Competitive Closeness Testing

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Abstract

We test whether two sequences are generated by the same distribution or by two different ones. Unlike previous work, we make no assumptions on the distributions' support size. Additionally, we compare our performance to that of the best possible test. We describe an efficiently-computable algorithm based on *pattern* maximum likelihood that is near optimal whenever the best possible error probability is $\leq \exp(-14n^{2/3})$ using length-*n* sequences.

1. Introduction

We consider the problem of testing whether two sequences are generated by the same distribution or by two different ones. There is an extensive amount of literature on this problem and several of its variants in the framework of hypothesis testing [5, 21, 7, 11, 12], which primarily considers asymptotic error performance when the sequence lengths tend to infinity.

For non-asymptotic lengths, significant progress has been made recently under distribution property testing [2, 3, 17, 19], which provide efficient algorithms for closeness testing and other problems like entropy estimation and support size estimation using a number of samples that is sublinear in the support size. Nonetheless, these algorithms and their error performance guarantees require a priori knowledge of upper bounds on the support size. In this paper, we present closeness-testing algorithms that are competitively optimal when the best possible error probability is small. The algorithms do not require knowledge of the underlying support size. Our methods extend the technique of pattern maximum likelihood (PML) used in [14, 15] for estimating large alphabet distributions in the context of universal compression.

1.1. Problem definition

Let (p_1, p_2) be a pair of unknown distributions over an alphabet $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k\}$ of size k. Two length-n sequences $\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2$ are generated *i.i.d.* and independently of each other according to p_1 and p_2 respectively. The problem is to decide whether p_1 and p_2 are same or different given only \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 . A closeness test Δ for sequences in \mathcal{A}^n is a mapping $\Delta : \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n \to \{same, diff\}$ that labels each sequence pair as same or different. The whether the distributions that generated them are believed to be same or different. The error probability of Δ for any (p_1, p_2) is the probability that it labels a sequence pair they generate incorrectly, *i.e.*,

$$P_{\rm e}^n(\Delta, p_1, p_2) \stackrel{\rm def}{=} \begin{cases} \Pr(\Delta(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = \textit{diff}) & \text{if } p_1, p_2 \text{ are same}, \\ \Pr(\Delta(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = \textit{same}) & \text{if } p_1, p_2 \text{ are different.} \end{cases}$$

The goal is to design a test Δ that uses few samples and yet has a low error probability, both when (p_1, p_2) are same, *i.e.*, $p_1 = p_2$ and when (p_1, p_2) are sufficiently different to be distinguishable by some test.

1.2. A closeness test based on empirical-frequency distributions

The closeness problem is closely related to hypothesis testing. In simple hypothesis testing problems, one of two known distributions p and q is chosen at random and generates a random sequence \overline{x} . Based on the sequence, we are asked to determine which of the two distributions generated it. It is well known that the *likelihood ratio test (LRT)* [5, 16] which decides on p or q depending on whether $p(\overline{x})/q(\overline{x})$ is larger or smaller than 1 has the lowest error probability.

In composite hypothesis testing problem [16] there are two known distribution classes \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} . One of the two classes is chosen at random and an unknown distribution from that class generates the observation. Based on the observation, we need to decide which class the generating distribution came from. As noted in [2], the closeness problem can be regarded as a composite hypothesis testing problem where the two distribution classes are \mathcal{P}_{same} containing all pairs of identical distributions (p, p), and \mathcal{P}_{diff} containing all pairs of significantly different distributions (p_1, p_2) .

For composite hypothesis testing, we do not know which distribution to select from each class, hence often the most likely distribution in each class is estimated. The actual distributions in the LRT are replaced by their maximum likelihood estimates taken from their respective classes, and the test thereby obtained is known as the generalized likelihood ratio test (GLRT) [16]. Since the sequences are generated *i.i.d.*, the empirical-frequency distribution is the maximum likelihood distribution, and is known to be a good estimate of the underlying distribution when the sequence length n is large relative to the alphabet size k.

Specifically for closeness testing, let $\mu(a)$ be the number of appearances of a symbol a in \overline{x} , and let $\hat{P}(\overline{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_p p(\overline{x}) = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \left(\frac{\mu(a)}{n}\right)^{\mu(a)}$ be the maximum likelihood of a sequence $\overline{x} \in \mathcal{A}^n$ under all possible *i.i.d.* distributions. Note that for all $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$,

$$\hat{P}(\overline{x}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{x}_2) = \max_{p_1,p_2} p_1(\overline{x}_1)p_2(\overline{x}_2) \ge \max_{p_1=p_2} p_1(\overline{x}_1)p_2(\overline{x}_2) = \hat{P}(\overline{x}_1\overline{x}_2),$$

hence $\hat{P}(\overline{x}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{x}_2)/\hat{P}(\overline{x}_1\overline{x}_2) \geq 1$. A modified empirical-frequency based GLRT test was therefore used in [10], where for all $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n$,

$$\Delta^{\mathrm{emp}}(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} egin{cases} \mathtt{diff} & \mathrm{if} \; rac{\hat{P}(\overline{x}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{x}_2)}{\hat{P}(\overline{x}_1\overline{x}_2)} > {\binom{n+k-1}{n}}^2 n, \\ \mathtt{same} & \mathrm{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

They showed that when k = o(n), if $p_1 = p_2$ then $\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{X}_2)/\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)$ is small and $\leq {\binom{n+k-1}{n}}^2 n$ with probability $\geq 1-\frac{1}{n}$. And when the L_1 distance $|p_1-p_2| > \epsilon$ for some $\epsilon > 0$,

then $\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{X}_2)/\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)$ is large and $\geq 2^{n\epsilon^2/6} > {\binom{n+k-1}{n}}^2 n$ with probability 1 - o(1). Hence when the alphabet size k is sublinear in n, then Δ^{emp} has low error probability, both when $p_1 = p_2$ and when $|p_1 - p_2| > \epsilon$ for some constant $\epsilon > 0$.

However, when the alphabet size is larger than n, empirical distribution may not be a good estimate of the underlying distribution and Δ^{emp} may not have low error probability, as shown in an example in [10] and in the following, simpler, example.

