Evaluation of NO2 emission with different land-use pattern within different states in the US

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Project Description

Description of data set:

The dataset used for this project focused on modeling NO2 concentrations in different locations of the different states of US using a Land-Use Regression (LUR) approach [1]. The data was collected from U.S Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) regulatory monitoring stations between 2000 and 2010. This NO2 concentration measurement in different location is the dependent variable of the dataset.

The dataset contained different Land-Use geographic variables which are considered as the independent variables. These variables include impervious surface area (%coverage), population density, road lengths(major, residential, total), elevation of the location, distance to coast etc. These variables were evaluated over 22 buffers ranging from 100 m to 10 km to capture the local and regional land use pattern.

The dataset is a CSV file that contains 370 rows and 134 column which can be accessed from this link: https://drive.google.com/file/d/1dCy4GJo4pk0tVJMhmtnC5ZF12hiWM91q/view [Accessed 10/15/2024]

Proposal:

The main goal of this project will be to develop a predictive model which will predict the NO2 concentration of any location of US from different land use variables given in the dataset. It would be very useful to predict the concentrations of NO2 in any given location which will be helpful in identifying locations that immediate preventive measures and taking necessary actions.

Exploratory Data Analysis

Characterization of Dataset

The dataset we are going to use is obtained from Bechle et al. [1] which was used for estimating air pollution in terms of NO_2 from 2000 to 2010. The dataset contains spatial and temporal concentration of NO_2 in ppb at different locations of the different states in US. It also contains Geographic Information System (GIS) data on land-use features such as impervious surfaces, population density, length of different types of roads-residential, major and total etc. These are commonly used as proxies for different pollution sources [2-4]. Based on the dataset, NO_2 concentration varies significantly from state to state depending on different land-use pattern and the value range between 0.31~34.21 ppb for different states. The distribution of the NO_2 pollutants across the US based on location are shown in Figure 1. Some of the explanations of the dataset are provided below:

Impervious_100: This represents the percentage of impervious surfaces such as roads, buildings etc. within a 100-meter buffer around the measuring station. Major_1000: It refers to the length of the major roads within a 1-kilometer radius around the measuring location. Resident_500: This indicates length of the roads within 500-meter radius of the monitoring station. Total_100: It represents the length of all the roads including major, minor and residential within a 100-meter buffer zone around the measuring station. Population_100: It denotes the population density within the 100-meter buffer area around the measuring station.

Dataset CSV file: https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1yo3cL23279-qwrjHSDbHc1e4t_8yl6h8CfVrMX-PIS4/edit?usp=drive_web&ouid=116140173519287299300

Preliminary Analysis and Plots

From the given dataset, we did some preliminary analysis to visualize the dataset and the summary of the observations are described briefly: First, we tried to find out if there is any direct relationship between any of the land use characteristics and NO_2 concentrations measured at the monitor station. For this preliminary analysis, we considered the effect of this land use pattern within 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius of the station. The reason for selecting these three radii was to cover short, medium and long-distance land use behavior around the station. Figure 2-7 presents the effect of different land-use characteristic on the NO_2 concentration.

For impervious surfaces, for all three cases, we can clearly see there is a trend that with the increase of impervious surfaces around the station, the concentration of NO_2 increases gradually (Figure 2). As the impervious surface increases, it indicates there is increase in roads, sidewalks, parking lots, buildings, traffic and also there is decrease in vegetation areas and soil surface. Therefore, all these impervious surfaces are kind of indicator of high volume of vehicles, high population density which contributes to high NO_2 emission and also the absence of natural filtration effect with the absence of vegetation is another major source of NO_2 emission.
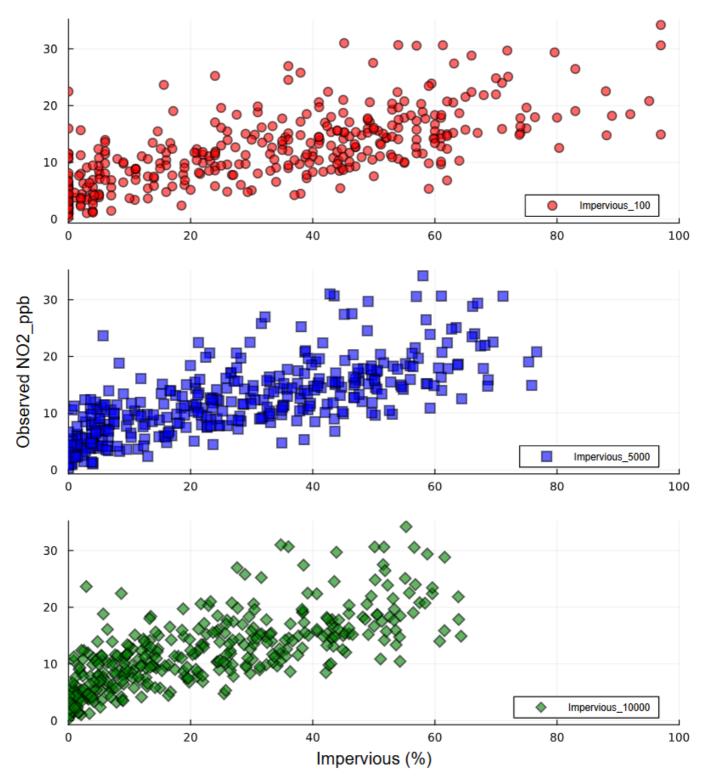
Figure 2: Variation of measured NO_2 concentration with the impervious surface at 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius around the monitor station.

