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A New Method for Calculating Counts in Cells

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ABSTRACT

In the near future a new generation of CCD based galaxy surveys will enable high precision determination of the N-point correlation functions. The resulting information will help to resolve the ambiguities associated with two-point correlation functions thus constraining theories of structure formation, biasing, and Gaussianity of initial conditions independently of the value of Ω. As one the most successful methods to extract higher order correlations is based on measuring the distribution of counts in cells, this work presents an advanced way of measuring it with unprecedented accuracy. Szapudi and Colombi (1996, hereafter SC96) identified the main sources of theoretical errors in extracting counts in cells from galaxy catalogs. One of these sources, termed as measurement error, stems from the fact that conventional methods use a finite number of sampling cells to estimate counts in cells. This effect can be circumvented by using an infinite number of cells. This paper presents an algorithm, which, *in practice* achieves this goal, i.e. it is equivalent of throwing an infinite number of sampling cells in finite time. The errors associated with sampling cells are completely eliminated by this procedure which will be essential for the accurate analysis of future surveys.

Subject headings: large scale structure of the universe — methods: numerical

1. Introduction

As direct measurement of the higher order correlation functions (ex. Peebles 1980) is complicated for $N > 4$ because of the combinatorial explosion of terms, accurate methods based on counts in cells became crucial for understanding higher order statistics of the distribution of galaxies (Peebles 1980, Gaztañaga 1992, Bouchet *et al.* 1993, Gaztañaga 1994, Colombi *et al.* 1995, Szapudi, Meiksin & Nichol 1996, hereafter SMN). The most successful method calculates the factorial moments and cumulants from the distribution of galaxy counts in cells. The resulting cumulants, S_N's, in turn can be compared with results from perturbation theory (Peebles 1980, Juszkiewicz, Bouchet, & Colombi 1993, Bernardeau 1992, Bernardeau 1994), N-body simulations, and the theory gravitational statistics based on the BBKGY equations (Davis & Peebles 1977, Peebles 1980, Colombi *et al.* 1995, Baugh, Gaztañaga, & Efstathiou 1995, Szapudi, Quinn, Stadel, & Lake 1997). These theories assuming gravity and Gaussian initial conditions predict a certain set of cumulants, S_N's, while non-Gaussian initial conditions (Colombi 1992), and biasing (Fry & Gaztañaga 1994) have different predictions. Therefore high precision determination of the S_N's in fully sampled CCD based catalogs, such as the future SDSS, will be crucial in resolving the ambiguities associated with the two-point correlation functions (and its reincarnations) to constrain theories of structure formation, biasing, and the nature of initial conditions. This is the motivation for the method presented here to extract counts in cells with unprecedented accuracy by diminishing the errors associated with sampling cells.

SC96 examined in detail the problem of errors on statistics related to counts in cells. They found, that theoretical errors fall into two distinct classes: cosmic errors (including finite volume effects, discreteness effects, and edge effects), and measurement errors. While the former is an inherent property of the galaxy catalog at hand, thus can be improved upon only by creating a larger, denser catalog, the second one can be eliminated in principle by

throwing an infinite number of cells. As discussed in SC96, the number of cells one needs to throw ("number of independent cells") depends on the statistic and scale at question. The asymptotic behavior of the errors is proportional $1/C$, where C is the number of sampling cells, with the constant of proportionality increasing toward higher order quantities and smaller scales. While at least massive oversampling is recommended to control the errors up to a certain order, only infinite sampling makes the measurement error term completely disappear for all order. Surprisingly, infinite sampling can be achieved in practice. This work presents such method with moderate CPU investment compared to the alternative of mending the traditional procedure with massive oversampling. The next section describes the algorithm, in §3 evaluates a practical implementation, presents measurements, and discusses the relevance of the results.

2. The Algorithm

The basic observation underlying the method is that the measurement of counts in cells by throwing an infinite number of random cells is equivalent to a series of integrals over step functions. These can be evaluated to arbitrary precision without actually throwing *any* cells. Thus the traditional way of throwing random cells corresponds to a Monte Carlo integration, while the other popular method involving a grid is equivalent to Euler's formula. Here the exact calculation is proposed for ultimate accuracy.

