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ON ESTIMATION OF THE NOISE VARIANCE IN A HIGH-DIMENSIONAL SIGNAL DETECTION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

When the number of receivers p is large compared to the sample size n , it has been widely observed that standard inference solutions are no longer efficient. In this paper, we address such high-dimensional issues related to the estimation of the noise variance. Several authors have reported that the classical maximum likelihood estimator of the noise variance tends to have a downward bias and this bias is increasingly important when p increases. Using recent results of random matrix theory, we are able to identify the bias. Moreover, a bias-corrected estimator is proposed using this knowledge. The asymptotic normality of the estimator in the high-dimensional context is established.

Index Terms— High-dimensional signal detection, noise variance estimator, random matrix theory.

1. INTRODUCTION

Consider the following *signal detection* model. Signals are received using p receivers in order to detect an unknown number of m *source signals*. As a first approximation, the recorded signals can be thought as linear combinations of the *source signals*. If we denote by $\mathbf{x}_t = (x_{t1}, \dots, x_{tp})'$ the p signals recorded at time t , and by $\mathbf{s}_t = (x_{t1}, \dots, x_{tm})'$ the source signals emitted at time t , we have

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{s}_t + \varepsilon_t, \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{A} is a $p \times m$ *mixing matrix* representing the source-recording mechanism and ε_t a measurement error. It is reasonable to assume that (i) the noise and the source signal are independent; (ii) the noise is centered with a covariance matrix $\text{cov}(\varepsilon_t) = \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_p$. Then

$$\Sigma = \text{cov}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{A}\text{cov}(\mathbf{s}_t)\mathbf{A}' + \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_p.$$

It is clear that the rank of $\mathbf{A}\text{cov}(\mathbf{s}_t)\mathbf{A}'$ does not exceed m and if we denote its eigenvalues by α_j with respective multiplicity

numbers m_j ($\sum m_j = m$), then clearly

$$\begin{aligned} \text{spec}(\Sigma) &= \underbrace{(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_1)}_{m_1}, \dots, \underbrace{(\alpha_K, \dots, \alpha_K)}_{m_K}, \underbrace{(0, \dots, 0)}_{p-m} \\ &\quad + \sigma^2 \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)}_p. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Notice that the spectrum can be re-written as

$$\text{spec}(\Sigma) = \sigma^2 \underbrace{(\alpha'_1, \dots, \alpha'_1)}_{m_1}, \dots, \underbrace{(\alpha'_K, \dots, \alpha'_K)}_{m_K}, \underbrace{(1, \dots, 1)}_{p-m}. \quad (3)$$

This shows that the signal detection model coincides with a *spiked population model* introduced in [1].

Detecting the number of signal m is one of the most important inference problems in the model. This question has been addressed recently by several authors, see e.g. [2] and [3]. Another important issue is to find a good estimate of the variance σ^2 .

Let $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$ be the sample mean and define the *sample covariance matrix*

$$\mathbf{S}_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{x}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})'$$

Let $\lambda_{n,1} \geq \lambda_{n,2} \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{n,p}$ be the eigenvalues of \mathbf{S}_n . Then a commonly used estimator for σ^2 is

$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \frac{1}{p-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^p \lambda_{n,i}. \quad (4)$$

This is in fact the likelihood estimator of σ^2 if both the signal and the noise are Gaussian [4]. In a low-dimensional setting where p is fixed while $n \rightarrow \infty$, it is known that [5]

$$\sqrt{n}(\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{D}} N(0, s^2), \quad s^2 = \frac{2\sigma^4}{p-m}. \quad (5)$$

When p is large compared to the sample size n , the above asymptotic normality is no longer a good approximation. Indeed, it has been widely observed in the literature that $\hat{\sigma}^2$ seriously underestimates the true noise variance σ^2 in such situ-

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ation. For the correction of the bias, two approaches are proposed in [2] and [6]. Both estimators are assessed by Monte-Carlo experiments and their theoretic properties (bias, consistency or asymptotic normality) are unknown.

