

Statistical aspects of determinantal point processes

Frédéric Lavancier,

Laboratoire de Mathématiques Jean Leray, Nantes (France)

Joint work with **Jesper Møller** (Aalborg University, Denmark)
and **Ege Rubak** (Aalborg University, Denmark).

Workshop GeoSto Rouen, March 28-30, 2012

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Definition, existence and basic properties
- 3 Simulation
- 4 Parametric models
- 5 Inference

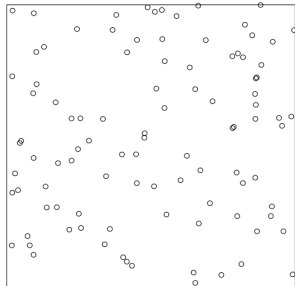
Introduction

- Determinantal point processes (DPP) form a class of repulsive point processes.

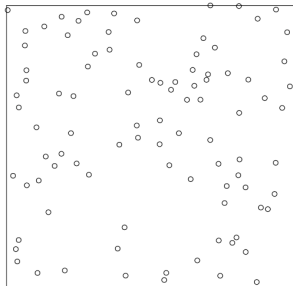
Introduction

- Determinantal point processes (DPP) form a class of repulsive point processes.
- They were introduced in their general form by O. Macchi in 1975 to model fermions (i.e. particles with repulsion) in quantum mechanics.
- Particular cases include the law of the eigenvalues of certain random matrices (Gaussian Unitary Ensemble, Ginibre Ensemble,...)
- Most theoretical studies have been published in the 2000's.

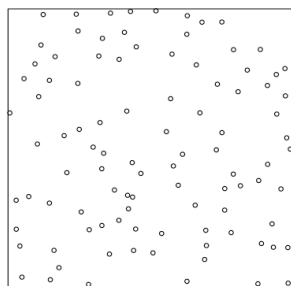
Examples



Poisson



DPP



DPP with
stronger repulsion

Statistical motivations

Could DPP constitute some flexible (parametric) class of models for repulsive point processes?

Statistical motivations

Could DPP constitute some flexible (parametric) class of models for repulsive point processes?

→ The answer is **Yes**.

Statistical motivations

Could DPP constitute some flexible (parametric) class of models for repulsive point processes?

→ The answer is **Yes**.

Furthermore DPP possess the following appealing properties :

- They can be easily simulated
- There are closed form expressions for the moments
- There are closed form expression for the density of a DPP on any bounded set
- Inference is feasible, including likelihood inference.

These properties are unusual for Gibbs point processes which are commonly used to model inhibition (e.g. Strauss process).

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Definition, existence and basic properties**
- 3 Simulation
- 4 Parametric models
- 5 Inference

Notation

- We consider a spatial point process X on \mathbb{R}^d , i.e. we can view X as a random locally finite subset of \mathbb{R}^d .
- For any borel set $B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$, $X_B = X \cap B$.
- For any integer $n > 0$, we let $\rho^{(n)}$ denote the n 'th order product density function of X .

Intuitively,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 \cdots dx_n$$

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

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

Definition of a determinantal point process

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

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

Definition

X is a *determinantal point process* with *kernel* C , denoted $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, if its product density functions satisfy

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

Definition of a determinantal point process

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

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

Definition

X is a *determinantal point process* with *kernel* C , denoted $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, if its product density functions satisfy

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

The Poisson process with intensity $\rho(x)$ is the special case where $C(x, x) = \rho(x)$ and $C(x, y) = 0$ if $x \neq y$.

Definition of a determinantal point process

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

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

Definition

X is a *determinantal point process* with kernel C , denoted $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, if its product density functions satisfy

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

The Poisson process with intensity $\rho(x)$ is the special case where $C(x, x) = \rho(x)$ and $C(x, y) = 0$ if $x \neq y$.

For existence, conditions on the kernel C are mandatory, e.g. C must satisfy : for all x_1, \dots, x_n , $\det[C](x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq 0$.

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

- The intensity of X is $\rho(x) = C(x, x)$

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

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

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

$g \leq 1$ confirms that X is a repulsive point process.

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

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

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

$g \leq 1$ confirms that X is a repulsive point process.

