Ron Sarafian

Ben-Gurion University of the Negev ronsar@post.bgu.ac.il

Spatial Prediction

- Dr. Jonathan Rosenblatt
- Prof. Itai Kloog

Spatial Prediction

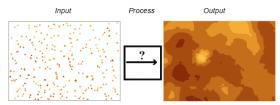
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Spatial prediction

Examples:

- **Exposure Science**: Predicting air-pollution with satellite products
- Precision Agriculture: Predicting field's stress with drones imagery
- Remote Sensing: Classifying Land-Use with spectral data



Definition

the indirect measurement of some geo-located **output** (a.k.a labels), in places where this output is unknown, but some **input** data (a.k.a features) are available.

Spatial prediction as a supervised learning problem

- Training set: pairs of observed inputs and outputs, measured at known locations. (e.g., AOD and PM from ground monitoring stations)
- Predictor: obtained by applying some statistical learning algorithm, on the training set (e.g., Kriging; LMMs; Random Forest; Deep Networks)
- Test set (a.k.a prediction set): observed inputs in some area (e.g., $1km^2$ grid of AOD in Israel)
- Predictions: obtained by applying the predictor on the test set data

Formal supervised learning setup

Denote:

- $s \in S$ a location
- $y(s) \in Y$ output at location s
- $x(s) \in X$ input at location s
- $D = \{s_i, x_i, y_i\}, i = 1, ..., N$ a training set
- $D^* = \{s_j^*, x_j^*, y_j^*\}$, j = 1, ..., M a test set

(ERM:) find $h: X \to Y$ that **minimize the Empirical Risk** w.r.t to some loss L (e.g., squared):

$$\hat{h} := \arg\min_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L\Big[h\big(x(s_i)\big), y(s_i)\Big]$$

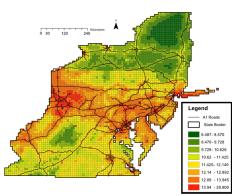
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Prediction

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Spatial predictions themselves may serve as covariates in a subsequent research (two-stage studies).

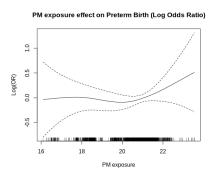
Example (Epidemiology):

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first stage: Predicting PM

Second stage: Estimating PM effect on health

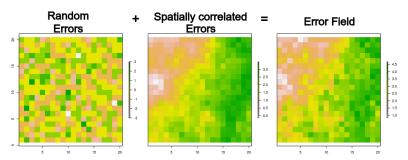


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Prediction errors are Epidemiological Errors-in-variables

Bad predictions in the exposure stage, are *errors-in-variables* (a.k.a *measurement errors*) in the epidemiological stage.

Errors in variables might lead to erroneous second stage conclusions



⇒ Prediction accuracy is important, from **epidemiological perspective!**

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What is Prediction Accuracy?

What is considered an **accurate** predictor?

A one that does a small error on **test data**. However:

What is the test set? (where should we predict)



- Does one accuracy measure fits all test sets?
- Test's outputs are not available. Can we use holdout methods?
- Does accurate predictions mean accurate second stage estimation?

Our talk

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- 1 Performance estimation: Defining what is "good"
 - Spatial prediction as a Domain Adaptation problem
 - Empirical estimator and Cross-validation
- 2 Spatial adaptation: Using our framework to improve prediction
 - Real data results
- Optimal Design adaptation: Using our framework to improve second-stage estimation
 - Algorithm
 - Real data Preliminary results

Prediction task and the test set

The **prediction task** determines the test set, and vice-versa.

E.g., different spatial prediction tasks:



Predicting a grid



Predicting specific locations (e.g., residence of patients)

- Do we expect a predictor to have the same accuracy in both tasks?
- If one predictor is good at predicting A, is it also good at B?

Intuition: Prediction task should determine the evaluation metric.

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When Training and Test data are are not similar

Test set's outputs are unknown... **How can we estimate predictor's performance?**

Standard machine-learning answer: Use **holdouts** approaches (e.g., cross-validation)

But what if the training and test data are **not so similar**?

