



Statistical Learning for Spatial Data: Theory and Practice

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Why Spatial Data?

Natural phenomena:

- weather
- earthquakes
- rivers
- environment
- vegetation

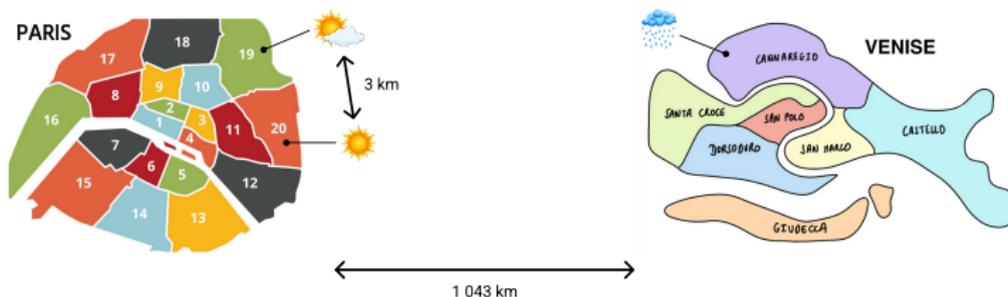


Humanmade:

- urban planning
- public services
- crimes
- agriculture

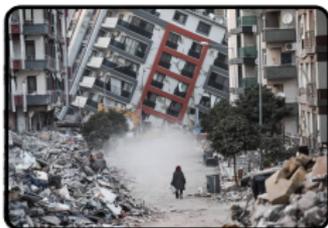
Spatial Data Characteristics

1. Spatial dependence structure



2. One single realization

Natural event



Deterioration of the environment

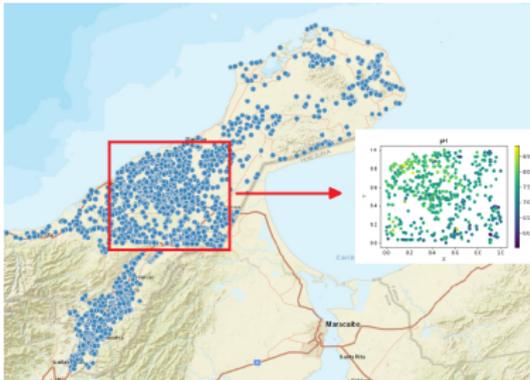


General Spatial Model

$$\mathbf{X} = \{ \mathbf{X}_s, s \in \mathcal{S} \}$$

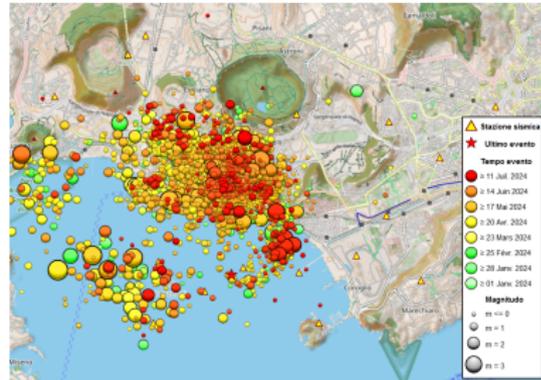
Geostatistical Data:

- **Observations:** fixed, irregularly or regularly sampled
- **Goal:** modeling, prediction
- **Example:** hydrogeology (pH value)



Point Patterns:

- **Observations:** locations (and number n) are random
- **Goal:** capturing a pattern in data
- **Example:** seismology



Geostatistics: History and Applications

1950s: Danie G. Krige's study in mineral deposit (Krige, 1951)

1960s: Georges Matheron lays foundations of Geostatistics theory (Matheron, 1962)

Covariance function describes the dependence structure of data



Unknown in practice \implies need to be **estimated**



Meteorology: weather patterns, climate trends, and atmospheric phenomena (Goovaerts, 2000)



Environment: changes due to human influence or other natural forces (Webster and Oliver, 2007; Cressie, 1993b)



Healthcare: spatial patterns of disease incidence and mortality (Oliver et al., 1998)

Point Processes: History and Applications

1970s: Temporal Hawkes Processes (HP) (Hawkes, 1971)

1980s: Introduction of HP to earthquake modeling (Ogata, 1988)

1990s: extension to spatio-temporal data: earthquakes exhibit both spatial and temporal clustering (Musmeci and Vere-Jones, 1992)



Seismology: mainshock-aftershock pattern (clustering and triggering) (Ogata, 1988; Daley and Vere-Jones, 2003)



Criminology: 'near-repeat victimization' pattern (Mohler et al., 2011; D'Angelo et al., 2022)



Epidemiology: spread of infectious diseases, patterns in disease occurrence (Meyer and Held, 2014; Kresin et al., 2022)

How to learn from spatial data that presents a **dependence structure**?

