

On computationally efficient methods for testing multivariate distributions with unknown parameters

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Goodness-of-fit vs test of hypothesis

- **Goodness-of-fit tests (GOF):** Given a postulated model for the data we test it against all possible alternatives.
E.g., we expect that $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$, we test

$$H_0 : X \sim N(\mu, 1) \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : X \not\sim N(\mu, 1).$$

⇒ we have some power against all alternative models.

- **Tests of hypotheses:** Given a postulated model for the data, we test it against an alternative model.
E.g., we expect that $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$, we test

$$H_0 : \mu = 0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : \mu \neq 0.$$

⇒ we have high power only against the alternative model under H_1 .

Which Goodness-of-Fit test should we use? (1)

Discrete data

We typically rely on Pearson's χ^2 or its asymptotically equivalent counterparts.

Main advantages

- Simple to implement
- When the expected counts are large we have a good χ^2 approximation (even if there are parameters to estimate).

Which Goodness-of-Fit test should we use? (2)

Continuous data

We have quite a few options:

- Kolmogorov-Smirnov
- Cramer-von Mises
- Anderson-Darling
- etc...

What do they have in common?

They can all be specified as functionals of the empirical process.

The empirical process

Given a set of observations x_1, \dots, x_n from a continuous random variable X with unknown cumulative distribution function (cdf) $P(x) = P(X \leq x)$. We are interested in testing

$$H_0 : P = Q \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : P \neq Q$$

for some postulated distribution $Q(x)$. Since $P(x)$ is unknown, we begin by identifying an estimate of $P(x)$. A natural choice is the

empirical cumulative distribution function: $P_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq x\}}$.

To construct our test we consider the empirical process:

$$v_Q(x) = \sqrt{n} \left[P_n(x) - Q(x) \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq x\}} - Q(x) \right].$$

An entire family of GOF tests

Recall that

$$v_Q(x) = \sqrt{n}[P_n(x) - Q(x)] \quad (1)$$

By taking functionals of $v_Q(x)$ we can construct a variety of GOF tests statistics. E.g.,

- Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic: $KS = \sup_x v_Q(x)$.
- Cramer-von Mises statistic: $CvM = \int |v_Q(x)|^2 dQ(x)$.
- Anderson-Darling statistic: $AD = \int \left| \frac{v_Q(x)}{\sqrt{Q(x)(1-Q(x))}} \right|^2 dQ(x)$.

Advantages

If X is 1-dimensional and Q does not depend on unknown parameters, we consider the transformation

$$T = Q(X), \quad \text{and} \quad t_i = Q(x_i),$$

for $i = 1, \dots, n$. We know that $T \sim \text{Unif}[0, 1]$, hence, use the uniform empirical process

$$u_n(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n [\mathbb{1}_{\{t_i \leq t\}} - t]$$

instead of $v_Q(x)$, and take functionals of $u_n(t)$ as test statistic \Rightarrow we know the distribution of KS, CvM, and AD statistics and we have **distribution-freeness**.

Distribution-freeness

We have *distribution-freeness* whenever the distribution of the test statistic considered does not depend on the model Q being tested.

Limitations

If \mathbf{X} is multidimensional and/or Q depends on unknown parameters, θ , estimated by means of some estimator $\hat{\theta}$, then

$$T = Q(\mathbf{X}, \hat{\theta}) \not\sim \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$$

\Rightarrow we lose distribution-freeness.

The simplest possible solutions

If X is multi-dimensional and/or Q depends on unknown parameters

- Discretize the data and use Pearson χ^2 (or asymptotic equivalent).

Cons: Loss of information/power + in a low counts regime we run into serious problems (e.g., Haberman, 1988).

- Simulate the distribution of our KS, CvM, and AD statistics numerically via Monte Carlo or the parametric bootstrap.

Cons: Computational complexity may be high + simulations must be repeated on a case-by-case basis.



In the remaining of the talk we will see two approaches which will help us to overcome these two limitations.