In case of Major roads, we clearly see with the increasing length of major roads, there is clear increase in the concentration of NO_2 (Figure 3). Moreover, visually, it looks like there is a steep increase in the concentration of NO_2 initially with the increase of major roads, but the rate of increase slows down as the length of major roads increases further. The reason of such increase is understandable since the production of NO_2 is directly influenced by the volume of traffic and high traffic areas will release more NO_2 as the more diesel vehicles will be on the road contributing to high NO_2 emissions. Similar trend is observed for the relationship between NO_2 concentration and residential roads and total roads (Figure 4-5).

Figure 3: Variation of measured NO$_2$ concentration with the length of major roads at 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius around the monitor station.

Figure 4: Variation of measured NO$_2$ concentration with the length of total roads at 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius around the monitor station.

Figure 5: Variation of measured NO$_2$ concentration with the length of residential roads at 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius around the monitor station.

In case of population, it looked like an exponential curve which might describe the pattern very well where initially with the increase in population there is a drastic increase in NO$_2$ concentration which saturates at a certain point (Figure 6).
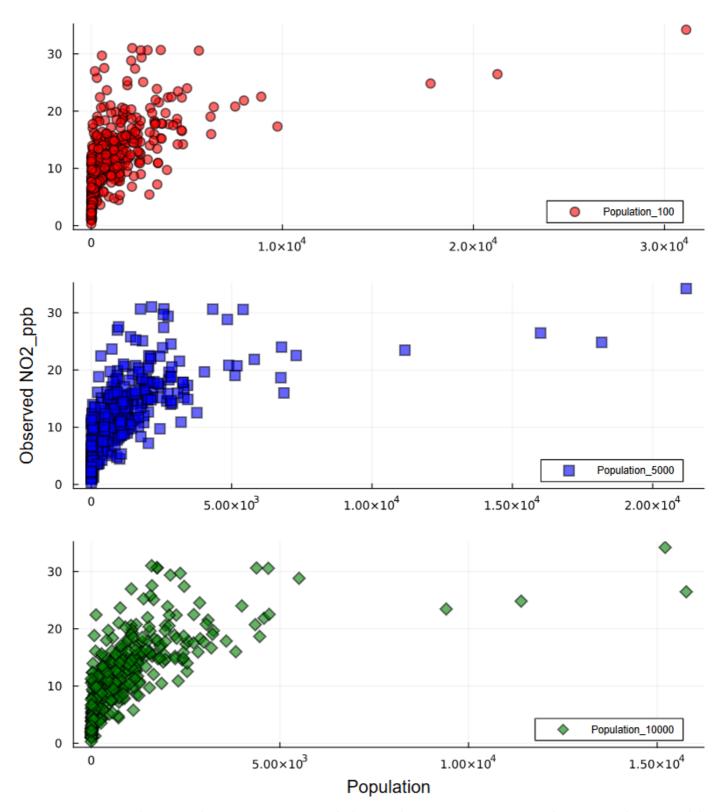
Figure 6: Variation of measured NO_2 concentration with the population at 100m, 5000m and 10000m radius around the monitor station.