How does the dependence structure of the observed phenomenon affect the **performance** of the algorithms?



GEOSTATISTICS

1. How **accurate** is the empirical covariance estimator?
2. What is the **non-asymptotic** performance of the Kriging predictor?



POINT PROCESS

3. How to overcome the **numerical and modeling challenges** when learning from a spatio-temporal Hawkes process?
4. How to accurately model **real-world situations**?

A Statistical Learning View of Simple Kriging

Machine Learning:

- **Assets:** statistical learning theory for independent data, non-parametric theory
- **Limits:** very few theoretical guarantees for spatial data

Spatial Analysis:

- **Assets:** take advantage of spatial structure (modelled by covariance function)
- **Limits:** very few non-parametric theories
 - **Limits:** lack of non-asymptotic results for spatial data

Challenge 1: Provide statistical guarantees for **prediction**, under the form of **non-asymptotic** bounds, for **non-parametric** methods in the context of spatial data.

State-of-the-Art

Methods	Parametric	Zimmerman 1989	Zimmerman and Cressie 1992	→ ✗ requires selection of a model and estimation of unknown parameters
	Non-Parametric	Hall and Patil 1994	Elogne et al. 2008	→ ✓ more flexible methods for massive spatial datasets
Results	Asymptotic	Stein 1999		→ ✗ mainly asymptotic results
	Non-Asymptotic with independent copies	Qiao et al. 2018		→ ✗ concentration bounds for independent copies of the spatial process

Notations

- $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$: **spatial domain**

- $C(s, t)$: **covariance function**

$$C(s, t) = \text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_s, \mathbf{X}_t)$$

- $\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d)$: **observations of \mathbf{X}**
at locations $\mathbf{s}_d = (s_i)_{1 \leq i \leq d}$.

$$\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d) = (\mathbf{X}_{s_i})_{1 \leq i \leq d}$$

- $\mathbf{c}_d(s)$: **covariance vector**

$$\mathbf{c}_d(s) = (\text{Cov}(\mathbf{X}_s, \mathbf{X}_{s_i}))_{1 \leq i \leq d}$$

- $\Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)$: **covariance matrix**

$$\Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d) = \text{Var}(\mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d))$$

- \mathbf{X}' : **one single realization of \mathbf{X}**
at locations $\sigma_n = (\sigma_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$.

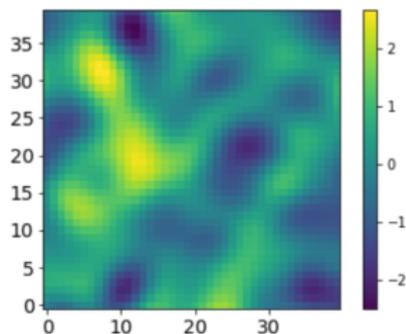
$$\mathbf{X}'(\sigma_n) = (\mathbf{X}'_{\sigma_i})_{1 \leq i \leq n}$$

Simple Kriging Problem

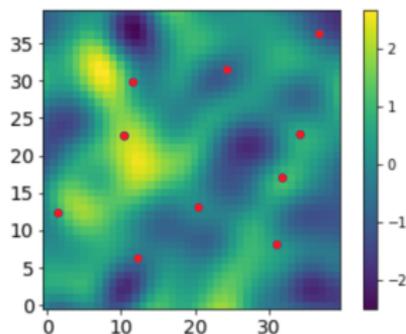
Simple Kriging: predict the value of \mathbf{X} at some unobserved location s , based on d sampled observations $(\mathbf{X}_{s_i})_{i \leq d}$, assuming a **linear combination** of the observations: $f_{\lambda}(s) = \langle \lambda(s), \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d) \rangle$, such that λ minimizes the variance.

$$f_{\lambda^*}(s) = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d)^{\top} \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1} \mathbf{c}_d(s)$$

↪ the weights λ^* depend on covariance function and s



$\{X_s, s \in S\}$ random field



$(X_{s_i})_{i \leq d}$ sampled observations

Theoretical:

$$f_{\lambda^*}(s) = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d)^\top \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1} \mathbf{c}_d(s)$$

