

## D3: Statistical Decision Theory I

Consider a measurement  $x[0]$  that is either  $w[0]$  or  $s[0] + w[0]$ , where  $s[0] = 1$  and  $w[0] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . Given  $x[0]$ , deciding whether we have  $s[0] = 1$  or the other case is a simple hypothesis testing problem.

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : x[0] = w[0]$$

$$\mathcal{H}_1 : x[0] = s[0] + w[0]$$

In this example we have a simple "signal detection in noise" situation.

Miss: Deciding  $\mathcal{H}_0$  when  $\mathcal{H}_1$  is true.

False alarm: Deciding  $\mathcal{H}_1$  when  $\mathcal{H}_0$  is true.

Detection: Deciding  $\mathcal{H}_1$  when  $\mathcal{H}_1$  is true.

Let  $P_{FA} = P(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_0)$ ,  $P_D = P(\mathcal{H}_1; \mathcal{H}_1)$ . We have

$$P_{FA} = \Pr \{ x[0] > \gamma; \mathcal{H}_0 \} = \int_{\gamma}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-t^2/2} dt = Q(\gamma)$$

$$P_D = \Pr \{ x[0] > \gamma; \mathcal{H}_1 \} = \int_{\gamma}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(t-1)^2/2} dt = Q(\gamma-1)$$

In general a sequence  $\{x[0], x[1], \dots, x[N-1]\}$  is observed.

Let  $\mathbf{x} = [x[0], \dots, x[N-1]]^T$  be the data vector. Then the critical region (region for  $\mathbf{x}$  where decision will be  $\mathcal{H}_1$ ) is

$$R_1 = \{ \mathbf{x} : \text{decide } \mathcal{H}_1 \text{ or reject } \mathcal{H}_0 \}.$$

Here  $R_1 \subset \mathbb{R}^N$  and  $R_0 \cup R_1 = \mathbb{R}^N$  with  $R_0 = \mathbb{R}^N - R_1$ , denoting the region in which we decide  $H_0$ . Clearly,

$$P_{FA} = \int_{R_1} p(x; H_0) dx = \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad P_D = \int_{R_1} p(x; H_1) dx = 1 - \beta$$

and  $\alpha$  is called the significance level (or size) <sup>the</sup> of the test,  $(1 - \beta)$  is called the power of the test.

### Theorem 3.1: (Neyman-Pearson)

To maximize  $P_D$  for a given  $P_{FA} = \alpha$ , decide  $H_1$  if

$$L(x) = \frac{p(x; H_1)}{p(x; H_0)} > \delta, \quad \text{where } \delta \text{ is found from } P_{FA} = \int_{\{x: L(x) > \delta\}} p(x; H_0) dx = \alpha.$$

Here,  $L(x)$  is called the likelihood ratio and the decision process in the theorem is the likelihood ratio test (LRT).

Proof:  $F = P_D + \lambda (P_{FA} - \alpha) = \int_{R_1} p(x; H_1) dx + \lambda \left( \int_{R_1} p(x; H_0) dx - \alpha \right)$

$\xrightarrow{\text{Lagrange multiplier}} = \int_{R_1} [p(x; H_1) + \lambda p(x; H_0)] dx - \lambda \alpha$

To maximize  $F$ , we should include  $x$  in  $R_1$  if the integrand is positive, i.e. if  $p(x; H_1) + \lambda p(x; H_0) > 0$ . This yields  $\frac{p(x; H_1)}{p(x; H_0)} > -\lambda$  should lead to deciding  $H_1$  for  $x$ . The Lagrange multiplier is found using the constraint (and by letting  $\delta = -\lambda$  we get the formula in the theorem). We must have  $\lambda \leq 0$  or equivalently  $\delta \geq 0$ .

