## IEOR 151 - Lecture 4 Composite Minimax

## 1 Numerical Example for Point Gaussian Example

### 1.1 Computing $\gamma$

Suppose $X_{i} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ (for $n=20$ data points) is iid data drawn from a normal distribution with mean $\mu$ and variance $\sigma^{2}=20$. Here, the mean is unknown, and we would like to determine if the mean is $\mu_{0}=0$ (decision $d_{0}$ ) or $\mu_{1}=4$ (decision $\left.d_{1}\right)$. Lastly, suppose our loss function is

- $L\left(\mu_{0}, d_{0}\right)=0$ and $L\left(\mu_{0}, d_{1}\right)=a=3 ;$
- $L\left(\mu_{1}, d_{0}\right)=b=2$ and $L\left(\mu_{1}, d_{1}\right)=0$.

Recall that the minimax hypothesis test is given by

$$
\delta(X)= \begin{cases}d_{0}, & \text { if } \bar{X} \leq \gamma_{n}^{*} \\ d_{1}, & \text { if } \bar{X}>\gamma_{n}^{*}\end{cases}
$$

where $\gamma_{n}^{*}$ is the value of $\gamma$ that satisfies

$$
a \cdot\left(1-\Phi\left(\sqrt{n}\left(\gamma-\mu_{0}\right) / \sigma\right)\right)=b \cdot \Phi\left(\sqrt{n}\left(\gamma-\mu_{1}\right) / \sigma\right)
$$

The $\Phi(\cdot)$ denotes the cdf of a normal distribution and can be found from a standard $z$-table or using a computer. The trick to finding this $\gamma$ value when using a $z$-table is to observe that the left hand side (LHS) decreases as $\gamma$ increases, while the right hand side (RHS) increases while $\gamma$ increases.

In our case, we would like to find the $\gamma$ that satisfies

$$
3 \cdot(1-\Phi(\sqrt{20}(\gamma-0) / \sqrt{20}))=2 \cdot \Phi(\sqrt{20}(\gamma-4) / \sqrt{20}),
$$

or equivalently

$$
3 \cdot(1-\Phi(\gamma-0))=2 \cdot \Phi(\gamma-4)
$$

We will do a search by hand to find the corresponding value of $\gamma$. For instance, if our first guess is $\gamma=2$, then we find from the $z$-table that $\Phi(2)=0.9773$ and $\Phi(2-4)=$ $\Phi(-2)=1-\Phi(2)=0.0227$. Thus, we have $3 \cdot(1-\Phi(2))=3 \cdot(1-0.9733)=0.0801$ and $2 \cdot \Phi(-2)=0.0454$. Since the LHS is larger, this means we should increase $\gamma$.

Now suppose our second guess is $\gamma=2.5$. Then, $\Phi(2.5)=0.9938$ and $\Phi(2.5-4)=$ $\Phi(-1.5)=1-\Phi(1.5)=1-0.9332$. Thus, we have that $L H S=3 \cdot(1-0.9938)=0.0186$ and $R H S=2 \cdot(1-0.9332)=0.1336$. Now, the RHS is larger and so we should decrease our guess of $\gamma$. Since we know that $\gamma=2$ is too small, we could try half-way in between with $\gamma=2.25$.

We can summarize the steps We conclude the process when we have sufficient accuracy

| Step | $\gamma$ | LHS | RHS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 0.0801 | 0.0454 |
| 2 | 2.5 | 0.0186 | 0.1336 |
| 3 | 2.25 | 0.0367 | 0.0801 |
| 4 | 2.13 | 0.0498 | 0.0615 |
| 5 | 2.06 | 0.0591 | 0.0524 |
| 6 | 2.09 | 0.0549 | 0.0561 |
| 7 | 2.07 | 0.0577 | 0.0536 |
| 8 | 2.08 | 0.0563 | 0.0549 |

in our computed value of $\gamma$. In this case, we know that $\gamma$ should be between 2.08 and 2.09, and so we set $\gamma_{n}^{*}=2.085$. Computing $\gamma$ to more precision would require a computer.

