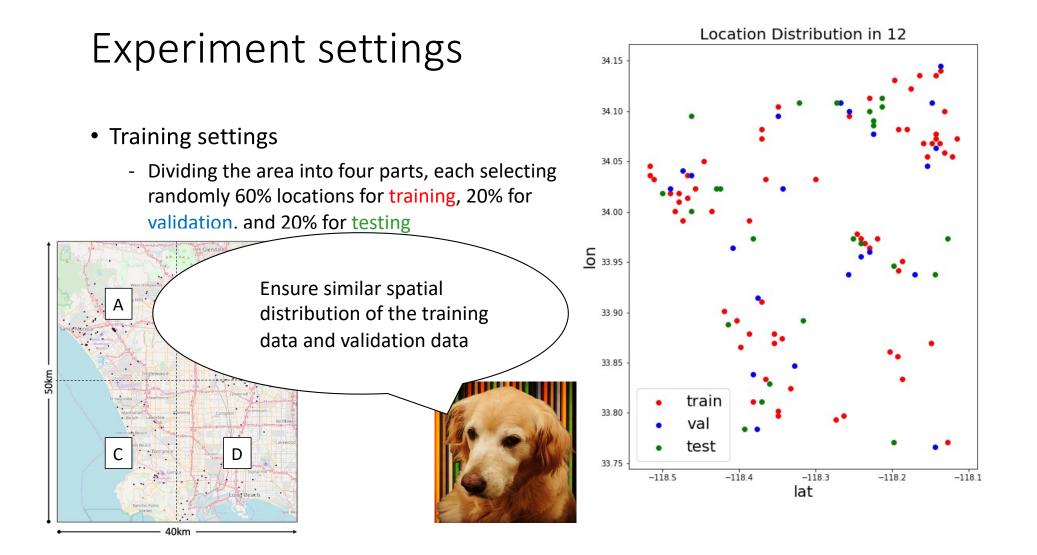


Total Loss = $\alpha \times \text{Loss}[\text{Sparse Layer}] + \beta \times \text{Loss}[\text{Auto-Encoder}]$ + $\gamma \times \text{Loss}[\text{Local Autocorrelation}] + \eta \times \text{Loss}[\text{Global Autocorrelation}]$

Experiment settings

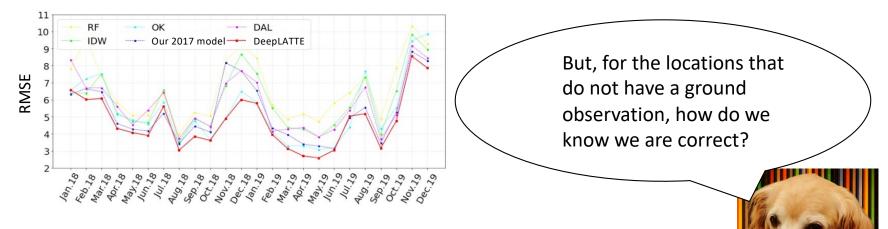
- Create a grid surface with cell size 500m×500m
 - 50km×40km in Los Angeles
- Input Data
 - Air quality data: PurpleAir
 - hourly PM_{2.5} measurements (2018)
 - Meteorological data: DarkSky
 - hourly weather information, e.g., temperature, visibility, pressure, humidity
 - Geographic data: OpenStreetMap
 - 82 features, e.g., length(primary roads), area(green land), count(hotels)
 - Other features: hour of day, day of week, day of year, longitude and latitude





Quantitative analysis

- Built one predictive model per month
- DeepLATTE (red line) outperformed all baseline methods in RMSE and R2



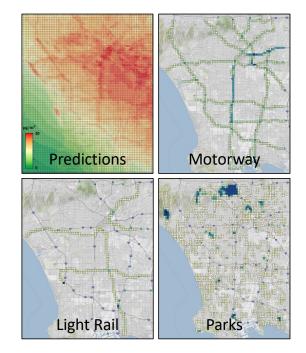
- Ablation studies
 - Without the feature selection module underperforms 1.8%-5.1% in RMSE
 - Without learning autocorrelation underperforms 4.1%- 8.3% in RMSE

Evaluating geo-features

- Evaluating the relationships between predictions and geographic features
 - Showing the result in Oct. 2018, i.e., computing monthly average