Ex) DC level in WGN

$$H_0: x[n] = w[n] \quad n=0, 1, \dots, (N-1)$$

$$H_1: x[n] = A + w[n] \quad n=0, 1, \dots, (N-1)$$

Here,  $w[n] = A$  for  $A > 0$  and  $w[n] \sim \text{WGN}$  with variance  $\sigma^2$ .

Specifically, we have  $H_0: x \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 I)$  and  $H_1: x \sim \mathcal{N}(A \mathbf{1}, \sigma^2 I)$ .

Equivalently,  $H_0: \mu = 0$  and  $H_1: \mu = A \mathbf{1}$ .

According to NP, we should decide if

$$\frac{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (x[n] - A)^2}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n]}} > \delta$$

or equivalently, taking the  $\ln$  of both sides:

$$-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \left[ -2A \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] + NA^2 \right] > \ln \delta$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{A}{\sigma^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] > \ln \delta + \frac{NA^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

(since  $A > 0$ )  
 $\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] > \frac{\sigma^2}{NA} \ln \delta + \frac{A}{2} \triangleq \delta' \quad (\text{compare the sample mean to a threshold } \delta')$

By changing  $\delta'$ , we can control the trade off between  $P_{FA}$  and  $P_D$ ; as  $\delta'$  increases  $P_{FA}$  decreases but  $P_D$  also decreases.

Notice that the test statistic  $T(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n]$  is Gaussian under each hypothesis. Specifically,  $E[T(x); H_k] = A \delta_k$  and  $\text{var}[T(x); H_k] = \frac{\sigma^2}{N}$  for  $k=0, 1$ . Hence

$$T(x) \sim \begin{cases} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2/N) & \text{under } H_0 \\ \mathcal{N}(A, \sigma^2/N) & \text{under } H_1 \end{cases}$$



Then  $P_{FA} = \Pr \{ T(x) > \gamma'; H_0 \} = Q\left(\frac{\gamma'}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}}\right)$

$$P_D = \Pr \{ T(x) > \gamma'; H_1 \} = Q\left(\frac{\gamma' - A}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}}\right)$$

Since  $Q$  is monotonically <sup>strictly</sup> decreasing, it is invertible.

Therefore,  $\gamma' = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}} Q^{-1}(P_{FA})$  and

$$P_D = Q\left(Q^{-1}(P_{FA}) - \frac{A}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}}\right)$$

In general, if we have  $T \sim \begin{cases} \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma^2) & \text{under } H_0 \\ \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma^2) & \text{under } H_1 \end{cases}$ , we will have for  $d^2 = \frac{[E(T; H_1) - E(T; H_0)]^2}{\text{var}(T; H_0)} = \frac{(\mu_1 - \mu_0)^2}{\sigma^2}$

and  $P_{FA} = Q\left(\frac{\gamma' - \mu_0}{\sigma}\right)$ ,  $P_D = Q\left(Q^{-1}(P_{FA}) - d\right)$ . This is a mean-shifted Gauss-Gauss problem.

Ex) Change in Variance.

We observe  $x[n]$  for  $n=0, \dots, (N-1)$  which are iid with  $x[n] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_0^2)$  under  $H_0$  and  $x[n] \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_1^2)$  under  $H_1$ .

Assume  $\sigma_1^2 > \sigma_0^2$ . Then the NP test to decide  $H_1$  is

$$\frac{(2\pi\sigma_1^2)^{-N/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n]}}{(2\pi\sigma_0^2)^{-N/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n]}} > \gamma \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{taking ln of} \\ \text{both sides} \end{array} \right.$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} - \frac{1}{\sigma_0^2} \right) \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x^2[n] > \ln \gamma + \frac{N}{2} \ln \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_0^2}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x_n^2 \ln \gamma > \delta' = \frac{(2/N) \ln \gamma + \ln(\sigma_1^2/\sigma_0^2)}{(1/\sigma_0^2) - (1/\sigma_1^2)}.$$

We decide  $\mathcal{H}_1$  if the sample estimate of power is sufficiently large.