### 1.2 Differences in $\gamma$ AS $n$ Changes

In the above example, we computed $\gamma_{n}^{*}$ for a single value of $n=20$. A natural question to ask is what happens to $\gamma$ as $n$ increase. In the table below, the value of $\gamma_{n}^{*}$ for different values of $n$ is given. These values were computed using a computer.

| $n$ | $\gamma_{n}^{*}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 5 | 2.2658 |
| 10 | 2.1536 |
| 20 | 2.0855 |
| 100 | 2.0194 |
| 200 | 2.0099 |
| 300 | 2.0068 |

The trend is clear: As $n$ increases, $\gamma_{n}^{*}$ is decreasing towards 2. The intuition is that when we have little data, we err on the side of deciding $d_{0}$ since otherwise we incur a larger loss if we incorrectly decide $d_{1}$. As we gather more data, we are more confident that the sample average is close to the true average, and so we can use a less biased threshold. Effectively, with large amounts of data the threshold converges to $\left(\mu_{0}+\mu_{1}\right) / 2$.

## 2 Composite Gaussian Example

In our discussion so far, we have considered a situation in which the two hypothesis each represent a distribution with a single mean. However, another class of interesting and more
general hypotheses are those in which we would like to discrimination between $H_{0}: \mu \leq$ $\mu_{0}$ versus $H_{1}: \mu>\mu_{0}$. And suppose we keep a similar loss function of $L\left(H_{0}, d_{0}\right)=0$, $L\left(H_{0}, d_{1}\right)=a, L\left(H_{1}, d_{0}\right)=b$, and $L\left(H_{1}, d_{1}\right)=0$. In the minimax framework, this class of hypotheses are not well-posed because the worst case scenario occurs when "nature" selects $\mu=\mu_{0}$, because then it is not possible to distinguish between $d_{0}$ and $d_{1}$.

More rigorously, what happens is that the minimax procedure is defined by solving the optimization problem

$$
\inf _{\delta(u)} \sup _{\mu} R(\mu, \delta)
$$

And nature will choose

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sup _{\mu: \mu \leq \mu_{0}} R(\mu, \delta) & \left.=\sup _{\mu: \mu \leq \mu_{0}} a \cdot \mathbb{P}_{\mu}\left(d_{1}=\delta(X)\right)\right\} \\
& \left.=a \cdot \mathbb{P}_{\mu_{0}}\left(d_{1}=\delta(X)\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sup _{\mu: \mu>\mu_{0}} R(\mu, \delta) & \left.=\sup _{\mu: \mu>\mu_{0}} b \cdot \mathbb{P}_{\mu}\left(d_{0}=\delta(X)\right)\right\} \\
& \left.=b \cdot \mathbb{P}_{\mu_{0}}\left(d_{0}=\delta(X)\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

This last step is subtle: Even though nature is constrained to choose $\mu>\mu_{0}$, it can choose $\mu$ to be arbitarily close to $\mu_{0}$. Thus, in the worst case scenario described by the minimax framework, nature will effectively set $\mu=\mu_{0}$ even though we are in the case $H 1: \mu>\mu_{0}$.

Because of this pathological behavior, the best we can do with a minimax procedure is to make a purely probabilistic decision:

$$
\delta(X)= \begin{cases}d_{0}, & \text { with probability } a /(a+b) \\ d_{1} & \text { w.p. } b /(a+b)\end{cases}
$$

This is not a useful rule for decision making, and so we must consider alternative classes of hypotheses.

One interesting class of hypotheses is the following: Suppose $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ is iid data drawn from a normal distribution with mean $\mu$ and known variance $\sigma^{2}$; here, the mean is unknown. The decision we would like to make is whether the mean is $H_{0}: \mu \leq \mu_{0}$ or $H_{1}: \mu \geq \mu_{1}$. We are indifferent in the case where $I: \mu \in\left(\mu_{0}, \mu_{1}\right)$. Our loss function also encodes this region of indifference

- $L\left(H_{0}, d_{0}\right)=0, L\left(H_{0}, d_{1}\right)=a$;
- $L\left(H_{1}, d_{0}\right)=b, L\left(H_{1}, d_{1}\right)=0$;
- $L\left(I, d_{0}\right)=0, L\left(I, d_{1}\right)=0$.

It turns out that this composite hypothesis test has the same minimax procedure as the point hypothesis test. To summarize, we choose $\gamma$ so that it satisfies

$$
a \cdot\left(1-\Phi\left(\sqrt{n}\left(\gamma-\mu_{0}\right) / \sigma\right)\right)=b \cdot \Phi\left(\sqrt{n}\left(\gamma-\mu_{1}\right) / \sigma\right)
$$

where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cdf of a normal distribution. If we call this resulting value $\gamma^{*}$, then our decision rule is

$$
\delta(X)= \begin{cases}d_{0}, & \text { if } \bar{X} \leq \gamma^{*} \\ d_{1}, & \text { if } \bar{X}>\gamma^{*}\end{cases}
$$

Showing that this decision rule is a minimax procedure is beyond the scope of the class.

