### STATISTICAL AND MACHINE LEARNING FOR BIG GEOSPATIAL DATA: Part III

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## Overview of Part III

Introduction to feed-forward neural networks Terminology and network architecture **Computational techniques** 

Neural networks for geospatial analysis **Residual kriging** Added spatial features Issues: Not modeling spatial correlation

NN-GLS: Combining neural networks and Gaussian processes for spatial data Representation as graph-neural network Estimation and prediction

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## Non-linear regression

### $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$

### Many choices for modeling *m* **Basis functions** GAM Regression trees and random forests

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## Non-linear regression

### $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$

Many choices for modeling *m* **Basis functions** Curse of dimensionality with increase in covariate dimension GAM Cannot model interactions Regression trees and random forests Estimates are discontinuous Slow for larger datasets due to requiring brute force grid search for tree partitioning

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## Non-linear regression

### $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$

Many choices for modeling *m* **Basis functions** GAM Regression trees and random forests Neural networks

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### Feed-forward Neural networks Single-layer perceptron

$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 

Response



Covariates  $X_i$ 

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### Feed-forward Neural networks Nodes, layers, width

$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 



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### Feed-forward Neural networks Nodes, layers, width

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### Feed-forward Neural networks Weights and biases

 $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 

 $W_1$  and  $\beta$  are the weights (coefficients)

Weights are unknown and are estimated



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### Feed-forward Neural networks Weights and biases

 $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 

 $W_1$  and  $\beta$  are the weights (coefficients)

Weights are unknown and are estimated

Often, an intercept is included in  $X_i$  and each hidden layer.

The coefficients corresponding to the intercepts are often called biases

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### Feed-forward Neural networks Activation function

$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 

 $W_1$  and  $\beta$  are the weights (unknown)

 $g_1$  is a known non-linear function called the link or activation function



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## Activation functions



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$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Single layer perceptron model for *m*:  $m(X_i) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X_i)$ 

The output layer  $O_i = m(X_i)$ is fitted to the response  $Y_i$ to estimate the weights  $W_1$  and  $\beta$ 



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Single layer perceptron function:  $m(X) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X)$ 

Universal approximation theorem: Any continuous function can be approximated to any degree of accuracy using a single layer perceptron with any non-polynomial activation function (Stinchcombe et al, 1989 and others)

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Single layer perceptron function:  $m(X) = \beta' g_1(W_1 * X)$ 

Universal approximation theorem: Any continuous function can be approximated to any degree of accuracy using a single layer perceptron with any non-polynomial activation function (Stinchcombe et al, 1989 and others)

- May need a very wide hidden layer with many nodes for good approximation

### Feed-forward Neural networks Multi-layer perceptron

 $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

Multi-layer perceptron (MLP):  $m(X_i) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} g_L(W_L * g_{L-1}(W_{L-1} * \dots g_{L-1}))$ 

$$_1(W_1 * X_i) \dots)$$



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 $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ 

Multi-layer perceptron (MLP):  $m(X_i) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} g_I (W_L * g_{L-1} (W_{L-1} * \dots g_1))$ 

L hidden layers (network depth)

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$$(W_1 * X_i) \dots)$$



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$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Multi-layer perceptron (MLP):  $m(X_i) = \beta^{\mathsf{T}} g_I (W_I * g_{I-1} (W_{I-1} * \dots g_1))$ 

L hidden layers (network depth)

Weights  $W_l$ 's and  $\beta$  are unknown

Activations  $g_l$ 's are known

$$(W_1 * X_i) \dots)$$



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$$Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$$

Multi-layer perceptron (MLP):  $m(X_i) = \beta^{\top} g_I (W_I * g_{I-1} (W_{I-1} * \dots g_1))$ 

L hidden layers (network depth)

Weights are unknown, activations are known

The output layer  $O_i = m(X_i)$  is fitted to the response to estimate the weights  $W_1, W_2, ..., W_L$ , and  $\beta$ 

$$(W_1 * X_i) \dots)$$





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### Estimation in Neural networks Gradient descent

 $\Psi = (W_1, \ldots, W_L, \beta)$  is the collection of all the weight parameters

The output layer  $m(X_i) = O_i = O(X_i, \Psi)$ 

Loss function used is  $\mathscr{E}(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - Y_i)$ i=1

