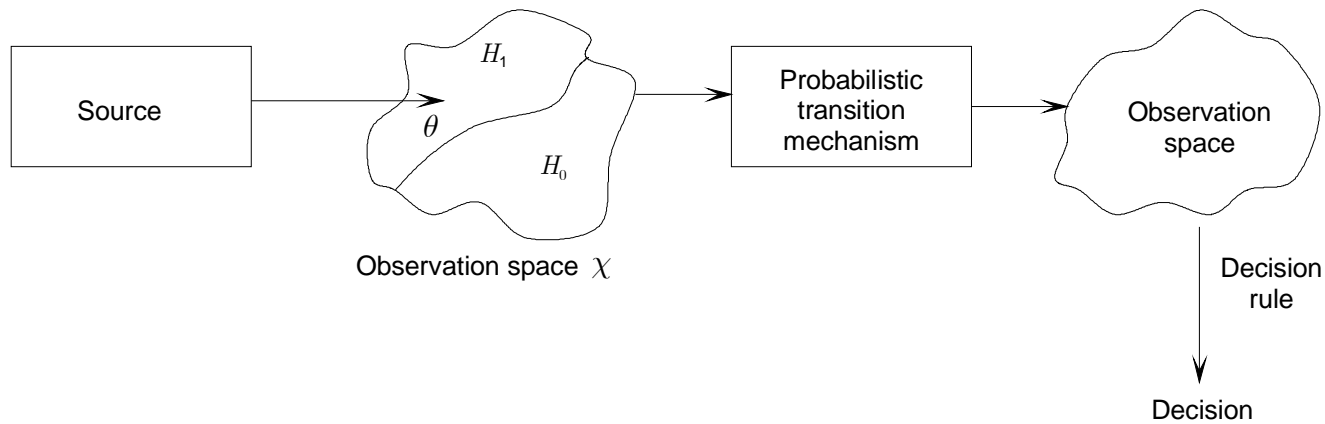
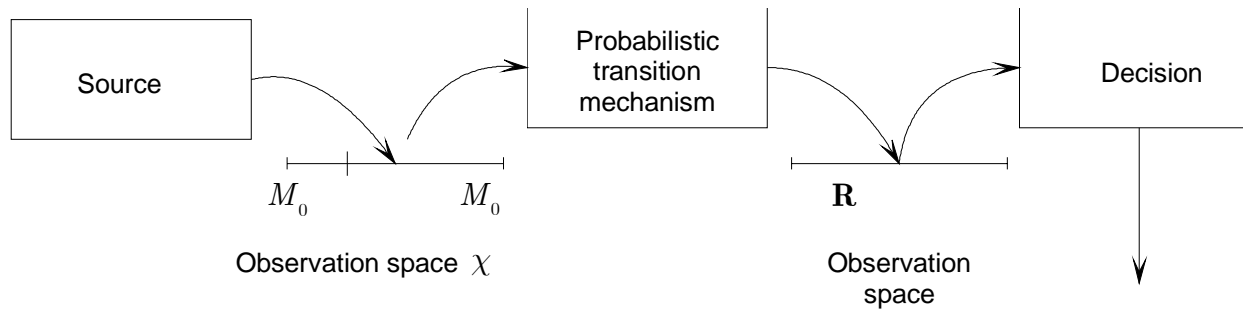


Composite Hypotheses testing

- In many hypothesis testing problems there are many possible distributions that can occur under each of the hypotheses.
- The output of the source is a set of parameters (points in a parameter space χ).
- The hypothesis corresponds to subsets of χ .
- The probability density covering the mapping from the parameter space to the observation space is denoted by $p_{r|\theta}(\mathbf{R} | \theta)$ and is assumed to be known for all values of θ in χ .
- The final component is a decision rule.



Composite hypothesis testing problem

Example:

- For two hypothesis the observed variable will be:

$$H_0 : p_{r|H_0} (R | H_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{R^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$H_1 : p_{r|H_1} (R | H_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(R - M)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right), \quad M_0 \leq M \leq M_1$$

Bayesian formulation of the composite hypothesis testing problem.

