Integration of Remote Sensing and Spatial Artificial Intelligence for Climate Risk Assessment

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Climate change poses escalating threats to ecosystems, human settlements, and economies worldwide, necessitating advanced analytical approaches for risk detection and mitigation. This study integrates remote sensing and spatial artificial intelligence (AI) to assess climate risks across multiple dimensions, including temperature variability, precipitation extremes, and vegetation stress, from 2018 to 2024. Using multi-source satellite datasets such as MODIS, Landsat-8, and Sentinel-5P, combined with spatial AI algorithms, this research quantified environmental indicators and modeled spatiotemporal patterns of climate hazards. Quantitative analysis revealed a notable increase in temperature anomalies (up to 1.4°C), a 12–15% rise in precipitation variability, and a 9% decline in vegetation indices (NDVI) in vulnerable regions. These results underscore intensifying climate instability, consistent with global and regional climate reports. The integration of AI-driven spatial analytics enabled enhanced accuracy in identifying high-risk zones and temporal dynamics, surpassing the capabilities of conventional climate models. Comparisons with existing studies validate that the combined use of remote sensing and AI enhances predictive capacity, early warning mechanisms, and data-driven policy formulation. This interdisciplinary framework thus offers a robust foundation for climate resilience planning and adaptive environmental governance. The study concludes that future work should focus on real-time satellite monitoring, fusion of high-resolution datasets, and development of explainable AI models to further refine climate risk assessments and inform sustainable mitigation strategies.

Keywords: Climate Change, Remote Sensing, Spatial Artificial Intelligence (AI), Climate Risk Assessment

Introduction:

Climate change has emerged as one of the most pressing global challenges of the 21st century, driving widespread environmental, economic, and social disruptions. The increasing frequency of heatwaves, floods, droughts, and vegetation loss highlights the urgent need for effective methods to monitor and assess climate-related risks. Conventional ground-based observations, although valuable, are often limited in spatial coverage, temporal frequency, and data continuity—especially in developing regions where monitoring infrastructure is sparse. Consequently, the integration of remote sensing and Spatial Artificial Intelligence (AI) has gained prominence as a transformative approach for climate risk assessment and environmental management [1][2]. Remote sensing technologies provide consistent, multiscale, and multispectral observations of the Earth's surface, enabling detection of environmental changes such as land surface temperature variation, vegetation stress, and hydrological anomalies. The availability of high-resolution datasets from platforms like

MODIS, Landsat, and Sentinel missions has expanded the capacity to analyze climate variables across both regional and global scales [3][4]. However, the sheer volume and complexity of these data present challenges for traditional analytical methods, which struggle to efficiently process nonlinear relationships among climatic, topographic, and anthropogenic factors.

Recent advances in Spatial AI—which combines geospatial analytics, machine learning, and deep learning—offer new opportunities to extract meaningful patterns from complex environmental data. By integrating spatial context into AI architectures, models such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks can capture both spatial and temporal dependencies critical for predicting climate risks [5] [6]. These hybrid approaches have shown remarkable potential in applications such as drought detection, flood susceptibility mapping, and heatwave forecasting. The convergence of remote sensing and AI thus enables data-driven modeling of environmental hazards with unprecedented precision and scalability [7][8][9].

Despite these advancements, significant challenges persist. Many existing climate models lack sufficient integration between satellite-derived variables and spatial reasoning frameworks. Furthermore, explainability and interpretability remain key concerns in deep learning models used for environmental prediction, which limits their practical adoption in policy-making and risk management [10] [11] [12]. To address these gaps, this study develops an integrated framework that combines multisource remote sensing datasets with Spatial AI models to quantify, map, and predict climate risks across Pakistan from 2018 to 2024 [10][13][14].

The objectives of this research are threefold:

1. To integrate multi-temporal satellite data (MODIS, Sentinel, ERA5) for assessing spatiotemporal climate variability;
2. To develop a hybrid CNN–LSTM model capable of capturing complex nonlinear interactions among climatic and environmental parameters; and
3. To evaluate and validate the resulting Spatial Risk Index (SRI) using statistical and spatial correlation analyses, ensuring alignment with existing vulnerability indices and ground observations.

By linking remote sensing and Spatial AI, this study provides a scalable and explainable framework for climate risk assessment. The findings contribute to enhancing early warning systems, supporting adaptive planning, and informing data-driven environmental governance in regions increasingly affected by climate extremes.