Let me define the following set of functions

$$f_N(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } M = N \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

where M is the number of objects within a cell centered on x. Clearly the estimator for P_N is

$$P_N \simeq \lim_{C \to -> \infty} \frac{1}{C} \sum f_N(x_i) = \int_V d^3x f_N(x), \tag{2}$$

where C the number of random cells at positions x_i tends to infinity, and the Monte Carlo realization of the integral approaches the integral itself. Obviously, calculating the integral is equivalent to throwing an infinite number of sampling cells. Exact calculation is possible because the function f_N is piecewise constant. Note also that $\sum f_N(x) = 1$ for any x, therefore only one of the f_N's can be non-zero. Also, for any finite galaxy catalog, there exists a maximum number in the galaxy cell counts (for instance it is bounded by the total number of objects). These two properties facilitate the computation of all the $\int f_N$'s simultaneously.

A geometric interpretation of the above idea is most useful to devise an algorithm to calculate the needed integrals exactly. Figure 1. illustrates the problem of measuring counts in cells for a special configuration. There are four points in a rectangular box. Around each object (large dots) a square is drawn, identical to the sampling cell used for counts in cells. The possible centers of random cells all lie within the dashed line, which follows the boundary of the bounding box. Since the square around each point corresponds to the possible centers of (random) cells containing that same point, the question can be reformulated in the following way: let us partition the area of the possible centers of cells according to the overlap properties of the cells drawn around the objects. If N squares overlap in a partition, then $f_N = 1$ throughout the partition, and the rest of the f_j's are all zero. This is illustrated with different shadings on the figure. Thus the problem of calculating the integral exactly is equivalent to finding the sum of areas in the partitions for each N.

The above considerations, although illustrated with square cells, apply to any cell shape, and for finite number of points. However, it is easiest to determine overlaps of rectangular cells (in any dimension), therefore the rest of the paper will be restricted to rectangular shape. This is not a serious restriction, because the shape dependence is not

expected to be severe in the galaxy distribution, even though spherical cells do have some theoretical advantage such as being directionless.

One obvious possibility for calculating the needed overlaps is a tree data structure (similar to a tree N-body code) to find all the neighbors of a point for determining the overlaps in an adaptive mesh. I found, however, that the 'sweep' paradigm from computational geometry can be used to construct a simpler and more memory efficient algorithm. This can also be thought of as an adaptive grid covering the total area, however, only the part immediately needed for the calculation is stored in memory. For simplicity, I refer to the configuration on Figure 1. in the following description of the method. The calculation for any configuration should be obvious from this.

Imagine a rigid vertical line moving slowly from the left of Figure 1. towards the right; the boundary can be ignored temporarily. Before the line touches any of the squares, it sweeps through an area with $f_0 = 1$. Therefore at the point of first contact all the swept area contributes to $\int f_0$ and can be recorded. After the contact the line is divided into segments sweeping through areas with $f_0 = 1$ and $f_1 = 1$ respectively. The boundaries of these segments can be imagined as two markers on the line, corresponding to the upper and lower corner the square being touched. As the sweep continues, the results can be recorded at any contact with the side of a square during the movement of the line: the areas swept are assigned according to the markers on the line to different $\int f_N$'s. This is done with a one dimensional sweep on the line counting the two kinds of markers. Then the segmentation of the line is updated. Whenever the line makes contact with the left side of a square, two markers are added, whenever it touches the right hand side of a square, the corresponding markers are dropped. The boundaries and rectangular masks, can be trivially taken into account by only starting to record the result of the sweep when entering the area of possible centers. Non-rectangular masks can be converted to rectangular by putting them on a grid.

If there are N objects in the plane, the above procedure will finish after $2N$ updating. The algorithm can be trivially generalized for arbitrary rectangles, any dimensions. For instance in three dimensions the basic sweep is done with a plane, while the plane has to be swept by a line after each contact. The generalization for circles, and spheres, or arbitrary shapes, seems to be fairly complicated, although it might be possible.