Formally:

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If training data distribution \neq test data distribution, then naive cross-validation is biased

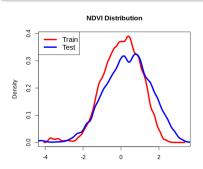


When training data distribution \neq test data distribution

Example:

monitoring stations (training set) are mostly in urban areas, but region of interest (test set) consist of mostly rural areas.

Inputs (e.g., NDVI) distribution differ between urban and rural regions





Optimal Design adaptation

Can we design a criterion that is tailored to the prediction task?

Potential usages:

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- Quality assessment
- Model training
- Model selection

Our observation:

Any prediction task implies certain spatial **importance weights** that can be incorporated into the **decision-theoretic learning** framework.

Our criterion borrows ideas from the literature on **Domain Adaptation**.



Domain Adaptation

Designed to learn a predictor from one population that follows a source distribution, and apply it in some other population that follows a target distribution. (Pan et. al., 2009)

Example: Train classifiers with amazon photos; predict on mobile camera photos (Gong et al., CVPR 2012)





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Domain adaptation deals with **learning**

how to learn a predictor on one domain, and adapt it to another?

We use it for model validation

how to estimate the performance of a given predictor with samples from the "wrong" distribution?

- We will view the training set as samples from the source domain, and the test set as samples from the target domain.
- We will then **reweight** each data point from the training/source so they resemble a sample from the test/target. (importance weighting)

Data generating distribution differ between the source and the target.

- Training samples: $P_S = P_S(s, x, y)$
- Test samples: $P_T = P_T(s, x, y)$

The researcher may specify a prediction task by specifying P_T .

The Target Risk

How good is the predictor on the average target point?

$$\epsilon_T(h) := E_{P_T} L(h(x), y) \tag{1}$$

Two major problems:

- $oldsymbol{0}$ Specifying P_T is extremely hard
- 2 We only have samples from P_S , how can we estimate $\epsilon_T(h)$?

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$$P_T(s, x, y) = \underbrace{P_T(s)}_{\text{spatial}} \underbrace{P_T(x, y|s)}_{\text{local}}$$

Specifying $P_T(s, x, y)$ is greatly simplified if one observes that:

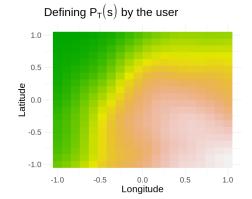
$P_T(x,y|s)$ does not depend on the researcher's task.

- Thus $P_T(x,y|s) = P_S(x,y|s)$ (Covariate-shift)
- $P_S(x,y|s)$ can be estimated from the training data.

$P_T(s)$ is merely a 2D spatial weights function

ullet Can be thought of as the **target importance** allocated to location s

Specifying the spatial target distribution $P_T(s)$ by our self:



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The IWSR empirical estimator of the Target Risk:

$$\epsilon_S^{IW}(h) := N^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega(s_i) L(h(x_i), y_i),$$
 (2)

We show (Sarafian et. al., 2020):

If $\omega(s_i) = \frac{P_T(s_i)}{P_S(s_i)}$, then IWSR is an **unbiased** estimate of the **target risk**:

$$E[\epsilon_S^{IW}(h)] = \epsilon_T(h) \tag{3}$$

- $P_S(s)$ is estimated from the data
- $P_T(s)$ is specified by the user

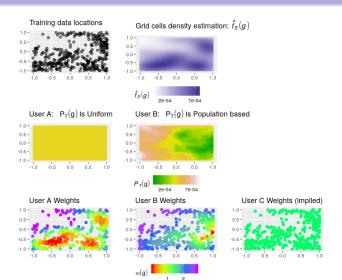
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IWSR unbiasedness

In expectation over training sets:

$$\begin{split} E\big[\epsilon_S^{IW}(h)\big] &= \int_S \int_X \int_Y P_S(s,x,y) \big[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \omega(s) L(h(x),y)\big] dy \ dx \ ds \\ &= \int_S P_S(s) \ \omega(s) \int_X \int_Y P_S(x,y|s) \Big[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(h(x),y)\Big] dy \ dx \ ds \\ &= \int_S P_S(s) \frac{P_T(s)}{P_S(s)} E_{P_T(x,y|s)} \big[L(h(x),y)\big] \bigg) \ ds \\ &= \int_S P_T(s) E_{P_T(x,y|s)} \big[L(h(x),y)\big] \ ds \\ &= E_{P_T(s,x,y)} \big[L(h(x),y)\big] = \epsilon_T(h) \end{split}$$

* shared support condition: $\nexists s$ s.t. $P_T(s) \neq 0$, and $P_S(s) = 0$



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The IWSR is not immune to the usual overfitting problem.