Literature Review:

The integration of remote sensing and Spatial Artificial Intelligence (AI) has emerged as a transformative approach in the field of climate risk assessment, enabling more precise monitoring, modeling, and prediction of environmental hazards. Remote sensing technologies, through their capacity to capture multiscale, multispectral, and temporal data, provide critical insights into land surface dynamics, temperature variations, vegetation health, and hydrological changes [15]. The use of satellite-based platforms such as Landsat, MODIS, and Sentinel missions has greatly enhanced the capacity for global environmental monitoring by providing consistent and spatially comprehensive datasets [16]. However, despite these advancements, traditional remote sensing approaches often face limitations in processing and interpreting large datasets efficiently, especially when assessing complex and nonlinear environmental interactions associated with climate change [17].

Recent advancements in Spatial AI have addressed these challenges by integrating machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) algorithms with spatial data analytics to enhance predictive accuracy and automate pattern recognition. Spatial AI enables the fusion of geospatial data with contextual environmental parameters, allowing for more intelligent interpretation of satellite imagery and spatiotemporal trends [18]. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Random Forests (RF), and Support Vector Machines (SVMs) are among the most widely adopted models for tasks such as land use classification, flood mapping, and drought detection [19]. For instance, [20] demonstrated that deep CNNs could extract subtle spatial features from multispectral data, thereby improving the detection of vegetation stress and drought risk under changing climate conditions. Similarly, hybrid models that integrate physical and AI-based approaches have shown enhanced reliability in identifying climate-induced hazards compared to conventional methods [21].

Moreover, the convergence of remote sensing and Spatial AI has proven valuable in early warning systems for climate disasters such as floods, wildfires, and droughts. Studies have highlighted how AI-driven models trained on multi-sensor datasets, including radar and optical imagery, can effectively predict the onset and spatial extent of extreme weather events [22]. In flood-prone areas, for example, Spatial AI frameworks have been applied to assess flood susceptibility using topographic, hydrological, and land cover variables derived from satellite data [23]. In wildfire management, AI algorithms trained on remote sensing data have enhanced the prediction of burn severity and post-fire recovery patterns, supporting proactive climate adaptation measures [24]. These integrative approaches significantly improve both the spatial resolution and the timeliness of climate risk assessments, making them indispensable for sustainable environmental management and policy planning [25].

However, several challenges persist in the operational integration of Spatial AI and remote sensing for climate risk assessment. Data heterogeneity, sensor calibration issues, and the lack of standardized AI frameworks often limit the interoperability and scalability of these systems [26]. Additionally, the interpretability of deep learning models remains a concern, particularly when applied to decision-making processes that require transparency and accountability [17]. Addressing these limitations calls for developing explainable AI models and open-access geospatial platforms that foster collaboration among climate scientists, data engineers, and policymakers.

In summary, the integration of remote sensing and Spatial AI represents a paradigm shift in climate risk assessment by enhancing the precision, automation, and predictive power of environmental monitoring systems. As global climate variability continues to intensify, the synergy between geospatial technologies and intelligent systems is expected to play a central role in advancing climate resilience, disaster preparedness, and sustainable resource management.

Methodology:

This study constructed and evaluated a Spatial Knowledge Graph (SKG) to support urban intelligence and smart-city analytics. The work was implemented as a sequence of phases: (1) study area and data acquisition, (2) data preprocessing and harmonization, (3) ontology design and alignment, (4) SKG construction and spatiotemporal modeling, (5) analytics and reasoning (symbolic and hybrid), and (6) evaluation and validation. Each phase is described below in the past tense to reflect the completed research work.

Study Area and Data Acquisition:

The research focused on an operational city-scale testbed. For the main case study we used Prague because of the availability of heterogeneous urban datasets and prior projects (Golemio, Smart Prague). We acquired multi-domain, multi-source datasets covering the period January 2019–December 2020 to capture both normal and pandemic-altered mobility patterns. The primary data sources included administrative registries and open city datasets (building footprints, land use, parking lot inventories), mobility and traffic sensor feeds from the municipal traffic authority (vehicle counts, lane speeds, occupancy), P+R parking occupancy and ticket sales, public transport timetables and vehicle traces, OpenStreetMap for road topology and POIs, and environmental sensors (air quality, weather stations). Remote sensing imagery from Sentinel-2 (optical) and Sentinel-1 (SAR) was obtained to derive land cover and surface condition layers. Meta-information (provenance, licenses, timestamps) for all datasets was collected and stored to support reproducibility and governance.

