
Next Hit Predictor - Self-exciting Risk Modeling for Predicting Next Locations of Serial Crimes

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Abstract

1 Our goal is to predict the location of the next crime in a crime series, based on
2 the identified previous offenses in the series. We build a predictive model called
3 *Next Hit Predictor* (NHP) that finds the most likely location of the next serial crime
4 via a carefully designed risk model. The risk model follows the paradigm of a
5 self-exciting point process which consists of a background crime risk and triggered
6 risks stimulated by previous offenses in the series. Thus, NHP creates a risk map
7 for a crime series at hand. To train the risk model, we formulate a convex learning
8 objective that considers pairwise rankings of locations and use stochastic gradient
9 descent to learn the optimal parameters. Next Hit Predictor incorporates both
10 spatial-temporal features and geographical characteristics of prior crime locations
11 in the series. Next Hit Predictor has demonstrated promising results on decades'
12 worth of serial crime data collected by the Crime Analysis Unit of the Cambridge
13 Police Department in Massachusetts, USA.

14 1 Introduction

15 Crime prediction is an imperative step in predictive modeling. Previous works in the literature
16 proposed different solutions to predicting the locations for future crimes [10, 1, 8, 5]. Despite the
17 increasing body of work in crime prediction, there has been a limited effort in predicting locations for
18 *serial crimes*. Predicting a serial crime is different from a general crime prediction problem. Generic
19 crime predictions often focus on modeling the distributions of crimes using historical events [2, 8],
20 for example, predicting “hotspots” which is spatially localized area where many crimes occur. But
21 these methods cannot differentiate the offenders of crimes and only identify spatial-temporal patterns
22 that apply to the entire criminal cohort. Serial crime prediction, on the other hand, needs to consider
23 the specific preferences of individual criminals. This is because different offenders may demonstrate
24 different behavioral patterns when committing crimes [4, 9]. For example, some criminals like to hit
25 wealthy neighborhoods while some may choose to go to the more suburban area with houses more
26 isolated from each other. A serial crime can also happen in unusual locations where most of the other
27 criminals are not interested in and therefore cannot be captured by generic crime prediction methods.
28 This poses a significant modeling challenge compared to general crime prediction.

29 Here, we propose a novel machine learning model, *Next Hit Predictor*, to predict the location of the
30 next serial crime committed by an unknown criminal, given his/her previous offenses and all crime
31 events that happen in this area of interest. (“Unknown” means we do not know any information about
32 the criminal but only know the crimes committed by him/her.) We carefully design a self-exciting
33 risk model that evaluates how likely the next crime is going to happen in each location (grid cell) in a
34 map. The risk model consists of a *background risk*, which is the average crime rate over a long period,
35 and a *triggered risk*, which is the sum of a set of kernels triggered by each of the prior offenses of the
36 specific criminal of interest. The background risk represents the criminals’ general preference for
37 crime locations, and the triggered risk is designed to account for a criminal’s individual preference
38 for particular types of locations, which is motivated by the theory that criminals tend to operate in

39 similar crime scenes since they feel familiar and safer [11]. The rational criminal theory assumes
 40 that individuals have specific reasons for committing a crime at a certain time and a certain location
 41 [3]. By examining the historical crime instances committed by a serial criminal we can discover
 42 series-specific patterns that indicate criminals’ preferences for executing crimes.

43 We design the triggering risk function as a fully parameterized isotopic kernel that measures the
 44 similarity between a location of interest and a previous crime location, considering spatial-temporal
 45 distances and the geographic features. The geographic features include urban and environmental
 46 factors, for example, for each location, we compute the area of residential buildings, the area of open
 47 space, the number of bus stops or subway stations, etc.

48 To rigorously train the parameterized risk model, we propose a learning objective built from comparing
 49 true locations of with other locations in the map for every crime in every series. The loss function for
 50 each pair of ranking is represented with a hinge loss to form a convex objective and an l_2 norm for
 51 regularization. Then we apply a stochastic gradient descent algorithm to optimize the objective.