- If $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, then $X_B \sim \text{DPP}(C_B)$

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

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

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

$g \leq 1$ confirms that X is a repulsive point process.

- If $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, then $X_B \sim \text{DPP}(C_B)$
- Any smooth transformation or independent thinning of a DPP is still a DPP with explicit given kernel.

First properties

- From the definition, if C is continuous,

$$\rho^{(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_n) \approx 0 \quad \text{whenever} \quad x_i \approx x_j \quad \text{for some } i \neq j,$$

\implies **the points of X repel each other.**

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

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

$g \leq 1$ confirms that X is a repulsive point process.

- If $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$, then $X_B \sim \text{DPP}(C_B)$
- Any smooth transformation or independent thinning of a DPP is still a DPP with explicit given kernel.
- Given a kernel C , there exists at most one $\text{DPP}(C)$.

Existence

In all that follows we assume

(C1) C is a continuous complex covariance function.

By Mercer's theorem, for any compact set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$, C restricted to $S \times S$, denoted C_S , has a spectral representation,

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

where $\lambda_k^S \geq 0$ and $\int_S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_l^S(x)} dx = \mathbf{1}_{\{k=l\}}$.

Theorem (Macchi (1975))

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

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

Density on a compact set S

Let $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$ and $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ be any compact set.

Recall that $C_S(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}$.

Theorem (Macchi (1975))

Assuming $\lambda_k^S < 1$, for all k , then X_S is absolutely continuous with respect to the homogeneous Poisson process on S with unit intensity, and has density

$$f(\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}) = \exp(|S| - D) \det[\tilde{C}](x_1, \dots, x_n),$$

where $D = -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \log(1 - \lambda_k^S)$ and $\tilde{C} : S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ is given by

$$\tilde{C}(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_k^S}{1 - \lambda_k^S} \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}$$

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Definition, existence and basic properties
- 3 Simulation**
- 4 Parametric models
- 5 Inference

Let $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$.

We want to simulate X_S for $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ compact.

Recall that $X_S \sim \text{DPP}(C_S)$ with $C_S(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}$.

Let $X \sim \text{DPP}(C)$.

We want to simulate X_S for $S \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ compact.

Recall that $X_S \sim \text{DPP}(C_S)$ with $C_S(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}$.

Theorem (Hough et al. (2006))

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

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

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

Simulating X_S is equivalent to simulate DPP(K) with

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

Let $M = \max\{k \geq 0; B_k \neq 0\}$.

Note that M is a.s. finite since $\sum \lambda_k^S < \infty$.

- 1 simulate M (by the inversion method)

Simulating X_S is equivalent to simulate DPP(K) with

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

Let $M = \max\{k \geq 0; B_k \neq 0\}$.

Note that M is a.s. finite since $\sum \lambda_k^S < \infty$.

- 1 simulate M (by the inversion method)
- 2 generate the Bernoulli variables B_1, \dots, B_M

Simulating X_S is equivalent to simulate DPP(K) with

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

Let $M = \max\{k \geq 0; B_k \neq 0\}$.

Note that M is a.s. finite since $\sum \lambda_k^S < \infty$.

- 1 simulate M (by the inversion method)
- 2 generate the Bernoulli variables B_1, \dots, B_M
- 3 simulate the point process DPP(K) given B_1, \dots, B_M

Simulating X_S is equivalent to simulate DPP(K) with

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

Let $M = \max\{k \geq 0; B_k \neq 0\}$.

Note that M is a.s. finite since $\sum \lambda_k^S < \infty$.

- ❶ simulate M (by the inversion method)
- ❷ generate the Bernoulli variables B_1, \dots, B_M
- ❸ simulate the point process DPP(K) given B_1, \dots, B_M

In the last step, the kernel K (given B_1, \dots, B_M) becomes a *projection kernel*, which can be written, w.l.g :

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^n \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}$$

where $n = \text{card}\{1 \leq k \leq M; B_k = 1\}$.