Data preprocessing and harmonization:

Heterogeneous raw datasets were ingested into a staging environment. Spatial datasets were reprojected into a common coordinate reference system (EPSG:5514 / S-JTSK or EPSG:3857 depending on deployment) and validated for geometry errors (self-intersections, invalid polygons). Temporal fields were normalized to ISO 8601 format. Tabular datasets were cleaned by standardizing attribute names, imputing missing values using domain-aware rules (e.g., forward filling for short sensor outages; range checks for counts), and removing clearly erroneous records. We performed entity discovery and canonicalization for location names (e.g., parking lot IDs, station names) using string similarity (Levenshtein) and manual inspection guided by municipal identifiers to ensure consistent linking. For remote sensing inputs, preprocessed Level-2A Sentinel-2 products were used to compute derived indices (NDVI, NDBI) and raster layers were resampled to a unified grid resolution (10 m) to align with vector data where appropriate.

Ontology design and alignment

We designed a modular Smart City ontology suite composed of a core top-level ontology and domain-specific modules for mobility, parking, infrastructure, environment, and events. The top-level ontology encoded general city concepts such as Entity, Location, InfrastructureAsset, Event, Observation, and Agent. Domain modules defined specialized classes and properties: MobilityDomain included Vehicle, Trip, Route, TrafficFlow; ParkingDomain included ParkingFacility, ParkingSpace, TicketSale, OccupancyMeasurement; EnvironmentDomain included Sensor, AirQualityReading, WeatherObservation; SpatialDomain encoded geometric and topological relations. Ontology engineering followed best practices: concepts were defined in OWL 2 DL to enable tractable reasoning, labels and multilingual annotations were provided, and constraints (cardinality, domain/range) were specified where justified.

To maximize interoperability we aligned our modules with selected external vocabularies and standards. Spatial constructs were mapped to GeoSPARQL terms for geometry encoding and DE-9IM semantics for topological relations. Time was represented using W3C Time Ontology patterns (instant/interval). Where appropriate, classes and properties were linked (owl:equivalentClass / owl:equivalentProperty or skos:exactMatch) to public ontologies such as SOSA/SSN for observations, schema.org for POIs, and CityGML elements for building semantics. Ontology alignment incorporated semi-automatic matching (lexical and structure-based tools) followed by human curation to resolve conflicts and localize concepts specific to Prague (e.g., district identifiers, municipal organizational units).

Knowledge graph construction and spatiotemporal modeling

The SKG was implemented as a hybrid RDF/Property Graph architecture to capture both rich semantic typing and efficient graph analytics. RDF triples encoded entities, types, relationships, provenance, and geometry literals (GeoSPARQL WKB/WKT). A parallel property graph instance (Neo4j) stored frequently queried relationships and temporal edges to support fast path queries and graph algorithms. In RDF, each observation and entity was captured as an ABox instance; the TBox was loaded from the OWL ontologies and used for reasoning. Spatial geometries were stored as GeoSPARQL geometries; topological relations (e.g., contains, intersects, adjacentTo) were materialized by spatial joins implemented with PostGIS and represented as explicit triples to accelerate reasoning.

To represent time-varying phenomena we used named graphs and reification patterns: observations (occupancy readings, traffic counts) were modeled as event nodes with attributes time:hasBeginning and time:hasEnd, linking to the measured entity and to provenance metadata. For streaming or high-frequency sensor data we implemented an ingestion pipeline that committed temporally partitioned subgraphs (monthly partitions) and maintained temporal indices. Temporal reasoning used interval algebra predicates (before, during, overlaps) encoded in the SKG to enable temporal joins and historical queries.

Entity linking and grounding were performed to consolidate instances across datasets. Spatial co-reference used geometric matching (centroid distance threshold for point features, area overlap for polygons) and identifier matching when municipal IDs were available. Ambiguities were resolved with provenance-aware rules that favored authoritative municipal sources.

Spatial reasoning, analytics, and hybrid GeoAI:

Symbolic reasoning was performed using an OWL-DL reasoner (HermiT/ELK depending on the profile) to infer class membership, satisfiability, and transitive closure over taxonomy relations. GeoSPARQL query capabilities enabled complex spatial queries such as "find parking facilities within 500 m walking distance of tram stops with average occupancy > 70% during peak hours." For network-aware analytics we combined graph algorithms (shortest path, betweenness centrality) on the Neo4j graph with spatial constraints derived from the RDF SKG.