Away from major transportation networks improve air quality

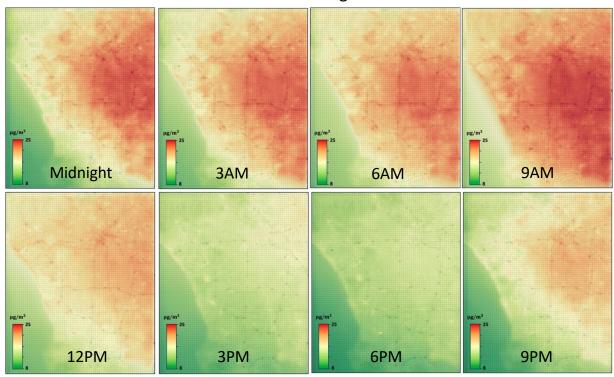
(m)	Motorway	Light Rail	
0	16.9374	17.2880	
Distance <= 500	16.7656	17.1838	
Distance <= 1,000	16.6616	17.0828	



Close to parks improve air quality

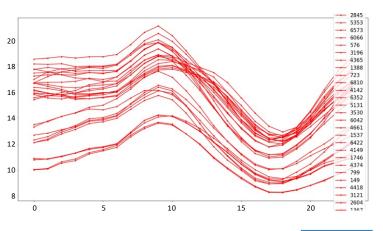
(m)	Park
0	16.4163
Distance > 500	16.6054
Distance > 1,000	17.0344

Visualizing hourly average prediction patterns



Same-scale legend

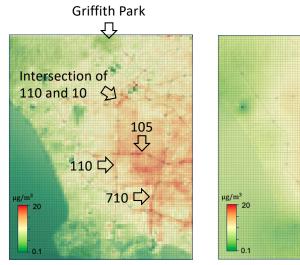
• For each grid, computing the hourly average over a year



Large temperature differences in a day create a thick layer in the air preventing PM2.5 to escape

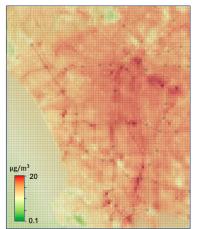


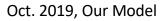
Spatial Visualizations Monthly Average Predictions

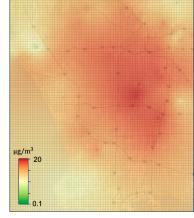


Feb. 2019, Our Model

Feb. 2019, Ordinary Kriging

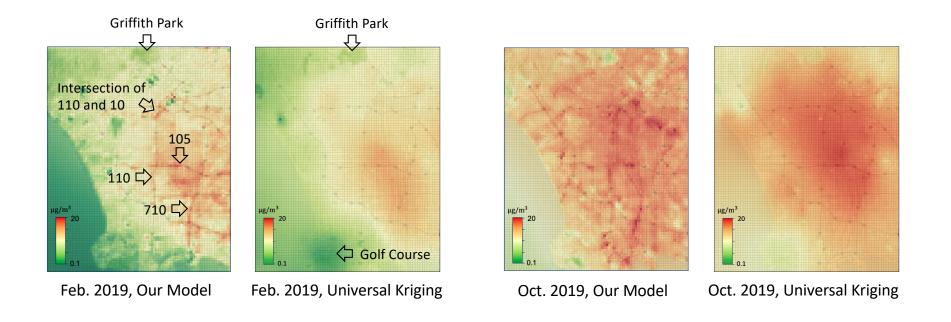






Oct. 2019, Ordinary Kriging

Spatial Visualizations Monthly Average Predictions



* Universal Kriging can leverage covariates (e.g., temperature) to estimate a trend in the spatial process

EXPERIMENT | 32

Evaluating selected dynamic features

- Selected dynamic features (10 out of 14), Oct. 2018 monthly average
 - Visibility
 - Day of week
 - Dew point
 - Day of year
 - Temperature
 - Wind speed
 - Wind direction
 - Cloud cover
 - Pressure
 - Hour of day

"Atmospheric visibility has been found to correlate well with PM2.5 concentrations" [Zhang et al. (2006)]

Dynamic Features	Pearson Correlation with Predictions
Visibility	-0.7395
Dew point	0.3070
Temperature	-0.2417
Wind speed	-0.2608
Wind direction	0.1794
Cloud cover	0.25413
Pressure	-0.0613

Evaluating selected static features

- Selected static features (21 out of 84, showing top 12)
 - Latitude
 - Longitude
 - Land use: commercial
 - Roads: motorway
 - Traffic: stops
 - Land use: residential
 - Traffic: fuel
 - Roads: secondary
 - Roads: service
 - Waterways: river
 - Railways: light rail
 - Railways: rail

Moore et al. show that industrial areas, arterial roads, open areas are statistically significantly associated with PM2.5 in Los Angeles (R-value is approximately 0.4 to 0.6 respectively) using LUR approach.

