

## Lecture 4

### Property Testing of Distributions: Uniformity testing

In statistical inference, we often have limited access to the complete population and must rely on samples. We model the population as a probability distribution, which provides a mathematical framework for representing outcome probabilities. In distribution testing, we aim to efficiently determine, based on observed samples, whether this distribution has a certain property or is far from having it. This aligns with the core objective of statistical inference: inferring properties of an unknown population distribution from data.

#### Problem Definition

**What is a property?** A property  $\mathcal{P}$  is a set of distributions. If a distribution  $p \in \mathcal{P}$ , then  $p$  has the property; otherwise, it does not. For instance,  $\mathcal{P}$  could be the set of unimodal distributions or the set containing only the uniform distribution on  $[n]$ , denoted as  $U_n$ .

**Distance measure:** We need to define what it means for a distribution to be far from having a property. First, consider the distance between two distributions. Common examples include:

- $\ell_1$ -distance:  $\|p - q\|_1 = \sum_{x \in \Omega} |p_x - q_x|$
- $\ell_2$ -distance:  $\|p - q\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{x \in \Omega} (p_x - q_x)^2}$
- Total Variation distance:  $\|p - q\|_{\text{TV}} = \max_{E \subseteq \Omega} |\Pr_{x \sim p}[x \in E] - \Pr_{x \sim q}[x \in E]|$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are two distributions over a discrete domain  $\Omega$ . A key relationship between distances is:

$$\|p - q\|_1 = 2 \|p - q\|_{\text{TV}}.$$

**Exercise:** Prove the above identity. The distance between a distribution  $p$  and a property  $\mathcal{P}$  is the distance between  $p$  and its closest distribution in  $\mathcal{P}$ :

$$\text{dist}(p, \mathcal{P}) := \inf_{q \in \mathcal{P}} \text{dist}(p, q).$$

We can use various distance notions instead of  $\text{dist}$  here. We say  $p$  is  $\epsilon$ -close to  $\mathcal{P}$  if  $\text{dist}(p, \mathcal{P}) \leq \epsilon$ , and  $\epsilon$ -far if  $\text{dist}(p, \mathcal{P}) > \epsilon$ .

**What do we want to distinguish?** Our goal is to distinguish distributions that have a property from those that are *far* from having it. For example, consider a distribution almost perfectly uniform over  $[n]$ , except for a tiny probability of outputting the element 1. Finding such negligible differences can require many samples. Therefore, we aim to distinguish whether  $p \in \mathcal{P}$  or  $p$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from  $\mathcal{P}$ .

For distributions that are neither in  $\mathcal{P}$  nor  $\epsilon$ -far from  $\mathcal{P}$  (i.e.,  $\epsilon$ -close but not in  $\mathcal{P}$ ), either answer is considered valid. We accept the compromise of misclassifying distributions that are close to having the property, even if they don't have it exactly.

**Tester:** Consider three parameters  $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\delta \in (0, 1)$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  receives these parameters and  $m$ -samples from a discrete distribution  $p$  over  $[n]$  as its input and produce an output in  $\{\text{accept}, \text{reject}\}$ . We say  $\mathcal{A}$  is an  $(\epsilon, \delta)$ -tester for property  $\mathcal{P}$ , if the following holds with probability  $1 - \delta$ :

1. If  $p \in \mathcal{P}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs **accept**.
2. If  $p$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from  $\mathcal{P}$  (in  $\ell_1$ -distance), then  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs **reject**.

$m$  is considered as the sample complexity of the algorithm.

## Uniformity Testing

The goal of uniformity testing is to design an algorithm that takes samples from a distribution and determines whether the distribution is uniform or  $\epsilon$ -far from uniform. Consider the following sets of samples:

**Scenario 1:** 9, 2, 8, 5, 1, 5, 3

**Scenario 2:** 6, 4, 6, 4, 1, 1, 4

Could you guess one of this set of samples is drawn from a uniform distribution? Can you find out what gives it away?

The intuition that we would like to highlight from this example is that If we draw samples from a uniform distribution, we expect to see fewer repetitions compared to samples drawn from a non-uniform distribution. Based on this intuition, we design an algorithm that counts the number of repeated pair of samples or what we refer to as collisions. Consider two samples drawn from  $p$  as  $X_i$  and  $X_j$ . We consider this pair as a collision if  $X_i = X_j$ . We use  $\sigma_{i,j}$  as the indicator variable for this event:

$$\sigma_{i,j} := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_i = X_j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now, in a sample set  $\{X_1, \dots, X_m\}$ , the total number of collision can be a good indicator of uniformity. We formalize this argument in Algorithm 1. For some number of samples, for now denoted by  $m$ , and some sufficiently large threshold  $t$ , we count the number of collisions. We normalize this number by dividing it by the total number of pairs of samples,  $\binom{m}{2}$  to obtain a value between 0 and 1. Then, we compare it with the threshold  $t$ . If the number of collisions are high we infer that the distribution is not uniform. Otherwise, it is uniform. Our goal is to determine what  $m$  and  $t$  should be so that we get an  $(\epsilon, \delta = 0.1)$ -tester for uniformity ( $\mathcal{P} = \{U_n\}$ ).