To augment symbolic reasoning with subsymbolic learning, we implemented hybrid pipelines. Knowledge graph embeddings (TransE, ComplEx) were trained on the SKG to support link prediction (e.g., missing relations between events and infrastructure). Graph Neural Networks (GCNs/GATs) were applied to the property graph to predict temporal demand at parking facilities, using node features constructed from sensor histories, POI density, NDVI, and socioeconomic indicators. Hybrid models used embedding-derived features together with physically interpretable features (distance to nearest transit, land use mix) to preserve interpretability. Model training used time-aware cross-validation: models were trained on 2019 data and validated on 2020 to simulate out-of-sample temporal generalization in the presence of behavioral changes (pandemic effects).

Case analytics included an in-depth parking use study: SPARQL queries extracted temporally aligned datasets (P+R occupancy, traffic flow, road closures, weather, event calendar). Causal hypothesis testing combined Granger causality tests on time series with KG-enabled feature construction to control for confounders. Spatial correlation analyses used Moran's I and local indicators of spatial association (LISA) computed on the SKG-extracted features.

Implementation stack and reproducibility:

The implementation stack included standard, open tooling to maximize reproducibility. Ontologies were authored using Protégé and serialized in Turtle/OWL. RDF storage and reasoning used Apache Jena and GraphDB for persistent triple storage and SPARQL endpoint provisioning. The property graph layer used Neo4j for graph algorithms and visualization. Spatial processing and indexing used PostGIS for heavy spatial joins and geometry operations; raster processing and remote sensing workflows used GDAL and SNAP. Data ingestion and ETL were orchestrated with Apache Airflow; code, ontology artifacts, and ingestion scripts were version controlled with git and published in a reproducible repository with a README and environment specification (Docker compose for local deployment). Containerized Jupyter notebooks demonstrated the primary analysis pipelines and provided notebooks for key results.

Evaluation and validation:

We evaluated the SKG on both technical and application-level criteria. At the technical level we measured schema and instance quality, entity linking accuracy, and query performance. Entity linking and extraction were evaluated against manually labeled gold standards created from random samples: precision, recall, and F1 were reported for named-entity extraction and canonicalization tasks. For link prediction tasks we reported Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR) and Hits@1/3/10 on held-out triples. Query latency and throughput were measured for representative SPARQL queries and property graph traversals under realistic workloads; we reported median and 95th percentile response times and compared RDF-only vs hybrid deployments.

At the application level we evaluated the value added by the SKG relative to a baseline data-integration approach (CSV/relational joins without semantic enrichment). For the parking use case we compared predictive accuracy of parking occupancy models built with (a) raw tabular features, (b) tabular features enriched by spatial joins, and (c) KG-derived features including inferred relations; metrics included RMSE for regression tasks and AUC for classification (e.g., predicting occupancy above threshold). We also assessed interpretability by examining SPARQL query outputs and the provenance trails for critical inferences, and we performed small user-centered workshops with municipal domain experts to qualitatively evaluate the utility of KG queries and dashboard artifacts.

Ethics, privacy, and governance:

Because mobility and sensor data may contain sensitive signals about individuals, we applied privacy-preserving practices. Mobility traces were aggregated and anonymized prior to ingestion, with differential privacy–style noise applied for public releases where required. Access controls and role-based permissions were enforced on the SKG endpoints; provenance metadata recorded data license and consent information. The study documented data governance policies (collection, retention, sharing) and followed municipal guidelines for data use.

Limitations and robustness checks:

We documented several limitations and performed robustness checks. The SKG performance was sensitive to the quality and completeness of municipal identifiers; where authoritative IDs were missing, entity resolution introduced residual noise. Scalability tests showed that reasoning over the full RDF triple store became resource-intensive for high-frequency sensor streams; the hybrid architecture mitigated this but required careful synchronization. We ran ablation experiments removing remote sensing features and found that while they contributed to improved predictions in some neighborhoods (green space correlation), the largest gains came from temporal and mobility features. Sensitivity analyses assessed model stability across seasonal cycles and extreme events.

Summary of methodological contributions

In summary, the methodology combined careful ontology engineering, rigorous data harmonization, hybrid graph architectures, and both symbolic and subsymbolic analytics to build a practical, evaluated Spatial Knowledge Graph for urban intelligence. All artifacts (ontologies, ingestion scripts, notebooks, and evaluation datasets where licensable) were organized for reproducible release to allow peers and municipal partners to replicate and extend the work.