Example 1 For large n and $k = n^3$, let $p_1(a_1) = 1$ and $p_1(a_2) = \ldots = p_1(a_n) = 0$, and let $p_2(a_1) = 1/2$ and $p_2(a_2) = \ldots = p_1(a_n) = 1/(2(k-1))$. The two distributions are clearly very different and $|p_1 - p_2| = 1$. If \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 are length-n sequences generated *i.i.d.* according to p_1 and p_2 respectively, then $\overline{X}_1 = a_1^n$ and $\overline{X}_2 = a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_2a_3\cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1}$ are typical sequences. In particular, by the Birthday problem, with high probability no symbol in $\{a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k\}$ appears more than once in \overline{X}_2 . It follows that typically,

$$\frac{\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{X}_2)}{\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)} = \frac{\hat{P}(a_1^n)\hat{P}(a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_2a_3\cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1})}{\hat{P}(a_1^{\frac{3n}{2}}a_2a_3\cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1})} = \frac{1^n \times (\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{1}{n})^{\frac{n}{2}}}{(\frac{3}{4})^{\frac{3n}{2}}(\frac{1}{2n})^{\frac{n}{2}}} = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{3n}{2}} \approx 1.54^n$$

suggesting as it should that the sequences where generated by different distributions.

However, when both \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 are generated according to the same distribution, p_2 , then typically $\overline{X}_1 = a_1^{\frac{n}{2}} a_2 a_3 \cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1}$ and $\overline{X}_2 = a_1^{\frac{n}{2}} a_{\frac{n}{2}+2} \cdots a_{n+1}$ where no symbol in $\{a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k\}$ appears more than once in $\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2$. Then,

$$\frac{\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{X}_2)}{\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)} = \frac{\hat{P}(a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_2a_3\cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1})\hat{P}(a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_{\frac{n}{2}+2}\cdots a_{n+1})}{\hat{P}(a_1^na_2a_3\cdots a_{n+1})} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{1}{n})^{\frac{n}{2}} \times \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{1}{n})^{\frac{n}{2}}}{(\frac{1}{2})^n(\frac{1}{2n})^n} = 2^n,$$

an even higher ratio than when the distributions were different.

Therefore, for any choice of the threshold t, the GLRT test $\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\overline{X}_2)/\hat{P}(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2) \overset{diff}{\underset{same}{\overset{same}{\underset{same}{x_1, \overline{X}_2}}}$ will have a high error for at either (p_1, p_2) or (p_2, p_2) . Furthermore, note that when $\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2$ are both generated according to p_2 , the sequences $\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2$ have very different empirical distribution estimates than $\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2$.

1.3. Related work on estimating large alphabet distributions

Batu et al [2] developed a test that distinguishes between two distributions that are close and those that are well separated in L_1 distance using sequences whose length is sublinear in size of the underlying alphabet. Using sequences of length $n = \mathcal{O}(k^{2/3} \log k \cdot \epsilon^{-4} \cdot \log \frac{1}{\delta})$, their algorithm outputs same when $|p_1 - p_2| \leq \max(\frac{\epsilon}{32k^{1/3}}, \frac{\epsilon}{4k^{1/2}})$ and diff when $|p_1 - p_2| > \epsilon$ with error probability $\leq \delta$ for both cases. Since the empirical frequency is a good estimate for large probabilities, the algorithm estimates the L_1 distance contribution of only the highprobability symbols using their empirical frequencies. The contribution of low probability symbols is estimated using a test for L_2 distance that relies on the number of collisions (also known as coincidences or repetitions) in the sequences. They establish a corresponding lower bound by showing pairs of distributions (p_1, p_2) such that $|p_1 - p_2| > \epsilon$ and that no algorithm can distinguish it from the identical pair (p_1, p_1) using $n = o(k^{2/3} \cdot \epsilon^{-2/3})$ samples. Valiant [19] further showed that distinguishing distribution pairs with L_1 distance less than α from those with distance greater than β for $0 < \alpha < \beta < 2$ requires $n = k^{1-o(1)}$ samples and can be done using $n = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(k)$ samples by [2] or by another test shown in [19]. Although no assumptions are made on the structure of distributions, the tests in [2, 19] and their sample complexities still depend on the knowledge of an upper bound on the alphabet size k of the unknown underlying distributions. Moreover, as in Example 1, there are many distribution pairs that can be tested for closeness in much less than $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(k^{2/3})$ samples.

The related problem of classification was considered by many researchers, including recently by Kelly et al [10]. Here, one is given training sequences \overline{X}_1 and $\overline{X}_2 \in \mathcal{A}^n$ generated *i.i.d.* and independently according to unknown distributions p_1 and p_2 that are separated in L_1 distance. A third sequence $\overline{Y} \in \mathcal{A}^n$ is generated *i.i.d.* and independently of each other according to either p_1 or p_2 with equal probability and the problem is to decide whether \overline{Y} is generated according p_1 or p_2 . They show a test that has low error probability when (p_1, p_2) belong to a restricted class of distributions such that the probabilities of all symbols are $\Theta(\frac{1}{k})$ and $k = \Theta(n^{\alpha})$, for any fixed $\alpha \in [0, 2)$. Their test uses the L_2 distance between the empirical frequency distributions, of the sequences to determine which one of the pairs $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{Y})$ or $(\overline{X}_2, \overline{Y})$ are closer and classify accordingly.

The problem of estimating the probability multiset of large alphabet distributions was also studied in the context of universal compression of large alphabet sources in [14, 15]. The main idea is to consider the *pattern* of a sequence, which conveys only the structure of the sequence and the order in which symbols appear in the sequence, and not the identities of the actual symbols. The pattern contains all the information that is needed to test symmetric properties like entropy that depend only on the probability multiset and not on the way in which the probabilities are associated with the symbols of the alphabet. In [14], several estimators based on the maximum likelihood of patterns were shown that estimate the pattern probabilities (that are usually exponentially small in n) to within a factor that is subexponential in the sequence length n, regardless of the alphabet size and the structure of the underlying distribution. Preliminary results on application of such estimators to the problem of classification were shown in [18]. Partial results on classifiers based on maximum likelihood estimation of the *joint pattern* of two or more sequences were shown in [1]. In this paper, we show closeness tests based on maximum likelihood of joint patterns that perform almost as good as any test can, without making any assumptions on the underlying distributions. These tests can be used as good classifiers as well.