- We assume that the parameter is a random variable θ taking on the values in χ .

Random variable θ

- The known probability density on θ enables us to reduce the problem to a simple hypothesis-testing problem by integrating over θ .
- $p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta}(\mathbf{R} | \theta)$ is interpreted as the conditional distribution of \mathbf{R} given θ .

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{R}) \triangleq \frac{p_{\mathbf{r}|H_1}(\mathbf{R} | H_1)}{p_{\mathbf{r}|H_0}(\mathbf{R} | H_0)} = \frac{\int_{\chi} p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta}(\mathbf{R} | \theta) p_{\theta|H_1}(\theta | H_1) d\theta}{\int_{\chi} p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta}(\mathbf{R} | \theta) p_{\theta|H_0}(\theta | H_0) d\theta}$$

Example

- We assume that the probability density governing m on H_1 is

$$p_{m|H_1}(M | H_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_m} \exp\left(-\frac{M^2}{2\sigma_m^2}\right), \quad -\infty < M < \infty.$$

- The likelihood ratio becomes:

$$\Lambda(R) = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{(R-M)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_m} \exp\left(-\frac{M^2}{2\sigma_m^2}\right) dM}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left(-\frac{R^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}} \eta$$

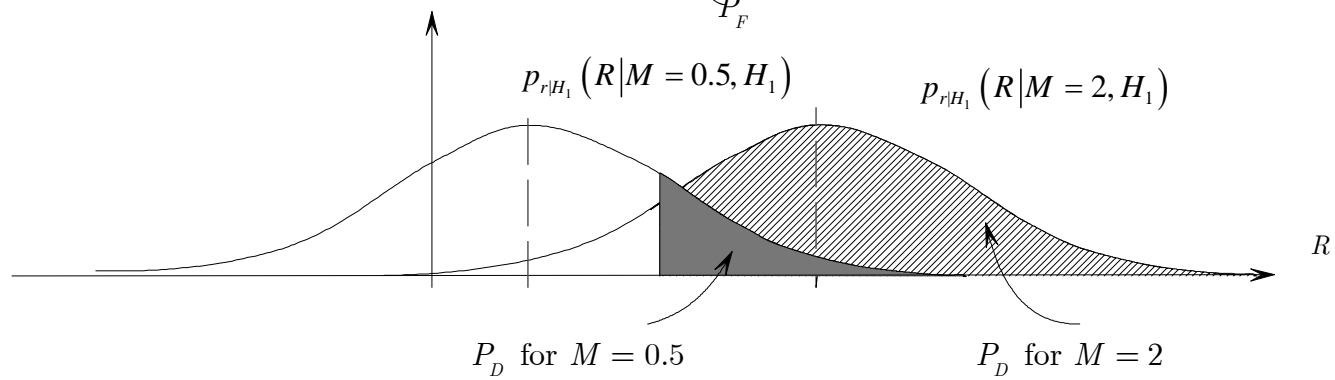
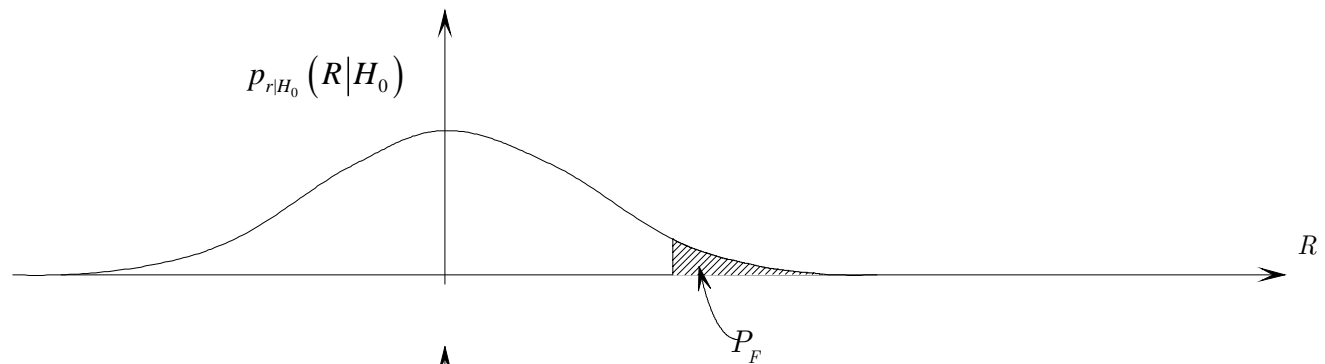
- By integrating and taking logarithm