In this paper, we identify completely the aforementioned negative bias of the variance estimator $\hat{\sigma}^2$. Next using this identification, a bias-corrected estimator is found and its asymptotic normality proved under the high-dimensional scenario. Interestingly enough, this new asymptotic limit coincide with the classical low-dimensional limit (5) when the dimension to sample size ratio $c_n := p/n$ shrinks to zero. Therefore, the new asymptotic limit is a natural extension of the classical result to the high-dimensional context.

2. HIGH-DIMENSIONAL CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM (CLT) FOR THE VARIANCE ESTIMATOR

As explained in Introduction, when the dimension p is large compared to the sample size n , the m.l.e. $\hat{\sigma}^2$ in (4) has a negative bias. In this section, we identify this bias and establishes its asymptotic normality under the high-dimensional scheme.

Theorem 1. *Assume that (i) both the signal and the noise are Gaussian; (ii) $p \wedge n \rightarrow \infty$ and $c_n := p/n \rightarrow c > 0$. Then,*

$$\frac{(p-m)}{\sigma^2 \sqrt{2c}} (\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) + b(\sigma^2) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1),$$

where $b(\sigma^2) = \sqrt{\frac{c}{2}} \left(m + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{\alpha_i} \right)$.

Therefore for high-dimensional data, the m.l.e. $\hat{\sigma}^2$ has an asymptotic bias $-b(\sigma^2)$ (after normalization). This bias is a complex function of the noise variance and the m non-null eigenvalues of the loading matrix $\mathbf{A} \text{cov}(\mathbf{s}_t) \mathbf{A}'$. It is worth noticing that the above CLT is still valid if $\tilde{c}_n = (p-m)/n$ is substituted for c . Now if we let $p \ll n$ so that $\tilde{c}_n \simeq 0$ and $b(\sigma^2) \simeq 0$, and hence

$$\frac{(p-m)}{\sigma^2 \sqrt{2c}} (\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) + b(\sigma^2) \simeq \frac{\sqrt{p-m}}{\sigma^2 \sqrt{2}} (\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2).$$

This is nothing but the CLT (5) for $\hat{\sigma}^2$ known under the classical low-dimensional scheme. From this point of view, Theorem 1 constitutes a natural extension of the classical CLT to the high-dimensional context.

Sketched proof of Theorem 1. First we introduce some notations following [7]. Let $F_n = p^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^p \delta_{\lambda_{n,i}}$ be the empirical distribution of the sample eigenvalues $\delta_{\lambda_{n,i}}$ and

$$H_n = \frac{1}{p} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m \delta_{\alpha_i + \sigma^2} + (p-m) \delta_{\sigma^2} \right\},$$

be the empirical distribution of the (population) eigenvalues of Σ . The related Marčenko-Pastur distribution of index (c_n, H_n) is denoted F_{c_n, H_n} .

We have

$$(p-m) \hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{n,i} - \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_{n,i}.$$

By [8],

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_{n,i} \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\alpha_i + \frac{c\sigma^4}{\alpha_i} \right) + \sigma^2 m(1+c) \text{ a.s. (6)}$$

For the first term, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i &= p \int x dF_n(x) \\ &= p \int x d(F_n - F_{c_n, H_n})(x) + p \int x dF_{c_n, H_n}(x) \\ &= G_n(x) + p \int x dF_{c_n, H_n}(x). \end{aligned}$$

By [7], the first term is asymptotically normal

$$G_n(x) = \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{n,i} - p \int x dF_{c_n, H_n}(x) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{N}(0, 2c\sigma^4).$$

Furthermore, by Lemma 1 of [9],

$$\int x dF_{c_n, H_n}(x) = \int t dH_n(t) = \sigma^2 + \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i.$$

So we have

$$\sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_{n,i} - p\sigma^2 - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{N}(0, 2c\sigma^4). \quad (7)$$

By (6) and (7) and using Slutsky's lemma, we obtain

$$(p-m)(\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) + c\sigma^2 \left(m + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{1}{\alpha_i} \right) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{N}(0, 2c\sigma^4).$$

□

2.1. Monte-Carlo experiments

We consider an i.i.d. Gaussian sample of size n in three different settings:

- Model 1: $\text{spec}(\Sigma) = (25, 16, 9, 0, \dots, 0) + \sigma^2(1, \dots, 1)$, $\sigma^2 = 4$, $c = 1$;
- Model 2: $\text{spec}(\Sigma) = (4, 3, 0, \dots, 0) + \sigma^2(1, \dots, 1)$, $\sigma^2 = 2$, $c = 0.2$;
- Model 3: $\text{spec}(\Sigma) = (12, 10, 8, 8, 0, \dots, 0) + \sigma^2(1, \dots, 1)$, $\sigma^2 = 3$, $c = 1.5$.

