Determinantal point processes statistical modeling and inference

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Introduction

- Determinantal point processes (DPP) are inhibitive (or regular, or repulsive) point processes.
- ► Introduced by O. Macchi in 1975 to model fermions in quantum mechanics.
- Several theoretical studies appeared in the 2000's.
- Statistical modeling came along in the 2010's and onward.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Notation



$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\,\mathrm{d}x_1\cdots\mathrm{d}x_n$$

is the probability that for each i = 1, ..., n, X has a point in a region around x_i of volume dx_i .



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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In particular $\rho = \rho^{(1)}$ is the *intensity function*.



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Notation



$$p^{(n)}(x_1,\ldots,x_n)\,\mathrm{d}x_1\cdots\mathrm{d}x_n$$

is the probability that for each i = 1, ..., n, X has a point in a region around x_i of volume dx_i .

In particular $\rho = \rho^{(1)}$ is the *intensity function*.

For any function $C : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{C}$, denote $[C](x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ the $n \times n$ matrix with entries $C(x_i, x_j)$.

Ex:
$$[C](x_1) = C(x_1, x_1)$$
 $[C](x_1, x_2) = \begin{pmatrix} C(x_1, x_1) & C(x_1, x_2) \\ C(x_2, x_1) & C(x_2, x_2) \end{pmatrix}$.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Definition of a DPP

Definition

Let *C* be a function $\mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{C}$. *X* is a *determinantal point process* with *kernel C*, denoted $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, if its product density functions satisfy

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1,...,x_n) = \det[C](x_1,...,x_n), \quad n = 1, 2,...$$

For existence, conditions on the kernel C are mandatory

- C must e.g. satisfy: det[C](x_1, \ldots, x_n) ≥ 0 for all x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- Henceforth we assume

(C1) *C* is a continuous (complex) covariance function.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

imulation

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Basic properties (if $X \sim DPP(C)$ exists)

- The intensity of X is $\rho(x) = C(x, x)$.
- The pair correlation function is

$$g(x,y) := \frac{\rho^{(2)}(x,y)}{\rho(x)\rho(y)} = 1 - \frac{C(x,y)C(y,x)}{C(x,x)C(y,y)} = 1 - |R(x,y)|^2$$

where R is the correlation function corresponding to C.

- Thus $g \leq 1$ (i.e. inhibition) since *C* is Hermitian by (C1).
- If $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, then $X_B \sim \text{DPP}_B(C_B)$
- Any smooth transformation or independent thinning of a DPP is still a DPP with an explicitly given kernel.



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Parametric models

Simulation

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Existence



$$C_{\mathcal{S}}(x,y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^{\mathcal{S}} \phi_k^{\mathcal{S}}(x) \overline{\phi_k^{\mathcal{S}}(y)}, \quad (x,y) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S},$$

where $\lambda_k^S \ge 0$ and $\{\phi_k\}$ is a set of orthonormal basis functions on *S*, i.e.,

$$\int_{\mathcal{S}} \phi_k^{\mathcal{S}}(x) \overline{\phi_l^{\mathcal{S}}(x)} \, \mathrm{d}x = \mathbf{1}_{\{k=l\}}.$$

Theorem (Macchi, 1975)

Under (C1), existence of DPP(C) is equivalent to :

 $\lambda_k^S \leq 1$ for all compact $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and all k.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Simulation

Let $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$. We want to simulate X_S for $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ compact.

Theorem (Hough et al. (2006))

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let B_k be independent Bernoulli r.v. with mean λ_k^S . Define

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}, \quad (x,y) \in S imes S.$$

Then $DPP(C_S) \stackrel{d}{=} DPP(K)$.

Note that almost surely there is a finite number of ones in the Bernoulli sequence B_k since $\sum \lambda_k^S = \int_S C(x, x) \, dx < \infty$.



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Simulation (cont'd)

Effectively we pick out $n < \infty$ eigenfunctions with probability according to their eigenvalues and simulate the DPP with finite rank kernel

$$K(x,y) = \sum_{k'=1}^{n} \phi_{k'}^{S}(x) \overline{\phi_{k'}^{S}(y)}, \quad (x,y) \in S \times S.$$

This is a *projection kernel*, and the corresponding DPP can be simulated using rejection sampling.

The algorithm always produces *n* points. Thus,

$$n \sim \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} B_k$$
, $E[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S$, $Var[n] = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S (1 - \lambda_k^S)$.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Stationary kernels



Consider a stationary kernel: $C(x, y) = C_0(x - y), \quad x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d.$

Its Fourier transform (or spectral density) is:

$$\varphi(x) = \int C_0(t) \mathrm{e}^{-2\pi \mathrm{i} x \cdot t} \, \mathrm{d} t, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

Theorem Under (C1), if $C_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, then existence of $DPP(C_0)$ is equivalent to

 $\varphi \leq 1.$

 \rightarrow This induces a restriction on the parameter space.