Figure 7 shows the relationship between NO_2 concentration and the distance from the coast. In general, as the distance from the coast will be less, there should be lower concentration of NO_2 due to the ventilation from the winds. However, in the figure we can clearly see higher concentration of NO_2 in some of the places which are closest to coast. It indicates that although coastal distance have effect on NO_2 but it should be analyzed in combination with other land use pattern because even if the place is closer to coast but if there is high population density and roads, it will have higher NO_2. Overall, all of these land-use characteristics have their own effect on the NO_2 concentration and in some cases, there is strong relationship with NO_2.
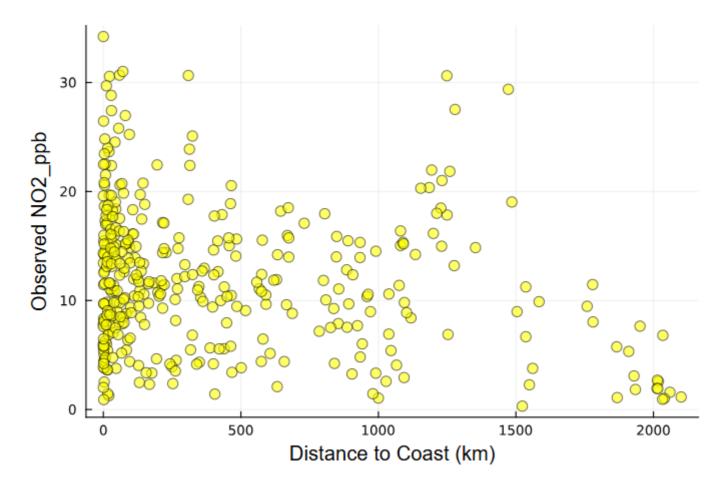
Figure 7: Variation of measured NO_2 concentration with the distance to coast from the monitor station.

As a next step, we also investigated the scenario of NO_2 concentration at individual state level and for the preliminary analysis we selected four states- IL, CA, FL and ND. The reason of selecting these four states was to capture the diverse representation of factors that might influence the NO_2 level which might be helpful for generalizing our analysis in future. CA is a highly urbanized and densely populated state with around 94 station available at the given dataset which is the reason we considered CA for our analysis. IL offers a perspective in the NO_2 pattern of Midwest's urban and suburban areas whereas FL is a coastal state which might help to understand the effect of breeze and humidity on NO_2. Lastly, ND is a low-population and rural environment with minimal urbanization which might help us to understand the effect of such characteristics on NO_2. The effect of the land use characteristics described earlier on NO_2 concentrations are summarized in Figure 8-15. Figure 16 presents the distribution of NO_2 pollutants of these states by monitoring station.

For CA state, visually we can clearly see there exists a correlation among impervious surface, population, length of the roads and NO2 concentration (Figure 8-9). Interesting to see, although some of the places are very closer to the coast but it has significant concentration of NO_2. As discussed earlier, although the coastal distance is lower but other factors such as impervious area, population and length of the roads are so high that it affects the NO_2 significantly compared to the coastal distance from measuring station.

Figure 8: Effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of CA state.
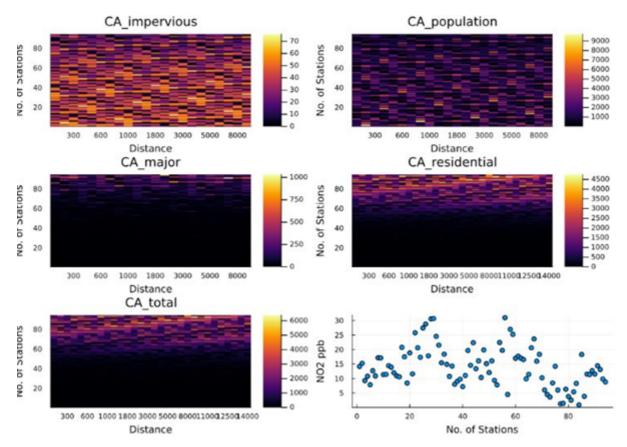
Figure 9: Heatmap to understand the effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of CA state.

For IL state, there were only 6 stations, and the results suggests that there is a good relationship between impervious surface and NO_2 concentrations (Figure 10-11) . Also, since IL is far away from the coast it is clearly seen that NO_2 concentration has kind of linear relationship with coastal distance. Population and residential roads don't reveal any clear pattern but with the major roads, it is clearly visible that increase in the length of major roads correlates well with the increase in NO_2 concentrations.