In general, assume that we observe  $x = [x_0, \dots, x_{N-1}]^T$  from a pdf parameterized by  $\theta$ ;  $p(x; \theta)$ . We wish to test for the value of  $\theta$  as

$$\mathcal{H}_0: \theta = \theta_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H}_1: \theta = \theta_1.$$

If a sufficient statistic exists for  $\theta$ , then by the Neyman-Fisher factorization theorem, we can express the pdf as  $p(x; \theta) = g(T(x), \theta) h(x)$ , where  $T(x)$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ . Then the NP test is

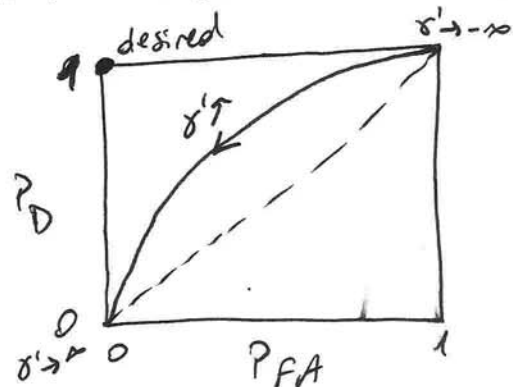
$$\frac{p(x; \theta_1)}{p(x; \theta_0)} = \frac{g(T(x), \theta_1)}{g(T(x), \theta_0)} > \delta.$$

$\therefore$  The test will depend on the data only through  $T(x)$ .

### Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC)

Recall that in the two examples above we had decision rules in the form  $T(x) > \delta' \Rightarrow \text{decide } \mathcal{H}_1$  and  $P_{FA}(\delta')$  and  $P_D(\delta')$  presented a trade-off to choose  $\delta'$ .

The curve  $P_D(\delta')$  vs  $P_{FA}(\delta')$  traced by taking  $\delta'$  from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$  is called the ROC curve.



We want  $P_{FA}(\delta')$  to be 0 and  $P_D(\delta')$  to be 1. We can only choose a solution on the ROC curve by setting  $\delta'$  to a value.

Irrelevant Data: If we observe two data vectors  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , then the LRT from the NP theorem is

$$L(x_1, x_2) = \frac{p(x_1, x_2; H_1)}{p(x_1, x_2; H_0)} = \frac{p(x_2 | x_1; H_1) p(x_1; H_1)}{p(x_2 | x_1; H_0) p(x_1; H_0)}$$

Then, if  $p(x_2 | x_1; H_1) = p(x_2 | x_1; H_0)$ , then  $L(x_1, x_2) = L(x_1)$  and  $x_2$  is irrelevant to the detection problem. The condition here means the distribution of  $x_2$  given  $x_1$  does not depend on the hypothesis (e.g. for signal detection in noise,  $x_1$  is for a segment with signal and  $x_2$  is for a segment without; just noise and noise is not correlated in time).

As a special case, if  $x_1 \perp x_2$  under either hypothesis then  $p(x_2; H_1) = p(x_2; H_0)$  makes the cancellation above occur.



## Minimum Probability of Error

In some cases one can assign prior probabilities to each hypothesis. Then, in the Bayesian paradigm, we can define the probability of error as

$$P_e = P(H_0|H_1)P(H_1) + P(H_1|H_0)P(H_0)$$

The Bayesian detector with minimum  $P_e$  is given by

$$\frac{P(x|H_1)P(H_1)}{P(x|H_0)P(H_0)} > 1 \Leftrightarrow \frac{P(x|H_1)}{P(x|H_0)} > \frac{P(H_0)}{P(H_1)} \triangleq \gamma.$$

Bayes Risk: Let  $C_{ij}$  be the cost if we decide  $H_i$  but  $H_j$  is true. For example, we would probably want  $C_{10} > C_{01}$  in many applications (though not always), where too many false alarms would render the detector "useless".