→ covariance function known

→ predictor is **BLUP** (Best Linear Unbiased Predictor)

covariance estimation



plug-in rule

Empirical:

$$f_{\hat{\lambda}}(s) = \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{s}_d)^\top \hat{\Sigma}(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{c}}_d(s)$$

→ covariance function unknown and need to be **estimated**



no guarantees of optimality

⇒ Motivation: Need to establish **rate bounds** that assess the **generalization capacity** of the resulting predictive map

Statistical Learning Guarantees

Accuracy of predictor: measured by the integrated Mean Squared Error (IMSE) over the spatial domain \mathcal{S} :

$$\begin{aligned}L_S(f_\lambda) &= \mathbb{E}_X \left[\int_{s \in \mathcal{S}} (f_\lambda(s) - \mathbf{X}_s)^2 ds \right] \\ &= \int_{s \in \mathcal{S}} (\text{Var}(\mathbf{X}_s) + \lambda(s)^\top \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d) \lambda(s) - 2 \mathbf{c}_d(s)^\top \lambda(s)) ds\end{aligned}$$

Statistical guarantees of predictor: The global excess risk quantifies the gap between the optimal theoretical predictor and the empirical predictor errors:

$$L_S(f_{\hat{\lambda}}) - L_S(f_{\lambda^*}) = \mathbb{E}_X \left[\int_{s \in \mathcal{S}} (f_{\hat{\lambda}}(s) - f_{\lambda^*}(s))^2 ds \right]$$

Limitation: unique realisation for learning with only n observations

Assumption 1: \mathbf{X} second order **stationary** with **isotropic** covariance (Cressie, 1993): constant mean $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, and invariant covariance C (depends only on distance h):

$$\exists c, C(s, t) = c(\|t - s\|) = c(h)$$

—→ ✓ **Solution:** \mathbf{X} is sufficiently **homogeneous** inside the spatial domain (its characteristics are identical from one point to another)

Assumptions (suite)

- **Assumption 2: X Gaussian** random field with zero mean and positive definite covariance function

—→ ✓ **strict stationarity, all laws** are known, Bochner's theorem (Stein, 1999; Hall and Patil, 1994)

- **Assumption 3: In-fill** asymptotic: number of observations **within** spatial domain \mathcal{S} increases (denser and denser grid) and **regular** grid (Cressie, 1993)

—→ ✓ **accurate** and **unbiased** estimator

Estimation of the Dependence Structure

How **accurate** is the empirical covariance estimator?

How data points are related to each other, based on their spatial proximity?

—→ **covariance** and **semi-variogram** functions describe how the spatial correlation between data points changes with distance

Covariance:

$$c(h) = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}_{s+h} - \mu)(\mathbf{X}_s - \mu)]$$

Semi-variogram:

$$\gamma(h) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}[(\mathbf{X}_{s+h} - \mathbf{X}_s)^2]$$

Property: For all $h \in \mathbb{R}$, $\gamma(h) = c(0) - c(h)$.

Empirical semi-variogram (Matheron, 1962):

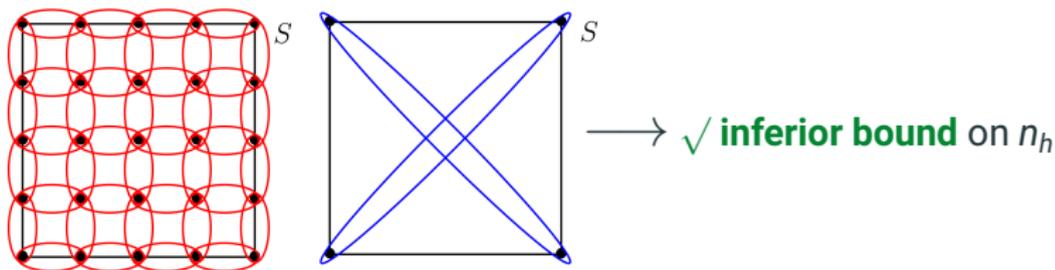
$$\hat{\gamma}(h) = \frac{1}{2n_h} \sum_{(s_i, s_j) \in N(h)} (\mathbf{x}_{s_i} - \mathbf{x}_{s_j})^2,$$

where $N(h)$ is the set of pairs of sites at a distance h (set of neighbors) and n_h its cardinality.