Simulation of determinantal projection processes

Denoting $\mathbf{v}(x) = (\phi_1^S(x), \dots, \phi_n^S(x))^T$, we have

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^n \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)} = \mathbf{v}(y)^* \mathbf{v}(x)$$

The point process $\text{DPP}(K)$ has a.s. n points (X_1, \dots, X_n) that can be simulated by the following Gram-Schmidt procedure :

Simulation of determinantal projection processes

Denoting $\mathbf{v}(x) = (\phi_1^S(x), \dots, \phi_n^S(x))^T$, we have

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^n \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)} = \mathbf{v}(y)^* \mathbf{v}(x)$$

The point process $\text{DPP}(K)$ has a.s. n points (X_1, \dots, X_n) that can be simulated by the following Gram-Schmidt procedure :

sample X_n from the distribution with density $p_n(x) = \|\mathbf{v}(x)\|^2/n$.

set $\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{v}(X_n)/\|\mathbf{v}(X_n)\|$.

for $i = (n - 1)$ to 1 **do**

sample X_i from the distribution (given X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n) :

$$p_i(x) = \frac{1}{i} \left[\|\mathbf{v}(x)\|^2 - \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} |\mathbf{e}_j^* \mathbf{v}(x)|^2 \right], \quad x \in S$$

set $\mathbf{w}_i = \mathbf{v}(X_i) - \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} (\mathbf{e}_j^* \mathbf{v}(X_i)) \mathbf{e}_j$, $\mathbf{e}_{n-i+1} = \mathbf{w}_i/\|\mathbf{w}_i\|$

Simulation of determinantal projection processes

Denoting $\mathbf{v}(x) = (\phi_1^S(x), \dots, \phi_n^S(x))^T$, we have

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{k=1}^n \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)} = \mathbf{v}(y)^* \mathbf{v}(x)$$

The point process $\text{DPP}(K)$ has a.s. n points (X_1, \dots, X_n) that can be simulated by the following Gram-Schmidt procedure :

sample X_n from the distribution with density $p_n(x) = \|\mathbf{v}(x)\|^2/n$.

set $\mathbf{e}_1 = \mathbf{v}(X_n)/\|\mathbf{v}(X_n)\|$.

for $i = (n - 1)$ to 1 **do**

sample X_i from the distribution (given X_{i+1}, \dots, X_n) :

$$p_i(x) = \frac{1}{i} \left[\|\mathbf{v}(x)\|^2 - \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} |\mathbf{e}_j^* \mathbf{v}(x)|^2 \right], \quad x \in S$$

set $\mathbf{w}_i = \mathbf{v}(X_i) - \sum_{j=1}^{n-i} (\mathbf{e}_j^* \mathbf{v}(X_i)) \mathbf{e}_j$, $\mathbf{e}_{n-i+1} = \mathbf{w}_i/\|\mathbf{w}_i\|$

Theorem

$\{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ generated as above has distribution $\text{DPP}(K)$ on S .

Illustration of simulation algorithm

Example : Consider the unit box $S = [-1/2, 1/2]^2$ and :

$$\phi_k(x) = e^{2\pi i k \cdot x}, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}^2, \quad x \in S,$$

for a set of indices k_1, \dots, k_n in \mathbb{Z}^2 .

So the projection kernel writes

$$K(x, y) = \sum_{j=1}^n e^{2\pi i k_j \cdot (x-y)}$$

$X_S \sim \text{DPP}(K)$ is homogeneous and has a.s. n points on S .

Illustration of simulation algorithm

Step 1. The first point is sampled uniformly on S

Illustration of simulation algorithm

Step 1. The first point is sampled uniformly on S

Step 2. The next point is sampled w.r.t the following density :

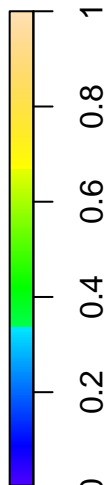
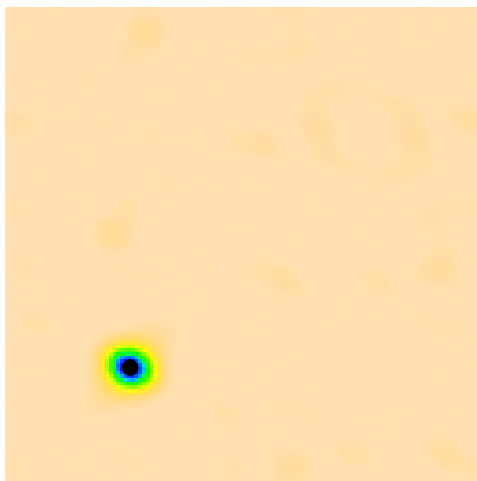