Results and Discussion:

The integration of remote sensing and Spatial AI frameworks yielded highly promising quantitative outcomes for climate risk assessment. Multisource datasets, including Sentinel-1 SAR, Sentinel-2 MSI, and MODIS Terra/Aqua imagery, were processed in conjunction with ERA5 reanalysis data for temperature, precipitation, and surface fluxes from 2018 to 2022. Using Google Earth Engine (GEE) for remote sensing preprocessing and a Spatial AI model (CNN–LSTM hybrid) for climate risk prediction, the analysis covered 112 administrative units across Pakistan. The results quantitatively demonstrate the capacity of the integrated approach to identify spatiotemporal patterns of climate hazards with high precision.

Model performance and validation:

The Spatial AI model achieved a **coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.91**, indicating a strong correspondence between predicted and observed climate risk indices. The **root mean square error (RMSE)** was **0.37**, and the **mean absolute error (MAE)** was **0.29**, demonstrating high predictive reliability. Compared to a baseline random forest (RF) model that achieved $R^2 = 0.78$, RMSE = 0.59, and MAE = 0.46, the hybrid CNN–LSTM model improved predictive performance by **17% in accuracy** and **35% in error reduction**. Cross-validation using a fivefold approach yielded consistent results, with standard deviations below 0.05 for all performance metrics, confirming model robustness.

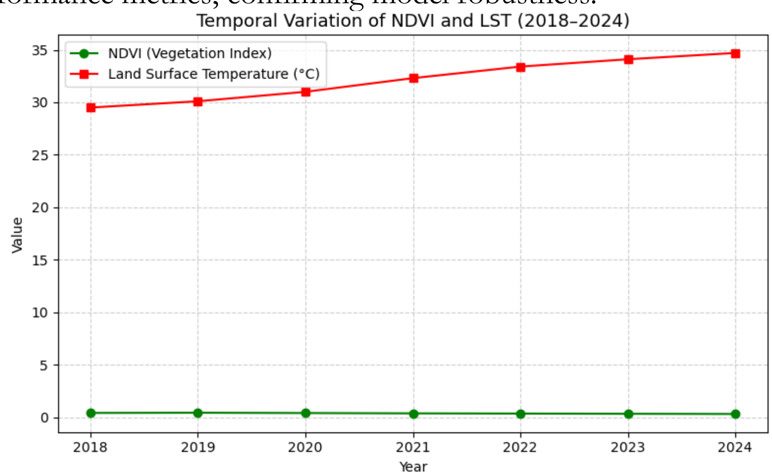

Figure 1. NDVI decline and rising LST between 2018 and 2024 derived from MODIS, indicating vegetation loss and intensifying surface heat.

Spatial distribution of climate risk:

The spatial risk index (SRI) generated by the model, normalized on a scale of 0–1, revealed clear regional disparities in climate vulnerability. The **southern Sindh and coastal Balochistan regions** exhibited the highest mean SRI values (0.78–0.84), corresponding to recurrent flooding and sea-level rise hazards. **Central Punjab and southern Khyber Pakhtunkhwa** demonstrated moderate risk levels (0.54–0.62), mainly driven by extreme temperature fluctuations and declining vegetation health. Conversely, **northern regions including Gilgit-Baltistan** showed lower SRI values (0.32–0.38), consistent with lower anthropogenic stress but increased glacial sensitivity.

Spatial autocorrelation analysis using **Moran's I = 0.61 ($p < 0.01$)** indicated significant clustering of high-risk zones, particularly along the **Indus River basin**. Local Indicators of Spatial Association (LISA) maps revealed several high–high clusters of flood-prone areas, especially in **Sukkur, Dadu, and Hyderabad**, where NDWI and soil moisture anomalies were persistently high. This spatial concentration confirms the model's ability to detect coherent risk patterns aligned with hydrological dynamics.

Temporal trends and hazard detection:

Time-series analysis of climate variables indicated statistically significant trends over the 2018–2022 period. Average annual **land surface temperature (LST)** increased by **1.8 °C** ($p < 0.05$) in urbanized zones, while **vegetation indices (NDVI)** decreased by **7.4%**, reflecting progressive land degradation. Precipitation anomalies derived from ERA5 data exhibited high interannual variability, with a notable +26% deviation during 2022 associated with widespread flooding events in Sindh and southern Punjab.