Advantages:

- **flexible** approach to the massive character of spatial datasets
- does not require knowledge of mean
- **unbiased** estimator (for regular grids)
- under Gaussianity assumption, $\hat{\gamma}(h)$ is sum of **independent** χ^2 variables

Additional Assumptions



- **Assumption 4:** $\exists \theta, \forall h \geq \theta, c(h) = 0$ (**border hypothesis**)
- **Assumption 5:** c is of class \mathcal{C}^1 and its gradient is bounded by Q (**regularity/smoothness hypothesis**)
— $\rightarrow \checkmark$ for the **estimation error** at **all lags**

Corollary (Siviero et al., 2023)

Suppose that Assumptions 1–5 are satisfied. Then, for any $\delta \in (0, 1)$, we have with probability at least $1 - \delta$:

$$\sup_{h \geq 0} |\widehat{c}(h) - c(h)| \leq C_3 \sqrt{\log(4n/\delta)/n} + Q/(\sqrt{n} - 1),$$

as soon as $n \geq C'_3 \log(4n/\delta)$, where C_3 and C'_3 are positive constants depending on θ and on the bounds of the eigenvalues of the covariance matrix solely.

Sketch of Proof

- **Distribution of $\hat{\gamma}(h)$:** Under the Gaussian assumption (**Hyp 2**),

$$\hat{\gamma}(h) \sim \frac{1}{n_h} \sum_{i=1}^{\overbrace{n_h}^{\text{(Hyp 3 and 4)}}} \ell_i(h) \chi_i^2,$$

where $\ell_i(h)$'s are the eigenvalues of $L(n, h)\Sigma(\sigma_n)$.

- **Poisson tail bounds:** Thanks to recent results in (Bercu et al., 2015) and (Wang and Ma, 2020):

$$\mathbb{P}(|\hat{\gamma}(h) - \gamma(h)| \geq t) \leq e^{-C_1 nt} + e^{-C'_1 nt^2},$$

where C_1 and C'_1 are positive constants depending on θ (**Hyp 4**).

- **Estimation for all lags:** Thanks to a piece-wise constant estimator and the regularity assumption (**Hyp 5**).

Statistical Learning Guarantees for the Kriging Method

What are the **non-asymptotic guarantees** for the Kriging predictor?

ERM: $f_{\hat{\lambda}}$ is the empirical risk minimizer of

$$\hat{L}_S(f_{\lambda}) = \int_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \left(\hat{\mathbf{c}}(0) + \lambda(s)^{\top} \hat{\Sigma}(\mathbf{s}_d) \lambda(s) - 2 \hat{\mathbf{c}}_d(s)^{\top} \lambda(s) \right) ds$$

GOAL: define **non-asymptotic** bound of global excess risk:

$$\begin{aligned} L_S(f_{\hat{\lambda}}) - L_S(f_{\lambda^*}) = & \\ & \int_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \left(\hat{\lambda}(s) - \lambda^*(s) \right)^{\top} \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d) \hat{\lambda}(s) + \lambda^*(s)^{\top} \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d) \left(\hat{\lambda}(s) - \lambda^*(s) \right) \\ & - 2 \mathbf{c}_d(s)^{\top} \left(\hat{\lambda}(s) - \lambda^*(s) \right) ds \end{aligned}$$

Theorem (Siviero et al., 2023)

Suppose that Assumptions 1–5 are satisfied. Then, for any $\delta \in (0, 1)$, we have with probability at least $1 - \delta$:

$$L_S(\hat{f}_{\hat{\lambda}_d}) - L_S(f_{\lambda^*}) \leq C_6 d^2 \sqrt{\log(4n/\delta)/n} + C'_6 d^2 Q/(\sqrt{n} - 1),$$

as soon as $n \geq C''_6 \log(4n/\delta)$, where C_6 , C'_6 and C''_6 are positive constants depending on θ and on the bounds of the eigenvalues of the covariance matrix solely.