Illustration of simulation algorithm

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

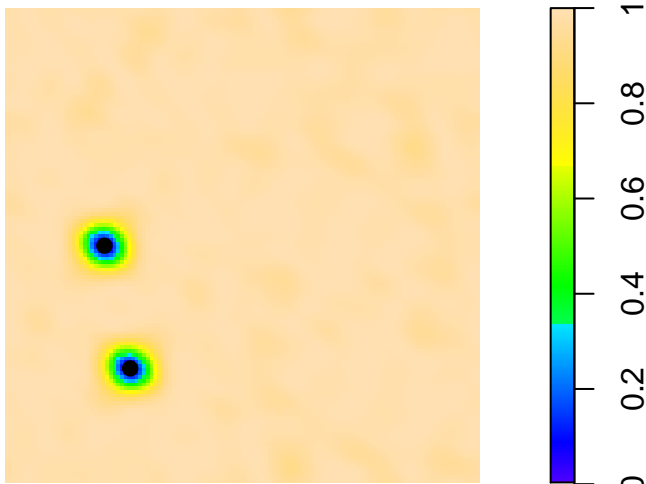


Illustration of simulation algorithm

etc.

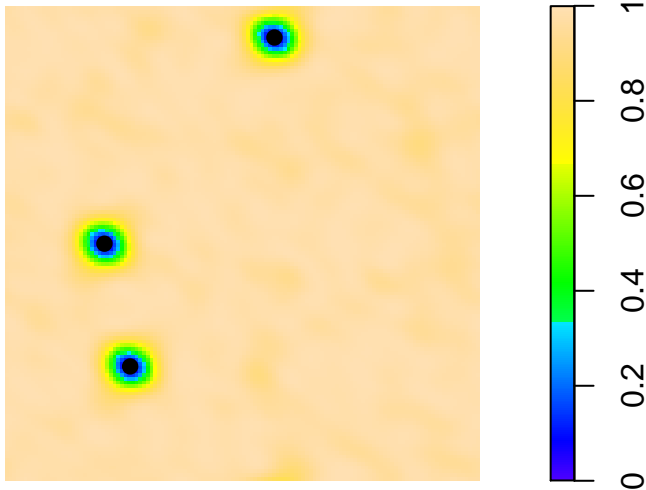


Illustration of simulation algorithm

etc.

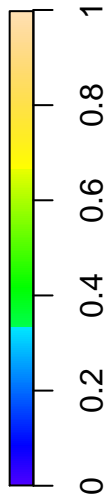
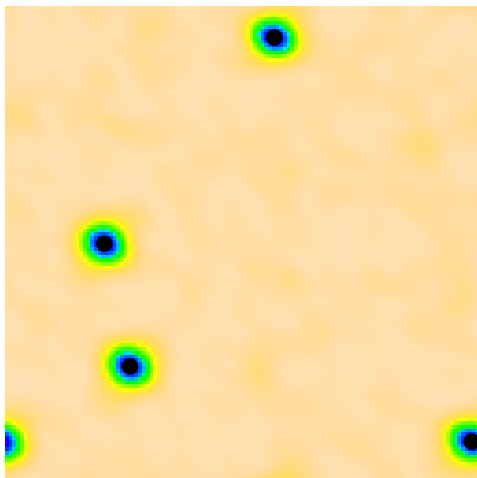


Illustration of simulation algorithm

etc.