Figure 1 presents the histograms from 1000 replications of

$$\frac{(p-m)}{\sigma^2\sqrt{2c}}(\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) + b(\sigma^2)$$

for the three models above, with different sample size n and $p = c \times n$, compared to the density of the standard normal probability law. Even for a moderate sample size like $n = 100$, the distribution is almost normal.

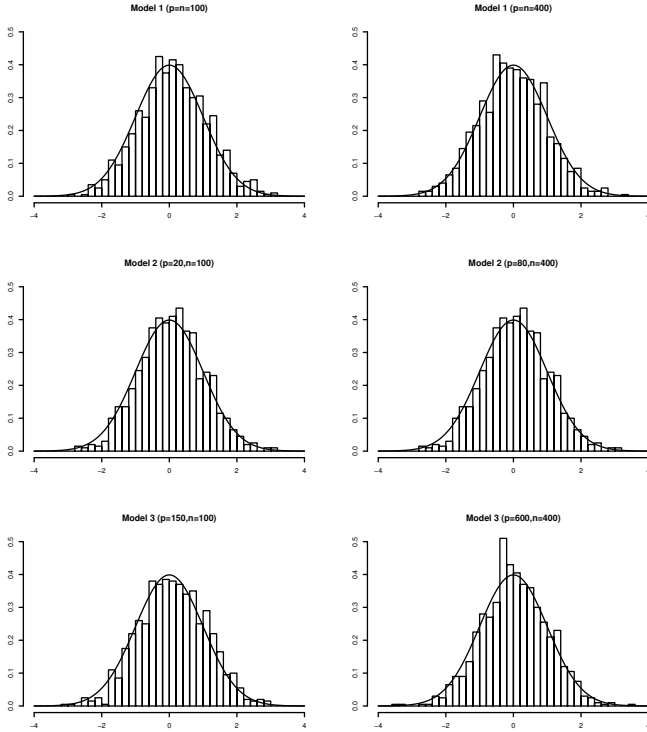


Fig. 1. Histogram of $\frac{(p-m)}{\sigma^2\sqrt{2c}}(\hat{\sigma}^2 - \sigma^2) + b(\sigma^2)$ compared with the density of a standard Gaussian law.

In Table 1, we compare the empirical bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ (i.e. the empirical mean \hat{b} of $\sigma^2 - \hat{\sigma}^2 = \sigma^2 - \frac{1}{p-m} \sum_{i=m+1}^p \lambda_{n,i}$) over 1000 replications with the theoretical one $b = -\sigma^2\sqrt{2c}b(\sigma^2)/(p-m)$ in different settings. In all the three models, the empirical and theoretical bias are close each other. As expected, their difference vanishes when p and n increase.

3. A BIAS-CORRECTED ESTIMATOR

The previous theory recommends to correct the negative bias of $\hat{\sigma}^2$. However, the bias $b(\sigma^2)$ depends on the number m and the values α_i of the spikes. These parameters could not be known in real-data applications and they need to be first estimated. In the literature, consistent estimators of m have been proposed, e.g. in [2], [10] and [11]. For the values of the spikes α_i , consistent estimators are proposed in [12].

As the bias depends on σ^2 which we want to estimate, a

Table 1. Comparison between the empirical bias \hat{b} and the theoretical bias b in various settings. Upper-middle-lower block: Model 1-2-3, respectively.