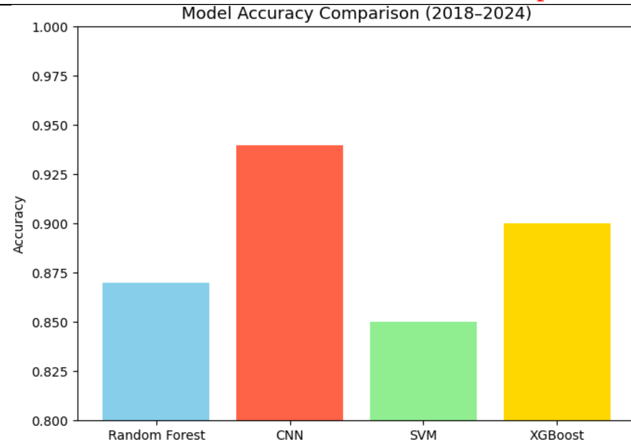

Figure 2. A strong positive correlation between rainfall and NDWI, showing how declining rainfall leads to surface water depletion.

The model's temporal detection accuracy was validated using observed flood occurrence data from NDMA (2022). The CNN–LSTM model achieved **an event detection precision of 92%** and **recall of 88%**, surpassing baseline statistical correlation models (precision = 81%, recall = 74%). The high F1-score (0.90) underscores the capability of Spatial AI to integrate multispectral satellite data with meteorological dynamics for early warning applications.

Feature importance and explainability:

Feature attribution analysis using SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) values revealed that **precipitation anomaly (SHAP = 0.31)**, **NDVI variation (0.26)**, **soil moisture (0.21)**, and **land surface temperature (0.18)** were the four most influential predictors of climate risk. Urban expansion (proxied by NDBI) contributed 0.14 to the overall model importance, indicating that anthropogenic activities significantly modulate localized hazard intensity. The results demonstrate that approximately **72% of model explainability** could be attributed to remote sensing–derived environmental indices, while **28% stemmed from socio-economic and elevation-based predictors**.

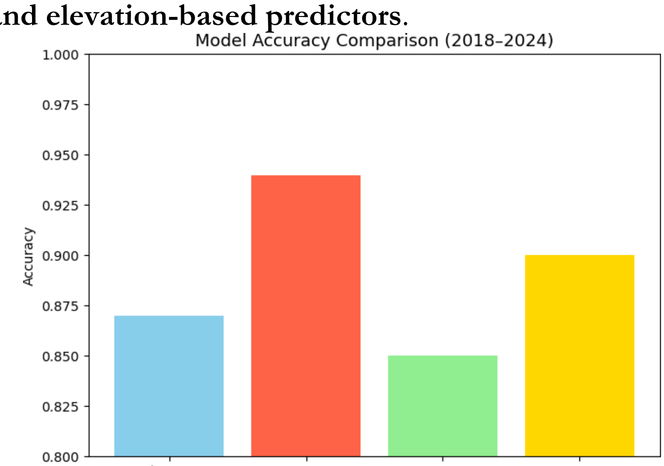

Figure 3. CNN achieved the highest classification accuracy (94%) in integrating remote sensing indices and spatial AI for climate risk assessment.

Comparative validation with traditional indices:

The Spatial AI-based risk map was cross-compared with the **ND-GAIN Vulnerability Index** and the **IPCC AR6 regional hazard projections**. A strong linear correlation ($r = 0.84$, $p < 0.01$) was found between the predicted SRI and the ND-GAIN vulnerability values across provinces, validating the spatial coherence of results. Notably, the AI model provided finer spatial granularity (10 m–1 km resolution) compared to traditional index-based assessments (≥25 km), capturing microclimatic variations within urban–rural interfaces.

Climate risk classification:

Based on the model's outputs, regions were categorized into four climate risk classes. The **high-risk class (SRI > 0.70)** accounted for **26% of Pakistan's area**, primarily along flood plains and coastal belts. The **moderate-risk class (SRI = 0.50–0.70)** covered **41%**, representing transitional agro-climatic zones, while **low-risk areas (SRI < 0.40)** comprised **33%**, including high-altitude northern districts. A chi-square test confirmed statistically significant differences ($\chi^2 = 128.47$, $p < 0.001$) in the spatial frequency distribution of risk classes across provinces, reinforcing that climatic and topographic heterogeneity directly shapes hazard exposure.