The parametric empirical process

Given a set of observations $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ from an unknown cumulative distribution function (cdf) $P(\mathbf{x}) = P(\mathbf{X} \leq \mathbf{x})$, $\mathbf{X} \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^D$. We are interested in testing

$$H_0 : P(\mathbf{x}) = Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) \quad \text{versus} \quad H_1 : P(\mathbf{x}) \neq Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$$

for some postulated distribution $Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$. To perform the test above, we consider the parametric empirical process $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$

$$v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \sqrt{n} \left[P_n(\mathbf{x}) - Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) \right] \quad (2)$$

Estimating the empirical process

Let $\hat{\theta}$ be the MLE of θ , plug-it in $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$:

$$v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}) = \sqrt{n} \left[P_n(\mathbf{x}) - Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}) \right].$$

Simulating $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta})$ via the parametric bootstrap

- Let $\hat{\theta}_{obs}$ = MLE of θ obtained on the data observed.
- For $b=1, \dots, B$:
 - Simulate a bootstrap sample $\mathbf{x}_n^{(b)} = (x_1^{(b)}, \dots, x_n^{(b)})$ from $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$;
 - Estimate θ on $\mathbf{x}_n^{(b)}$ and obtain $\hat{\theta}^{(b)}$,
 - For each point \mathbf{x} considered evaluate

$$v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}^{(b)}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\mathbb{1}_{\{x_i^{(b)} \leq \mathbf{x}\}} - Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}^{(b)}) \right].$$

Warning: If we evaluate the process at R points \mathbf{x} over the search region, we have to evaluate $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}^{(b)})$, a total of $R \times B$ times.

Can we make it faster?

Recall that

$$v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) = \sqrt{n} \left[P_n(\mathbf{x}) - Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \right].$$

A Taylor expansion of $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ around $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ leads to

$$v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \approx v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) - \sqrt{n} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta})^T \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

Moreover, let $q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ be the density of Q , a know theoretical result is

$$\sqrt{n} (\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \underbrace{\Gamma_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-1}}_{\text{Inverse of the Fisher information}} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log q(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\text{Score function}}$$

The projected empirical process

Putting everything together

$$\underbrace{v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta})}_{\text{Empirical process at } \hat{\theta}} \approx \underbrace{v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)}_{\text{Empirical process at } \theta} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{j=1}^p \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)}_{\text{Score functions}} \underbrace{\Gamma_{\theta}^{-1}}_{\text{Inverse of the Fisher information}} \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \log q(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)}_{\text{Score functions}}$$

- The error of the approximation is $o_p(1)$, that is, it quickly converges to zero in probability as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- We call the right-hand-side of the approximation above *projected empirical process* (Khmaladze, 1980) and we denote it by $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$.
- The projected empirical process **does not depend on $\hat{\theta}$!**
- Why “projected”? (I will tell you in a few slides).

Simulating $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ via the parametric bootstrap

- Let $\hat{\theta}_{obs}$ = MLE of θ obtained on the data observed.
- Evaluate $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$ at each point \mathbf{x} considered.
- For $b=1, \dots, B$:
 - Simulate a bootstrap sample $\mathbf{x}_n^{(b)} = (x_1^{(b)}, \dots, x_n^{(b)})$ from $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$;
 - For each point \mathbf{x} considered evaluate

$$\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\mathbb{1}_{\{\mathbf{x}_i^{(b)} \leq \mathbf{x}\}} - Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs}) \right] - \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{j=1}^p \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs}) \Gamma_{\hat{\theta}_{obs}}^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \log q(\mathbf{x}_i^{(b)}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$$

Note: If we evaluate the process at R points \mathbf{x} over the search region, we have to evaluate $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$ and $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}_{obs})$, a total of R times (instead of $R \times B$ times!)