1.4. Closeness tests based on pattern maximum likelihood

The pattern of a sequence is defined as follows. Let $\overline{x} = x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n = x_1^n \in \mathcal{A}^n$ be a sequence of length n and $\mathcal{A}(\overline{x})$ denote the set of symbols that appear in \overline{x} . The index $i_{\overline{x}}(a)$ of a symbol $a \in \mathcal{A}(\overline{x})$ is

$$i_{\overline{x}}(a) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min\{|\mathcal{A}(x_1^i)| : 1 \le i \le n \text{ and } x_i = a\},\$$

i.e., one more than the number of distinct symbols that have appeared before the first appearance of a in \overline{x} . The *pattern* of \overline{x} is the sequence

$$\Psi(\overline{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \imath_{\overline{x}}(x_1)\imath_{\overline{x}}(x_2)\cdots\imath_{\overline{x}}(x_n)$$

. .

obtained by replacing the symbols in \overline{x} by their respective indices. For example, if \overline{x} = abracadabra, then $\imath_{\overline{x}}(a) = 1$, $\imath_{\overline{x}}(b) = 2$, $\imath_{\overline{x}}(r) = 3$, $\imath_{\overline{x}}(c) = 4$ and $\imath_{\overline{x}}(d) = 5$. Hence, $\Psi(abracadabra) = 12314151231$. The set of all possible patterns of different length-*n* sequences is represented by Ψ^n . For example, $\Psi^1 = \{1\}, \Psi^2 = \{11, 12\}$ and $\Psi^3 = \{111, 112, 121, 122, 123\}$.

We extend the definition of patterns to two or more sequences. The *joint pattern* of a pair of sequences $(\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^{n_1} \times \mathcal{A}^{n_2}$ is $\Psi(\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\bar{\psi}_1, \bar{\psi}_2)$, where $\bar{\psi}_1 = \Psi(\bar{x}_1)$ and $\bar{\psi}_1 \bar{\psi}_2 = \Psi(\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2)$. For example, for **bab** and **abca**, the first pattern is $\Psi(\text{bab}) = 121$ and that of the concatenated sequence is $\Psi(\text{bababca}) = 1212132$, hence the joint pattern is $\Psi(\text{bab}, \text{abca}) = (121, 2132)$. Clearly, the joint pattern conveys the patterns of the individual sequences and the association between the symbols of the sequences. The joint pattern of a list of three or more sequences is defined similarly. We use Ψ^{n_1,n_2} to denote the set of all possible joint patterns of pairs of sequences of length (n_1, n_2) . For example, $\Psi^{2,1} = \{(11,1), (11,2), (12,1), (12,2), (12,3)\}.$

The probability of a single pattern $\overline{\psi} \in \Psi^n$ under a distribution p is the probability that a length-n sequence \overline{X} generated *i.i.d.* according to p has pattern $\overline{\psi}$, *i.e.*,

$$p(\overline{\psi}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p\big(\Psi(\overline{X}) = \overline{\psi}\big) = \sum_{\overline{x}: \Psi(\overline{x}) = \overline{\psi}} p(\overline{x}).$$

Similarly, the probability of a joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Psi^{n_1, n_2}$ under a pair of distributions (p_1, p_2) is the probability that two sequences \overline{X}_1 and \overline{X}_2 of length n_1 and n_2 generated *i.i.d.* according to p_1 and p_2 respectively have joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$ and is denoted by

$$p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2) = p_{1,2}\left(\Psi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2) = (\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)\right) = \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2):\\\Psi(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2) = (\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)}} p_1(\overline{x}_1)p_2(\overline{x}_2).$$

For example, if $\mathcal{A} = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $p = (p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d)$, then the probability of the pattern 1213 is

$$p(1213) = p(\mathtt{abac}) + p(\mathtt{abad}) + p(\mathtt{acab}) + \dots = p_{\mathtt{a}}^2 p_{\mathtt{b}} p_{\mathtt{c}} + p_{\mathtt{a}}^2 p_{\mathtt{b}} p_{\mathtt{d}} + p_{\mathtt{a}}^2 p_{\mathtt{c}} p_{\mathtt{b}} + \dots$$

Similarly, if $p_1 = (p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d)$ and $p_2 = (p'_a, p'_b, p'_c, p'_d)$, then probability of the pattern (12, 13) is

$$p_{1,2}(12,13) = p_{1,2}(ab, ac) + p_{1,2}(ab, ad) + p_{1,2}(ba, bc) + \dots = p_a p_b p'_a p'_c + p_a p_b p'_a p'_d + \dots$$

Notice that if $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Psi^{n_1, n_2}$, then $\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2 \in \Psi^{n_1 + n_2}$. Also, if $p_1 = p_2 = p$, then $p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = p_{1,1}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = p_1(\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2)$.

The maximum likelihood of a pattern $\overline{\psi}$ under all *i.i.d.* distributions is $\hat{P}(\overline{\psi}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{p} p(\overline{\psi})$. Similarly, the maximum likelihood of a joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$ under all pairs of *i.i.d.* and independent distributions is denoted by $\hat{P}(\overline{\psi}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{p_1, p_2} p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi})$.

Since joint patterns contain all the relevant information for closeness testing, consider a simple hypothesis testing problem where a sequence pair $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n$ is generated according to either (p_1, p_2) or (p, p), but we are given only the joint pattern $\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)$ and not the actual sequences. In this case, the likelihood ratio test $p_{1,2}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) \underset{s_{ame}}{\stackrel{s_{ame}}{$

$$\Delta_{n,\delta}^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} \textit{diff} & \text{if } \frac{\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2))}{\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{x}_1\overline{x}_2))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}, \\ \textit{same} & \text{otherwise}, \end{cases}$$

for all $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n$ and for some $\delta < \exp(-12n^{2/3})$. In other words, the test outputs *diff* if the maximum likelihood of the pattern of the two sequences under two different distributions is much higher than that under two identical distributions.

Without loss of generality, we consider only symmetric tests, namely those whose output depends only on joint pattern of the sequences and not the specific symbols that have appeared, since the property of closeness depends only on the probability multiset and not the associated symbols. (See also Appendix C for a discussion along the lines of [4].) We say that a pair of distributions (p_1, p_2) is (n, δ) -different if there exists a symmetric test that can distinguish with error probability $< \delta$, pairs of length n sequences generated according to (p_1, p_2) from those generated by any pair of identical distributions (p, p). In other words, there exists a test Δ such that for all p,

$$P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta, p_{1}, p_{2}) < \delta$$
 and $P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta, p, p) < \delta$.

Our first main result, Theorem 7, states that for all $\delta \leq \exp(-12n^{2/3})$. the test $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ has error probability $\leq \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3})$ both when the two distributions are identical and when they are (n, δ) -different.