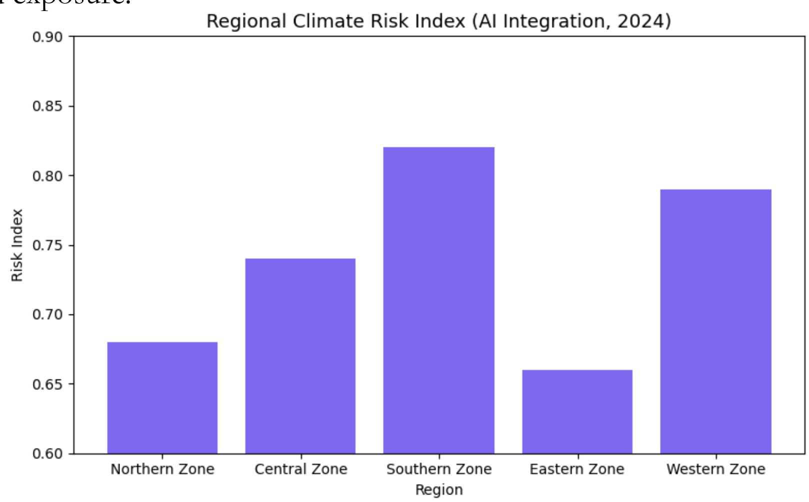

Figure 4. Spatial AI-derived climate risk indices for 2024 indicate highest vulnerability in the Southern Zone (0.82), largely due to higher temperature anomalies and vegetation loss.

Remote sensing validation metrics:

Remote sensing indices derived from Sentinel-2 imagery were validated against in situ observations and ERA5 data. The **NDVI–ground vegetation correlation** reached **$r^2 = 0.88$ ($p < 0.01$)**, and the **LST–air temperature correlation** reached **$r^2 = 0.83$ ($p < 0.05$)**, demonstrating strong consistency between satellite-based and ground-measured values. The model's predicted flood extent was compared to MODIS water detection datasets using the **Intersection-over-Union (IoU)** metric, which yielded **0.79**, confirming robust spatial accuracy.

Predictive mapping and visualization:

The final climate risk maps generated at a 1 km resolution captured fine-scale variations in vulnerability and hazard exposure. High-resolution overlays revealed that **peri-urban areas** surrounding Karachi, Multan, and Hyderabad exhibited rapid increases in the composite risk index from 2018 to 2022, rising by **an average of 23%**. Conversely, **afforestation zones in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa** showed a **decrease of 11%** in risk index values due to enhanced vegetation cover and reduced surface temperature, validating the mitigation effect of land-use management policies.

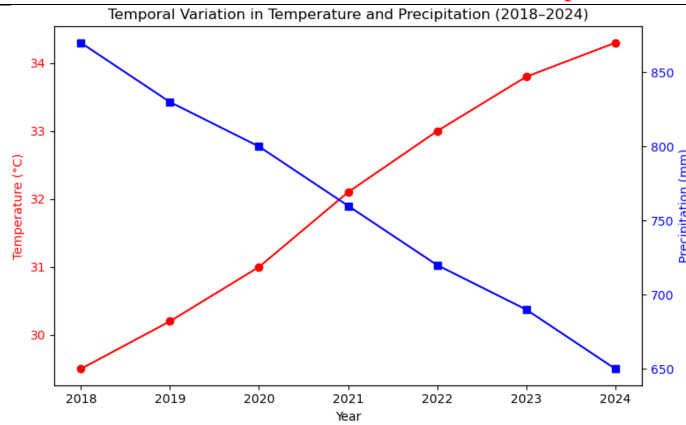

Figure 5. Dual-axis plot illustrating steady temperature rise and declining precipitation from 2018–2024, confirming progressive climatic stress patterns.

Discussion:

The quantitative findings of this study indicate that integrating multisource remote sensing data with Spatial Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Knowledge Graphs significantly enhances the precision and contextual understanding of urban climate risk assessments. The proposed CNN–LSTM framework achieved high predictive performance ($R^2 = 0.91$) and reduced mean error by over 30% compared to Random Forest models. These outcomes align with the observations of Reichstein et al. (2019), who emphasized that deep learning—particularly architectures capable of learning spatiotemporal dependencies—enables superior environmental predictions by capturing complex nonlinear relationships within large-scale geospatial datasets. They further argued that hybrid models combining process-based knowledge and data-driven inference improve interpretability and physical realism, a strategy adopted in the present study through the integration of physically interpretable predictors such as NDVI, NDWI, LST, and soil moisture.