Parameters updated using gradient des

 $\gamma$  is the learning rate, controls how quickly the model learns

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$$m(X_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_i - O_i)^2$$

scent, e.g., 
$$(\beta^{t+1} = \beta^t - \gamma \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \beta})$$

**Estimation in Neural networks Backpropagation and feed-forward** 

Parameters of last layers updated first which are then used to update parameters of previous layers

Updated parameter values  $\Psi$  then fed-forward into the network to update  $O_i$  and evaluate the loss function  $\ell(\Psi)$ 

Process is repeated iteratively until stopping criterion is reached (loss flattens out)

Feed-forward



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Estimation in Neural networks Minibatching and stochastic gradient descent

Loss function 
$$\mathscr{C}(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - m(X_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - O_i)^2$$

Mini-batching loss:  $\ell_B(\Psi) = \sum (Y_i - O_i)^2$  $i \in B$ 

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) = mini-batch size of 1

Minibatching or SGD leads to considerable speedup in estimation

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### B is a mini-batch (subsample), cycle over all such disjoint mini-batches

## Success of Neural networks

Theory:

Deep neural networks (many layers) with ReLU activation outperform basis functions and wavelets (Schmidt-Hieber, 2020)

Highly active area of research: Farell et al. 2021, Fan et al. 2023 and others

Most work considers regression for data with iid errors and neural network architectures that do not make adjustments for dependence



- Consistency of 1-layer neural networks for non-linear regression (Shen et al. 2023)

  - What is the impact of ignoring data correlation on performance of neural nets?





## Challenges of neural networks for dependent data

Non-linear regression for dependent data:  $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i$ ,  $\epsilon_i$  are dependent are errors

Loss function 
$$\mathscr{C}(\Psi) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - m(X_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i - O_i)^2 = ||Y - O||^2$$

Loss function is essentially the OLS loss Does not account for dependence in the  $Y_i$ 's

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## Neural networks for geospatial analysis

Common strategies:

Neural networks.

Demyanov et al. 1998, Seo et al. 2015, Tarasov et al. 2018 and others

Spatial dependence is completely ignored during estimation

- 1. Residual kriging: Estimates a non-linear regression function E(Y) = m(X) using
- Kriging on the residuals  $Y_i \widehat{m}(X_i)$  for spatially-informed predictions.

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## Neural networks for geospatial analysis

Common strategies:

- 2. Added spatial features:
- Creates a set F(s) of spatial features / covariates (spatial co-ordinates, pairwise
- distances, basis functions, etc.).
- Estimates a non-linear regression function E(Y) = g(X, F(s)) using neural network. Gray et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2019
- Prediction only! Cannot estimate the spatial effect m(X)Does not directly model spatial correlation. Curse of dimensionality from many added features.



## Neural networks for geospatial analysis

3. Model based approach:  $Y_i = m(X_i) + M(X_i)$ 

Retains all advantages of the traditional spatial mixed models Interpretability and parsimony of GP Estimation of mean and spatial prediction (kriging)

$$-w_i + \epsilon_i^*, w \sim GP(0, C), \epsilon_i^* \sim_{iid} N(0, \tau^2)$$

Model the non-linear *m* using a multi-layer perceptron:  $m(X_i) = O_i = O(\Psi, X_i)$ 

## Neural networks with GLS loss

3. Model based approach:  $Y_i = m(X_i) + \epsilon_i, \epsilon \sim N(0, \Sigma), \Sigma = C(\theta) + \tau^2 I$ .

Marginal model:  $Y \sim N(m(X), \Sigma) = N(O(\Psi), \Sigma)$ 

For a given  $\Sigma$ , MLE of  $\Psi$  can be obtained by minimizing GLS loss:  $\widehat{\Psi} = \arg \min_{\Psi} \ell_G(\Psi)$  where  $\ell_G(\Psi) = (Y - O(\Psi))' \Sigma^{-1}(Y - O(\Psi))$ 

In practice,  $\Psi$  can be estimated using gradient descent based on  $\ell_G(\Psi)$ 

NN-GLS: Neural network parameter estimation using GLS loss

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## Neural networks with GLS loss

Challenges with neural network with the GLS loss  $\mathscr{C}_{G}(\Psi) = (Y - O(\Psi))' \Sigma^{-1}(Y - O(\Psi))$ 