Kam et al. demonstrated that the light-rail lines and subways are strongly associated with ambient PM levels in Los Angeles (R2=0.61) by personally monitoring the air quality at the stations.

Summary

- Presented a novel spatial-enabled machine learning approach that predicts finescale air quality, support interpretable results
- Future Work
 - Apply our model to other location-dependent time-series data, e.g., remotely sensed thermal imagery over time
 - Improve the interpretability (the selected features)
 - Model the uncertainty in the contextual data
 - Improve handling the spatial non-stationarity problem

Generating Linked Historical Maps

Li et al. KDD (2020)

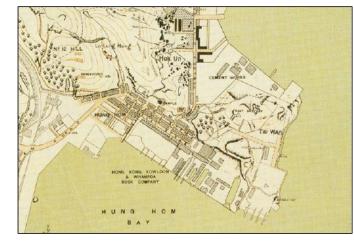




Why historical maps?

- Existing data sources typically contain only contem datasets, e.g., present place names
- Thousands of historical maps contain detailed geographinformation at various times in the past
- Most of the historical maps are usually just scanned images with limited metadata

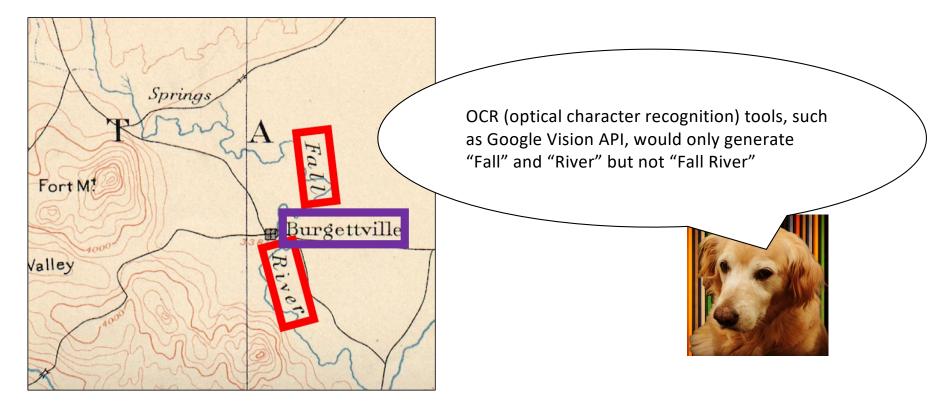
How can we find relevant maps and make them useful if manual metadata curation is not possible?



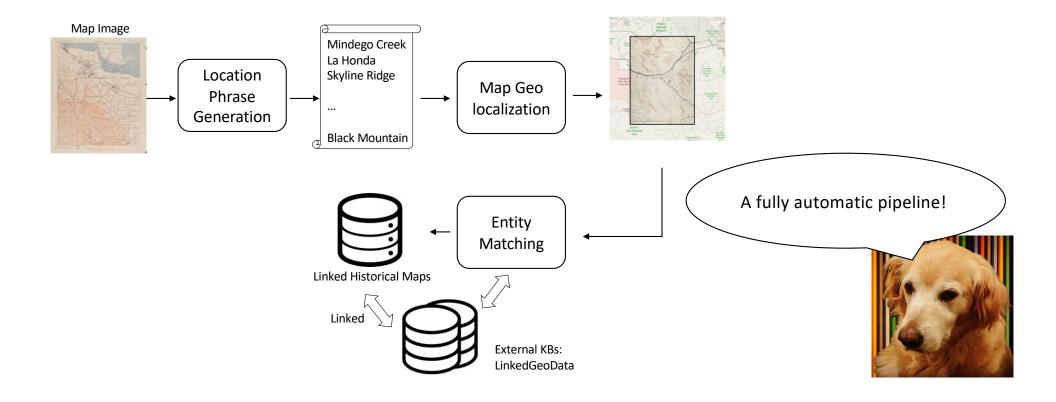




Text on maps are useful but complex



Generating linked historical maps



Generating location phrases

Google Cloud Vision API



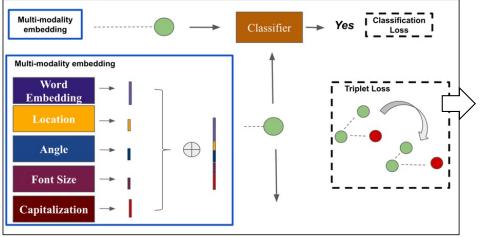
Textual Model: Labels in the same phrase should share similar textual features