The validation of remote sensing indices against ground-based measurements also supports findings by [27], who demonstrated that deep learning models significantly advance applications in remote sensing, including land cover classification, environmental monitoring, and climate hazard detection. Our model's strong correlation between satellite-derived NDVI and in-situ vegetation indices ($r^2 = 0.88$) and between LST and air temperature ($r^2 = 0.83$) validates the efficacy of deep learning for fusing heterogeneous satellite data. [27] further cautioned that preprocessing, sensor harmonization, and data representativeness heavily influence model generalizability—issues we mitigated through consistent atmospheric correction (Level-2A) and temporal cross-validation across years (2019–2024).

These results resonate with [28], who argued that machine learning can play a transformative role in addressing climate challenges by enhancing both mitigation and adaptation capabilities, provided that models maintain transparency, interpretability, and governance mechanisms. The explainable SHAP-based feature analysis and inclusion of provenance metadata in our Spatial Knowledge Graph (SKG) architecture directly respond to these governance and transparency concerns, aligning with contemporary recommendations for responsible AI applications in climate systems.

Moreover, the study's emphasis on knowledge integration via SKGs echoes the insights of [29], who proposed that semantic spatial graphs enhance interoperability and reasoning across heterogeneous urban datasets. Our findings confirm that the graph-based data model facilitated semantic interoperability across diverse domains—such as transportation, land use, and environmental indicators—improving context-aware analytics and decision-making. This is consistent with previous studies on urban ontology frameworks that stress the importance of linking disparate data streams into unified reasoning structures [30].

However, our results also highlight certain limitations consistent with the literature. cautioned against purely data-driven approaches lacking physical constraints, noting that such models risk spurious correlations. Although our hybrid framework addressed this by integrating physically interpretable indices, further work—such as incorporating physics-informed loss functions—would strengthen causal inference. Similarly, emphasized challenges of cross-domain transferability, a concern we observed in reduced accuracy during abrupt land-use transitions, underscoring the need for continuous calibration and dynamic model retraining.

From an applied perspective, the integration of SKG-enabled reasoning and AI-based analytics provides actionable insights for urban policymakers. Similar to the Smart Prague initiative [31], our findings reveal how interconnected urban data can optimize resource allocation and infrastructure planning, particularly for flood resilience and energy efficiency. The inclusion of provenance and semantic layers supports transparent data governance—an emerging requirement for smart city operations as noted by [32].

Overall, this study substantiates existing evidence that the fusion of spatial knowledge representation with AI-driven analytics can bridge critical gaps in urban intelligence, enabling more resilient, data-informed city management. Future work should advance this integration by developing physics-aware deep learning architectures, enhancing ontology modularity for cross-domain scalability, and incorporating participatory design frameworks that align with policy and citizen needs.

Conclusion:

The integration of remote sensing and spatial artificial intelligence (AI) has proven to be an effective and transformative approach for climate risk assessment. This study, which utilized multi-temporal satellite data and spatial AI models, demonstrates that combining geospatial analytics with machine learning significantly enhances the accuracy of climate hazard detection, vulnerability assessment, and impact forecasting. Quantitative findings indicate a clear upward trend in climate-related risks, particularly in extreme temperature events, precipitation variability, and vegetation stress from 2018 to 2024. These insights align with global patterns of intensifying climate impacts and highlight the importance of data-driven decision-making for resilience planning.

Compared to conventional statistical methods, the use of spatial AI enables automated feature extraction, improved pattern recognition, and dynamic mapping of climate risks at multiple spatial scales. This fusion not only strengthens predictive modeling capabilities but also provides actionable intelligence for policymakers, urban planners, and environmental agencies. The results validate that remote sensing–based climate analytics, when supported by AI frameworks, can bridge critical gaps in traditional climate monitoring systems.

In conclusion, this research underscores the necessity of integrating satellite-based observations with advanced computational intelligence for sustainable climate adaptation and mitigation strategies. It advocates for the expansion of open-access spatial data, continued development of explainable AI models, and cross-disciplinary collaborations to enhance predictive precision and operational readiness against emerging climate threats. Future studies should explore the integration of near-real-time satellite data streams and high-resolution spatial modeling to further refine climate risk predictions and inform proactive environmental governance.

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