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**Algorithm 1** Collision-Based Uniformity Tester
 

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1: procedure COLLISION-TESTER( $\epsilon, \delta, n$ , sample access to  $p$ )
2:   Draw  $m$  samples from the distribution  $p$ :  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m$ .
3:   for  $i = 1$  to  $m - 1$  do
4:     for  $j = i + 1$  to  $m$  do
5:       if  $X_i = X_j$  then
6:          $\sigma_{i,j} \leftarrow 1$ 
7:       else
8:          $\sigma_{i,j} \leftarrow 0$ 
9:    $Y \leftarrow \frac{\sum_{i < j} \sigma_{i,j}}{\binom{m}{2}}$ 
10:  if  $Y < t$  then
11:    return accept
12:  else
13:    return reject

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Here, we consider two cases: when the underlying distribution is uniform, denoted by  $p_1$ , and when it is far from uniform, denoted by  $p_2$ . Figure 1 illustrates the probability density function (PDF) of  $Y$  under these two scenarios. When  $p_1$  is uniform,  $Y$  has a low expectation,  $\mathbf{E}_{p_1}[Y]$ . Conversely, when  $p_2$  is far from uniform,  $Y$  has a high expectation,  $\mathbf{E}_{p_2}[Y]$ . We set the threshold  $t$  at the midpoint between these expectations. The concentration of  $Y$  around its respective expectation ensures that deviations beyond  $t$  are improbable. Specifically, the blue shaded area shows the unlikely event of  $Y > t$  when the underlying distribution is uniform, and the red shaded area shows the unlikely event of  $Y < t$  when it is far from uniform.

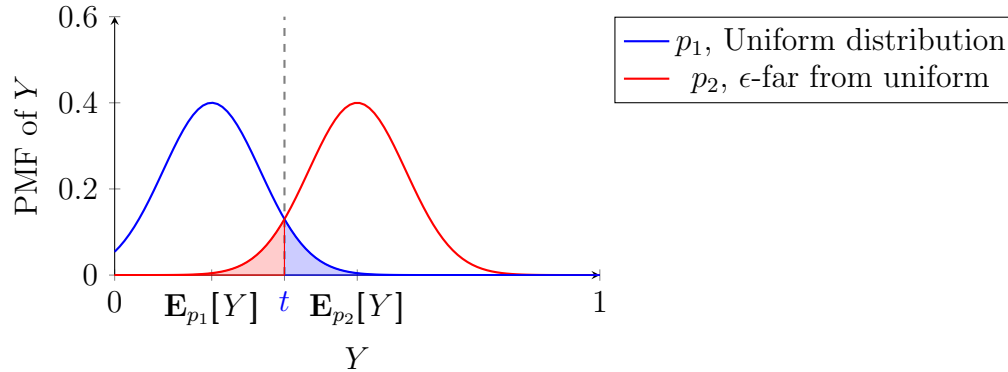


Figure 1: Separation of the PMFs of  $Y$  when the underlying distribution is uniform versus far from uniform.

### Expected values

Let's first analyze the expected value of  $Y$ . The expected value of  $\sigma_{i,j}$  is:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}] &= \sum_{\ell=1}^n \Pr[X_i = X_j = \ell] = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \Pr[X_i = \ell] \cdot \Pr[X_j = \ell] \\ & \quad \text{(Since samples are independent.)} \\ &= \sum_{\ell=1}^n p_\ell^2 = \|p\|_2^2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the expected value of  $Y$  is:

$$\mathbf{E}[Y] = \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}} \sum_{i < j} \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}] = \|p\|_2^2. \quad (1)$$

We can relate this to the  $\ell_2$ -distance of  $p$  from the uniform distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[Y] &= \|p\|_2^2 = \sum_{\ell=1}^n p_\ell^2 = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left(p_\ell - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n}\right)^2 = \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left(p_\ell - \frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + 2 \left(p_\ell - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \\ &= \|p - U_n\|_2^2 + \frac{2}{n} \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^n p_\ell - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} + \|p - U_n\|_2^2. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Note that in the last equality we used the fact that  $\sum_{\ell=1}^n p_\ell$  is one. This shows that the expected value of  $Y$  is directly related to the squared  $\ell_2$  distance between the distribution  $p$  and the uniform distribution. The farther  $p$  is from uniform, the larger the expected value of  $Y$ .