A toy example

We draw a sample of $n = 100$ observations from

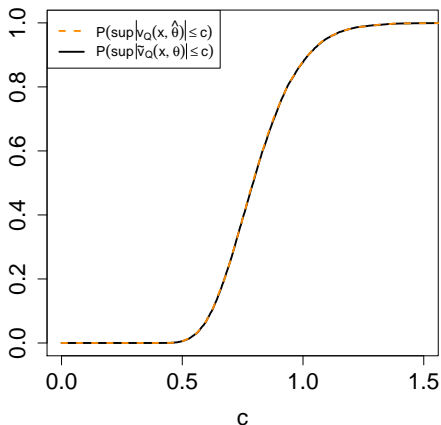
$$q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2\theta_3} [(x_1 - \theta_1)^2 + (x_2 - \theta_2)^2]} \quad \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} = [1, 20] \times [1, 25], \quad (3)$$

$\boldsymbol{\theta} = (-2, 5, 25)$ and its MLE is $\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{obs} = (-0.77, 6.32, 22.02)$.

We proceed by simulating the distribution of the KS statistic via

1. Simulate $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$ by sampling from $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{obs})$ via the parametric bootstrap.
2. Simulate $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ by sampling from $Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{obs})$ via the parametric bootstrap.

Simulated distributions of the KS statistic



The two simulated distributions are basically overlapping.

Which simulation procedure should we use?

- In theory, we would expect that bootstrapping the projected empirical process will be faster. But how much faster?

In our toy example...

Overall (system+user) CPU time needed to simulate the distributions of the Kolmogorov statistic $\sup_{\mathbf{x}} |v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta})|$ and $\sup_{\mathbf{x}} |\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)|$ via the parametric bootstrap over 10,000 replicates and $n = 100$ observations.

	$\sup_{\mathbf{x}} \tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) $	$\sup_{\mathbf{x}} v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \hat{\theta}) $
CPU time	9.429 mins	12.198 hrs

Discovery claims in physics and astronomy

Ok but what if the model are complex and the significance requirements stringent?

The claim of a discovery: a 5σ artifact

H.B. Prosper in a 2012 ISBA discussion on the Higgs Boson:

“... the search for the Higgs took some 45 years, tens of thousands of scientists and engineers, billions of dollars, not to mention numerous divorces, huge amounts of sleep deprivation, tens of thousands of bad airline meals, etc., etc., we want to be sure as is humanly possible that this is real.”

Consequence:

$O(10^9)$ simulations from realistic models might get quite prohibitive
 \implies ~~Bootstrap~~.

**So, what if we want to test another model, $F(x, \beta)$
which is rather complicated?**
(Can we somehow retrieve distribution-freeness?)

Why “projected”?

Consider the normalized score vector defined as

$$b(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \Gamma_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{-1/2} \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log q(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}). \quad (4)$$

That is, conversely from $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \log Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$, each component $b_j(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ of (4) has mean zero, unit variance and is uncorrelated with each $b_k(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$, $k \neq j$.

Our projected empirical process $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is a projection of $v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ orthogonal to the normalized scored functions $b_j(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$.

A useful (re-)formulation

Specifically,

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \overbrace{[\mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq x\}} - Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)]}^{v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)} - \int_{\mathcal{X}} b^T(\mathbf{x}, \theta) d v_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) \int_{-\infty}^x b(\mathbf{x}, \theta) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \left\{ [\mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \leq x\}} - Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)] - b^T(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta) \int_{-\infty}^x b(\mathbf{x}, \theta) dx \right\}\end{aligned}$$

Setting everything in the curly brackets equal to $\psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$, we have

$$\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta). \quad (5)$$

We will see very soon that the functions $\psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$ play a fundamental role here.

A projected Brownian motion

The limiting process of $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ can be shown to be a projected Brownian motion orthogonal to the normalized score functions $b_j(\cdot, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ (Khmaladze, 1980).

⇒ the limit of $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is Gaussian!