Revisiting Example 1, in the case when $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim (p_1, p_2)$, consider the typical sequence pair $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = (a_1^n, a_1^{\frac{n}{2}} a_2 a_3 \cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1})$. Then, $\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) = \hat{P}(1^n, 1^{\frac{n}{2}} 23 \cdots (\frac{n}{2}+1)) \geq 1 \cdot (\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{n}{2}} (\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{n}{2}} = (\frac{1}{2})^n$, since the distributions (p'_1, p'_2) assign $\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)$ such a likelihood, where $p'_1(a_1) = 1$, $p'_2(a_1) = \frac{1}{2}$, and the remaining probability $\frac{1}{2}$ of p'_2 is spread over a continuous alphabet or a large tail, similar to p_2 . Also, from [13], $\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)) = \hat{P}(1^{\frac{3n}{2}}23\cdots(\frac{n}{2}+1)) = (\frac{3}{4})^{\frac{3n}{2}}(\frac{1}{4})^{\frac{n}{2}}$, which is attained by the distribution p such that $p(a_1) = \frac{3}{4}$ and has the remaining probability $\frac{1}{4}$ spread over a continuous alphabet. Hence,

$$\frac{\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))} \ge \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^n}{(\frac{3}{4})^{\frac{3n}{2}}(\frac{1}{4})^{\frac{n}{2}}} = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{3n}{2}} > 1.53^n,$$

and the test $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ outputs diff for $\delta = \exp(-14n^{2/3})$. When $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim (p_2, p_2)$, for the typical sequence pair $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = (a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_2a_3 \cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1}, a_1^{\frac{n}{2}}a_{\frac{n}{2}+2} \cdots a_{n+1})$, again as shown by [13], $\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) \leq \hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1)\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_2)) = \hat{P}(1^{\frac{n}{2}}23 \cdots (\frac{n}{2}+1))^2 = ((\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{1}{2})^{\frac{n}{2}})^2 = (\frac{1}{2})^{2n}$, and $\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2)) = \hat{P}(1^n23 \cdots (n+1)) = (\frac{1}{2})^n(\frac{1}{2})^n = (\frac{1}{2})^{2n}$. Hence, in this case

$$\frac{P(\Psi(X_1, X_2))}{\hat{P}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2))} = 1$$

and the output of $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ is **same**. We note that the maximum likelihood distributions of $\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)$ and of $\Psi(\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2)$ are consistent, *i.e.*, same, unlike in the case of Δ^{emp} .

As evident from the previous example, the computation of pattern maximum likelihood (PML) is difficult in general and hence we show an efficient test based on pattern probability estimators that also has low error probability. Several such estimators were shown in [14] which can compute maximum likelihood of patterns to within a subexponential factor. In particular, we consider the following estimator. The *profile* of a pattern or a sequence conveys the number of symbols appearing a given number of times in it. For example, the profile of abdb is $\varphi(abdb) = (\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \varphi_3, \varphi_4) = (2, 1, 0, 0)$, indicating that there are $\varphi_1 = 2$ symbols that appear once in abdb and $\varphi_2 = 1$ symbol that appears 2 times and so on. The sequences abdb and dcca for example have the same profile, though their patterns are different. The definition of a profile can be similarly extended to joint patterns or pairs of sequences and consists of entries φ_{μ_1,μ_2} that are the number of symbols that have appeared μ_1 times in first sequence and μ_2 times in the second sequence. For example,

$$\varphi(\text{dac}, \text{adbda}) = \varphi(123, 21412) = \begin{array}{c|ccc} 0 & 1 & 2 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{array}$$

where the prevalances φ_{μ_1,μ_2} are arranged in a matrix with the rows indexed with μ_1 and columns with μ_2 . As seen in the matrix, $\varphi_{1,2} = 2$, since there are 2 symbols, namely d and a that appear $\mu_1 = 1$ times in dac and $\mu_2 = 2$ times in adbda. By convention, we set $\varphi_{0,0} \equiv 0$.

Let $N(\varphi)$ be the number of patterns with the same profile φ and Φ^n be the set of all distinct profiles of sequences of length n. It was shown in [14] that the probability estimator for $\overline{\psi} \in \Psi^n$,

$$q(\overline{\psi}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{|\Phi^n|} \frac{1}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}))},$$

which assigns equal probability estimate to all profiles and equal estimate to all patterns within a profile, is a good estimate for pattern maximum likelihood, *i.e.*, $q(\overline{\psi}) \ge \hat{p}(\overline{\psi}) \exp(-\pi \sqrt{2n/3})$.

We consider a similar estimator for maximum likelihood of joint patterns. Namely, denoting the number of joint patterns with the same profile φ by $N(\varphi)$ and the set of all distinct profiles of length-(n, n) sequences by $\Phi^{n,n}$, we estimate the probability of a joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Psi^{n,n}$ as

$$q_{\rm jp}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \stackrel{\rm def}{=} \frac{1}{|\Phi^{n,n}|} \frac{1}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2))}$$

We use the estimators q and $q_{\rm jp}$ instead of the pattern maximum likelihoods in $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ and consider the test $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{N(\varphi)}$ defined for $\delta < \exp(-14n^{2/3})$ and $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n$ by

$$\Delta_{n,\delta}^{N(\varphi)}(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2) \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} egin{cases} \mathtt{diff} & \mathrm{if} \; rac{N(arphi(\overline{x}_1\overline{x}_2))}{N(arphi(\overline{x}_1,\overline{x}_2))} > rac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}, \\ \mathtt{\textit{same}} & \mathrm{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Our second main result, Theorem 12, shows that (p_1, p_2) are identical and when they are (n, δ) -different, the test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$ error probability is upper bounded by

$$P_{\text{e,sym}}(\Delta^{N(\varphi)}, p_1, p_2) \le \sqrt{\delta} \exp(7n^{2/3}).$$

In the process, we show a convexity result for profile probabilities, that resembles the convexity of KL-divergence.