3. Discussion

From the definition of the algorithm it follows that the required CPU time scales as $N^D(d/L)^{D(D-1)/2}$ in D dimensions, where N is the number of objects, d/L is the ratio of the scale of measurement to the characteristic survey length. Artificial galaxy catalogs were generated using `ran1` from Press *et al.* 1992 in a rectangle of 19 by 55 degrees, matching exactly the dimensions of the EDSGC catalog as used by SMN. Figure 2. shows the scaling measured for a family of two-dimensional catalogs. The dashed line shows the approximate scaling $t \simeq 2.8\ 10^{-8} N^2 d_{deg}$ on both panels, which is in good agreement with the expectations. The memory requirement is approximately linear with N.

The accuracy of the code can be judged by inspecting Figure 3. where a series of measurements are shown in a two-dimensional artificial catalog with a million objects in it. The theoretical Poisson distribution is shown with dotted, the infinitely sampled measurements with solid lines. The different curves correspond to a series of scales ranging from 0.016 to 2 degrees. The theoretical and measured curves agree perfectly with each other. With massive oversampling, roughly $10^8 \ldots 10^{10}$ random cells would achieve the same accuracy. Note, that Poisson distribution is actually simpler to measure accurately than the long tailed distribution of the galaxy surveys because of the non-Gaussian error distribution (SC96).

The code was also applied to real galaxy data (SMN). On their Fig. 1. the traditional method of calculating counts in cells on a single grid totally misses the shape of the probability distribution. It was found that the infinite oversampling provided by the proposed algorithm was most essential on small scales, where Poisson noise can dominate the signal. In this regime undersampling can severely underestimate the moments of the distribution, especially for higher order. This effect can be understood in terms of the theoretical results by SC96, where the "number of statistically independent cells" was found to increase sharply toward smaller scales, and increasing order. Since the error distribution is fairly skewed, from an ensemble of low sampled measurements many will underestimate the moments, while a few will overestimate them substantially. The sum will still give the right ensemble average identical to the infinitely oversampled measurements. This means that a particular undersampled measurement is likely to underestimate the moments since the small number of sampling cells can miss a rare cluster with high probability. Similarly, there is a small chance of largely overestimating the moments when, with a small probability, a cell happens to hit a rare cluster exactly. In effect, this phenomenon can cause the unbiased statistical estimator to give lower values for the moments. Only massive oversampling, and preferably, the algorithm outlined in this work can yield accurate, unbiased measurements.

As expected from the construction of the sweep, the CPU time for the real data of SMN was of the same order as for an artificial catalog with same number of objects in it. The CPU time comparison with the alternative of throwing *large* number of random cells is ambiguous, since the effective number of sampling cells for the method of this work is infinity. On the data set of SMN the number of cells were increased in the traditional algorithm using multiple oversampling grids until the resulting irreducible Nth moments do not change significantly. It was found that order of twenty times more CPU was appropriate for up to 9th order. However, the results of the infinite precision calculation are not only

faster, but more accurate as well. The convergence of actually throwing a large number of cells is slow because of the $1/C$ asymptotic.

While the above detailed tests were performed for the two-dimensional version of the code, a three dimensional version was implemented as well. Because of the sharp increase in CPU time, proportional to N^3, this version is practical only for a moderate red shift survey of tens of thousands of galaxies with widely available computers. Perhaps supercomputers can remedy the situation somewhat, since the algorithm is naturally parallizable via domain decomposition. For N-body simulations containing millions of particles, a pair of new algorithms will be described elsewhere (Szapudi, Quinn, Stadel, & Lake 1997).

This paper presented a new method for the measurement of counts in cells, a quantity central to higher order statistics. The new method is equivalent to throwing an infinite number of sampling cells in a traditional algorithm, and as such eliminates the contribution to the "measurement errors" (SC96). This way the full 1 point information is extracted from the data if the negligible effect of sampling different orientations is disregarded. The implementation of the code is significantly more accurate, and orders of magnitude faster than the traditional approach, making it a natural choice for analyzing future galaxy surveys.

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4. Figure Captions

Figure 1. Illustrates the geometric calculation of counts in cells. There are four points within the solid boundary. The centers of square cells can lie within the dashed boundary. Around each point a square is drawn to represent the possible centers of cells which contain that point. The problem of counts in cells can now be reformulated as calculation of the ratios of all overlap areas (represented with different shadings on the figure) within the dashed boundary.

