#### 36-789 Topics in High Dimensional Statistics II

Fall 2015

### Lecture 9: November 24

Lecturer: Alessandro Rinaldo Scribes: Yining Wang

Note: LaTeX template courtesy of UC Berkeley EECS dept.

**Disclaimer**: These notes have not been subjected to the usual scrutiny reserved for formal publications. They may be distributed outside this class only with the permission of the Instructor.

In this lecture we review the equalizer rule for exact minimax estimation and then proceed to minimax hypothesis testing (also known as minimax detection). Finally we consider a high-dimensional detection example, where we want to decide whether there is signal in the underlying model.

## 9.1 The equalizer rule

Suppose  $\Theta$  is the parameter space and let  $d: \Theta \times \Theta \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be a specific loss function (e.g., the  $\ell_2$  loss  $d(\theta, \theta') = \|\theta - \theta'\|_2^2$ ). The *risk* of an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  is defined as  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta}[d(\hat{\theta}, \theta)]$ , where the expectation is taken over i.i.d. sampled from the underlying distribution parameterized by the true parameter  $\theta$ . Let  $\pi$  be a prior distribution over the parameter space  $\Theta$ . The *Bayes risk* of an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  with respect to prior  $\pi$  is defined as

$$R(\hat{\theta}, \pi) = \int_{\Theta} \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[d(\hat{\theta}, \theta)] d\pi(\theta).$$

The posterior risk of an estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  with respect to prior  $\pi$  and data X is defined as

$$r(\hat{\theta}|X) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim \pi}[d(\hat{\theta}, \theta)|X].$$

A simple observation is that  $R(\hat{\theta}, \pi)$  can also be expressed as an integration over posterior risk of  $\hat{\theta}$ , as shown below:

$$R(\hat{\theta}, \pi) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} r(\hat{\theta}|X) d\mu_X(X). \tag{9.1}$$

The Bayes rule estimator with respect to prior  $\pi$  is the estimator  $\hat{\theta}$  that minimizes the posterior risk  $r(\hat{\theta}|X)$  at every X. It is known that when  $\ell_2$  loss is used, the Bayes rule is the posterior mean  $\mathbb{E}[\theta|X]$ .

The equalizer rule asserts that an estimator is minimax if it is the Bayes rule with respect to some prior  $\pi$  and achieves constant risk for all underlying parameter  $\theta$ . More specifically, we have the following proposition:

**Proposition 9.1 (The equalizer rule)** Let  $\hat{\theta}(\pi)$  be the Bayes rule with respect to some prior  $\pi$ . If

$$\mathbb{E}_{\theta}[d(\hat{\theta}(\pi), \theta)] = C, \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

for some constant C, then  $\hat{\theta}(\pi)$  is minimax:

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[d(\hat{\theta}(\pi), \theta)] = \inf_{\hat{\theta}} \sup_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[d(\hat{\theta}, \theta)].$$

9-2 Lecture 9: November 24

**Example: Binomial distribution** . Suppose  $X \sim B(n, \theta)$  for  $\theta \in \Theta = [0, 1]$ . Consider the Beta prior  $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha, \beta)$ , The posterior distribution of  $\theta$  conditioned on X is then

$$\theta | X = x \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha + x, \beta + n - x).$$

Under the  $\ell_2$  loss function  $d(\hat{\theta}, \theta) = (\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2$ , the Bayes rule is the posterior mean:

$$\hat{\theta}(\pi) = \frac{\alpha + x}{\alpha + \beta + n} = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{\alpha + \beta + n} \cdot \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} + \frac{n}{\alpha + \beta + n} \cdot \frac{x}{n}.$$

Taking  $\alpha = \beta = \sqrt{n}/2$ , we have

$$R(\hat{\theta}(\pi), \theta) = \frac{1}{4(1+\sqrt{n})^2}, \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta,$$

which is a constant function with respect to the underlying parameter  $\theta$ . Subsequently, by the equalizer rule, we claim that the minimax estimator for  $\theta$  is

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{1 + \sqrt{n}} \cdot \frac{X}{n}.$$

## 9.2 General hypothesis testing theory

Consider distribution class  $\mathcal{P} = \{p_{\theta} : \theta \in \Theta\}$  for some parameter space  $\Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ . Suppose  $X_1, \dots, X_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} p_{\theta}$  for some  $\theta \in \Theta$ . We want to test:

$$H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0; \quad H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1;$$

for some  $\Theta_0, \Theta_1 \subseteq \Theta$ . Conventionally we also assume that  $\Theta_0 \cap \Theta_1 = \emptyset$ . We call a hypothesis testing problem *simple* if each one of  $\Theta_0, \Theta_1$  only has one parameter; that is,  $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}$  and  $\Theta_1 = \{\theta_1\}$ . A test function  $\psi$  is a function from  $\mathcal{X}$  to  $\{0,1\}$  such that

$$\psi(X) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{reject } H_0; \\ 0, & \text{fail to reject } H_0. \end{cases}$$

The type-I error of a testing function  $\psi$  is defined as  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \psi$ , while the type-II error if defined as  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} (1 - \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \psi)$ .