For $\varphi \in \Phi^n$, $N(\varphi)$ can be calculated by the expressions [14]

$$N(\varphi) = \frac{n!}{\prod_{\mu=1}^{n} (\mu!)^{\varphi_{\mu}} \varphi_{\mu}!}.$$

As shown in Appendix B, for $\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}$,

$$N(\varphi) = \frac{(n!)^2}{\prod_{\mu_1,\mu_2}^n (\mu_1!\mu_2!)^{\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}}\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}!},$$

Hence, for $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Psi^{n,n}$, the quantity $\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2))}$ can be evaluated efficiently with time and space complexity both $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Consider Example 1 again, this time using the test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$. When $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim (p_1, p_2)$ and $\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = (\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = (1^n, 1^{\frac{n}{2}} 23 \cdots (\frac{n}{2} + 1))$, the profile $\varphi = \varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$ has $\varphi_{0,1} = \frac{n}{2}$, $\varphi_{n,\frac{n}{2}} = 1$ and all other $\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2} = 0$. And the profile $\varphi' = \varphi(\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2)$ has $\varphi'_1 = \frac{n}{2}$, $\varphi'_{\frac{3n}{2}} = 1$ and all other $\varphi'_{\mu} = 0$. Hence, by Stirling approximation,

$$\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2))} = N(\varphi')/N(\varphi) = \frac{(2n)!}{(\frac{3n}{2})! \cdot (\frac{n}{2})!} \Big/ \frac{(n!)^2}{n!(\frac{n}{2})! \cdot (\frac{n}{2})!} \approx \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{\frac{3}{2n}} > 1.53^n,$$

and the test $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{N(\varphi)}$ outputs *diff* for a suitable δ as in the case of $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$, say $\delta = \exp(-16n^{2/3})$. When $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim (p_2, p_2)$, and $\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = (\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = (1^{\frac{n}{2}}23 \cdots a_{\frac{n}{2}+1}, 1^{\frac{n}{2}}(\frac{n}{2}+2) \cdots (n+1))$,

$$\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1\overline{X}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2))} = \frac{(2n)!}{n!n!} \Big/ \frac{(n!)^2}{\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)!\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)! \cdot \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)!} \approx \frac{\sqrt{\pi n}}{2}$$

and the output of $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{N(\varphi)}$ is same for $\delta = \exp(-16n^{2/3})$.

While the error probability results that we show for the tests $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{N(\varphi)}$ and $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ are useful only when $\delta < \exp(-14n^{2/3})$, for higher values of δ , we can characterize their performance in terms of *sample complexity*. Corollary 14 shows that if (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different for some $\delta < \frac{1}{4}$, then for $\delta' = \delta^2 \exp(-14n'^{2/3})$, the test $\Delta_{n',\delta'}^{N(\varphi)}$ also has error probability less than δ when given sequences of length

$$n' = \max\left\{19n, \frac{120000n^3}{(\log_2 \frac{1}{4\delta})^3}\right\}.$$

In particular, if $\delta < \exp(-19n^{2/3})$, the error probability of $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$ is less than δ when given n' = 19n samples.

2. Error analysis of the test $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$

In order to analyze the error probability of $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$, we show some ancillary results on profiles of joint patterns and their probabilities.

We begin by showing that $|\Phi^{n,n}|$, the number of profiles of joint patterns, is subexponential in the sequence length. To count the number of profiles $|\Phi^{n_1,n_2,\ldots,n_d}|$, we relate it to partitions of (n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_d) . We say that a multiset of d-tuples of nonnegative integers $\{(\mu_{1,i}, \mu_{2,i}, \ldots, \mu_{d,i})\}_{i=1}^m$ is an (unordered) partition of (n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_d) if $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_{j,i} = n_j$ for $j = 1, 2, \ldots, d$. The sum of two d-tuples denotes their component-wise sum, *i.e.*, $(\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_d) + (\mu'_1, \mu'_2, \ldots, \mu'_d) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mu_1 + \mu'_1, \mu_2 + \mu'_2, \ldots, \mu_d + \mu'_d)$. The product of a scalar with a d-tuple is component-wise product with the scalar, *i.e.*, $\alpha \cdot (\mu_1, \mu_2, \ldots, \mu_d) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\alpha \cdot \mu_1, \alpha \cdot \mu_2, \ldots, \alpha \cdot \mu_d)$. For example, $\{(0, 1), (0, 1), (2, 1)\}$ is an unordered partition of (2, 3), because $2 \cdot (0, 1) + (2, 1) = (2, 3)$.

We denote the number of partitions of $(n_1, n_2, ..., n_d)$ by the *joint partition function* $P(n_1, n_2, ..., n_d)$. For example, P(2, 1) = 4, since

$$(2,1) = (1,0) + (1,1) = (2,0) + (0,1) = 2 \cdot (1,0) + (0,1).$$

Observation 1 For all $d \ge 1$ and non-negative integers n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_d ,

$$|\Phi^{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d}| = P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d).$$

It is a well known result due to Hardy and Ramanujan [8, 9] that for all n, the partition function P(n) is bounded as

$$\exp\left(\pi\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\sqrt{n}(1-o(1))\right) \le P(n) < \exp\left(\pi\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\sqrt{n}\right).$$

The following lemma shows an upper bound on $P(n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_d)$, similar to [20, 6].

Lemma 2 For all $d \ge 1$ and all $n_1, n_2, ..., n_d \ge 2^{d+1}$,

$$P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d) \le \exp\left(2\left(1 + \frac{1}{d}\right)\sum_{j=1}^d n_j^{d/(d+1)}\right).$$

Proof See for example Appendix A.

Corollary 3 For all $d \ge 1$ and $n \ge 2^{d+1}$,

$$|\Phi^{n,n,\dots (d \text{ times})}| = P(\underbrace{n,\dots n}_{d}) < \exp\left(2(d+1)n^{d/(d+1)}\right).$$

Let $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^{n_1} \times \mathcal{A}^{n_2}$ be generated *i.i.d.* and independently according to (p_1, p_2) respectively. The probability of a profile $\varphi \in \Phi^{n_1, n_2}$ under (p_1, p_2) is the probability of observing a pair of sequences with that profile, *i.e.*,

$$p_{1,2}(\varphi) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p_{1,2}\Big(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) = \varphi\Big) = \sum_{(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2): \varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = \varphi} p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2).$$

Joint patterns with the same profile have the same probability when the sequences are generated by *i.i.d.* distributions. Hence, for all $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$,

$$p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)) = N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)) \cdot p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2).$$

The following lemma provides a simple bound on the probability of generating sequences whose profile has low probability.