$$R^2 \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}} \frac{2\sigma^2 (\sigma^2 + \sigma_m^2)}{\sigma_m^2} \left[\log \eta + \frac{1}{2} \log \left(1 + \frac{\sigma_m^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \right]$$

- When θ is a random variable with an unknown density, the test procedure is not clearly specified.
 - Minimax test over the unknown density.
 - To try several densities based on partial knowledge of θ that is available. In many cases the test structure will be insensitive to the detailed behavior of the probability density.

θ nonrandom variable

- Because θ has no probability density over which to average the Bayes test is not meaningful. (We use Neyman-Pearson tests).
- Over all possible detectors that have a given P_F the one that yields the highest P_D is called Uniform Most Powerful (UMP) test.
- The best performance we could achieve would be obtained if an actual test curve equals the bound for all $M \in \chi$.
- For given P_F a uniform most powerful UMP test to exist:
An UMP exist if we are able to design a complete likelihood ratio test (including the threshold) for every $M \in \chi$ without knowing M .
- In general the bound can be reached for any particular θ simply by designing an ordinary LRT for that particular θ .
- The UMP test must be as good as any other test for every θ .



A necessary and sufficient condition for UMP.

A UMP test exist if and only if the likelihood ratio test for every $\theta \in \chi$ can be completely defined (including threshold) without knowledge of θ .

If UMP does not exist.

Generalized likelihood ratio test.

The perfect measurement bound suggests that a logical procedure is to estimate θ assuming H_1 is true, then estimate θ assuming H_0 is true, and use these estimates in a likelihood ratio test as if they were correct.

$$\Lambda_g(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{\max_{\theta_1} p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta_1}(\mathbf{R} | \theta_1)}{\max_{\theta_0} p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta_0}(\mathbf{R} | \theta_0)} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\lesseqgtr}} \gamma$$

where θ_1 ranges over all θ in H_1 and θ_0 ranges over all θ in H_0

We make a ML estimate of θ_1 , assuming that H_1 is true. We then evaluate $p_{r|\theta_1}(\mathbf{R} | \theta_1)$ for $\theta_1 = \hat{\theta}_1$ and use this value in numerator.

- A test contains a nuisance parameter. We are not directly concerned with the parameter it enters into the problem since it affects the PDF under H_0 and H_1 .
- The GLRT decides H_1 if the fit to the data of the signal under H_1 produces a much smaller error, as measured by $\hat{\theta}_1$ than a fit to the signal under H_0 with estimated parameter $\hat{\theta}_0$

- For large data records the detector the GLRT easy to find.
- The conditions under which the asymptotic conditions hold are:
 - When the data record is large and the signal is weak
 - When the Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) attains its asymptotic PDF.
- The composite Hypothesis testing problem can be cast as parameter test of the PDF.
- Consider a PDF $p(\mathbf{R}, \theta)$ where θ is a $p \times 1$ vector of unknown parameters.
- The parameter test is:

$$\Lambda_g(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta_1}(\mathbf{R}; \hat{\theta}_1, H_1)}{p_{\mathbf{r}|\theta_0}(\mathbf{R}; \theta_0, H_0)} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}} \gamma$$

- Where $\hat{\theta}_1$ is the MLE of θ under H_1 , the unrestricted MLE.
- $\hat{\theta}_0$ is the MLE of θ under H_0 , the restricted MLE.
- As $N \rightarrow \infty$ and for unbiased estimation the variance of the estimation is given by the Cramer-Rao bound. We can express the ML estimation of the parameter $\hat{\theta}_1$ and use this value in the GLRT calculation:

Detection of Gaussially distributed random variables.