52 2 Next Hit Predictor Model

53 We investigate a region of interest \mathcal{G} (the city of Cambridge in MA, USA) and a set of n crime
 54 instances $\mathcal{C} = \{c_i, p_i\}_{i=1}^n$ located in this region. c_i represents crime instance i and $p_i \in \mathbb{Z}^P$ is its
 55 label. $p_i = 0$ means crime i is not a serial crime but a singleton offense and $p_i > 0$ represents the
 56 crime i is in the p_i -th crime series. Let \mathcal{C}_p represent indices of crimes in series p , i.e., $\mathcal{C}_p = \{i | p_i = p\}$.
 57 Each crime instance c_i is described by three types of features, $c_i = \{s_i, t_i, \omega_i\}$, where s_i represents
 58 the spatial feature, i.e., the latitude and longitude of crime i , t_i represents the time when the crime
 59 happened, and $\omega_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a set of environmental and urban features associated with the grid cell
 60 crime i was in. Following the common practice in spatial-temporal machine learning [7, 13], we
 61 discretize \mathcal{G} into a grid map with a set of grid cells \mathcal{L} , indexed by l . We use g_i to represent the grid
 62 cell that crime i is located in and $g_i \in \mathcal{L}$.

63 2.1 Risk Model

64 We formulate a model $r_l^{(p,t)}$ to represent the risk of the next serial crime happening in a grid cell l ,
 65 evaluated at time t , given the set of crimes in \mathcal{C}_p that are committed by the same offender before time
 66 t . The proposed model follows the structure of a self-exciting point process that the risk consists
 67 of a background risk and triggered risks stimulated by previous offenses. The triggering function
 68 combines spatial, temporal and geographic features. The risk model is:

$$r_l^{(p,t)} = \mu_l^{(t)} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{C}_p, t_i < t} \kappa(s - s_i, t - t_i, \omega_l - \omega_{g_i}), \quad (1)$$

69 Here $\mu_l^{(t)}$ indicates the *background risk*, which represents how likely any crime will happen at location
 70 (grid cell) l , regardless of the preferences of any specific criminal. Therefore, $\mu_l^{(t)}$ is independent
 71 of crime series and it captures the common preferences that apply to the entire criminal cohort.

72 Here we choose $\mu_l^{(t)}$ to be estimated from the most recent two years using kernel density estimation.
 73 $\kappa(s - s_i, t - t_i, \omega_l - \omega_{g_i})$ is a kernel that represents the risk triggered by previous crime i in the
 74 series \mathcal{C}_p . It measures the similarity between grid cell l with grid cell g_i (the grid cell where crime
 75 i happened in) considering the spatial, temporal and geographic features. The sum of the kernels
 76 represents the risk triggered by all previous crimes in the series \mathcal{C}_p . Locations that are similar to the
 77 previous crime locations have a higher chance to attract the criminal. Compared to the background
 78 risk, the triggering kernels capture the individual preferences of an unknown criminal inferred from
 79 the previous offenses, which is independent of the general preference of the entire criminal cohort.

80 Therefore, the risk model $r_l^{(p,t)}$ combines criminals’ general preferences for crime locations and
 81 criminal specific preferences. Using formula (1) we can create a risk map covering all grid cells in \mathcal{L} .

82 Various forms of $\kappa(\cdot)$ have been proposed in the literature with the magnitude of the risk decreasing
 83 in space and time away from each previous crime [12, 14, 6], but most of the previous models
 84 only consider the effect of space and time. Here we design an isotropic kernel that incorporates
 85 the geographic similarity between each pair of grid cells, using urban and environmental features
 86 associated with each grid cell. The triggering kernel is

$$\kappa(\Delta s, \Delta t, \Delta \omega) = \frac{\beta_0 + \sum_j \beta_j \Delta w_j}{(\Delta t + c)^2 (\Delta s + d)^2}, \quad (2)$$

87 where $\Theta = \{c, d, \beta_0, \dots, \beta_J\}$. $\{\beta_0, \dots, \beta_J\}$ represents the weights for each urban and environmental
 88 features in evaluating the similarity and β_0 is an intercept. $\Delta s, \Delta t, \Delta \omega$ represent the difference in
 89 spatial, temporal and geographic (urban and environmental features). Δs is the Euclidean distance
 90 between two points. Δt is the difference of the day that a previous crime happens and t . Since our
 91 model does not aim to predict the time of the next hit so we always choose t to be one day after the
 92 last previous crime in \mathcal{C}_p happens.