The expected cost (Bayes risk) is defined as

$$R = E(c) = \sum_{i=0}^1 \sum_{j=0}^1 C_{ij} P(H_i|H_j) P(H_j).$$

While mostly we might choose  $C_{ii} = 0$  (no error  $\Rightarrow$  no cost), this may not be the case always. For instance the cost of the appropriate action if  $H_i$  is detected (correctly) might be a consideration in our strategy when deciding  $H_i$  or not.

Then, the optimal decision rule is to choose  $\mathcal{H}_1$  when

$$(C_{10} - C_{00}) P(\mathcal{H}_0) p(x|\mathcal{H}_0) < (C_{01} - C_{11}) P(\mathcal{H}_1) p(x|\mathcal{H}_1)$$

Proof: Let  $R_1 = \{x : \text{decide } \mathcal{H}_1\}$  and  $R_0$  is its complement.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } R &= C_{00} P(\mathcal{H}_0) \int_{R_0} p(x|\mathcal{H}_0) dx + C_{01} P(\mathcal{H}_1) \int_{R_0} p(x|\mathcal{H}_1) dx \\ &\quad + C_{10} P(\mathcal{H}_0) \int_{R_1} p(x|\mathcal{H}_0) dx + C_{11} P(\mathcal{H}_1) \int_{R_1} p(x|\mathcal{H}_1) dx \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\int_{R_0} p(x|\mathcal{H}_i) dx = 1 - \int_{R_1} p(x|\mathcal{H}_i) dx$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} R &= C_{01} P(\mathcal{H}_1) + C_{00} P(\mathcal{H}_0) + \int_{R_1} \left[ (C_{10} P(\mathcal{H}_0) - C_{00} P(\mathcal{H}_0)) p(x|\mathcal{H}_0) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + (C_{11} P(\mathcal{H}_1) - C_{01} P(\mathcal{H}_1)) p(x|\mathcal{H}_1) \right] dx \end{aligned}$$

We include  $x$  in  $R_1$  only if the integrand is ~~positive~~ <sup>negative</sup>.

Assuming that  $C_{10} > C_{00}$  and  $C_{01} > C_{11}$ , we could express the optimal Bayesian (minimum risk) decision rule as

$$\frac{p(x|\mathcal{H}_1)}{p(x|\mathcal{H}_0)} > \frac{(C_{10} - C_{00}) P(\mathcal{H}_0)}{(C_{01} - C_{11}) P(\mathcal{H}_1)} = \gamma$$

Also note that if  $C_{00} = C_{11} = 0$  and  $C_{01} = C_{10} = 1$ , then  $R = P_e$ ; so probability of error is a special case.

Once again, the conditional LRT is employed with a suitable threshold to make a decision.



## Multiple Hypothesis Testing

Assume that we want to decide between  $M$  possible hypotheses  $\{H_0, \dots, H_{M-1}\}$  and  $C_{ij}$  is the cost of choosing  $H_i$  when  $H_j$  is true. The expected cost (Bayes risk) is

$$R = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} P(H_i | H_j) P(H_j).$$

Note that  $C_{ij} = \delta_{ij} \Rightarrow R = P_e$ . We can write

$$R = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} \int_{R_i} P(x | H_j) P(H_j) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \int_{R_i} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} P(x | H_j) P(H_j) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \int_{R_i} \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} P(H_j | x) p(x) dx$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \int_{R_i} C_i(x) p(x) dx$$

$\downarrow$   $C_i(x) \triangleq \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} P(H_j | x)$   
is the average cost of deciding  $H_i$  given  $x$ .

Each  $x$  must be assigned to one and only one  $R_i$  partition.

Assigning  $x$  to  $R_k$  when  $C_k(x)$  is the minimum average cost among all  $\{C_0(x), \dots, C_{M-1}(x)\}$  ensures  $R$  is minimized.