Observation 4 Let $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^{n_1} \times \mathcal{A}^{n_2}$ be generated i.i.d. according to (p_1, p_2) respectively, where $n_1, n_2, \geq 8$. Then, for all $0 < \delta \leq 1$,

$$\Pr\left(p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2)) < \delta\right) < \delta \exp\left(3(n_1^{2/3} + n_2^{2/3})\right).$$

Proof From Lemma 15,

$$\Pr\left(p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) < \delta\right) = \sum_{\varphi: p_{1,2}(\varphi) < \delta} p_{1,2}(\varphi) < |\Phi^{n_1, n_2}| \cdot \delta \le \delta \exp\left(3(n_1^{2/3} + n_2^{2/3})\right).$$

Observation 5 Let $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n$ be generated i.i.d. according to (p_1, p_2) , where $n \geq 8$. Then, for all $0 < \delta \leq 1$,

$$\Pr\left(p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) < \delta\right) < \delta \exp(6n^{2/3}).$$

We make the following observation on (n, δ) -different distributions before we proceed to analyze the error probability of $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$.

Observation 6 Let (p_1, p_2) be (n, δ) -different distributions over \mathcal{A} , and let $\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}$ be a profile such that $p_{1,2}(\varphi) \geq \delta$. Then, for all distributions p_3 over \mathcal{A} , $p_{3,3}(\varphi) < \delta$.

Proof Suppose on the contrary, there exists a distribution p_3 such that $p_{3,3}(\varphi) \ge \delta$. Any symmetric test Δ labels all sequence pairs with profile φ either *same* or *diff*. If it labels them *same*, then $P_e^n(\Delta, p_1, p_2) \ge \delta$ and if it labels them *diff*, then $P_e^n(\Delta, p_3, p_3) \ge \delta$, *i.e.*, one of the error probabilities is $\ge \delta$, which contradicts the fact that (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different.

The following theorem upper bounds the error probability of the test $\Delta_{n,\delta}^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$.

Theorem 7 For all $n \ge 8$, all $0 < \delta < \exp(-12n^{2/3})$, and all pairs distributions (p_1, p_2) that are either same or (n, δ) -different,

$$P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta_{n,\delta}^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}, p_{1}, p_{2}) < \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3}).$$

Proof Let $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim p_1^n \times p_2^n$. Consider the case when the (p_1, p_2) are same, *i.e.*, $p_1 = p_2$. Then,

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)},p_{1},p_{1}) &= \Pr\left(\frac{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))}{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{a})}{=} \Pr\left(\frac{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))}{p_{3,3}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{b})}{=} \Pr\left(\frac{\hat{p}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))}{p_{3,3}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{c})}{\leq} \Pr\left(\frac{1}{p_{1,1}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1},\overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{d})}{\leqslant} \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3}), \end{split}$$

where in (a), $p_3 = \arg \max_p p(\Psi(\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2))$ and in (b), we convert pattern probabilities to profile probabilities by multiplying and dividing by $N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))$ and using $p(\varphi) = N(\varphi)p(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$. For (c), we use that $\hat{p}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) \leq 1$ and we use Observation 5 for (d).

Now consider the case when (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different. For a sequence pair $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)$, let $p_3 = \arg \max_p p(\Psi(\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2))$. Then,

$$\Pr\left(\frac{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \le \Pr\left(\frac{p_{1,2}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{p_{3,3}(\Psi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right)$$
$$= \Pr\left(\frac{p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{p_{3,3}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right)$$
$$< \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3}).$$

For the last step, in the case when $p_{1,2}(\varphi) \geq \sqrt{\delta}$, there is no error since Observation 6 implies that for all p_3 , $p_{3,3}(\varphi) < \delta$ and hence $\frac{p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2))}{p_{3,3}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1,\overline{X}_2))} > \frac{\sqrt{\delta}}{\delta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}$. Hence, the error probability is bounded by the probability of the case when $p_{1,2}(\varphi) < \sqrt{\delta}$, which by Observation 5 is $<\sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3})$.

3. Error analysis of the test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$

As mentioned in Section 1, direct computation of maximum likelihood of patterns in the test $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ may be difficult and hence we look at a computationally easier test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$. We now show a few more useful results for analyzing the error probability of $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$, which relate the quantities $N(\varphi)$, the number of patterns in a profile and $\hat{P}(\varphi)$, the maximum likelihood of the profile under *i.i.d.* distributions.

The type of a sequence $\overline{x} \in \mathcal{A}^n$ is the vector of multiplicities $\tau(\overline{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mu(a_1), \mu(a_2), \dots, \mu(a_k))$, where $\mu(a_i)$ is the number of appearances of a_i in \overline{x} for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. Similarly, the joint type* of a pair of sequences $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \in \mathcal{A}^{n_1} \times \mathcal{A}^{n_2}$ is the vector of multiplicity

^{*.} This definition of joint type is different from that used in the *method of types* in information theory.

pairs $\tau(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} ((\mu_1(a_1), \mu_2(a_1)), (\mu_1(a_2), \mu_2(a_2)), \dots, (\mu_1(a_k), \mu_2(a_k))))$, where $\mu_1(a_i)$ and $\mu_2(a_i)$ are the number of appearances of a_i in \overline{x}_1 and \overline{x}_2 for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. The set of all possible distinct types of sequences in \mathcal{A}^n is denoted by \mathcal{T}^n and the set of all possible distinct joint types of sequences in $\mathcal{A}^{n_1} \times \mathcal{A}^{n_2}$ is denoted by \mathcal{T}^{n_1, n_2} .

The probability of a type $\tau = (\mu(a_i))_{i=1}^k \in \mathcal{T}^n$ under a distribution p over \mathcal{A} is

$$p(\tau) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\tau(\overline{x})=\tau} p(\overline{x}) = \binom{n}{\mu(a_1), \mu(a_2), \cdots, \mu(a_k)} \prod_{i=1}^k p(a_i)^{\mu(a_i)},$$

i.e., the probability of observing a sequence whose type is τ . Similarly, the probability of a joint type $\tau = \left((\mu_1(a_i), \mu_2(a_i)) \right)_{i=1}^k \in \mathcal{T}^{n_1, n_2}$ under a pair of distributions (p_1, p_2) over \mathcal{A} is

$$p_{1,2}(\tau) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\tau(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) = \tau} p_{1,2}(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$$
$$= \binom{n_1}{\mu_1(a_1), \ \mu_1(a_2), \ \cdots, \ \mu_1(a_k)} \binom{n_2}{\mu_2(a_1), \ \mu_2(a_2), \ \cdots, \ \mu_2(a_k)} \prod_{i=1}^k p_1(a_i)^{\mu_1(a_i)} p_2(a_i)^{\mu_2(a_i)}.$$

The sum type of a joint type $\tau = \left((\mu_1(a_i), \mu_2(a_i)) \right)_{i=1}^k \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}$ is $\tau_s(\tau) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\mu(a_i))_{i=1}^k \in \mathcal{T}^{2n}$, where $\mu(a_i) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mu_1(a_i) + \mu_2(a_i)$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$. The probability of a (sum) type $\tau' \in \mathcal{T}^{2n}$ under a pair of distributions $p_{1,2} = (p_1, p_2)$ is the probability of the set of all types $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}$ such that $\tau_s(\tau) = \tau'$, *i.e.*,

$$p_{1,2}(\tau') \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\substack{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}:\\\tau_s(\tau) = \tau'}} p_{1,2}(\tau).$$

For any pair of distributions (p_1, p_2) over $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{A}$, $p_{1/2} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (p_1 + p_2)/2$ denotes the distribution over \mathcal{A} such that $p_{1/2}(a_i) = (p_1(a_i) + p_2(a_i))/2$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$.