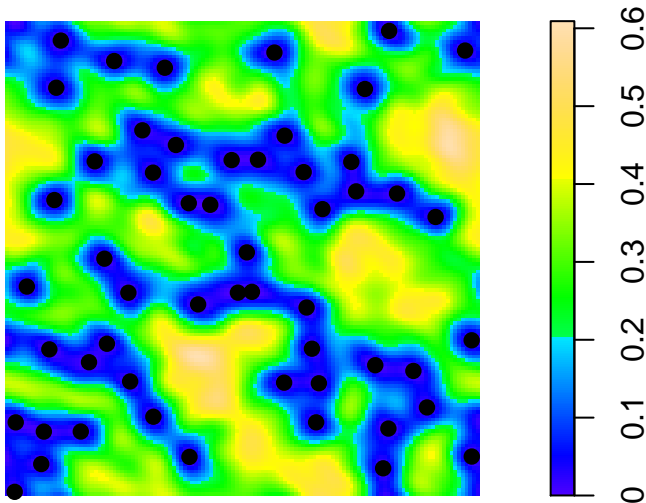
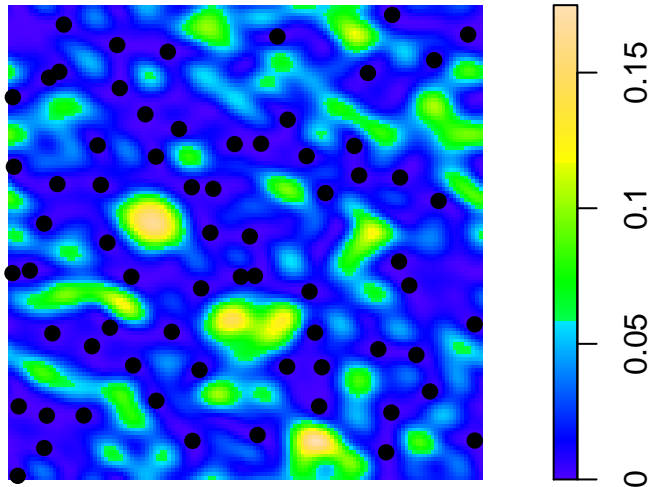


Illustration of simulation algorithm

etc.



- 1 Introduction
- 2 Definition, existence and basic properties
- 3 Simulation
- 4 Parametric models**
- 5 Inference

Stationary models

We focus on kernel C of the form

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

(C1) C_0 is a continuous covariance function

Moreover, if $C_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ we can define its Fourier transform

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

Stationary models

We focus on kernel C of the form

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

(C1) C_0 is a continuous covariance function

Moreover, if $C_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ we can define its Fourier transform

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

Theorem

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

$$\varphi \leq 1.$$

Stationary models

We focus on kernel C of the form

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

(C1) C_0 is a continuous covariance function

Moreover, if $C_0 \in L^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ we can define its Fourier transform

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

Theorem

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

$$\varphi \leq 1.$$

To construct parametric families of DPP :

Consider parametric families of C_0 and rescale so that $\varphi \leq 1$.

→ This will induce restriction on the parameter space.

Several parametric families of covariance function are available, with closed form expressions for their Fourier transform.

- For $d = 2$, the circular covariance function with range α is given by

$$C_0(x) = \rho \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\arccos(\|x\|/\alpha) - \|x\|/\alpha \sqrt{1 - (\|x\|/\alpha)^2} \right) \mathbf{1}_{\|x\| < \alpha}.$$

DPP(C_0) exists iff $\varphi \leq 1 \Leftrightarrow \rho\alpha^2 \leq 4/\pi$.

\Rightarrow Tradeoff between the intensity ρ and the range of repulsion α .

Several parametric families of covariance function are available, with closed form expressions for their Fourier transform.

- For $d = 2$, the circular covariance function with range α is given by

$$C_0(x) = \rho \frac{2}{\pi} \left(\arccos(\|x\|/\alpha) - \|x\|/\alpha \sqrt{1 - (\|x\|/\alpha)^2} \right) \mathbf{1}_{\|x\| < \alpha}.$$

DPP(C_0) exists iff $\varphi \leq 1 \Leftrightarrow \rho\alpha^2 \leq 4/\pi$.

\Rightarrow Tradeoff between the intensity ρ and the range of repulsion α .