Now, when the underlying distribution is the uniform distribution, we have:

$$\mathbf{E}_{p_1}[Y] = \frac{1}{n}.$$

On the other hand, when  $p$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from the uniform distribution (i.e., the total variation distance between  $p$  and the uniform distribution is at least  $\epsilon$ ), we have:

$$\mathbf{E}_{p_2}[Y] = \frac{1}{n} + \|p_2 - U_n\|_2^2 \geq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\|p_2 - U_n\|_1^2}{n} \geq \frac{1 + \epsilon^2}{n}.$$

The first inequality is due to the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left( (p_2)_\ell - \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{\ell=1}^n (1)^2 \right) &\geq \sum_{\ell=1}^n \left| (p_2)_\ell - \frac{1}{n} \right| \cdot 1 \\ \Rightarrow \|p_2 - U_n\|_2^2 \cdot n &\geq \|p_2 - U_n\|_1^2. \end{aligned}$$

The second inequality is due to the fact that  $p_2$  is  $\epsilon$ -far from being a uniform distribution.

The above analysis demonstrates a separation between the expected value of  $Y$  based on the uniformity of the underlying distribution. We set our threshold to be between these two bounds to account for the potential deviation of  $Y$  from its expectation:

$$t := \frac{1 + \epsilon^2/2}{n}.$$

### Concentration bounds

To establish concentration bounds for  $Y$ , we can employ concentration bounds. Note that  $Y$  is not a sum of independent random variables, making it unsuitable for a direct application of the Chernoff bound. Our plan is to use Chebyshev's inequality, which requires us to compute the variance of  $Y$ . We state the following lemma:

**Lemma 1.**

$$\mathbf{Var}[Y] = \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \cdot \left( \binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3 \right).$$

We will defer the proof of this lemma for later. In the following, we bound the probability that  $Y$  goes beyond threshold  $t$ .

**Case 1: the uniform distribution.** In this case, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr_{p_1}[Y \geq t] &\leq \Pr\left[|Y - \mathbf{E}_{p_1}[Y]| \geq \frac{\epsilon^2}{2n}\right] \leq \frac{\mathbf{Var}[Y]}{\left(\frac{\epsilon^2}{2n}\right)^2} && \text{(By Chebyshev's inequality)} \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \cdot \left( \binom{m}{2} \|p_1\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p_1\|_3^3 \right) \cdot \frac{4n^2}{\epsilon^4} \\
&= \Theta\left(\frac{n^2}{m^4 \epsilon^4} \cdot \left(m^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \frac{m^3}{n^2}\right)\right) && \text{(Since } p_1 \text{ is uniform.)} \\
&= \Theta\left(\frac{n}{m^2 \epsilon^4} + \frac{1}{m \epsilon^4}\right) \leq 0.1,
\end{aligned}$$

if  $m \geq c \cdot \left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\epsilon^2} + \frac{1}{\epsilon^4}\right)$  for a sufficiently large constant  $c$ .

**Case 2: a distribution far from uniform.** Consider  $p_2$  for which we have  $\|p_2 - U_n\|_1 > \epsilon$ . In this case, the bound on the variance can be large. Specifically, the term  $\binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3$  could be problematic if we require  $|Y - \mathbf{E}[Y]| \leq \frac{\epsilon^2}{2n}$ . To address this, we adjust the bound accordingly:

$$\Pr_{p_2}[Y < t] = \Pr\left[\mathbf{E}[Y] - Y > \mathbf{E}[Y] - \frac{1 + \epsilon^2/2}{n}\right]$$

Note that using Equation 2, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
\left(1 + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}\right) \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y] &\geq \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
\Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[Y] - \frac{1 + \epsilon^2/2}{n} &\geq \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y]
\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr_{p_2}[Y < t] &= \Pr \left[ \mathbf{E}[Y] - Y > \mathbf{E}[Y] - \frac{1 + \epsilon^2/2}{n} \right] \\
&\leq \Pr \left[ \mathbf{E}[Y] - Y > \frac{\epsilon^2}{2} \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y] \right] \leq \frac{4 \mathbf{Var}[Y]}{\epsilon^4 \mathbf{E}[Y]^2} \quad (\text{By Chebyshev's inequality}) \\
&\leq \frac{4}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \cdot \frac{\binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3}{\epsilon^4 \|p\|_2^4} \\
&= \Theta \left( \frac{1}{m^2 \cdot \epsilon^4 \|p\|_2^2} + \frac{\|p\|_3^3}{m \cdot \epsilon^4 \|p\|_2^4} \right) \\
&\leq \Theta \left( \frac{n}{m^2 \epsilon^4} + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{m \epsilon^4} \right) \leq 0.1, \\
&\quad (\text{Using } \|p\|_2^2 \geq \frac{1}{n} \text{ (implied by Eq. 2), and } \|p\|_3^3 \leq \|p\|_2^3 \text{ (implied by Fact 2)})
\end{aligned}$$

if  $m \geq c \cdot \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\epsilon^4}$  for a sufficiently large constant  $c$ . Here, we used the following inequality that is known as  $\ell_p$ -norm inequality:

**Fact 2** ( $\ell_p$ -norm Inequality for Distributions). *For any probability distribution  $d = (d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n)$  over  $[n]$  and  $1 \leq q \leq p \leq \infty$ , the following inequality holds:*

$$\|d\|_p \leq \|d\|_q$$

where  $\|d\|_p$  is the  $\ell_p$ -norm of the distribution  $p$ , defined as:

$$\|d\|_p = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n |d_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

Putting all these pieces together, we have presented a collision-based uniformity tester and analyzed its sample complexity. We have shown that the tester (Algorithm 1) requires  $O\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}}{\epsilon^4}\right)$  samples to distinguish between uniform and  $\epsilon$ -far from uniform distributions with probability at least  $1 - \delta = 0.9$ .

### Variance bound: Proof of Lemma 1

**Lemma 1.**

$$\mathbf{Var}[Y] = \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \cdot \left( \binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3 \right).$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{Var}[Y] &= \mathbf{Var}\left(\frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}} \sum_{i < j} \sigma_{i,j}\right) \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \mathbf{Var}\left(\sum_{i < j} \sigma_{i,j}\right) \quad (\text{Since } \mathbf{Var}(aX) = a^2 \mathbf{Var}(X) \text{ for any constant } a) \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \left( \mathbf{E}\left[\left(\sum_{i < j} \sigma_{i,j}\right)^2\right] - \left(\sum_{i < j} \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}]\right)^2 \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \left( \sum_{i < j} \sum_{\ell < k} \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j} \cdot \sigma_{\ell,k}] - \binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^4 \right) \quad (\text{By Eq. 1})
\end{aligned}$$

Let's focus on the terms  $\mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j} \sigma_{\ell,k}]$ . We have the following cases:

**Case 1:**  $i = \ell$  and  $j = k$  Note that there are  $\binom{m}{2}$  many of such terms in the variance bound. In this case via Equation 1, we have:

$$\mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j} \sigma_{\ell,k}] = \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}^2] = \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}] = \|p\|_2^2.$$

**Case 2:**  $\{i, j, \ell, k\}$  has three distinct elements. First, observe that there are  $6 \binom{m}{3}$  many of such terms in the variance bound. Now, let's compute the expectation. Without loss of generality, assume  $\ell \in \{i, j\}$ , and  $k \notin \{i, j\}$ . Then, since  $X_i$ ,  $X_j$ , and  $X_k$  are independent and identically distributed, we have:

$$\mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j} \sigma_{\ell,k}] = \mathbf{Pr}[X_i = X_j = X_k] = \sum_{r=1}^n p_r^3 = \|p\|_3^3.$$

**Case 3:**  $\{i, j, \ell, k\}$  has four distinct elements. There are  $\binom{m}{2} \cdot \binom{m-2}{2}$  many of such terms in the variance bound. And, since all the indices are distinct,  $\sigma_{i,j}$  and  $\sigma_{\ell,k}$  are independent of each other. Hence, we have:

$$\mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j} \sigma_{\ell,k}] = \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{i,j}] \cdot \mathbf{E}[\sigma_{\ell,k}] = \|p\|_2^4,$$

where we use Equation 1.

**Exercise:** Verify that  $\binom{m}{2} + 6\binom{m}{3} + \binom{m}{2} \binom{m-2}{2} = \binom{m}{2}^2$ .



Putting these cases together, we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Var}[Y] &= \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \left( \binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3 + \binom{m}{2} \binom{m-2}{2} \|p\|_2^4 - \binom{m}{2}^2 \|p\|_2^4 \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{\binom{m}{2}^2} \left( \binom{m}{2} \|p\|_2^2 + 6 \binom{m}{3} \|p\|_3^3 \right)\end{aligned}$$

□

## Bibliographic Note

The content of this lecture was based on the collision-based tester that can be traced back to Goldreich and Ron's work on testing graph expansion [GR00, GR11]. Batu et al. later formalized the problem of uniformity testing for distributions [BFR<sup>+</sup>00] and provided a lower bound of  $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ . Through a series of subsequent work, the sample complexity of the problem settled to be  $O(\sqrt{n}/\epsilon^2)$  [Pan08, ADJ<sup>+</sup>12, VV17, CDVV14, DKN15]. Diakonikolas et al. [DGPP19] later provided a new analysis of the collision-based uniformity tester, demonstrating that it achieves the optimal sample complexity of  $O(\sqrt{n}/\epsilon^2)$ .

## References

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