$\therefore$  We decide  $H_i$  for which  $\sum_{j=0}^{M-1} C_{ij} P(H_j | x)$  is minimum

In the special case of  $P_e$ ,  $C_i(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{M-1} P(H_j | x) - P(H_i | x)$ .

Here ~~minimizing~~  $C_i(x)$  is equivalent to maximizing  $P(H_i | x)$ .

The minimum Pe decision rule is

Decide  $\mathcal{H}_k$  where  $k = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} P(\mathcal{H}_i | x)$

which is analogous to MAP estimation. If the prior probabilities are equal ( $P(\mathcal{H}_i) = \frac{1}{n}$ ), then we get

$$P(\mathcal{H}_i | x) = \frac{p(x | \mathcal{H}_i) p(\mathcal{H}_i)}{p(x)} = \frac{p(x | \mathcal{H}_i)}{n p(x)}$$

So  $k = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} p(x | \mathcal{H}_i)$ , which is maximum likelihood.

An equivalent MAP decision rule is:

$$k = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} \ln p(x | \mathcal{H}_i) + \ln p(\mathcal{H}_i) .$$

Ex) Multiple DC levels in WGN

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : x[n] = -A + w[n]$$

$$\mathcal{H}_1 : x[n] = 0 + w[n]$$

$$\mathcal{H}_2 : x[n] = A + w[n]$$

we observe  $x[n]$  for  $n=0, \dots, N-1$ .

$A > 0$ ,  $w[n] \sim \text{WGN}$  with var.  $\sigma^2$ .

Assume that priors are equal ( $P(\mathcal{H}_i) = 1/3$ ). Then the ML decision rule is optimal in terms of minimum expected cost.

$$p(x | \mathcal{H}_i) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-N/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (x[n] - A_i)^2}$$

where  $A_0 = -A$ ,  $A_1 = 0$ ,  $A_2 = A$ . Maximizing  $p(x | \mathcal{H}_i)$  is equivalent to minimizing  $D_i^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (x[n] - A_i)^2$ .

Note that  $D_i^2 = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (x[n] - \bar{x})^2 + N(\bar{x} - A_i)^2$  after

some manipulations.

To minimize  $D_i^2$ , we choose  $\mathcal{H}_k$  for which  $A_k$  is closest to  $\bar{x}$ .  $\therefore$  we decide  $\mathcal{H}_0$  if  $\bar{x} < -A/2$ ;  $\mathcal{H}_1$  if  $-\frac{A}{2} < \bar{x} < \frac{A}{2}$ ; and  $\mathcal{H}_2$  if  $\bar{x} > A/2$ .

Let  $P_c = 1 - P_e$  be the probability of correct decision.

$$\begin{aligned} P_c &= \sum_{i=0}^2 P(\mathcal{H}_i | \mathcal{H}_i) P(\mathcal{H}_i) = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{i=0}^2 P(\mathcal{H}_i | \mathcal{H}_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \left[ \Pr \left\{ \bar{x} < -\frac{A}{2} | \mathcal{H}_0 \right\} + \Pr \left\{ -\frac{A}{2} < \bar{x} < \frac{A}{2} | \mathcal{H}_1 \right\} + \Pr \left\{ \bar{x} > \frac{A}{2} | \mathcal{H}_2 \right\} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\bar{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(A_i, \sigma^2/N)$  conditioned on  $\mathcal{H}_i$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_c &= \frac{1}{3} \left[ 1 - Q \left( \frac{-\frac{A}{2} + A}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}} \right) + Q \left( \frac{-A/2}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}} \right) - Q \left( \frac{A/2}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}} \right) + Q \left( \frac{A/2 - A}{\sigma/\sqrt{N}} \right) \right] \\ &= 1 - \frac{4}{3} Q \left( \frac{A\sqrt{N}}{2\sigma} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } P_e = \frac{4}{3} Q \left( \frac{A\sqrt{N}}{2\sigma} \right).$$

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Suggested Problems: 3, 7, 11, 13, 17, 20 (if you are into communications)