The general Gaussian problem

Hypotheses testing in case of Gaussian distribution

Equal Covariance Matrices.

Equal Mean vectors.

Definition.

- A set of random variables r_1, r_2, \dots, r_N is defined as jointly Gaussian if all their linear combinations are Gaussian random variables.
- A vector \mathbf{r} is a jointly Gaussian random vector when its components are jointly Gaussian.
- In other words if

$$z = \sum_{i=1}^N g_i r_i \triangleq \mathbf{G}^T \mathbf{r}$$

is a Gaussian random variable for all finite \mathbf{G}^T , then \mathbf{r} is a Gaussian vector.

- A hypothesis-testing problem is called a general Gaussian problem if $p_{\mathbf{r}|H_i}(\mathbf{R} | H_i)$ is a Gaussian density on all hypotheses.

- We define:

$$E(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{m}$$

$$\text{Cov}(\mathbf{r}) = E\left[(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{m})(\mathbf{r}^T - \mathbf{m}^T)\right] \triangleq \Lambda$$

$$M_r(j\mathbf{v}) \triangleq E\left[e^{j\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{r}}\right] = \exp\left(j\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{m} - \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}^T \Lambda \mathbf{v}\right)$$

$$p_r(\mathbf{R}) = \left[(2\pi)^{N/2} |\Lambda|^{1/2}\right]^{-1} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}^T) \Lambda^{-1} (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m})\right]$$

- Let the observation space to be N dimensional vector (or column matrix) \mathbf{r} :

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{bmatrix} r_1 \\ r_2 \\ \vdots \\ r_N \end{bmatrix}$$

- Under the hypothesis H_1 we assume that \mathbf{r} is a Gaussian random vector, completely specified by its mean vector and covariance matrix.

$$E[\mathbf{r} | H_1] = \begin{bmatrix} E(r_1 | H_1) \\ E(r_2 | H_1) \\ \vdots \\ E(r_N | H_1) \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} \\ m_{12} \\ \vdots \\ m_{1N} \end{bmatrix} \triangleq \mathbf{m}_1$$

- The covariance matrix is

$$\mathbf{K}_1 \triangleq E \left\{ (r - m_1)(r^T - m_1^T) | H_1 \right\} = \begin{bmatrix} K_{11} & K_{12} & \cdots & K_{1N} \\ K_{21} & K_{22} & \cdots & K_{2N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ K_{N1} & K_{N2} & \cdots & K_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The inverse of $\mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{Q}_1^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{K}_1 \mathbf{Q}_1 = \mathbf{Q}_1 \mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{I}$$

- The probability density of \mathbf{r} on H_1

$$p_{\mathbf{r}|H_1}(\mathbf{R} | H_1) = \left[(2\pi)^{N/2} |\mathbf{K}_1|^{1/2} \right]^{-1} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - m_1^T) \mathbf{Q}_1 (\mathbf{R} - m_1) \right)$$

- The probability density of \mathbf{r} on H_0

$$p_{\mathbf{r}|H_1}(\mathbf{R} | H_0) = \left[(2\pi)^{N/2} |K_0|^{1/2} \right]^{-1} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T) \mathbf{Q}_0 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_0) \right)$$

- Likelihood ratio test

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{R}) \triangleq \frac{p_{\mathbf{r}|H_1}(\mathbf{R} | H_1)}{p_{\mathbf{r}|H_0}(\mathbf{R} | H_0)} = \frac{|K_0|^{1/2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_1^T) \mathbf{Q}_1 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_1) \right)}{|K_1|^{1/2} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T) \mathbf{Q}_0 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_0) \right)} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}} \eta$$

$$\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T) \mathbf{Q}_0 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_0) - \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_1^T) \mathbf{Q}_1 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_1) \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\gtrless}}$$

$$\ln \eta + \frac{1}{2} \ln |K_1| - \frac{1}{2} \ln |K_0| \triangleq \gamma$$

- The test consists of finding the difference between two quadratic forms.