Figure 10: Effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of IL state.
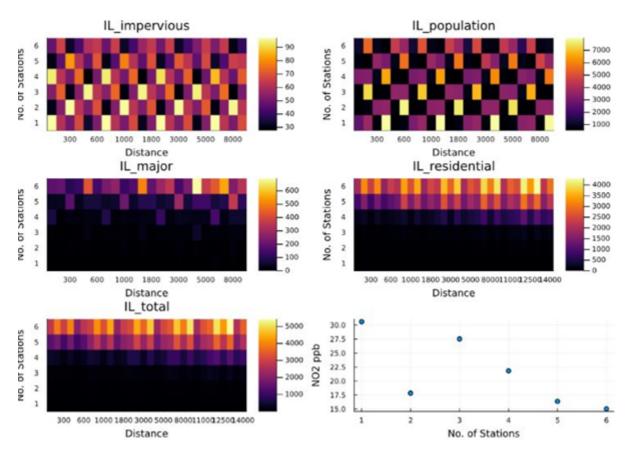
Figure 11: Heatmap to understand the effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of IL state.

For FL state, impervious surface, population, roads all these parameters have kind of steady linear relationship with NO2 concentration and with the increase in these parameters NO_2 increase is not that significant (Figure 12-13). For example, in IL state, some of the places with 70-80% impervious area has around 30 ppb NO_2 concentration whereas in FL, places with 60-80% impervious area has around 12 ppb NO_2. One of the major reason of this observed lower values could be due to the fact that all the stations in FL area are very close to the coast showing the noticeable effect of it on NO_2.

Figure 12: Effect of different land use characteristics on NO$_2$ concentration of FL state.
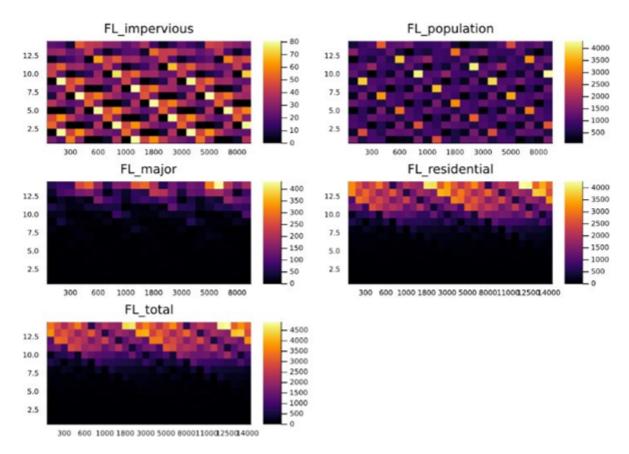
Figure 13: Heatmap to understand the effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of FL state.

In case of ND state, although it is very far from the coast but still it has very low concentration of NO_2 (highest being ~6%) (Figure 14-15). It could be attributed to the fact that all the stations had very low population and the length of the roads are the lowest among all the four states considered in the preliminary analysis. Overall, it is seen that out of all the land use characteristic considered, all of the factors do not have similar effect on NO2 concentration, and the effect varies from state to state.

Figure 14: Effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of ND state.

Figure 15: Heatmap to understand the effect of different land use characteristics on NO_2 concentration of ND state.

Figure 16: Distribution of NO_2 concentration across CA, ND, IL, FL based on the station.

Plan for Predictive Modeling

Based on the preliminary analysis of our dataset, it is evident that all these land-use parameters, such as impervious surfaces, road density, population distribution, etc. play a crucial role in shaping NO_2 concentrations. These parameters exhibit a strong correlation with NO_2 levels, underscoring their significance as predictors. Our next objective is to quantify the specific effects of each land-use parameter on NO_2 concentration and identify which factors most significantly influence these levels. By pinpointing the primary contributors, we aim to refine our understanding of pollution sources and dispersion.

Building on these findings, we will develop a predictive regression model capable of estimating NO_2 concentrations across different states in the U.S., factoring in the varying land-use patterns with high accuracy. For developing this model, we will consider interaction terms such as population density x road, impervious surface x major roads etc to capture the combined effects of multiple variables. We will do further correlation analysis to identify strong predictors of NO_2 emissions. Using PCA, we will try to reduce dimensionality if there are many correlated features simplifying the model without losing the predictive capacity. Then, we will explore different machine learning algorithms to find out which one works better for our purpose, followed by model training and cross-validation. We will consider different performance metrics like R-square, Root mean squared error values etc. to evaluate the model accuracy. Eventually, we will apply the model to predict NO_2 levels in regions that do not have measured data on NO_2 but have land-use information.