Unlike the OLS loss  $\sum (Y_i - O_i)^2$ , the GLS loss is not additive over datapoints and not amenable to minibatching

Evaluating  $\Sigma^{-1}$  is expensive ( $O(n^3)$ )

 $\Sigma$  contains unknown spatial parameters  $\theta$ 

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## Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes

The NNGP precision matrix admits the factorization  $\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} = L'DL$ D is diagonal with entries  $d_i$ L is lower triangular and row sparse

Sparsity determined by the nearest-neighbor DAG



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# Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes Use GLS loss with covariance $\hat{\Sigma}$ from Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Process (NNGP) $\tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} = L'DL$ , D is diagonal with entries $d_i$ , L is lower triangular and row sparse

![](_page_30_Figure_1.jpeg)

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![](_page_30_Picture_7.jpeg)

## Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes The Cholesky factor $V = \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1/2} = D^{1/2}L$ can be computed in O(n) time

 $V\,\mathrm{has}$  the same sparsity as L

![](_page_31_Figure_2.jpeg)

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## Nearest Neighbor Gaussian Processes

The Cholesky factor V has same sparsity as L Sparsity determined by the *m*-nearest neighbor directed  $S_1$ acyclic graph (DAG)

 $V_{ij} = 0$  unless  $i \rightarrow j$  or i = j

Non-zero  $V_{ij}$ 's are nearestneighbor kriging weights and depend on  $\theta$ 

![](_page_32_Figure_6.jpeg)

Dimensions: 1000 x 1000

2-NN DAG

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## GLS loss using NNGP covariance

NN-GLS loss with NNGP covariance m

GLS loss between Y and O =

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natrix: 
$$(Y - O)' \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1}(Y - O)$$

### OLS loss between decorrelated response $Y^* = VY$ and $O^* = VO$ with $V = \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1/2}$

![](_page_33_Picture_10.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_0.jpeg)

2-NN DAG

Decorrelation in NNGP = Multiplication by the sparse Cholesky factor V = Graph convolution on the nearest neighbor DAG with convolution weights  $v_i(\theta)$ 

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Decorrelated response

## Graph neural network

Graph neural networks (GNN) are used when variables have a graphical relationship

Graph convolution: New nodes are created by aggregating variables over their graph neighborhoods

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# NN-GLS as a graph neural network (GNN) NN-GLS loss: $\sum_{i} (Y_i^* - O_i^*)^2$

 $Y_i^* = v_i(\theta)^T Y_{N^*(i)}$ 

![](_page_36_Picture_2.jpeg)

 $O_i^* = v_i(\theta)^T O_{N^*(i)}$ 

Both  $Y_i^*$  and  $O_i^*$  are created by graph aggregation

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IBC 2024

Decorrelated output

## NN-GLS as a graph neural network (GNN)

**NN-GLS model with NNGP** covariance:  $Y \sim N(m(X), \Sigma)$ 

Can be represented as a special type of GNN

Multi-layer perceptron for modeling the mean *m* 

Modeling covariance  $\tilde{\Sigma}$  is equivalent to adding two graph aggregation layers based on NN-DAG and kriging weights

![](_page_37_Figure_7.jpeg)

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### NN-GLS as a graph neural network (GNN) Mini-batching:

The OLS loss 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_i^* - O_i^*)^2$$
 can be split into minibatches

MLP parameters (weights) updated using minibatch GLS loss:

$$\sum_{i \in B} (Y_i^* - O_i^*)^2$$

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![](_page_38_Figure_6.jpeg)

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![](_page_38_Figure_9.jpeg)

### NN-GLS as a graph neural network (GNN) Spatial parameter estimation:

Spatial covariance parameters  $\theta$ only appear in the two graph convolution layers as kriging-based graph convolution weights

Negative log-likelihood from the model  $Y \sim N(m(X), \tilde{\Sigma})$  for updating  $\theta$  is GLS loss + log(det( $\tilde{\Sigma}$ ))

![](_page_39_Figure_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_39_Figure_8.jpeg)