Special case: Equal covariance matrices.

$$\mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{K}_0 \triangleq \mathbf{K}.$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{K}^{-1}.$$

$$\left(\mathbf{m}_1^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T \right) \mathbf{Q}_0 \mathbf{R} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\lesseqgtr}} \ln \eta + \frac{1}{2} \left(\mathbf{m}_1^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{m}_1 - \mathbf{m}_0^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{m}_0 \right) \triangleq \gamma.$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{m} \triangleq \mathbf{m}_1^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T.$$

$$l(\mathbf{R}) \triangleq \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R} \triangleq \mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{Q} \Delta \mathbf{m} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\lesseqgtr}} \gamma.$$

- $l(\mathbf{R})$ is a scalar Gaussian random variable obtained by linear transform of jointly Gaussian random variables.

- The test can completely described by the distance between the means of the two hypotheses when the variance was normalized to be equal to one.

$$d^2 \triangleq \frac{\left[E(l | H_1) - E(l | H_0) \right]^2}{\text{Var}(l | H_0)}$$

$$E(l | H_1) \triangleq \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{m}_1$$

$$E(l | H_0) \triangleq \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{m}_0$$

$$\text{Var}(l | H_0) = E \left\{ \left[\Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_0) \right] \left[(\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T) \mathbf{Q} \Delta \mathbf{m} \right] \right\}$$

$$\text{Var}(l | H_0) = \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

$$d^2 = \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \mathbf{Q} \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

- The performance for the equal covariance Gaussian case is completely determined by the quadratic form.

Examples.

Case 1: Independent Components with Equal Variance.

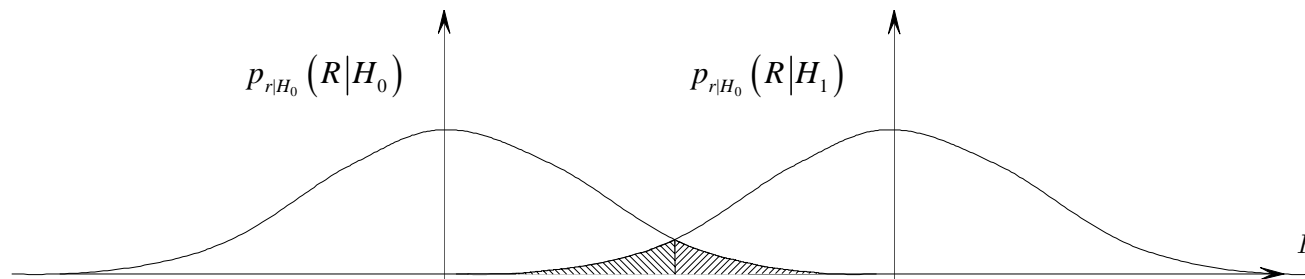
- Each r_i has the same variance σ^2 and is statistically independent:

$$\mathbf{K} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I},$$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{I},$$

- The sufficient statistics is just the dot product of the observed vector \mathbf{R} and the mean difference vector $\Delta \mathbf{m}$.

$$l(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \cdot \mathbf{R}$$



- $d^2 = \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \mathbf{I} \Delta \mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \Delta \mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{\sigma^2} |\Delta \mathbf{m}|^2.$

d corresponds to the distance between the two mean value vectors divided by the standard deviation of R_i .

Case 2: Independent components with Unequal Variance.

$$\mathbf{K} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sigma_N^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sigma_N^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

- The sufficient statistic is $l(R) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\Delta m_i \cdot R_i}{\sigma_i^2}$.

$$d^2 = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{(\Delta m_i)^2}{\sigma_i^2}.$$

- The result can be interpreted in a new co-ordinate system

$$\Delta \mathbf{m}' = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_1} m_1 \\ \frac{1}{\sigma_2} m_2 \\ \vdots \\ \frac{1}{\sigma_N} m_N \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } R'_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} R_i.$$

- Scale of each axis is changed so that the variances are all equal to one.
- d corresponds to the difference vector in this “scaled” coordinate system.
- In the scaled coordinate system: $l(\mathbf{R}) = \Delta \mathbf{m}' \cdot \mathbf{R}'_i$.