93 2.2 Learning Objective

94 We formulate a rigorous training objective to find the right parameters such that the true grid cell
 95 where a crime happens gets the highest risk. Let $l_*^{(p,t)}$ represent the true grid cell for crime series
 96 \mathcal{C}_p . Given the risk model above, our goal is to find appropriate parameters Θ such that given a crime
 97 series $p, \forall l \in \mathcal{L}, r_{l_*^{(p,t)}}^{(p,t)} > r_l^{(p,t)}$. We will write $r_{l_*^{(p,t)}}^{(p,t)}$ as $r_*^{(p,t)}$ for simpler notation. We formulate the
 98 parameter learning as a ranking problem. We define the loss function for each tuple (p, t, l) as the

$$\Lambda^{(p,t)}(l) = \max\{0, r_l^{(p,t)} - r_*^{(p,t)}\}. \quad (3)$$

99 This loss function means if $r_l^{(p,t)} < r_*^{(p,t)}$, then $l_*^{(p,t)}$ is ranked before location l , so there is no loss.
 100 Otherwise the loss is the minimum necessary change for $r_*^{(p,t)}$ in order to be correctly ranked before
 101 location l . We place an l_2 norm on β 's and the learning objective over all crimes in all series is

$$\Lambda = \sum_{p \in \{1, \dots, P\}} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{C}_p} \sum_{l \in \mathcal{L}, l \neq l_p^*} \max\{0, r_l^{(p,t)} - r_*^{(p,t)}\} + \lambda_\beta \|\beta\|^2 \quad (4)$$

102 Our goal is to find the optimal parameters Θ^* that $\Theta^* = \arg \min_{\Theta} \Lambda$.

103 Directly optimizing (4) is time consuming since it involves comparing risks for $|\mathcal{L}| - 1$ location with
 104 the true location for every crime in every crime series. Therefore, we use a stochastic gradient descent
 105 algorithm on the bootstrap samples: we first draw a crime series p , and then randomly draw a crime i
 106 and a location l to compare with the true location that crime i happened in. Then we apply stochastic
 107 subgradient with momentum to learn the parameters Θ .

108 2.3 Constructing Geographic Features

109 In this section, we describe how to construct geographic features ω for each grid cell. First, we find
 110 the smallest rectangle that covers the city of Cambridge and then discretize the map into $u \times v$ grid
 111 cells. To obtain the geographic features, we use the land use datasets from the GIS system available
 112 at Boston public data portal¹. The land use datasets contain a set of shape files for buildings and
 113 constructions of different types. We extract features for different types of land use, including the
 114 public open space, single-family residential building, two-family residential building, commercial
 115 building, apartment building, transportation, and etc.

116 We compute the area and the number of buildings of each subtype in each grid cell. When counting
 117 the number of buildings, since one building could span multiple grid cells, we count the proportion
 118 of the building that overlaps with the grid cell to avoid repetitive counting. We extract the area and
 119 count information for all subtypes of land use. In addition, we extract the asset value for residential
 120 buildings, since the wealth of the neighborhood is also a factor in when a criminal chooses a crime
 121 location. Some offenders are more likely to be attracted to the wealthy neighborhood while others
 122 might be turned away with the high-security level at in wealthy neighborhoods. For the MBTA
 123 feature, we compute the distance to the closest MBTA station for each grid cell, to represent the ease
 124 to get away from the crime scene.

125 3 Experiments

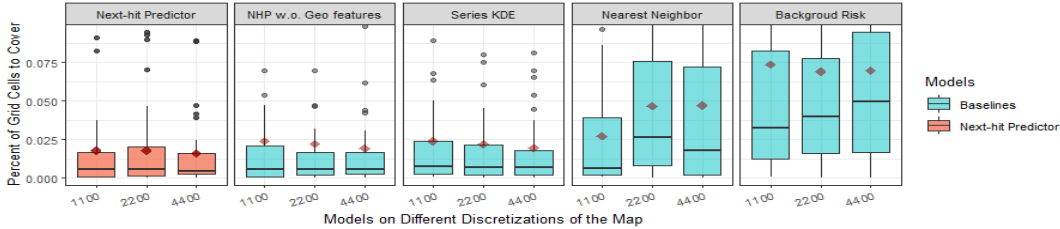
126 We used data from 4916 housebreaks in Cambridge, MA between 1997 and 2006 recorded by the
 127 Crime Analysis Unit of the Cambridge Police Department. Among the 4916 housebreaks, 682 are
 128 serial crimes from 55 crime series collected over the same period of time that were curated and
 129 hand-labeled by crime analysts. For every crime series $p \in \{1, \dots, P\}$, we reserved the last crime
 130 as testing, i.e., $\mathcal{C}_{\text{test}} = \{i | p_i \in \mathcal{P}, t_i = \max_{k \in \mathcal{C}_p} t_k\}$, and the remaining crimes for training and
 131 validation.