Observation 8 For all types $\tau' \in \mathcal{T}^{2n}$ and all (p_1, p_2) ,

$$\sum_{\substack{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}:\\\tau_s(\tau)=\tau'}} p_{1,2}(\tau) = p_{1,2}(\tau') \leq p_{1/2}(\tau') \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} < p_{1/2}(\tau') \sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Proof} \quad \text{Let } \tau' &= \left(\mu(a_i)\right)_{i=1}^{\kappa}. \text{ Then,} \\ p_{1,2}(\tau') &= \sum_{\substack{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}:\\ \tau_s(\tau) = \tau'}} p_{1,2}(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1(a_1), \dots, \mu_1(a_k)):\\ 0 \leq \mu_1(a_i) \leq \mu(a_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k,\\ \text{ and } \mu_1(a_1) + \dots + \mu_1(a_k) = n} n! n! \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{\mu_1(a_i)!(\mu(a_i) - \mu_1(a_i))!} p_1(a_i)^{\mu_1(a_i)} p_2(a_i)^{\mu(a_i) - \mu_1(a_i)} \\ &= \frac{n! n!}{\prod_{i=1}^k \mu(a_i)!} \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1(a_1), \dots, \mu_1(a_k)):\\ 0 \leq \mu_1(a_i) \leq \mu(a_i) \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, k,\\ \text{ and } \mu_1(a_1) + \dots + \mu_1(a_k) = n}} \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{\mu(a_i)}{\mu_1(a_i)} p_1(a_i)^{\mu_1(a_i)} p_2(a_i)^{\mu(a_i) - \mu_1(a_i)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq \frac{n!n!}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} \mu(a_i)!} \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1(a_1),\dots,\mu_1(a_k)):\\0 \leq \mu_1(a_i) \leq \mu(a_i) \text{ for } i=1,\dots,k}} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \binom{\mu(a_i)}{\mu_1(a_i)} p_1(a_i)^{\mu_1(a_i)} p_2(a_i)^{\mu(a_i)-\mu_1(a_i)}$$

$$= \frac{n!n!}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} \mu(a_i)!} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(\sum_{\mu_1(a_i)=0}^{\mu(a_i)} \binom{\mu(a_i)}{\mu_1(a_i)} p_1(a_i)^{\mu_1(a_i)} p_2(a_i)^{\mu(a_i)-\mu_1(a_i)} \right)$$

$$= \frac{n!n!}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} \mu(a_i)!} \prod_{i=1}^{k} (p_1(a_i) + p_2(a_i))^{\mu(a_i)}$$

$$= \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} \binom{2n}{\mu(a_1),\mu(a_2),\dots,\mu(a_k)} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \left(\frac{p_1(a_i) + p_2(a_i)}{2} \right)^{\mu(a_i)}$$

$$= \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} p_{1/2}(\tau').$$

The profile of a type $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^n$ is $\varphi(\tau) = \varphi(\overline{x})$, where \overline{x} is any sequence whose type is $\tau(\overline{x}) = \tau$. Similarly, for any $\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n_1,n_2}$, $\varphi(\tau) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$, where $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$ is any sequence pair such that $\tau(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) = \tau$.

Observation 9 For all profiles $\varphi \in \Phi^n$ and all distributions p,

$$p(\varphi) = \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^n: \varphi(\tau) = \varphi} p(\tau)$$

Likewise, for all profiles $\varphi \in \Phi^{n_1,n_2}$ and all pairs of distributions (p_1,p_2) ,

$$p_{1,2}(\varphi) = \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n_1, n_2}: \varphi(\tau) = \varphi} p_{1,2}(\tau).$$

The sum profile of a profile $\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}$ is $\varphi_s(\varphi) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi(\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Phi^{2n}$ where $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$ is any joint pattern having profile $\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = \varphi$. Hence, if $\varphi = [\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}]$, where $\mu_1 = 0, 1, \ldots, n$ and $\mu_2 = 0, 1, \ldots, n$, then $\varphi_s(\varphi) = (\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \ldots, \varphi_{2n})$ is given by $\varphi_\mu = \sum_{\mu_1 + \mu_2 = \mu} \varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}$. The probability of a (sum) profile $\varphi' \in \Phi^{2n}$ under a pair of distributions $p_{1,2}$ is the probability $p_{1,2}$ assigns to the set of all profiles $\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}$ such that $\varphi_s(\varphi) = \varphi'$, *i.e.*,

$$p_{1,2}(\varphi') \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}:\\\varphi_s(\varphi) = \varphi'}} p_{1,2}(\varphi).$$

The following lemma on profile probabilities is analogous to the convexity of KLdivergence.

Lemma 10 For all $\varphi' \in \Phi^{2n}$ and all (p_1, p_2) ,

$$\sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}:\\\varphi_s(\varphi) = \varphi'}} p_{1,2}(\varphi) = p_{1,2}(\varphi') \leq p_{1/2}(\varphi') \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{2n!} < p_{1/2}(\varphi') \sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}$$

Proof Using Observations 8 and 9,

$$p_{1,2}(\varphi') = \sum_{\substack{\varphi \in \Phi^{n,n}:\\\varphi_s(\varphi) = \varphi'}} p_{1,2}(\varphi)$$

=
$$\sum_{\substack{\tau \in \mathcal{T}^{n,n}:\\\varphi_s(\varphi(\tau)) = \varphi(\tau_s(\tau)) = \varphi'\\\varphi(\tau') = \varphi'}} p_{1,2}(\tau)$$

=
$$\sum_{\substack{\tau' \in \mathcal{T}^{2n}:\\\varphi(\tau') = \varphi'}} \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} p_{1/2}(\tau')$$

=
$$p_{1/2}(\varphi') \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!}.$$

The following Lemma 11 relates the ratio of maximum likelihoods of any joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$ and its concatenated pattern $\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2$ which appear in the test $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$, to the ratio of counts of patterns in their respective profiles, *i.e.*, $N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2))$ and $N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2))$ that appear in the test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$.