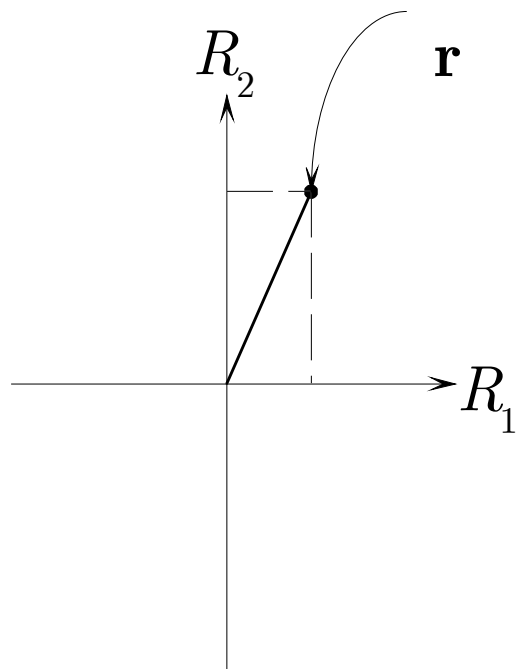
Case 3: Eigenvectors representation.

Equal mean vectors.

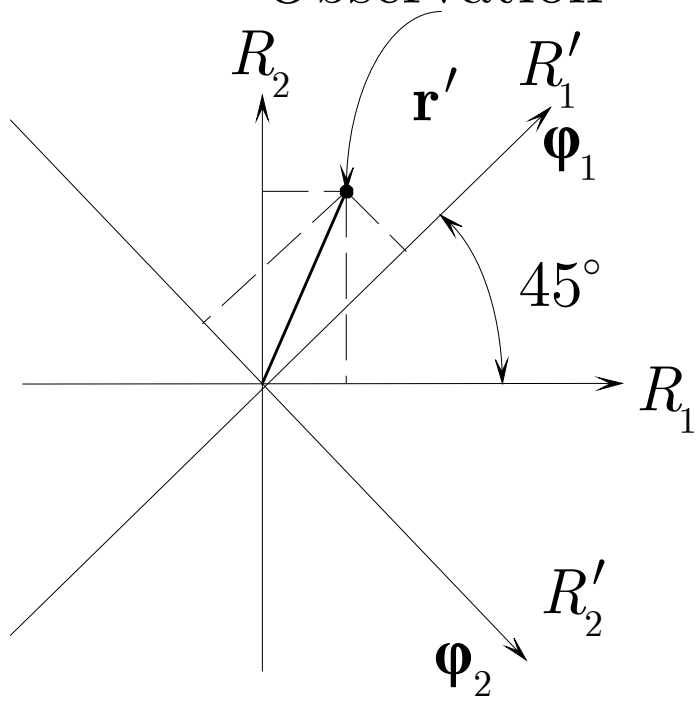
- We represent the \mathbf{R} in a new coordinate system in which the components are statistically independent random variables.
- The new set of coordinate axes is defined by the orthogonal unit vectors $\boldsymbol{\varphi}_1, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{\varphi}_N$
- We denote the observation in the new coordinate system by \mathbf{r}' .
- We select the orientation of the new system so that the components r'_i and r'_j are uncorrelated.
- New component is expressed simply as a dot product:

$$r'_i = \mathbf{r}' \boldsymbol{\varphi}_i.$$

Observation



Observation



- The variance matrix in the new coordinate system is calculated as

$$\lambda_i \delta_{ij} = \boldsymbol{\phi}_j^T \mathbf{K} \boldsymbol{\phi}_j.$$

- The coordinate vectors should satisfy $\lambda \boldsymbol{\phi} = \mathbf{K} \boldsymbol{\phi}$.