¹www.cambridge.gov

132 **Baselines** To compare with the proposed model, we constructed four baseline models. All of the
 133 four models are based on the discretized grid map we mentioned in the second section. For the first
 134 baseline, we would like to see the effect of the geographic features in the NHP model. So we replace
 135 the numerator in the triggered risk in formula (2) with 1 while everything else in NHP remains the
 136 same. The first baseline also serves as an ablations study. Then we investigate the contribution of
 137 the information provided by prior offenses in the series. So we design two baseline models using
 138 only the prior offenses in the series. One uses kernel density estimation. The other uses the nearest
 139 neighbor that computes the sum of the distance between each cell to all of the previous crimes for
 140 each cell: the shorter the distance, the higher the risk score. For the last baseline, we would like to
 141 know the effect of the background risk. So we compute the risk by kernel density estimation based
 142 on T days of the historical crime events before the prediction time. The parameters in the kernels in
 143 the above baselines and T are tuned via cross-validation.

144 **Experiment Setup and Evaluation** We discretize the map into a set of grid cells \mathcal{L} . Then for a test
 145 case in crime series p at time t , a risk map is generated for a model. Grid cells in the map are ranked
 146 according to the risk, from the highest and lowest. We then record the rank of the true location,
 147 denoted as $\text{rank}(l_*^{(p,t)})$. We try different discretizations of the map into 1100, 2200, and 4400 cells
 148 to achieve different resolutions of the map. For a fair comparison, we report the *normalized rank*,
 149 $\frac{\text{rank}(l_*^{(p,t)})}{|\mathcal{L}|}$, which represents the percentage of the grid cells one needs to cover in order to find the true
 150 crime. The smaller the normalized rank is, the better the prediction. We plot the normalized ranks for
 151 the 55 test crimes in Figure 1. We found that the proposed model demonstrated consistently good
 152 performance across different maps with the best one (smallest mean and median) being $\mathcal{L} = 4400$,
 153 where each grid cell is a 70m by 70m square.

154 NHP without geographic features and series KDE achieve the closest competitive performance
 155 compared to NHP and the background risk only performs very poorly, which indicates that the
 156 behavior of each criminal is largely determined by his/her previous offenses instead of the general
 157 criminal cohort. Meanwhile, geographic features to improve the predictive accuracy. Compared to
 158 the self-exciting point process models, KDE does not consider the temporal decaying effect, thus
 achieving a slightly worse performance.



159 Figure 1: The normalized ranks of true cells on the test set. The red dot represents the average

160 We remark that Next Hit Predictor has several advantages over the competing models: (i) the
 161 parameters are trained rigorously via a global objective; (ii) the triggering kernel function considers
 162 the spatial-temporal features and also the geographic features; and (iii) the model considers the both
 163 the general preference of the entire crime cohort and also individual preferences of criminals.

164 4 Conclusion

165 We proposed a novel method, Next Hit Predictor (NHP), to predict the location of the next serial crime,
 166 given the prior offenses in the series. NHP adopts the framework of self-exciting point processes
 167 created for modeling earthquakes, to characterize the correlations between crimes committed by the
 168 same criminal. In this way, NHP does not need to model the latent preference of an unknown criminal
 169 but directly represents the individual preference using the triggering kernels. We designed a new
 170 kernel that considers spatial, temporal and geographic correlations between crimes. To rigorously
 171 train the model, we formulated a convex learning objective that guarantees global optimum.

172 While crime prediction has been studied extensively for predictive policing, serial crime prediction
 173 has not received much attention despite the importance of the problem. We believe our model has
 174 a great potential in this field and can help the police better allocate resources when solving and
 175 preventing serial crimes.

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