Such a model has the potential to be instrumental for multiple applications. By assessing long-term health impacts associated with chronic exposure to pollutants, it can provide insights into the risk of respiratory and cardiovascular conditions associated with NO_2. This type of analysis is invaluable to public health agencies tasked with identifying regions and populations at greater risk of pollutant-related diseases [5-6]. Moreover, predictive modeling of NO_2 concentrations can guide policymakers and city planners in designing urban environments with better air quality. By predicting pollutant dispersion, decision-makers can strategically zone residential areas, schools, and recreational spaces away from high pollution zones, thus enhancing community health and safety. Finally, our model will help highlight areas where pollution levels are worsening, providing actionable insights for immediate interventions. This capability will empower environmental agencies to prioritize regions for pollution control efforts, thus contributing to a healthier and more sustainable living environment for all residents.

The main objective of this project is to develop a predictive model to predict the NO2 concentration accurately based on the land use pattern of a particular location. The dataset contained around 370 observations and 128 land use pattern variables such as Impervious_100, major_100, Population_100, Resident_100, total_100, distance_to_coast etc. Therefore, first important step of developing a predictive model was to select the important features required for the model where correlation plot and Lasso regularization techniques were utilized. Once the feature selection was done, different machine learning models were trained and used for predicting the NO2 concentrations in test data. The model accuracy was evaluated in terms of three metrics-Mean Squared Error (MSE), Root Means Squared Error (RMSE) and R2 value. FInally, a comparative analysis has been done to find out the accuracy of different models used for prediction in this study.

Data selection and Feature Engineering

To find out the correlation bewteen different independent variables, the data was sorted by using the correlation plot. Since there were numerous variables in the dataset, initially selective dependent variables introduced in the exploratory data analysis were considered which are_distance to coast, Impervious 100, Impervious 5000, Impervious 10000, Population 100, Population 5000, Population

10000, Major 100, Major 5000, Major 10000, Residential 100, Residential 5000, Residential 10000, Total 100, Total 5000, Total 10000.

The correlation analysis was initially divided into five distinct groups to facilitate comparison, as visually inspecting all features simultaneously was impractical. This segmentation also allowed for classification of the data based on different features, aiding in the identification of relevant variables. Figure 1 presents the correlation plots for each group, illustrating the relationships between features.
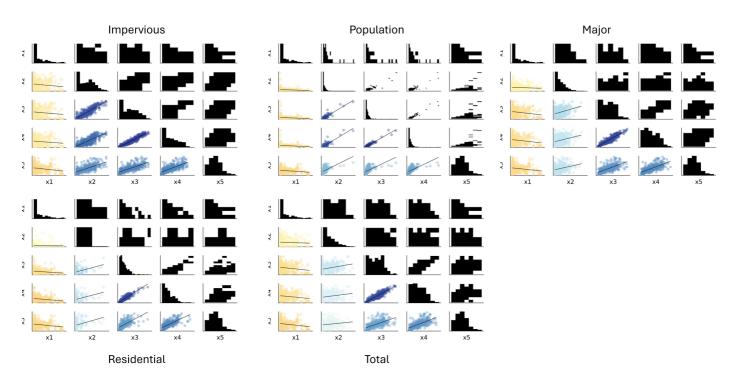

Figure 1: Correlations of each dependent variables

Based on the correlation plots, it was observed that as the color of the curves became darker, the degree of correlation appeared to decrease. By comparing all plots, it was concluded that features such as distance to coast, impervious 100, major 100, major 5000, resident 100, resident 5000, total 100, and total 5000 exhibited lower inter correlations among themselves. To ensure greater accuracy, these findings were reanalyzed through detailed correlation plotting, as illustrated in Figure 2.
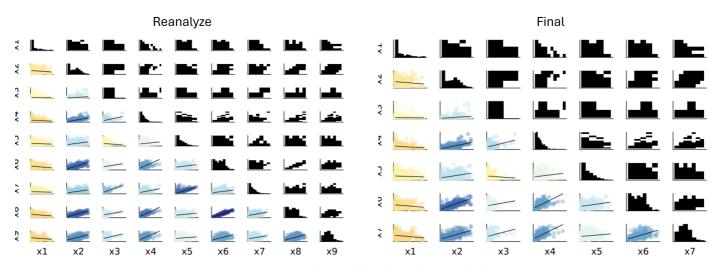