Properties of the \mathbf{K} :

- Because \mathbf{K} is symmetric, its eigenvalues are real.
- Because \mathbf{K} is a covariance matrix, the eigenvalues are nonnegative.
- If the roots λ_i are distinct, the corresponding eigenvectors are orthogonal.
- If a particular root is of multiplicity M the M associated eigenvectors are linearly independent.

- The mean difference vector

$$\Delta m'_1 = \boldsymbol{\varphi}_1^T \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

$$\Delta m'_2 = \boldsymbol{\varphi}_2^T \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\Delta m'_N = \boldsymbol{\varphi}_N^T \Delta \mathbf{m}$$

- The resulting sufficient statistic in the new coordinate system is

$$l(R) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\Delta m'_i \cdot R'_i}{\lambda_i}.$$

- There always exist a coordinate system for which the random variables are uncorrelated and that the new system is related to the old system by a linear transformation.

Equal Mean vectors.

- The mean vectors are equal

$$\mathbf{m}_i = \mathbf{m}_0 \triangleq \mathbf{m}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}^T)(\mathbf{Q}_0 - \mathbf{Q}_1)(\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}) \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\leq}} \ln \eta + \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{|\mathbf{K}_1|}{|\mathbf{K}_0|} = \gamma$$

- The mean value vector does not contain any information telling us which of the hypothesis is true. The likelihood test subtracts them from the received vector (we may assume $\mathbf{m} = \mathbf{0}$).
- The difference of inverse matrices:

$$\mathbf{Q} \triangleq \mathbf{Q}_0 - \mathbf{Q}_1$$

- Likelihood ratio test $l(\mathbf{R}) \triangleq \mathbf{R}^T \Delta \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{R} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\leq}} 2\gamma$

Special cases.

Case 1: Diagonal Covariance Matrix: Equal Variances.

- In case of H_1 the r_i contains the same variable as on H_0 plus additional signal components that may be correlated.

$$H_0 : r_i = n_i$$

$$H_1 : r_i = s_i + n_i$$

$$\mathbf{K}_0 = \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I}; \mathbf{K}_1 = \mathbf{K}_s + \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_0 = \frac{1}{\sigma_s^2} \mathbf{I}; \mathbf{Q}_1 = \frac{1}{\sigma_s^2} \left(\mathbf{I} + \frac{1}{\sigma_s^2} \mathbf{K}_s \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\sigma_s^2} (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{H})$$

$$H = \left(\sigma_s^2 I + K_s \right)^{-1} K_s = \mathbf{Q}_0 - \mathbf{Q}_1 = \Delta \mathbf{Q}$$

$$l(\mathbf{R}) \triangleq \frac{1}{\sigma_s^2} \mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R} \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\lesseqgtr}} 2\gamma$$

Case 2: Symmetric Hypotheses, Uncorrelated Noise.

$$H_0 : \begin{array}{l} r_i = s_i + n_i \\ r_i = n_i \end{array}$$

$$H_1 : \begin{array}{l} r_i = n_i \\ r_i = s_i + n_i \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{K}_s + \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{K}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{K}_s + \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & (\mathbf{K}_s + \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{K}_s + \sigma_n^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{H} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{H} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_1 \\ \mathbf{R}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$l(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{\sigma_n^2} \mathbf{R}_1^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}_1 - \mathbf{R}_2^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{R}_2 \underset{H_0}{\overset{H_1}{\lesseqgtr}} 2\gamma$$

Conclusions.

- The sufficient statistic for the general Gaussian problem is the difference between two quadratic forms

$$l(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_0^T) \mathbf{Q}_0 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_0) - \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{R}^T - \mathbf{m}_1^T) \mathbf{Q}_1 (\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{m}_1).$$

- A particular simple case was the one where the covariance matrixes of the hypotheses were equal. Then LLR test is $l(\mathbf{R}) = \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \mathbf{R}$.
- And the performance is characterized by $d^2 = \Delta \mathbf{m}^T \cdot \mathbf{Q} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{m}$.
- The results described above can be obtained similarly for the M -hypothesis case.