In practice, this restriction implies that if the intensity is large the range (effective support) of C_0 must be small. I.e. there is a trade-off between strong inhibiton and large intensity.

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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 Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

Without loss of generality we consider $S = [-1/2, 1/2]^d$. To approximate X_S we consider $X^{app} \sim DPP_S(C_{app})$ where

$$\mathcal{C}_{ ext{app}}(x,y) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^d} arphi(k) ext{e}^{2\pi ext{i} k \cdot (x-y)}, \quad x,y \in \mathcal{S}.$$

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Examples of parametric models



We will focus on the following parametric models, where $\rho > 0$ is the intensity, $\alpha > 0$ is a scale/range parameter, and $\nu > 0$ is a shape parameter:

Whittle-Matérn model, which includes the exponential model (*ν* = 1/2) and the Gauss model (*ν* = ∞):

$$C_0(x) = \rho \frac{2^{1-\nu}}{\Gamma(\nu)} \|x/\alpha\|^{\nu} \mathcal{K}_{\nu}(\|x/\alpha\|), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

The parameter restriction is $\rho \leq \frac{\Gamma(\nu)}{\Gamma(\nu+d/2)(2\sqrt{\pi}\alpha)^d}$

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

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Data example

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Parametric models in R

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The parametric families are specified in R via the determinantal family functions: dppGauss, dppMatern, dppPowerExp. E.g:

- model <- dppGauss(lambda=100, alpha=0.05, d=2)</pre>
- model <- dppMatern(lambda=100, alpha=0.03, nu=0.5, d=2)</pre>
- model <- dppPowerExp(lambda=100, alpha=0.17, nu=2, d=2)</pre>

Extract the kernel, spectral density, pair correlation function, K-function:

- dppkernel(model)
- dppspecden(model)
- pcfmodel(model)
- Kmodel(model)

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Step 1. The first point is sampled uniformly on *S*.



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

) Simulation

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Denmark

Step 3. The next point is sampled w.r.t. the following density:



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Step 4. The next point is sampled w.r.t. the following density:



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16

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Step 5. The next point is sampled w.r.t. the following density:



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...somewhere in the middle...





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Parametric models

) Simulation

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Final point is sampled w.r.t. the following density:





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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

) Simulation

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Simulation in R

Simply use the generic function simulate:

- model <- dppGauss(lambda=100, alpha=0.05, d=2)
 X <- simulate(model)</pre>
- Change the window (default is the unit square):
 W <- owin(poly=list(x=c(-1,0,1),y=c(0,1,0)))
 X <- simulate(model, W=W)</pre>
- Several realizations:
 - X <- simulate(model, nsim=4)



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

) Simulation

Data example

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Mucous membrane dataset

Consists of the most abundant type of cell in a bivariate point pattern analysed in Møller and Waagepetersen (2004).



We use this unmarked point pattern to illustrate how an **inhomogenous DPP** can be fitted to a real dataset.

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

Data example

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Assume *correlation stationarity* (second-order intensity-reweighted stationarity) i.e. the correlation function is translation invariant:

$$R_0(x - y) = R(x, y) = \frac{C(x, y)}{\sqrt{C(x, x)C(y, y)}} = \frac{C(x, y)}{\sqrt{\rho(x)\rho(y)}}$$

such that R(x, x) = 1.



Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

16 Data example

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such that R(x, x) = 1.

Fit a parametric model to ρ depending on relevant covariates (second coordinate axis in our case).

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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

6) Data example

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such that R(x, x) = 1.

- Fit a parametric model to ρ depending on relevant covariates (second coordinate axis in our case).
- ► Use the fitted intensity to estimate the inhomogeneous *g* og *K*-function.

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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

6) Data example

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such that R(x, x) = 1.

- Fit a parametric model to ρ depending on relevant covariates (second coordinate axis in our case).
- ► Use the fitted intensity to estimate the inhomogeneous *g* og *K*-function.
- ► Fit a parametric model for *R*₀ via minimum contrast.



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Definition, existence and basic properties

Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

⁶) Data example

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Assume *correlation stationarity* (second-order intensity-reweighted stationarity) i.e. the correlation function is translation invariant:

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such that R(x, x) = 1.

- Fit a parametric model to ρ depending on relevant covariates (second coordinate axis in our case).
- ► Use the fitted intensity to estimate the inhomogeneous *g* og *K*-function.
- ► Fit a parametric model for *R*₀ via minimum contrast.
- ► The resulting DPP has

$$C(x,y) = \sqrt{\hat{
ho}(x)}\hat{R}_0(x-y)\sqrt{\hat{
ho}(y)}$$



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Stationary DPPs and approximations

Parametric models

Simulation

⁶) Data example

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