Sketch of Proof

$$\sup_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \|\widehat{\lambda}(s) - \lambda^*(s)\| \leq \underbrace{\|\|\Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1}\|\|}_{N_1} \underbrace{\sup_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \|\widehat{\mathbf{c}}_d(s) - \mathbf{c}_d(s)\|}_{N_2} + \underbrace{\|\|\widehat{\Sigma}(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1} - \Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)^{-1}\|\|}_{N_3} \underbrace{\sup_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \|\widehat{\mathbf{c}}_d(s)\|}_{N_4},$$

where

- N_1 : From bounds on eigenvalues of $\Sigma(\mathbf{s}_d)$
- N_2 : From Corollary
- N_3 : Non-asymptotic bound on the accuracy of the precision matrix estimation
- N_4 : From Corollary and Assumption 5

Illustrative Experiments

Averaged MSE on 100 realisations, with two covariance models, for varying θ

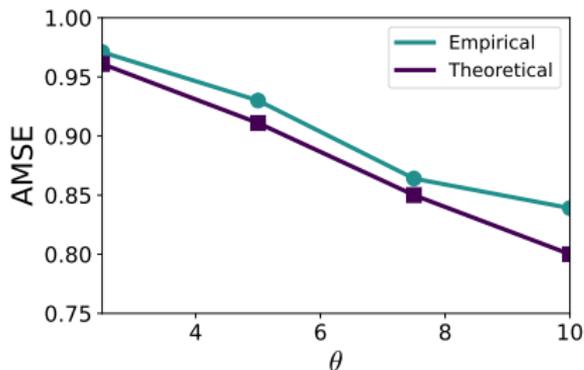


Figure 1: *Truncated power law (TPL)*

✓ satisfies all the assumptions

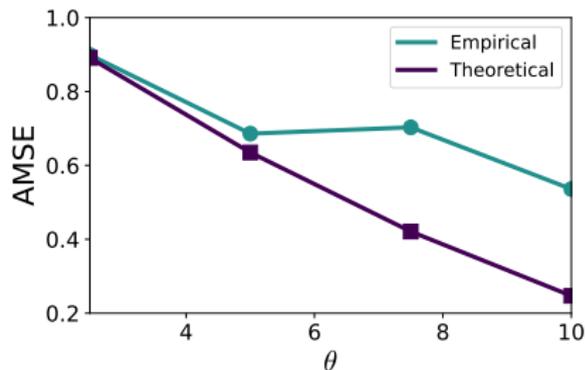


Figure 2: *Gaussian*

✗ not **Hyp 4**, but vanishes quickly

→ ✓ experiments **corroborate** our theoretical results:
the error depends on θ (role of technical assumptions is verified)

→ ✓ results for Gaussian covariance encourages to **relax Hyp 4**

1. Flexible covariance estimation:

We develop **tail bounds** for the **non-parametric** covariance estimator.

2. Statistical guarantees for Kriging:

We develop a novel theoretical framework offering **guarantees** for empirical Kriging rules in the form of **non-asymptotic bounds**.

3. Our numerical experiments on simulated and real meteorological data corroborate our theoretical results.

GitHub: github.com/EmiliaSiv/Simple-Kriging-Code

Flexible Parametric Inference for Space-Time Hawkes Processes

Seismology

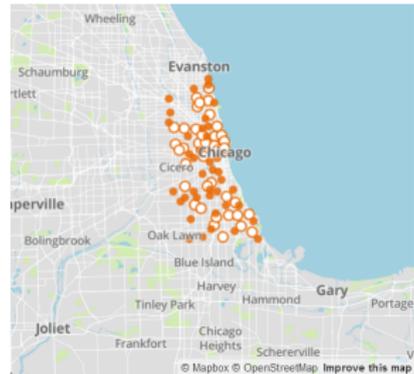
- Mainshock-aftershock clustering behavior



- (Vere-Jones, 1970; Ogata, 1988)

Criminology

- Near-repeat victimization pattern



- (Mohler, 2014; Zhu and Xie, 2022)

Challenge 2: Develop a new, efficient, and accurate method to predict from spatio-temporal data, such that it is **flexible** in modeling **real-world situations**.

Hawkes Processes

- **Point process:** collection of events, randomly distributed over time or space
 - ↳ behavior characterized by **conditional intensity function**.
- **Hawkes (or self-exciting) process:** each event increases the likelihood of future events in its neighborhood
 - ↳ **intensity** depends on time, location, and history of the process.