Figure 2. The CPU time of the measurements of counts in cells in artificial galaxy catalogs is displayed. The solid line represents the actual measurements, while the dotted line is the theoretical scaling, $t \simeq 2.8\ 10^{-8} N^2 d_{deg}$, where the universal constant was "fit" by a few trial. Panel a. displays the time as a function of the number of galaxies in the survey, while d_{deg} is a parameter, doubling from 0.016 to 2 degrees from below. Panel b. displays t is a function of d_{deg}, while N is $5\ 10^4, 10^5, 2\ 10^5, 2.9\ 10^5, 4\ 10^5$, and 10^6 from below.

Figure 3. Shows the measurement of counts in cells in an artificial galaxy catalog of 19 by 55 degrees with $N = 10^6$ galaxies. The measurements are shown with solid lines, while the dotted lines display the theoretical curves. The agreement shows the unprecedented accuracy of the proposed method.

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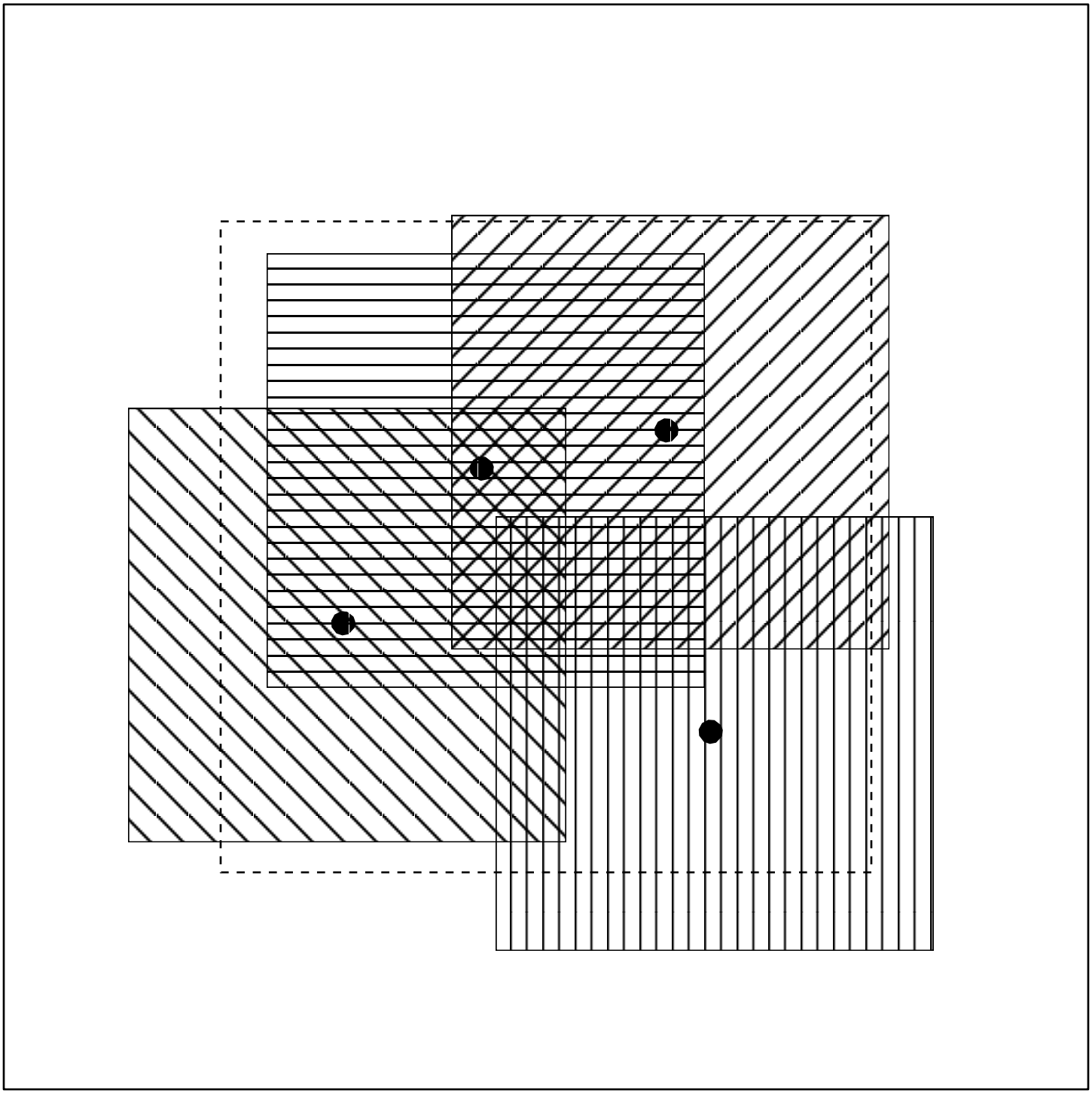
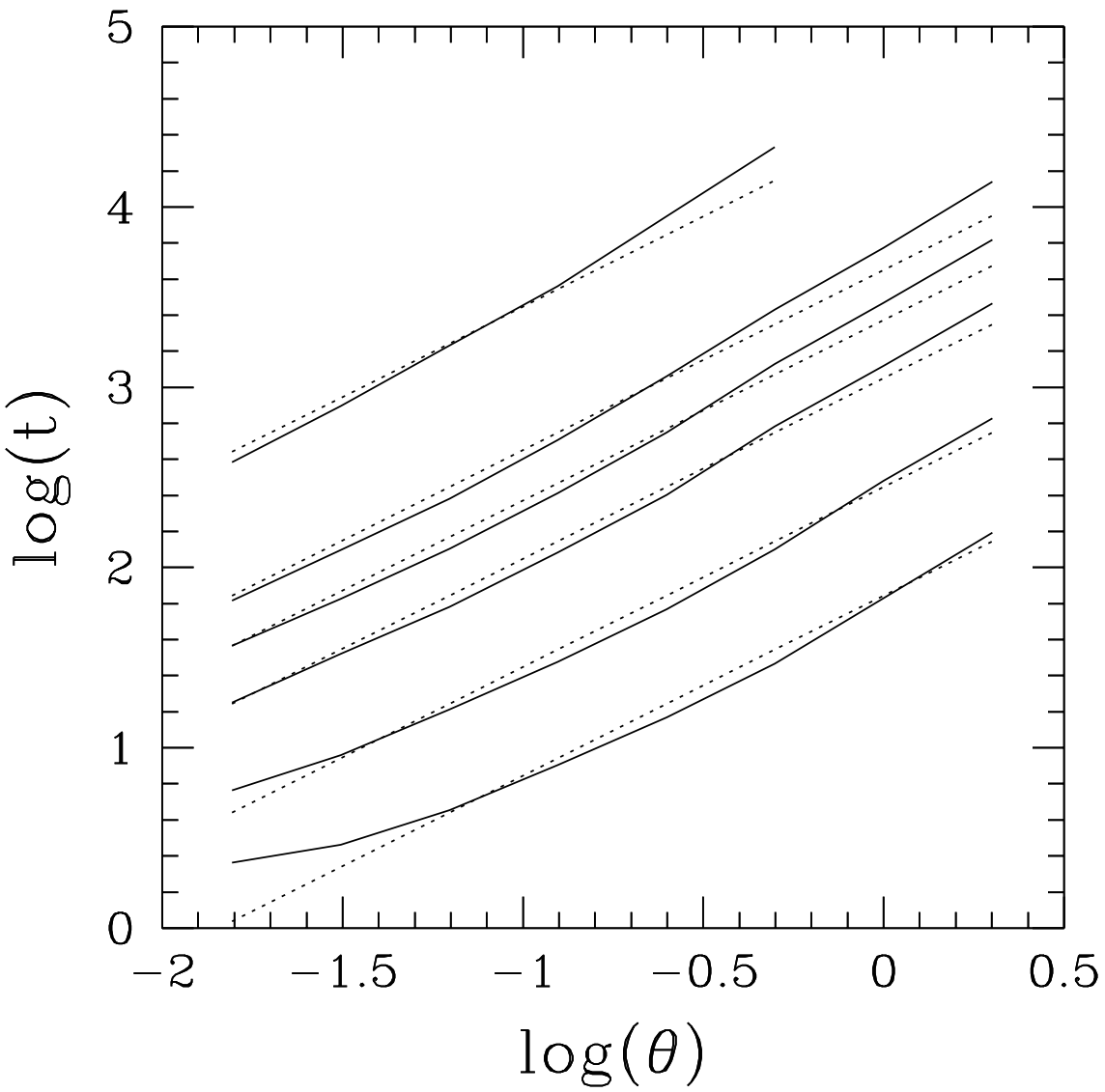