Figure 2: Reanalyze and final correlation checking

To aid this feature selection process with correlation plot, Lasso Regression (Least Absolute Shrinkage and Selection Operator) was applied to the dataset for selecting the most relevant features to predict observed NO2 concentrations. The main advantage of Lasso regression is that it reduces complexity

by shrinking less important feature coefficient to zero. The reason of selecting Lasso was as it performs both feature selection and regularization, simplifying the model by irrelevant and redundant features.

```julia
begin
    XX = Matrix(data[:, Not([:Observed_NO2_ppb, :State, :Monitor_ID, :Latitude,
    :Longitude, :WRF_DOMINO])])  # Replace 'NO2' with your target variable name
    yy = Vector(data[:, :Observed_NO2_ppb])

    Random.seed!(42)

        # Standardize the features to have mean 0 and standard deviation 1
        X_standardized = (XX .- mean(XX, dims=1)) ./ std(XX, dims=1)

        # Fit a Lasso model with cross-validation to find the best lambda
        fit = glmnetcv(X_standardized, yy, alpha=1.0)  # alpha=1.0 for Lasso

        # Find the lambda that corresponds to the minimum cross-validation error
        cv_errors = fit.meanloss  # Cross-validation errors for each regularization
    parameter
        best_param_index = argmin(cv_errors)  # Index of the best regularization
    parameter
        best_regularization_param = fit.lambda[best_param_index]
        println("Best regularization parameter (lambda): ", best_regularization_param)

        # Refit Lasso using the best regularization parameter to get feature coefficients
        lasso_model = glmnet(X_standardized, yy, alpha=1.0,
    lambda=[best_regularization_param])  # Note: lambda as array

        # Extract the coefficients of the selected features
        coefficients = lasso_model.betas[:, 1]  # 'betas' contains coefficients,
    selecting the first column for best lambda

        # Find indices of features with non-zero coefficients
        selected_features_indices = findall(coefficients .!= 0)

        # Get the feature names corresponding to the selected features
        feature_names = names(data, Not([:Observed_NO2_ppb, :State, :Monitor_ID,
    :Latitude, :Longitude, :WRF_DOMINO]))
        selected_feature_names = feature_names[selected_features_indices]

        # Display the selected features with their coefficients
        println("Selected features and coefficients:")
        for i in 1:length(selected_features_indices)
            println("Feature: ", selected_feature_names[i], " - Coefficient: ",
    coefficients[selected_features_indices[i]])
        end
end
```

Figure 3: Lasso Regression code used for selecting the input features for predictive modeling.

Lasso Regression along with cross-validation was applied that performs k-fold cross-validation (which is by default 10) to find the optimal regularization parameter, lambda. Alpha value of 1.0 specifies exactly Lasso regularization rather than Ridge or elastic net. Thereafter, using the best lambda value, a new Lasso model was fit which enable the model to learn the optimal coefficient for selected features. Finally, coefficient of features was evaluated and non-zero coefficients were calculated by Lasso for using the selected features for further modelling.

Sl. No	Selected Features	Coefficients
1	Distance_to_coast_km	1.035150
2	Impervious_100	1.396751
3	Impervious_1800	0.919251
4	Impervious_10000	0.510092
5	Elevation_truncated_km	1.123214

Sl. No	Selected Features	Coefficients
6	Major_100	0.298449
7	Major_5000	0.324849
8	Resident_100	1.082713
9	Resident_5000	1.235198
10	total_100	0.112781
11	total_5000	0.175802
12	Population_10000	0.076178

For training and test data distribution, 75/25 ratio was followed where 75% of data points were considered training data and rest of the data points were test data. Out of 369 observations in the dataset, first 277 points were training data and rest of the data points were testing data. Model was first trained on training data and then the model was applied on testing data to find the efficiency of the predictive model.

```
df2 =

      State  Distance_to_coast_km  Impervious_100  Major_100  Major_5000  Resident_100

  1   "AZ"   313.0                 59.4431         0.0        166.584     0.61637
  2   "AZ"   323.8                 72.0            0.0        232.425     0.26126
  3   "AZ"   308.4                 53.0            0.15677    115.958     0.3946
  4   "AZ"   309.0                 61.3099         0.30378    198.04      0.07244
  5   "AZ"   269.5                 12.0            0.19457    20.6286     0.0
  6   "AZ"   314.7                 66.0            0.0        143.582     0.28342
  7   "AZ"   275.1                 57.0            0.0        122.248     0.33082
  8   "AZ"   271.6                 48.0            0.0        76.5419     0.0
  9   "AZ"   112.4                 16.0            0.0        35.9344     0.47504
  10  "AR"   629.7                 24.0641         0.0        46.9212     0.37524

  ⋮ more

  369 "WY"   1536.0                0.0             0.0        20.0424     0.0
```

Figure 4: Dataset used in this project: first 277 rows were considered as training data and rest of the points were testing data.