⇒ it is characterized by its mean and covariance functions, i.e.,

$$E_Q[\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})] = \int \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) dQ(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = E_Q[\psi_{\mathbf{x}}] = 0$$

$$E_Q[\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}', \boldsymbol{\theta})] = \int \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta})\psi_{\mathbf{x}'}(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) dQ(\mathbf{t}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = E_Q[\psi_{\mathbf{x}}\psi_{\mathbf{x}'}]$$

⇒ what really characterizes the limit are our $\psi_{\mathbf{x}}$.

Towards (asymptotic) distribution-freeness

Can we construct another process whose limit, under $F(\mathbf{x}, \beta)$, will be the same as that of $\tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ under Q ?

The key here is to “play” with our $\psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$ functions so that, by taking a suitable transformation of them, namely $\phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta, \beta)$, we have that the processes

$$\tilde{v}_F(\mathbf{x}, \theta, \beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta, \beta) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \theta)$$

will have the same limit, under F and Q , respectively.

This can be done by means of the Khmaladze-2 (K-2) transform (Khmaladze, 2016).

The K-2 transform in a nutshell

The K-2 transform applied to the functions $\psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is

$$\phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \underbrace{\mathbf{U} \left[\mathbf{K} \left[l_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}}(\mathbf{x}_i) \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right] \right]}_{\text{K-2 transform}}$$

- The isometry $l_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \sqrt{\frac{q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{f(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta})}}$ ensures $E_F [(l_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}} \psi_{\mathbf{x}})(l_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}} \psi_{\mathbf{x}'})] = E_Q [\psi_{\mathbf{x}} \psi_{\mathbf{x}'}]$.
- The unitary operator \mathbf{K} ensures that $E_F [\mathbf{K} l_{\boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}} \psi_{\mathbf{x}}] = E_Q [\psi_{\mathbf{x}}] = 0$.
- The unitary operator \mathbf{U} ensures orthogonality w.r.t. the normalized score functions for $F(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$, i.e., $a_j(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\beta})$, $j = 1, \dots, p$.

A new family of test statistics

Recall that

$$\tilde{v}_F(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \phi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{i=1}^n \psi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

We can now construct our K -2 rotated test statistics as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KS}_{F|Q} &= \sup_{\mathbf{x}} | \tilde{v}_F(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) |, & \text{CvM}_{F|Q} &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \tilde{v}_F^2(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta}) dQ(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \\ \text{and } \text{AD}_{F|Q} &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{\tilde{v}_F^2(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}, \boldsymbol{\beta})}{Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})[1 - Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})]} dQ(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

which have the same limiting distribution as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{KS}_Q &= \sup_{\mathbf{x}} | \tilde{v}_Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) |, & \text{CvM}_Q &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \tilde{v}_Q^2(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) dQ(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \\ \text{and } \text{AD}_Q &= \int_{\mathcal{X}} \frac{\tilde{v}_Q^2(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}{Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})[1 - Q(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta})]} dQ(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Requirements on F and Q

Can we use any $F(\mathbf{x}, \beta)$ and any $Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$?

- Let $f(\mathbf{x}, \beta)$ and $q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ be the densities of $F(\mathbf{x}, \beta)$ and $Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$. We require that:
 - $f(\mathbf{x}, \beta) = 0$ iff $q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = 0$ (they have the same support).
 - θ, β are both of size p (they have the same size).
- **These are rather general criteria!** $\Rightarrow Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ can be chosen to be arbitrarily simple to ease the computations.
- We call $Q(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ “reference distribution” because, for any F_1, \dots, F_M satisfying these criteria, we can construct a process \tilde{v}_{F_m} , $m = 1, \dots, M$ with the same distribution as \tilde{v}_Q .