Remedy: Compute it on held-out samples.

Importance-weighted k-fold cross-validation (IWKF)

$$\epsilon_S^{IWKF} = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{1}{|D_k|} \sum_{i \in D_k} \omega(s_i) L(h_{D_{-k}}(x_i), y_i)$$
 (4)

We show (Sarafian et. al., 2020):

When some conditions hold, for any training set D of size N

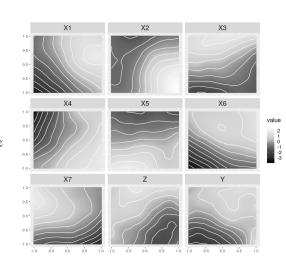
$$E_D[\epsilon_S^{IWKF}(h)] = G_{N - \frac{N}{K}} \tag{5}$$

 $G_{N-\frac{N}{K}}$ is the expected target risk over all training sets of size $N-\frac{N}{K}$

input data: $x = (x_1, ..., x_7)$

hidden field: z

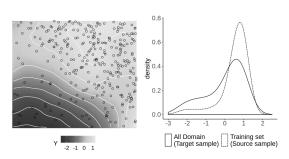
output data: $y = g(x, \theta) + \delta z$



Simulated data analysis (2)

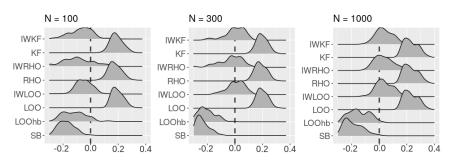
Setup:

- Simulate new data
- 2 Simulate new locations
- \bullet Fit $\hat{h}(x)$
- **4** Estimate $\epsilon_T(\hat{h})$
- **5** Compare $\epsilon_T(\hat{h}) \hat{\epsilon}(\hat{h})$
- 6 Repeat



Simulated data analysis (3)

Density of $\epsilon_T(\hat{h}) - \hat{\epsilon}(\hat{h})$ for IW estimators vs. naive / blocking approaches:



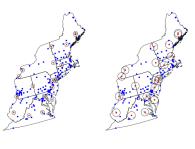
- IWSR cross-validation estimates are unbiased
- Naive cross-validation estimates underestimate the target risk
- Blocking cross-validation estimates overestimate the target risk

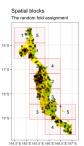
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Comparing to other validation approaches

 Some authors suggest spatial variants of h-block cross-validation (Burman, 1994) or other spatial folding mechanisms, to enforce spatially uncorrelated training and validation sets.





Sarafian et al. (2019)

Valavi et al. (2018)

 We observe that removing training-validation correlation is not (always) desired – it impose unnecessary extrapolation.

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Optimal Design adaptation

Comparing to other validation approaches

Our observation:

There is no harm in spatially correlated training-validation sets, as long as the **source-target** data experience the same correlation structure.

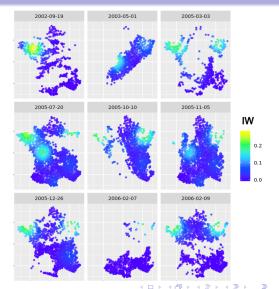
IWSR maintains the desired structure between sets through weighting; ensuring that validation sets would have the same probabilistic **properties** as the **target** data.