Figure 1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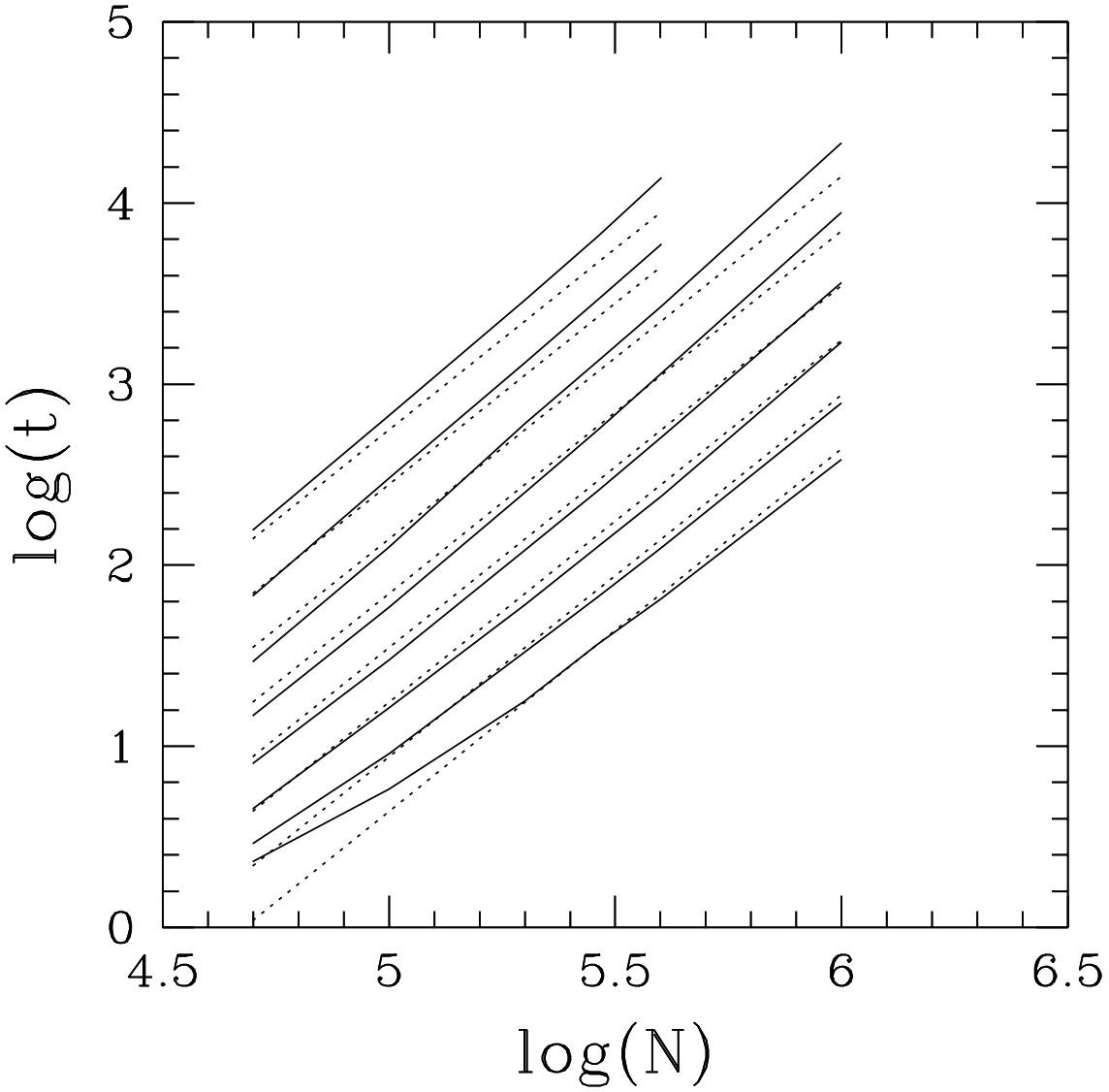