- Whittle-Matérn (includes Exponential and Gaussian) :

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

DPP(C_0) exists iff $\rho \leq \frac{\Gamma(\nu)}{\Gamma(\nu+d/2)(2\sqrt{\pi}\alpha)^d}$

- Generalized Cauchy

$$C_0(x) = \frac{\rho}{(1 + \|x/\alpha\|^2)^{\nu+d/2}}, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

DPP(C_0) exists iff $\rho \leq \frac{\Gamma(\nu+d/2)}{\Gamma(\nu)(\sqrt{\pi}\alpha)^d}$

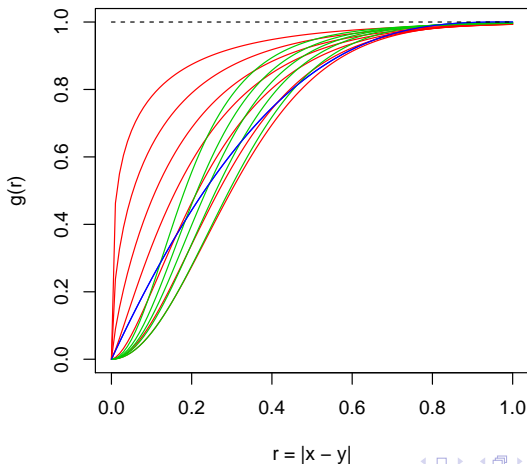
Pair correlation functions of $\text{DPP}(C_0)$ for previous models :

In blue : C_0 is the **circular** covariance function.

In red : C_0 is **Whittle-Matérn**, for different values of ν

In green : C_0 is generalized **Cauchy**, for different values of ν

The parameter α is chosen such that the range ≈ 1 .



Approximation of stationary models

Consider a parametric stationary kernel C_0 and $X \sim \text{DPP}(C_0)$.
The simulation and the density of X_S requires the expansion :

$$C_S(x, y) = C_0(y - x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}, \quad (x, y) \in S \times S$$

→ This is in general not know.

Approximation of stationary models

Consider a parametric stationary kernel C_0 and $X \sim \text{DPP}(C_0)$.
The simulation and the density of X_S requires the expansion :

$$C_S(x, y) = C_0(y - x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lambda_k^S \phi_k^S(x) \overline{\phi_k^S(y)}, \quad (x, y) \in S \times S$$

→ This is in general not know.

Consider w.l.g the unit box $S = [-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]^d$ and the Fourier expansion :

$$C_0(y - x) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^d} c_k e^{2\pi i k \cdot (y-x)}, \quad (y - x) \in S.$$

The Fourier coefficients are

$$c_k = \int_S C_0(u) e^{-2\pi i k \cdot u} du \approx \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} C_0(u) e^{-2\pi i k \cdot u} du = \varphi(k)$$

which is a good approximation if $C_0(u) \approx 0$ for $|u| > \frac{1}{2}$.

Example : For the circular covariance, this is true whenever $\rho > 5$

Approximation of stationary models

The approximation of $\text{DPP}(C_0)$ on S is then $\text{DPP}(C_{\text{app},0})$ with

$$C_{\text{app},0}(x) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}^d} \varphi(k) e^{2\pi i x \cdot k},$$

where φ is the Fourier transform of C_0 .

This approximation allows us

- to simulate $\text{DPP}(C_0)$ on S
- to compute the (approximated) density of $\text{DPP}(C_0)$ on S

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Definition, existence and basic properties
- 3 Simulation
- 4 Parametric models
- 5 Inference**

Consider a stationary and isotropic parametric DPP(C), i.e.

$$C(x, y) = C_0(x - y) = \rho R_\alpha(\|x - y\|),$$

with $R_\alpha(0) = 1$.

The first moments are easily deduced :

- The intensity is ρ
- The pair correlation function is

$$g(x, y) = g_0(\|x - y\|) = 1 - R_\alpha^2(\|x - y\|).$$

- Ripley's K -function is easily expressible in terms of R_α as,

$$K_\alpha(r) := 2\pi \int_0^r t g_0(t) dt = \pi r^2 - 2\pi \int_0^r t |R_\alpha(t)|^2 dt.$$

Inference

The estimation can be conducted as follows

- 1 Estimate ρ by the mean number of points.
- 2 Estimate α
 - either by **minimum contrast** estimator (MCE) :

$$\hat{\alpha} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\alpha} \int_0^{r_{\max}} \left| \sqrt{\widehat{K}(r)} - \sqrt{K_{\alpha}(r)} \right|^2 dr$$

- or by maximum **likelihood** estimator : given $\hat{\rho}$, the likelihood is deduced from the kernel approximation.