Spatial adaptation

Improving prediction by spatial adaptation

Steps:

- Estimate $P_S(s)$
- Estimate $P_T(s)$
- Calculate $\omega(s)$

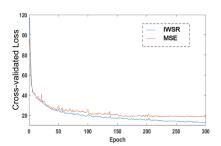


IWSR minimization

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• Find $h: X \to Y$ that **minimize IWSR** w.r.t to the loss L:

$$\hat{h} := \arg\min_{h \in H} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \omega(s_i) L[h(x(s_i)), y(s_i)]$$



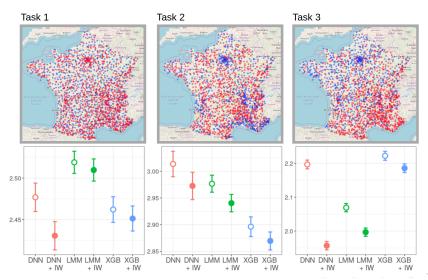
Learning through minimizing the IWSR improves spatial prediction

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Spatial Prediction

Air-temperature prediction from remote sensing data and ground stations in France.

- 3 different spatial target distributions where defined, from which test locations where sampled
- Training sets were sampled from the remaining locations
- 3 type of predictors: LMM; XGB; DNN, each trained by minimizing the MSE or the IWSR
- Their performance are compared the average test set loss (the "target risk").



Optimal Design adaptation

The Second Stage

PM-health example:

- Epidemiologist assumes a parametric model $M(y, z; \beta)$
- y is PM
- z is Low-birth-weight
- β are model's parameters, including PM effect.
- $\hat{\beta}$ parameters' estimates

For example, M may be a Logistic regression:

$$z|y \sim Binom(p = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 y}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 y}}).$$

So the second-stage goal is accurate estimation, e.g.:

$$min\{E||\beta - \hat{\beta}||^2\}.$$



Note: For the epidemiologist, y is unknown, and is replaced by $\hat{y} = h(x)$.

Potentially, the **one-stage** problem is to find $h^*: X \to Y$, s.t.:

$$h^* := \arg\min_{h \in H} \left\{ E \big| \big| \hat{\beta}(h(x); z) - \beta \big| \big|^2 \right\}.$$

But we restrict our self to the **two-stage** framework:

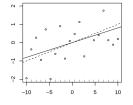
- Can we make first-stage that improve the second-stage? Yes.
- Does accurate first-stage prediction necessarily mean accurate **second-stage** estimation? No.

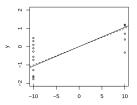
The idea: Instead of adapting to the locations of subjects, we now adapt to the second stage itself.

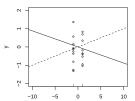
Do all samples have the same contribution to $E[(\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)^2]$? No.

Example: **Linear** second-stage model: $z = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y + \varepsilon$

It turns out that $E[(\beta_1 - \hat{\beta}_1)^2]$ is minimized when Var[y] is maximized







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Optimal design deals with the identification of **favorable sampling points**. I.e., points that **yield accurate estimates**

Usually we look for points $\tilde{\xi}$, s.t.:

$$\tilde{\xi} := \arg\min_{\xi} \{ F(Var[\hat{\beta}_{\xi}]) \}$$

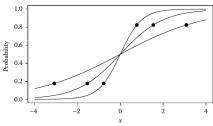
- A-optimality: F() := trace()
- D-optimality: F() := det()
- E-optimality: $F() := \lambda_1()$

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Optimal Design

- Linear Models
 - Finite sample variance is known
 - Optimum is independent of the unknown parameters β
- Non-linear Models
 - Finite sample variance is unknown → Use limiting variance
 - Optimum depends on unknown $\beta \to \text{sequential design, prior, etc.}$

Example: D-optimal points in Logistic Regression:



- 1 Esther **provides** exposures.
- 2 Ephraim uses them to estimate exposure effects.
- Sephraim uses optimal design theory to mark data points of importance.
- **4** Esther uses **weighted ERM** to improve predictions at those locations.

```
function EE ESTIMATOR(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}, D^*, \mathcal{K}, w^0)
       \hat{x}^1 \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{D^* w^0}
       for l \in \{1, ..., L\} do
              \hat{\beta}^l \leftarrow \mathcal{M}_{\hat{x}^l}
              \tilde{\xi}^l \leftarrow \arg\max_{\xi} \left\{ \det(I(\beta; \xi, \hat{\beta}^l)) \right\}
              w_i^l \leftarrow \max_{x \in \tilde{\mathcal{E}}} \left\{ \mathcal{K}(x, x_i) \right\}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n^*\}
              \hat{x}^{l+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{D^* w^l}
       end for
       return \hat{\beta}^L
end function
```