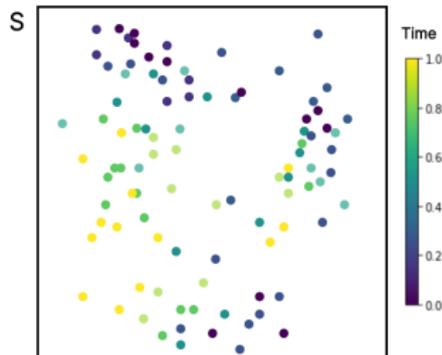
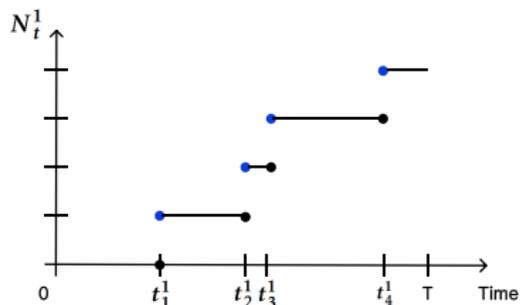
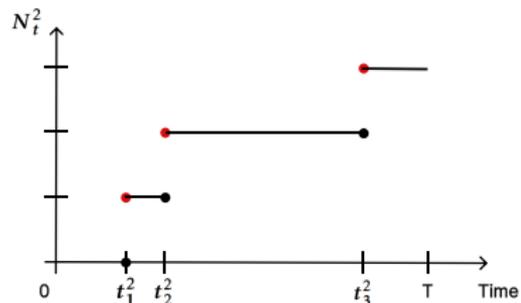


Figure:
Univariate
spatio-
temporal point
process

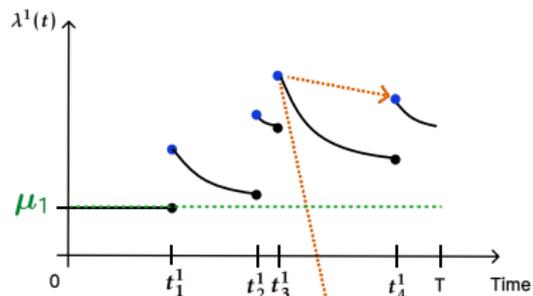
Conditional Intensity Function



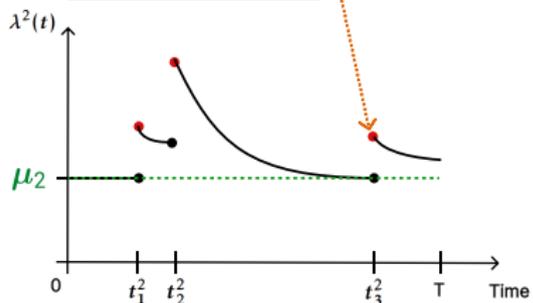
Counting process N_t^1 of process 1



Counting process N_t^2 of process 2



Conditional intensity $\lambda^1(t)$ of process 1



Conditional intensity $\lambda^2(t)$ of process 2

Notations

Given $D \geq 1$ type of events, for each $i \in \{1, \dots, D\}$, the intensity function of the i -th process of a multivariate spatio-temporal Hawkes process (MSTHP):

$$\lambda_i(x, y, t | \mathcal{H}_t) = \underbrace{\mu_i}_{\text{baseline}} + \sum_{j=1}^D \underbrace{\sum_{u_n^j \in \mathcal{H}_t^j}}_{\text{based on history}} \underbrace{\alpha_{ij}}_{\text{excitation scaling}} \underbrace{g_{ij}(x - x_n^j, y - y_n^j, t - t_n^j)}_{\text{triggering kernel}}$$

- $T \in \mathbb{R}_+$: stopping time, $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$: compact set of the space domain
- μ_i : parameter controlling spontaneous event apparition rate with $\mu_i > 0$
- \mathcal{H}_t^i : collection of past events $u_n^i = (x_n^i, y_n^i, t_n^i)$, $(x_n^i, y_n^i) \in \mathcal{S}$, $t_n^i \in [0, t]$
- α_{ij} : describes excitation behavior between events with $0 \leq \alpha_{ij} < 1$
- $g_{ij} : \mathcal{S} \times [0, T] \mapsto \mathbb{R}_+$: spatio-temporal *kernel* (excitation function): influence of past events onto future events

→ parameters: $\theta = \{\mu_i, \alpha_{ij}, \eta_{ij}\}_{ij}$

Two assumptions are commonly made:

- **Space-time separability** (Mohler, 2014; Ilhan and Kozat, 2020)
 - ✓ brings **simplicity**
 - ✗ **not realistic** (space-time interactions)
- **Constrained kernel models** (Chen et al., 2021)
 - ✓ **computational efficiency**
 - ✗ **restrictive** for some real-world situations

⇒ **Motivation:** Need to develop a parametric method allowing (1) **any kind of kernels** and (2) **space-time interactions**

Flexible Inference Approach for MSTHP

How to **accurately** model **real-world situations** using MSTHP?