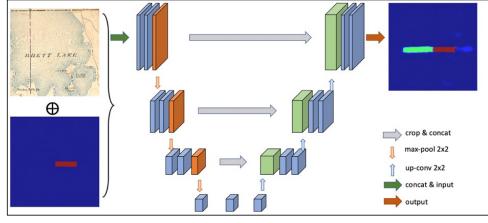


High Recall/Low Precision Help to determine a search neighborhood Visual Model: Labels in the same phrase could have similar nearby geographic features

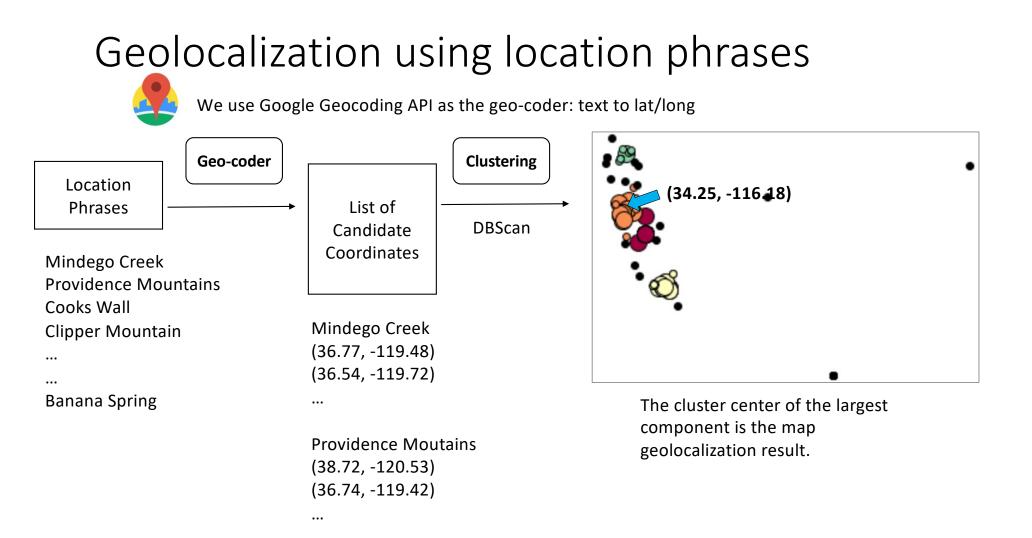
Low Recall/High Precision Help to refine the results