▷ Initialize exposures

▷ Estimate EE with current exposures ▶ Find D-optimal design \triangleright Weight x_i using distance from $\tilde{\xi}$ ▶ Update exposures using current weights

Simulation Results

Spatial Prediction

First stage

• Data: Gaussian Process: $y \sim N(x'\theta, \mathsf{Mat\acute{e}rn}(s;\alpha))$

• Predictors: Im / gam / RF

Second stage

• Data: Binomial: $z|y \sim Binom(p = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{y}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \hat{y}}})$.

Model: Logistic Regression

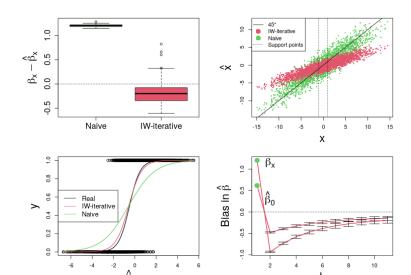
Univariate exposure

No other epidemiological covariates

```
\begin{split} & \text{function EE ESTIMATOR}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{M}, D^*, \mathcal{K}, w^0) \\ & \hat{x}^1 \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{D^*, w^0} \\ & \text{for } l \in \{1, \dots, L\} \text{ do} \\ & \hat{\beta}^l \leftarrow \mathcal{M}_{\hat{x}^l} \\ & \hat{\xi}^l \leftarrow \arg\max_{\xi} \left\{ \det(I(\beta; \xi, \hat{\beta}^l)) \right\} \\ & w_i^l \leftarrow \max_{x \in \hat{\xi}} \left\{ \mathcal{K}(x, x_i) \right\}, \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n^*\} \\ & \hat{x}^{l+1} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_{D^*, w^l} \\ & \text{end for} \\ & \text{return } \hat{\beta}^L \\ & \text{end function} \end{split}
```

 \triangleright Initialize exposures

ightharpoonup Estimate EE with current exposures ightharpoonup Find D-optimal design ightharpoonup Weight x_i using distance from $\tilde{\xi}$ ightharpoonup Update exposures using current weights



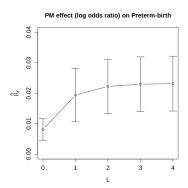
Simulation Results

Things to note

- Estimation error of β is smaller using our iterative estimator.
- Predicted exposure is worse on average. A paradox reported by Szpiro, Paciorek, and Sheppard (2011).
- More impactful in non-linear models.
- Multiple random initializations to deal with overfitting.

Applying the IW-iterative algorithm on real data:

- Southern Israel, 2004-2014
- Soroka birth data, all births.
- Response: Preterm birth (binary).
- **Exposure:**Average PM2.5 exposure in the last 30 days of pregnancy (pmlast30).
- **Controls:** time trends, regional characteristics, mother characteristics (socioeconomic status, age, ethnicity), infant sex.



Disclaimers

- Model misspecification
- Covariates
- Confounders.



Extantions

- Other epidemiological models (LM, GLM, Survival,...) only requires existence of optimal design theory.
- From spatio to spatio-temporal
- Multivariate exposure
- Tailor predictor to covariates.
- Private exchanges of covariates
- Other domains

Summary

Take Home (1)

- What is a good spatial predictor? It is not well defined.
 - Depending on the task / test set
 - The target distribution define the task
 - Domain Adaptation can be used to adapt to this distribution
 - IWSR is an unbiased estimate of the target risk
- Minimizing the IWSR in the ERM framework is recommended
 - Improve prediction by adapting the learning to the task (e.g., entire grid / specific locations)

Take Home (2)

Spatial Prediction

- Can we use the Domain Adaptation to improve the second stage?
 - Yes, using the iterative-IW algorithm:
 - **D-optimal** Design points to improve prediction
 - ERM with IWSR to adapt prediction

References

Spatial Prediction

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Summary

Thank you!