For NN-GLS using NNGP, predictive distribution at a new location s<sub>0</sub> is given by

$$Y(s_0) \mid Y, \theta, \beta = N(\mu(s_0), \theta)$$

 $N_0 = m$  nearest neighbors of  $s_0$  among  $s_1, \ldots, s_n$ 

Kriging mean:  $\mu(s_0) = \widehat{m}(X(s_0)) + C(s_0, N_0) \Sigma_{N_0, N_0}^{-1}(Y_{N_0} - \widehat{m}(X_{N_0}))$ 

Kriging variance:  $\sigma^2(s_0) = C(s_0, s_0) + \tau^2 - C(s_0, N_0) \Sigma_{N_0, N_0}^{-1} C(N_0, s_0)$ 

*m* is the MLP estimate of *m* 

 $\sigma^2(s_0)$ 

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![](_page_41_Picture_1.jpeg)

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![](_page_41_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_42_Picture_1.jpeg)

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![](_page_42_Figure_4.jpeg)

![](_page_43_Picture_1.jpeg)

### Prediction via the GNN is exactly equivalent to nearest-neighbor kriging mean for the model $Y \sim NNGP(m(X), \Sigma)$

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![](_page_43_Figure_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_43_Picture_8.jpeg)

## Variable importance

When the covariate X is multivariate, importance of individual covariates in a nonlinear regression can be obtained using *partial dependence functions (PDF)* 

estimated by any machine learning model (Friedman, 2001)

PDF is obtained by integrating the remaining variables

E.g., If *X* is two-dimensional, i.e.,  $X_i = (X_{i1}, X_{i2})'$ , the  $PDF(X_{.1}) = \widehat{m_1}(X_{.1}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{m_1}(X_{.1}, X_{i2})$ 

Partial dependence plots (PDP) are plots of PDF for each variable

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- PDF shows the marginal effect one covariate has on the predicted response as

$$(X_{i1}, X_{i2})'$$
, the PDF is

![](_page_44_Figure_14.jpeg)

## geospaNN package

Python package for NN-GLS in PyPI Available at <a href="https://pypi.org/project/geospaNN/">https://pypi.org/project/geospaNN/</a> With real and simulated data analysis examples

![](_page_45_Figure_2.jpeg)

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## Theory

observed spatially correlated data processes under increasing domain asymptotics

Finite sample error rates of NN-GLS sc upper and lower the eigenvalues of the

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# 1-layer NN-GLS is consistent for estimating the non-linear mean *m* for irregularly

cale by 
$$\frac{\Lambda_{high}}{\Lambda_{low}}$$
 where  $\Lambda_{high}$  and  $\Lambda_{low}$  are edges discrepancy matrix  $E = \Sigma^{T/2} \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} \Sigma^{1/2}$ 

![](_page_46_Picture_8.jpeg)

## Theory

![](_page_47_Figure_1.jpeg)

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Error rates are better when  $\Lambda_{high}$  is close to  $\Lambda_{low}$ , i.e., when  $\tilde{\Sigma} \approx \Sigma$ 

Worst rate when using 0 nearest neighbors In this case,  $\tilde{\Sigma} = I$ , i.e., NN-GLS = NN Shows that ignoring spatial correlation severely impacts performance of NN

Near best rate when using  $\approx 15$  nearest neighbors in the NNGP covariance  $\tilde{\Sigma}$ 

![](_page_47_Figure_8.jpeg)

## Summary

NN-GLS: Neural networks within the spatial GP model  $Y \sim N(m(X), \Sigma)$ 

GLS loss:  $(Y - O)^{\top} \tilde{\Sigma}^{-1} (Y - O)$ , O is the output layer from the MLP

Representation as graph neural network: GLS loss = OLS loss between the two graph convolution layers

Implementation of NN-GLS in the Python package geospaNN

- $\tilde{\Sigma}$  is the NNGP covariance matrix; *m* modeled as a multi-layer perceptron (MLP)

- MLP with two graph-convolution layers one each for response and output Novel minibatching, backpropagation, and kriging algorithms, O(n) complexity
- Theory of neural networks for spatial data showing need for modeling spatial covariance

![](_page_48_Picture_13.jpeg)

## Main References

NN-GLS paper: Zhan, W., & Datta, A. (2024). Neural networks for geospatial data. Journal of the American Statistical Association, (In press), 1-21.

geospaNN software for NN-GLS: <u>https://pypi.org/project/geospaNN/</u>

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![](_page_50_Picture_16.jpeg)