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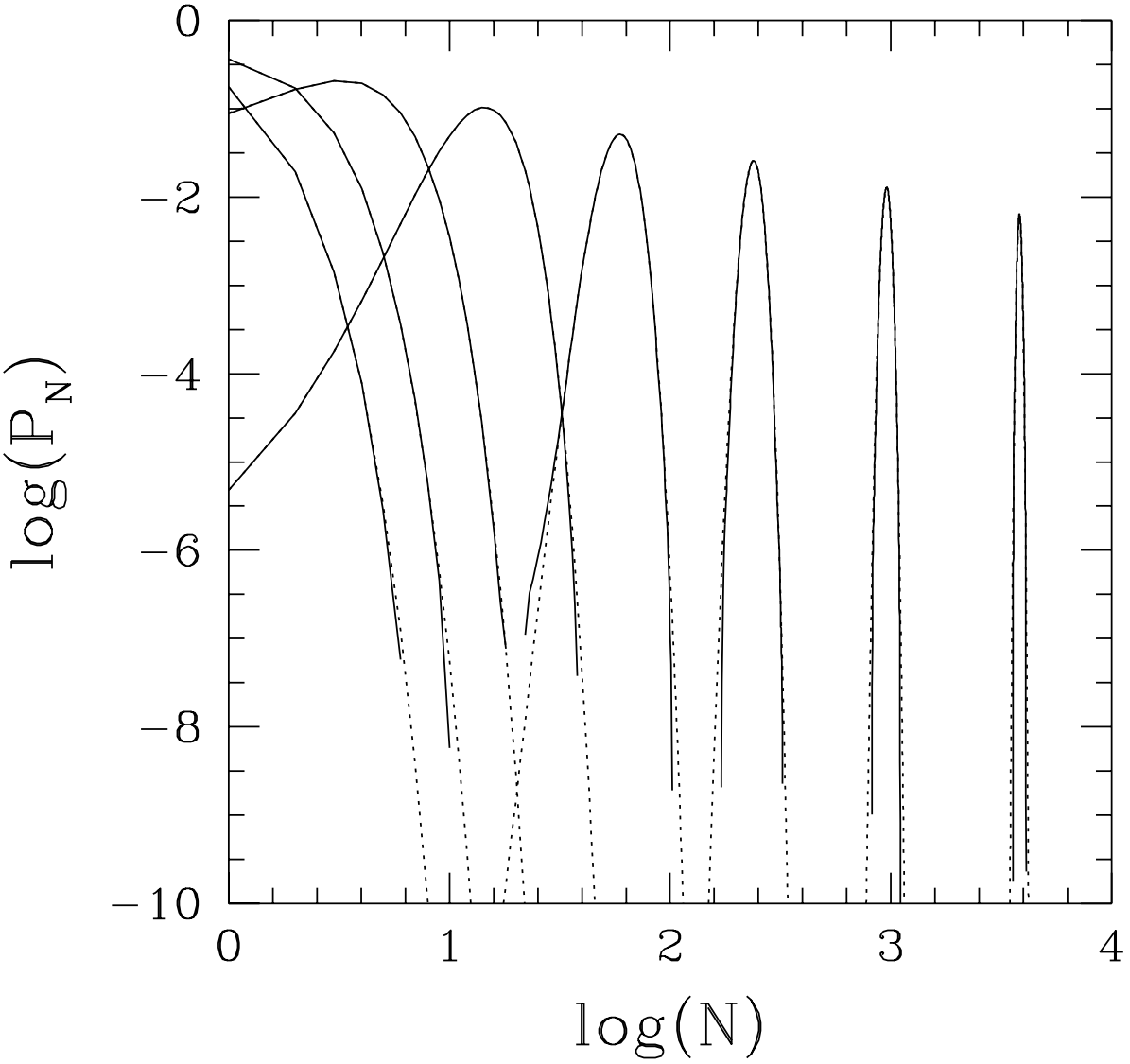
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