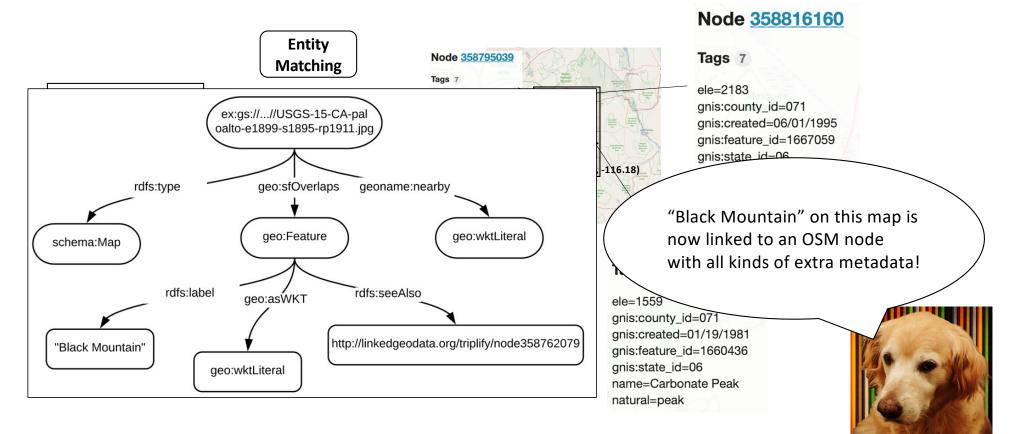




U-Net semantic segmentation



Entity linking using map geolocation

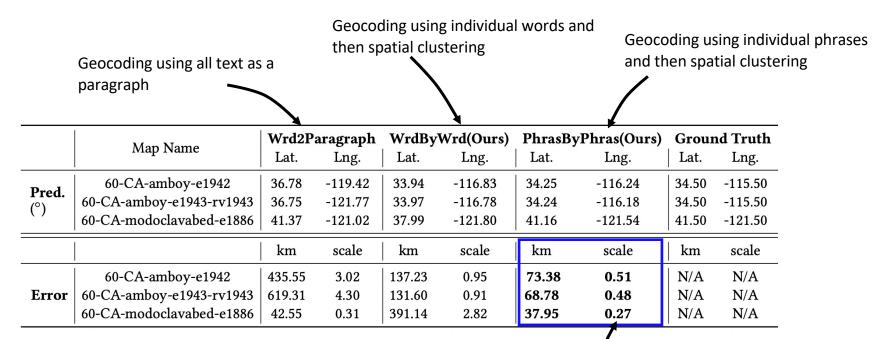


Experimental setting and metrics

- Datasets
 - United States Geological Survey maps (USGS)
 - 15 maps with 4,375 text regions and locations
 - Ordnance Survey maps (OD)
 - 10 maps with 2,197 text regions
 - New York Public Library maps (NYPL)
 - 500 maps without annotated text regions but with locations

Crowdsourced by NYPL

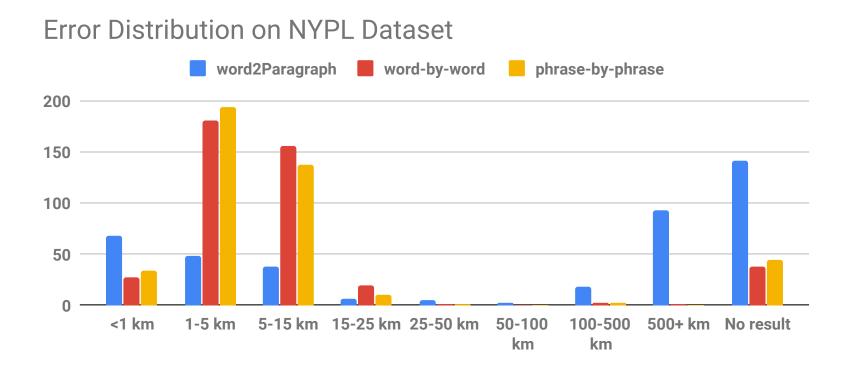
Geolocalization results for small dataset



USGS dataset contains 15 images, we used 12 for training and 3 for testing.

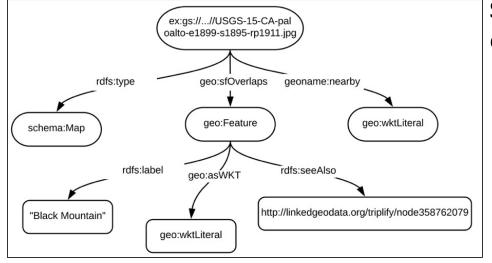
If smaller than 1, the map image covers the predicted geocoordinates

Geolocalization results for large dataset



NYPL dataset contains 500 images.

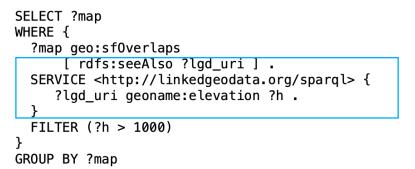
Summary with a query sample



More than just keyword search!

Sample query: search for historical maps that contain mountains higher than 1,000 meters

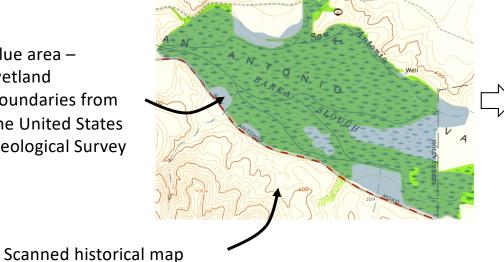
PREFIX geo: <http://www.opengis.net/ont/geosparql#>
PREFIX rdfs: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
PREFIX geoname: <http://linkedgeodata.org/ontology/>