Inference Approach: Key Components

Inspired by recent work of (Staerman et al., 2023), the inference approach relies on **three key components**:

1. Discretization: define a three dimensional regular grid $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}_S \times \mathcal{G}_T$ with $\Delta_S, \Delta_T > 0$ the stepsizes of the spatial and temporal grids, project the observed events on these grids and define $\tilde{\mathcal{H}}_T^i$.
 $\hookrightarrow \checkmark$ we can rewrite the **intensity in a discretized manner** $\tilde{\lambda}$.
2. Finite-support Kernels: consider the spatio-temporal kernels to be of finite lengths W_S and W_T , and define $L_T = \lfloor W_T/\Delta_T \rfloor + 1$, $L_S = \lfloor 2W_S/\Delta_S \rfloor + 1$ the number of points on the discretized temporal and spatial support.
 $\hookrightarrow \checkmark$ **reduce computational burden**.

Discretized Loss

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{L}_G(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_T) &= \sum_{i=1}^D \left(\Delta_S^2 \Delta_T \sum_{v_x, v_y=0}^{G_S} \sum_{v_t=0}^{G_T} \left(\tilde{\lambda}_i[v_x, v_y, v_t] \right)^2 - 2 \sum_{\tilde{u}_n^i \in \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_T^i} \tilde{\lambda}_i \left[\frac{\tilde{x}_n^i}{\Delta_S}, \frac{\tilde{y}_n^i}{\Delta_S}, \frac{\tilde{t}_n^i}{\Delta_T} \right] \right) \\
 &= (T + \Delta_T)(2S_x + \Delta_x)(2S_y + \Delta_y) \sum_{i=1}^D \mu_i^2 \\
 &+ 2\Delta_x \Delta_y \Delta_T \sum_{i=1}^D \mu_i \sum_{j=1}^D \sum_{\tau_x=1}^{L_x} \sum_{\tau_y=1}^{L_y} \sum_{\tau_t=1}^{L_T} \alpha_{ij} g_{ij}^\Delta[\tau] \Phi_j(\tau; G) \\
 &+ \Delta_x \Delta_y \Delta_T \sum_{i,j,k=1}^D \sum_{\tau_x, \tau'_x=1}^{L_x} \sum_{\tau_y, \tau'_y=1}^{L_y} \sum_{\tau_t, \tau'_t=1}^{L_T} \alpha_{ij} \alpha_{ik} g_{ij}^\Delta[\tau] g_{ik}^\Delta[\tau'] \Psi_{j,k}(\tau, \tau'; G) \\
 &- 2 \sum_{i=1}^D \left(N_T^i \mu_i + \sum_{j=1}^D \sum_{\tau_x=1}^{L_x} \sum_{\tau_y=1}^{L_y} \sum_{\tau_t=1}^{L_T} \alpha_{ij} g_{ij}^\Delta[\tau] \Phi_j(\tau; \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_T^i) \right),
 \end{aligned}$$

P₁
P₂
P₃

3. Precomputations: in the loss, terms appear that do not depend on the set of parameters θ :

- P_1 : $\Phi_j(\tau; \mathcal{G})$
- P_2 : $\Phi_j(\tau; \tilde{\mathcal{H}}_\tau^l)$
- P_3 : $\Psi_{j,k}(\tau, \tau'; \mathcal{G})$

↪ \checkmark these terms can be **precomputed** at initialization and used at each step of the optimization procedure.

⇒ **Gradient-based optimization**: approach efficiently computes exact gradients for each parameter

Applications to Real Data: Seismic Activity in California

Table 1: Negative Log Likelihood (NLL) values on test sets of various extracted earthquake datasets (NCEDC, [nce, 2014](#)) with several triggering (separable and non-separable) kernels. The best NLL is in **bold** and the second best is underlined.

Setting	1987 - 1989	2003 - 2014	1967 - 2003
TG + TG	2.77	1.76	0.72
TG + EXP	3.25	2.14	0.65
TG + KUM	2.98	2.66	0.57
POW + TG	2.11	1.04	0.18
POW + EXP	1.72	1.57	<u>0.20</u>
POW + KUM	<u>2.06</u>	<u>1.50</u>	0.29
NS1 ¹	3.77	2.68	0.88
NS2 ²	3.77	2.67	0.87

¹ Function from the class of non-separable functions in ([Cressie and Huang, 1999](#))

² Spatio-temporal function from the ([Gneiting, 2002](#)) class

Applications to Real Data: Burglary in Chicago

Table 2: NLL values on test sets of various extracted burglary datasets of the Chicago Crime Dataset with several triggering (separable and non-separable) kernels.