Predictive Modeling

Machine learning methods

Predictive modeling using machine learning was performed using four methods: linear regression, decision tree, random forest regression, and neural network. The dataset, which has 369 data in eight variables, was used for training. The validity of the model was confirmed visually by plotting it linearly and checking the RMSE and R2 values.

RMSE is a root mean square error, in which the best value is 0 and the worst value is near infinite [7-8]. As the range of the criteria is infinite, it is difficult to say at which point the data has a good prediction. However, the data is well-trained when the value is near 0. R2 is the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variables [7-8]. R2 is best when close to 1 and worst in - infinite. Each machine learning method was compared with these criteria to show their effectiveness.

1. Linear regression

The first method used for machine learning was the linear regression model. A simple linear relationship was used for training, which gave a sense of data analysis and assisted in planning future machine learning methods. The mean squared error was used to minimize the error, and with seven variables used, each variable was multiplied by a random seed and added with random bias initially. The training was performed and plotted using the normalized data, as shown in Figure 4.1. The procedure for coding is shown in the appendix. The accuracy of the machine learning was validated by calculating R2 and RMSE values. R2 value was -3.4 and RMSE value was 4.3.
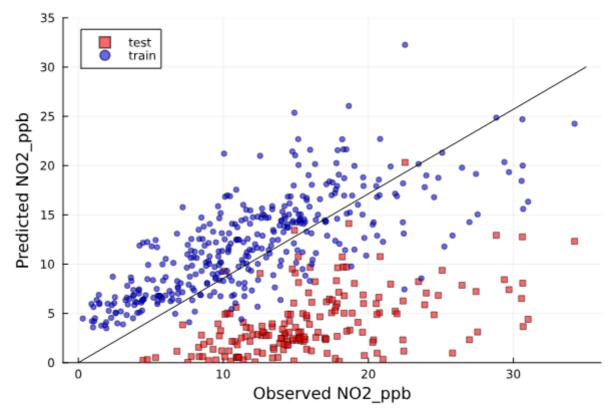

Figure 4.1: Comparison between the NO2 values predicted from Linear Regression model and the observed NO2 values

2. Decision tree regression

A decision tree is one of the most popular machine learning algorithms, and it is done in either classification or regression. The method is used to create a model that predicts the value of a target variable by learning simple decision rules. Some critical parameters of this algorithm are:

a. n_trees: It specifies the number of trees in the forest. A large number improves the stability and reduces variance but increases computational cost. Considering all these factors, the value of n_trees was considered 369 in this project.

b. max_depth: It limits the minimum number of samples required to split an internal node. This study considers a depth of 20, which is suitable for capturing the complex land use patterns and correlation with NO2 data without overfitting.

c. min_samples_split: It is the minimum number of samples required to split an internal node. The large values prevent overfitting by avoiding overly specific splits. A value of 2 was considered in the model.

d. min_samples_leaf: The minimum number of samples required to be at a leaf node ensures that leaf nodes represent significant data, improving model generalization.

Figure 4.2 shows the machine learning result. A typical 80/20 split for training and testing was used to evaluate the model's generalization on unseen data. The detailed code is attached in the appendix. As in linear regression, the accuracy was checked by R2 and RMSE values, which are -0.0 and 5.55, respectively.
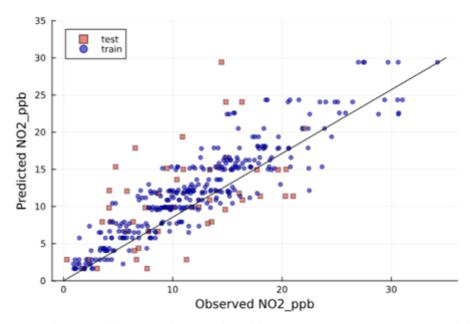

Figure 4.2: Comparison between the NO2 values predicted from Decision Tree Regression and the observed NO2 valuess

3. Random forest Regressor

Random forest is an ensemble learning method that aggregates predictions from multiple decision trees to reduce overfitting and improve generalization. As in decision tree regression, the variables were set as n_trees:200, max_depth: 20, and min_samples_split: 15.