From now on we shall consider the simple hypothesis testing case, where  $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}, \Theta_1 = \{\theta_1\}$  for some distinct  $\theta_0, \theta_1 \in \Theta$ . There are two standard ways of defining the "risk" of the simple hypothesis testing problem:

1. The risk of  $\psi$  is defined as

$$R(\psi) = R(\psi, \theta_0) + R(\psi, \theta_1),$$

where

$$R(\psi, \theta) = c_0 \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \psi \cdot 1[\theta = \theta_0] + (1 - \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \psi) \cdot 1[\theta = \theta_1]$$

for some constant  $c_0 > 0$ .

2. Neyman-Pearson's approach ("bi-criteria"). First define

$$\Psi_{\alpha} = \{ \psi : \mathbb{E}_{\theta_{\alpha}} \psi \leq \alpha \}$$

to be all tests that have type-I error controlled by some constant  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ . The risk of a test  $\psi \in \Psi_{\alpha}$  is then defined as

$$R_{\alpha}(\psi) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1}[1 - \psi].$$

Lecture 9: November 24 9-3

The following lemma (usually referred to as Neyman-Pearson lemma) asserts that the optimal test for both risk formulations are likelihood ratio tests.

**Lemma 9.2 (Neyman-Pearson)** For both risk formulations the optimal test  $\psi^*$  takes the form

$$\psi^*(X) = \begin{cases} 1, & if \ p_1(X)/p_0(X) \ge c; \\ 0, & otherwise. \end{cases}$$

Here we assumed that  $p_1(X)/p_0(X) = c$  with probability zero. Note that for risk formulation 1, set  $c = c_0$  and for risk formulation 2, set c such that  $\mathbb{E}_{\theta_0} \psi^* = \alpha$ .

The two risk formulations can also be generalized to the composite hypothesis case:

1. For the first formulation, define

$$R(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1) = c_0 \cdot \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{E}_{\theta} \psi + \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\theta} [1 - \psi]$$

for some constant  $c_0 > 0$ .

2. For the second formulation with constant  $\alpha \in (0,1)$ , define

$$R_{\alpha}(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[1 - \psi]$$

for those  $\psi \in \Psi_{\alpha} = \{ \psi : \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \mathbb{E}_{\theta}[\psi] \leq \alpha \}.$ 

# 9.3 Minimax test (minimax detection)

**Definition 9.3 (minimax test)** A test  $\psi^M$  is minimax optimal if

$$R(\psi^M, \Theta_0, \Theta_1) = \inf_{\psi} R(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1)$$

for the first formulation or

$$R_{\alpha}(\psi^{M}, \Theta_{0}, \Theta_{1}) = \inf_{\psi \in \Psi_{\alpha}} R_{\alpha}(\psi, \Theta_{0}, \Theta_{1}).$$

Under regularity conditions, one can show that

1. The minimax risk of  $R(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1)$  is

$$\sup_{p_0, p_1} \{1 - \|p_0 - p_1\|_1; p_0 \in \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{P}_0), p_1 \in \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{P}_1)\}$$

and the minimax test is achieved by a Bayes test. Here  $conv(\cdot)$  is the convex hull of a distribution class.

2. The minimax risk of  $R_{\alpha}(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1)$  is

$$\sup_{p_0,p_1} \left\{ \inf_{\psi \in \Psi_{\alpha}} \mathbb{E}_{p_1}[1-\psi]; p_0 \in \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{P}_0), p_1 \in \operatorname{conv}(\mathcal{P}_1) \right\}.$$

9-4 Lecture 9: November 24

We next consider an example of high-dimensional minimax detection. Consider  $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}$  and  $\Theta_1 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ . Typically we assume  $\theta_0 = 0$  is the zero vector and  $\Theta_1(n,d)$  changes with n (the number of samples) and d (the number of variables). The risk of a testing function is defined as

$$R(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_0} \psi + \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} [1 - \psi],$$

or under a Bayesian formulation

$$R(\psi, \Theta_0, \Theta_1) = \mathbb{E}_{\theta_0} \psi + \int_{\Theta_1} \mathbb{E}_{\theta_1} [1 - \psi] d\pi(\theta_1)$$

with respect to some prior distribution  $\pi$  over  $\Theta_1$ . Under the high-dimensional testing scenario, we usually adopt the following definition of asymptotic power to quantify the power of a test  $\psi$ :

**Definition 9.4 (asymptotic power)** A test  $\psi$  is asymptotically powerful if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} R(\psi, \Theta_0(n, d), \Theta_1(n, d)) = 0.$$

On the other hand,  $\psi$  is asymptotically powerless if

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} R(\psi, \Theta_0(n, d), \Theta_1(n, d)) = 1.$$

Let's now consider the example of high-dimensional normal mean testing problem. We have

$$H_0: \mathcal{N}(0, I), \quad H_1: \mathcal{N}(\theta, I),$$

where  $\theta \in \Theta_1(n,d) = \{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d : \|\theta\|_2 \ge r_{n,d}\}$ . The goal is to find the fastest rate of  $r_{n,d}$  going to zero while still making the test asymptotically powerful. As a perhaps simpler example, consider low-dimensional linear regression

$$H_0: \beta = 0, \quad H_1: \beta \neq 0.$$

For fixed design  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ , a natural test is to consider  $||XX^{\dagger}y||_2^2$ . Under  $H_0$  we have

$$||XX^{\dagger}y||_2^2 \sim \chi^2_{\min(n,d)}.$$

Therefore, the test is powerless if

$$\frac{\|X\beta\|_2^2}{\sqrt{\min(n,d)}} \to 0.$$