Settings	\hat{b}	b	$ \hat{b} - b $
$(p, n) = (100, 100)$	-0.1556	-0.1589	0.0023
$(p, n) = (400, 400)$	-0.0379	-0.0388	0.0009
$(p, n) = (800, 800)$	-0.0189	-0.0193	0.0004
$(p, n) = (20, 100)$	-0.0654	-0.0704	0.0050
$(p, n) = (80, 400)$	-0.0150	-0.0162	0.0012
$(p, n) = (200, 1000)$	-0.0064	-0.0063	0.0001
$(p, n) = (150, 100)$	-0.0801	-0.0795	0.0006
$(p, n) = (600, 400)$	-0.0400	-0.0397	0.0003
$(p, n) = (1500, 1000)$	-0.0157	-0.0159	0.0002

natural correction is to use the plug-in estimator

$$\hat{\sigma}_*^2 = \hat{\sigma}^2 + \frac{b(\hat{\sigma}^2)}{p-m} \hat{\sigma}^2 \sqrt{2c}.$$

Notice that in this formula, the number of factors m can be replaced by any consistent estimate as discussed above without affecting its limiting distribution. Using Theorem 1 and the delta-method, we obtain the following CLT

Theorem 2. Under the same conditions as in Theorem 1, we have

$$\frac{p-m}{\sigma^2\sqrt{2c}}(\hat{\sigma}_*^2 - \sigma^2) \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \mathcal{N}(0, 1).$$

Compared to the m.l.e. $\hat{\sigma}^2$ in Theorem 1, the new estimator has no more a bias after normalization by $\frac{p-m}{\sigma^2\sqrt{2c}}$.

To assess the quality of this bias-corrected estimator $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$, we conduct some simulation experiments using the previous settings: Tables 2 and 3 give the empirical mean of $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$ over 1000 replications compared with the empirical mean of $\hat{\sigma}^2$, as well as the mean squared errors and mean absolute deviations. For comparison, the same statistics are also given for the estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$ of [2] and the estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$ of [6]. These two estimators are defined as follow:

- $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$ is the solution of the following non-linear system of $m+1$ equations involving the $m+1$ unknowns $\hat{\rho}_1, \dots, \hat{\rho}_m$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2 - \frac{1}{p-m} \left[\sum_{j=m+1}^p \lambda_{n,j} + \sum_{j=1}^m (\lambda_{n,j} - \hat{\rho}_j) \right] = 0,$$

$$\hat{\rho}_j^2 - \hat{\rho}_j \left(\lambda_{n,j} + \hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2 \frac{p-m}{n} \right) + \lambda_{n,j} \hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2 = 0.$$

We used the computing code available on the author's web-page to carry out the simulations.

- $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$ is defined as

$$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2 = \frac{\text{median}(\lambda_{n,m+1}, \dots, \lambda_{n,p})}{p_{c,1}^{-1}(0.5)},$$

where $p_{c,1}^{-1}$ is quantile function of the Marčenko-Pastur distribution $F_{c,1}$.

Table 2. Mean absolute deviation of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$ in various settings.

Mod.	p	n	σ^2	$ \sigma^2 - \hat{\sigma}^2 $	$ \sigma^2 - \hat{\sigma}_*^2 $
1	100	100	4	0.1536	0.0021
	400	400		0.0384	$< 10^{-5}$
	800	800		0.0191	0.0002
2	20	100	2	0.0660	0.0012
	80	400		0.0159	0.0001
	200	1000		0.0061	0.0002
3	150	100	3	0.1600	0.0074
	600	400		0.0395	0.0001
	1500	1000		0.0161	0.0002

Table 3. Mean absolute deviation of $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$ in various settings.

Mod.	p	n	σ^2	$\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$	$ \sigma^2 - \hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2 $
1	100	100	4	0.0030	0.1616
	400	400		0.0003	0.0415
	800	800		0.0002	0.0206
2	20	100	2	0.0003	0.0600
	80	400		0.0001	0.0149
	200	1000		0.0002	0.0058
3	150	100	3	0.0065	0.2250
	600	400		0.0006	0.0550
	1500	1000		0.0001	0.0227

In all three models considered, the bias-corrected estimator $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$ is far much better than the original m.l.e. $\hat{\sigma}^2$: here mean absolute deviations are reduced by 95% at least. The performances of $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$ are similar. The estimator $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$ shows slightly better performance than the m.l.e. $\hat{\sigma}^2$, but performs poorly compared to $\hat{\sigma}_*^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$. Notice however the theoretic properties of $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{KN}}^2$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{\text{US}}^2$ are unknown and so far there have been checked via simulations only.

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