An illustrative example

- **Data:** a sample of $n = 100$ observations generated from

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \propto (2\pi)^{-1} |\Sigma|^{-1/2} [1 + (\mathbf{x} - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mu)]^{-3/2}, \quad (8)$$

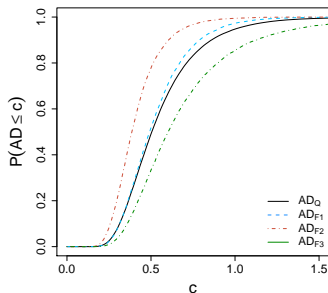
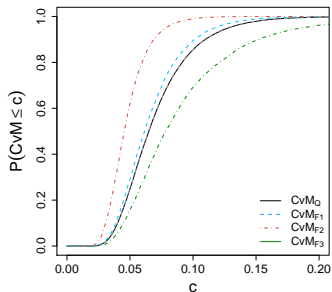
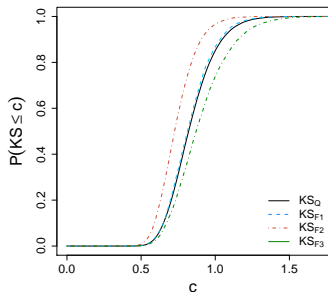
where $\mu = (0, 3)^T$, $\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 20 & 10 \\ 10 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X} = [1, 20] \times [1, 25]$.

- **Null models** we aim to test:

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(\mathbf{x}; \beta) &\propto x_1^{(\beta_1-1)} x_2^{(\beta_2-1)} \exp\{-\beta_3(x_1 + x_2)\}, \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}; \beta) &\propto \frac{\beta_3}{2\pi} [(x_1 - \beta_1)^2 + (x_2 - \beta_2)^2 + \beta_3]^{-3/2}, \\ f_3(\mathbf{x}; \beta) &\propto e^{-\frac{1}{200} \left[\left(\frac{x_1}{\beta_1} - 1\right)^2 + \left(\frac{x_2}{\beta_2} - 1\right)^2 - \beta_3 \left(\frac{x_1}{\beta_1} - 1\right) \left(\frac{x_2}{\beta_2} - 1\right) \right]}, \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

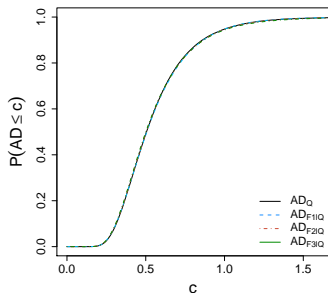
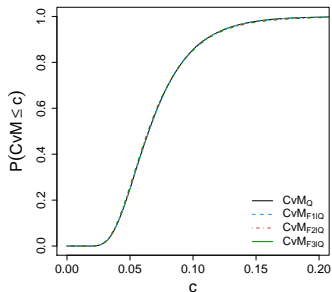
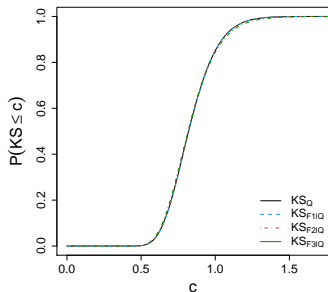
- **Reference distribution:** $q(\mathbf{x}, \theta) \propto e^{-\frac{1}{2\theta_3} [(x_1 - \theta_1)^2 + (x_2 - \theta_2)^2]}$.

Classical KS, CvM and AD: null distribution



Each simulation involves 100,000 bootstrap replicates, 100 observations, and the process is evaluated at 2000 grid points.

Rotated KS, CvM and AD: null distribution



Each simulation involves 100,000 bootstrap replicates, 100 observations, and the process is evaluated at 2000 grid points.

A few practical considerations

and possible points of discussion

- The “closer” our reference distribution, Q , is to the F model we want to test, the “quicker” we will achieve distribution-freeness.
- The K-2 transform involves the operators K and U , these are linear operators \Rightarrow while their implementation may be tedious when dealing with many parameters, it is not very difficult.
 - Recall that their evaluation does not need to be repeated on multiple runs, and it is only needed to evaluate the K-2 rotated test statistics on the data observed.

References

- **Main reference: Algeri S. (2022). K-2 rotated goodness-of-fit for multivariate data. *Physical Review D*.**
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Thank you all for your time.