A typical 80/20 split for training and testing was used to evaluate the model's generalization on unseen data. The accuracy was checked by R2 and RMSE values, which are 0.5 and 3.58, respectively.
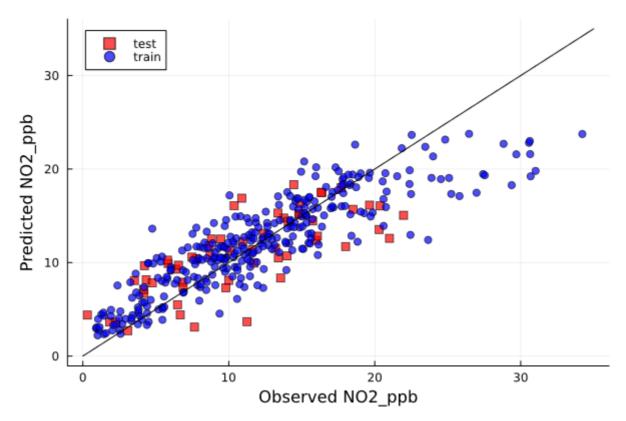
Figure 4.3: Comparison between the NO2 values predicted from Random Forest Regressor model and the observed NO2 values for all the training and test data.

4. Neural Network Algorithm

A neural network is a computational model inspired by the human brain, consisting of layers of interconnected neurons. It is commonly used to learn patterns and relationships in a dataset. This model has been applied to explore its predictive capability compared to other techniques.

The main neural network architecture has been defined using the chain structure, which takes 12 features as input and passes them to the first hidden layer. Three hidden layers have been added with 128, 64, and 32 neurons, along with ReLU activation. A dropout of 0.5 has been kept to drop 50% of the neurons randomly to prevent overfitting. A single neuron outputs the predicted NO2 value. For this predictive model, R2 value was 0.6 and RMSE value was 3.12.
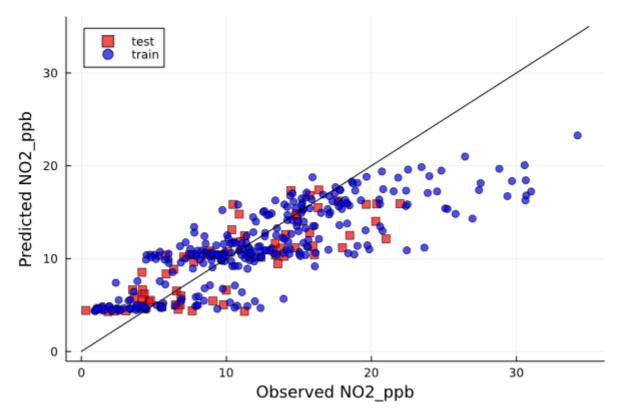
Figure XX4: Comparison between the NO2 values predicted from Neural Network model and the observed NO2 values for all the training and test data.

Comparison Among Different Predictive Models

The analysis utilized four predictive modeling techniques to predict NO2 concentrations using a dataset of various land use patterns in different locations across the US. The evaluation metrics of all the predictive models used in the analysis are summarized in the table below. The accuracy of the predictive model is as follows: Neural Network model > Random Forest Regression > Linear Regression > Decision Tree Regression. Although the Decision Tree Regression modeling had the least accuracy, the value was still comparably low, which is also considered accurate. Random Forest model with an R2 value of 0.54 suggested a moderate predictive capability. These results highlight the importance of accounting for the non-linear interactions and feature complexities when modeling NO2 concentrations, with Neural Networks demonstrating their strength in capturing such patterns. Plenty of data was used for machine learning in the dataset. The algorithm could be more tuned to enhance the accuracy; currently, simple regression models are utilized without passing complex filters. Also, the methods could be combined, not only training with one method. Still, the R2 and RMSE values are showing promising results.

Sl. No	Technique of the Predictive Model	RMSE	R2
1	Linear Regression	4.30	-3.4
2	Decision Tree Regression	5.55	-0.0
3	Random Forest Regression	3.58	0.5
4	Neural Network	3.12	0.6

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