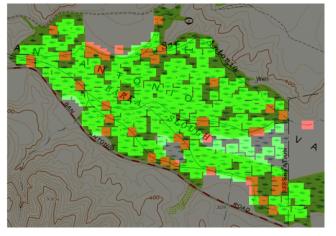


Ongoing: Object detection with weak annotation

• Object detection with limited training data

Blue area – wetland boundaries from the United States **Geological Survey**





Identified locations of wetland symbols Green: true positives **Red:** false Positives

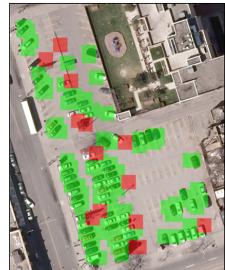
Results visualizations (cars)

- We know there are many target objects within the boundary
 - Spatial auto-correlation
 - Spatial co-occurrence of cars and parking lots
- But we only have one sample...
- Build a generative model to learn a more "relaxed" representation (a distribution) than descriptive models
- So that we can iteratively improve the representation when we find more objects like the target sample

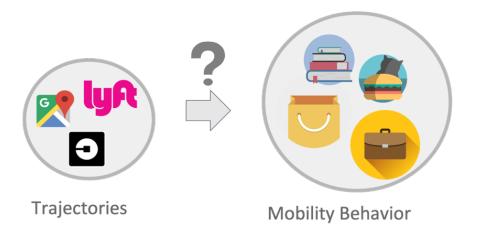


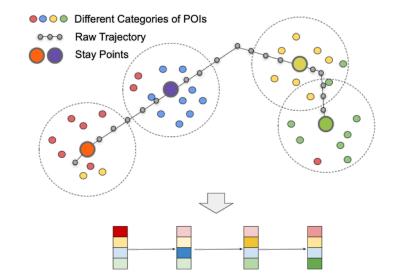






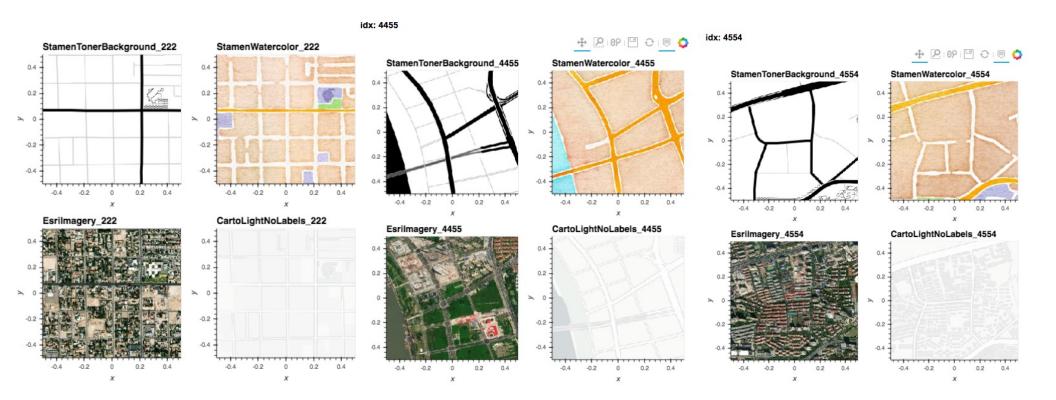
Ongoing: Detecting Trajectory Moving Behaviors Limited and Uncertain Contextual Data





- Manual labeling is expensive
- Various spatial & temporal **scales** in the trajectories
- Geographical context can be incomplete

Ongoing: Encoding the World's Geospatial Data



Overall summary

 We can exploit spatial and terrelationships across data t amounts of informationdata

And many, many other real-world applications that need the investigation of fundamental computer & spatial science research to solve!

- We can use the contextual damany types of analytics about spatianthings, e.g.,
 - Predicting fine-scale air quality
 - **Detecting** objects from geo-Images using weakly annotated data
 - Geolocating and linking scanned map images with external knowledge bases

Acknowledgement

- Stefan Leyk, Johannes Uhl (CU Boulder)
- Yijun Lin, Weiwei Duan, Zekun Li, Jina Kim, Jose Luis Ambite, Craig Knoblock, Hayley Song, Dan Feldman (USC CS), Meredith Franklin, Sandy Eckel (USC Keck Medical School)
- Sasan Tavakkol (Google ٠ AI)





Yiiun Lin

UMN CS&E



Junbao & Yuanvuar