Setting	2008	2002 - 2004	2002 - 2006
TG + TG	-0.24	0.26	0.51
TG + EXP	-0.24	0.38	0.60
TG + KUM	-0.23	0.35	0.54
POW + TG	0.54	1.04	1.10
POW + EXP	1.27	1.03	1.08
POW + KUM	0.83	0.86	0.91
NS1	<u>-0.37</u>	<u>-0.43</u>	<u>-0.28</u>
NS2	-0.95	-0.49	-0.31

Comparison with State-of-the-Art Methods

Table 3: Spatial and Temporal NLL values on test sets of various extracted real-world datasets.

Dataset	Earthquake		COVID-19		Citybike	
	Spatial	Temporal	Spatial	Temporal	Spatial	Temporal
NSTPP ¹	0.886	-0.623	1.9	-2.25	2.38	-1.09
DeepSTPP ²	4.92	-0.174	0.361	-1.09	-4.94	-1.13
DSTPP ³	<u>0.413</u>	<u>-1.1</u>	<u>0.35</u>	<u>-2.66</u>	0.529	<u>-2.43</u>
Our approach	-0.501	-10.021	-0.887	-6.336	<u>0.083</u>	-4.275

¹ NSTPP from (Chen et al., 2021)

² DeppSTPP from (Zhou et al., 2022)

³ DSTPP from (Yuan et al., 2023)

1. We develop an **efficient and flexible** method for estimating STHP model parameters allowing **(1) any** (separable) parametric kernel, and **(2) space-time non-separable** kernels

→ ✓ our method **enhances precision and adaptability** when dealing with complex dependencies in real data.

2. **Our numerical experiments** on simulated and real data show **flexibility, adaptability** to phenomenon's characteristics, and **accuracy** compared to SOTA.

→ GitHub: github.com/EmiliaSiv/

[Flexible-Parametric-Inference-for-Space-Time-Hawkes-Processes](https://github.com/EmiliaSiv/Flexible-Parametric-Inference-for-Space-Time-Hawkes-Processes)

Perspectives

- Gradually **relax** some hypotheses:
 - Assumption 2 (*stationary hypothesis*): locally stationary processes
 - Assumption 4 (*border hypothesis*) **less restrictive**: $c(h) \searrow 0$
 - Assumption 5 (*regularity hypothesis*): other smoothing techniques→ ✓ **extend** our main results to a **more general framework**
- **Irregular grid**: define different sets of neighbors, difficulties when controlling the spectrum of the covariance matrix
→ ✓ cover **more** real-world situations

Perspectives: Hawkes Processes

- Non-constant baseline and irregular discretization grid
→ ✓ **improve accuracy**, based on additional information on phenomenon's characteristics

- **Marked** spatio-temporal Hawkes processes:

$$\lambda_i(x, y, t, M | \mathcal{H}_t) = \mu_i + \sum_{j=1}^D \sum_{u_n^j \in \mathcal{H}_t^j} \alpha_{ij} g_{ij}(x - x_n^j, y - y_n^j, t - t_n^j, M - M_n^j),$$

where M_n^j is the mark of the event

→ ✓ additional important features (magnitude of an earthquake, type of crime, etc)

- **Non-separability** in marked processes
→ ✓ accounting for **space-time and marks interactions**
- **Python library** with MIND team (Inria)

Publications and Presentations

Work in progress: Hydrogeology and Spatial Analysis, with Juan Guzmán

Publications:

- E. Siviero, E. Chautru, & S. Cléménçon (2023).
[A Statistical Learning View of Simple Kriging](#). TEST, 33(1), 271-296.
- E. Siviero, G. Staerman, S. Cléménçon, & T. Moreau (2024).
[Flexible Parametric Inference for Space-Time Hawkes Processes](#). ArXiv preprint arXiv:2406.06849 (Submitted).

Presentations:

- CAp 2022 (poster), COMPSTAT 2022 (oral)
- MIND team Seminar 2023 (oral), COMPSTAT 2024 (oral)

GitHub:

- github.com/EmiliaSiv/Simple-Kriging-Code
- [github.com/EmiliaSiv/
Flexible-Parametric-Inference-for-Space-Time-Hawkes-Processes](https://github.com/EmiliaSiv/Flexible-Parametric-Inference-for-Space-Time-Hawkes-Processes)

Thanks for your attention !

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