Two model examples

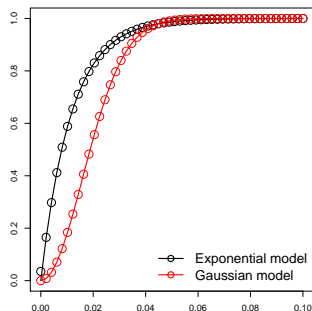
In the following we will consider two different model examples :

- An exponential model with $\rho = 200$ and $\alpha = 0.014$:

$$C_0(x) = \rho \exp(-\|x\|/\alpha)$$

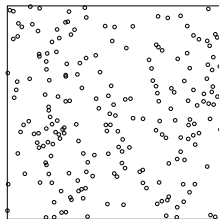
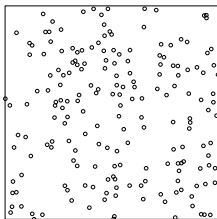
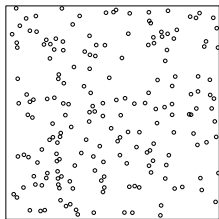
- A Gaussian model with $\rho = 200$ and $\alpha = 0.02$:

$$C_0(x) = \rho \exp(-\|x/\alpha\|^2)$$

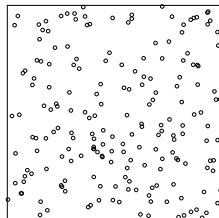
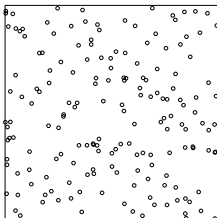
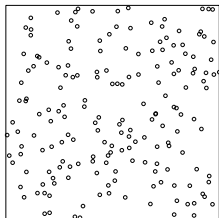


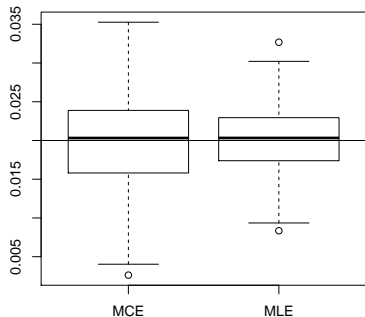
- Solid lines : theoretical pair correlation function
- Circles : pair correlation from the approximated kernel

Samples from the Gaussian model on $[0, 1]^2$:

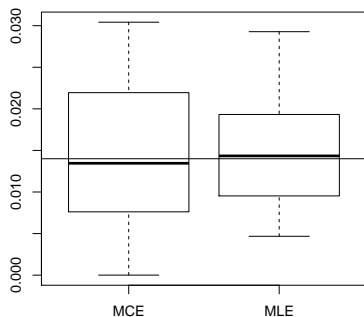


Samples from the Exponential model on $[0, 1]^2$:



Estimation of α from 200 realisations

Gaussian model



Exponential model

Conclusion

DPP provides some flexible parametric models of repulsive point processes.

Furthermore DPP possess the following appealing properties :

- They can be easily simulated
- There are closed form expressions for the moments of a DPP
- There are closed form expression for the density of a DPP on any bounded set
- Inference is feasible, including likelihood inference.

⇒ Promising alternative to repulsive Gibbs point processes.

References



Hough, J. B., M. Krishnapur, Y. Peres, and B. Viràg (2006).
Determinantal processes and independence.
Probability Surveys 3, 206–229.



Macchi, O. (1975).
The coincidence approach to stochastic point processes.
Advances in Applied Probability 7, 83–122.



McCullagh, P. and J. Møller (2006).
The permanental process.
Advances in Applied Probability 38, 873–888.



Scardicchio, A., C. Zachary, and S. Torquato (2009).
Statistical properties of determinantal point processes in high-dimensional
Euclidean spaces.
Physical Review E 79(4).



Shirai, T. and Y. Takahashi (2003).
Random point fields associated with certain Fredholm determinants. I.
Fermion, Poisson and boson point processes.
Journal of Functional Analysis 2, 414–463.



Soshnikov, A. (2000).
Determinantal random point fields.
Russian Math. Surveys 55, 923–975.