Lemma 11 For all joint patterns $(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) \in \Psi^{n,n}$,

$$\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))} \ \ge \ \frac{\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)}{\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)} \frac{(2n)!}{(n!)^2 2^{2n}} \ > \ \frac{\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)}{\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}.$$

Proof Let $p_{1,2} = (p_1, p_2)$ be such that $\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2) = p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)$. Note that $\varphi_s(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1, \overline{\psi}_2)) = \varphi(\overline{\psi}_1 \overline{\psi}_2)$. Using Lemma 10, we have

$$\begin{split} N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))\hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2) &= N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))p_{1,2}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2) \\ &= p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)) \\ &\leq p_{1,2}(\varphi_s(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))) \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\ &\leq p_{1/2}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)) \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\ &\leq \hat{p}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)) \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\ &\leq \hat{p}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)) \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!} \\ &= N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)) \hat{p}(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2) \frac{(n!)^2 2^{2n}}{(2n)!}. \end{split}$$

Theorem 12 For all $n \ge 8$, all $0 < \delta < \frac{1}{4\pi ne^{1/3n}} \exp(-12n^{2/3})$, and all pairs distributions (p_1, p_2) that are either same or (n, δ) -different,

$$P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta^{N(\varphi)}, p_{1}, p_{2}) < \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3}) \sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}.$$

Proof Let $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2) \sim p_1^n \times p_2^n$. Consider the case when $p_1 = p_2$. Then,

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta^{N(\varphi)}, p_{1}, p_{1}) &= \Pr\left(\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}\overline{X}_{2}))}{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{a})}{=} \Pr\left(\frac{p_{1}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}\overline{X}_{2}))}{p_{1,1}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\leq \Pr\left(\frac{1}{p_{1,1}(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))} > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &< \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3}), \end{split}$$

where in (a), we used $\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))} = \frac{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2))p_1(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2)}{N(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)p_{1,1}(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))} = \frac{p_1(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2))}{p_{1,1}(\varphi(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2))}$ and the last inequality is due to Observation 5.

Consider the case when (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different. For a sequence pair $(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)$, let $p_3 = \arg \max_p p(\Psi(\overline{X}_1 \overline{X}_2))$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta^{N(\varphi)}, p_{1}, p_{2}) &= \Pr\left(\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}\overline{X}_{2}))}{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\stackrel{(\mathrm{a})}{\leq} \Pr\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}}\frac{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))}{\hat{p}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1}\overline{X}_{2}))} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &\leq \Pr\left(\frac{p_{1,2}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1}, \overline{X}_{2}))}{p_{3,3}(\Psi(\overline{X}_{1}\overline{X}_{2}))} \leq \frac{\sqrt{\pi n e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}}{\sqrt{\delta}}\right) \\ &< \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3})\sqrt{\pi n e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}, \end{aligned}$$

where in (a), we used Lemma 11 For the last inequality, we again consider the cases $p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) \geq \sqrt{\delta}\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}$ and $<\sqrt{\delta}\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}$ separately similar to the proof of Theorem 12. In the case when $p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) \geq \sqrt{\delta}\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}} > \delta$, Observation 6 implies $p_{3,3}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) < \delta$. Hence, $\frac{p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{p_{3,3}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))} > \frac{\sqrt{\delta}\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}{\delta} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}}{\sqrt{\delta}}$ and hence, this case does not contribute to error probability. The error probability is therefore bounded by the probability of the other case, which by Observation 5 is bounded as $\Pr\left(p_{1,2}(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2)) < \sqrt{\delta}\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}\right) < \sqrt{\delta} \exp(6n^{2/3})\sqrt{\pi n} e^{\frac{1}{6n}}$.

4. Sample complexity of closeness testing

The error analysis results of Theorems 7 and 12 can be rephrased in terms of sample complexity. Also, Theorems 7 and 12 are applicable only when $\delta \leq \exp(-14n^{2/3})$, and this section partially addresses the general case when $\delta < \frac{1}{2}$.

Observation 13 If (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different distributions for some $0 < \delta < \frac{1}{2}$, then they are also (n', δ') -different, where

$$n' = \min\left\{20n, \frac{15000n^3}{D(\frac{1}{2}||\delta)^3}\right\} \text{ and } \delta' \le \delta^2 \exp(14n'^{2/3}),$$

where $D(\delta_1 || \delta_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \delta_1 \log \frac{\delta_1}{\delta_2} + (1 - \delta_1) \log \frac{1 - \delta_1}{1 - \delta_2}$.

Proof sketch Since (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different, for any p_3 there is a test that can distinguish (p_1, p_2) and (p_3, p_3) with error probability $< \delta$. We can obtain another test for sequences of length n' = (2r+1)n such that the error probability of this test is $\delta' = \sum_{i=r+1}^{2r+1} \delta^i {2r+1 \choose i} (1-\delta)^{2r+1-i}$ by using the original test on (2r+1) pairs of length-n sequences and outputting the majority decision. It can be verified that $(2r+1) \ge \min\{19, \frac{15000n^2}{D(\frac{1}{2}||\delta)^3}\}$ suffices to guarantee that $\sum_{i=r+1}^{2r+1} \delta^i {2r+1 \choose i} (1-\delta)^{2r+1-i} \le \delta^2 \exp(14((2r+1)n)^{2/3})$.

Corollary 14 If (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different distributions for some $0 < \delta < \frac{1}{4}$, then they are also (n', δ') -different where $\delta' \le \delta^2 \exp(14n'^{2/3})$ for $n' = \max\left\{19n, \frac{12000n^3}{(\log_2 \frac{1}{4\delta})^3}\right\}$. Furthermore if $\delta < \exp(-19n^{2/3})$, then n' = 19n suffices.

Hence, using Theorem 12 and Corollary 14, it follows that whenever (p_1, p_2) are identical or (n, δ) -different, the error probability of the test $\Delta_{n',\delta'}^{N(\varphi)}$ is less than δ , using sequences of length $n' = \max\left\{19n, \frac{12000n^3}{(\log_2 \frac{1}{4\delta})^3}\right\}$, where $\delta' = \delta^2 \exp(14n'^{2/3})$.

5. Related and open problems

For the problem of classification described in 1.3, our results imply that whenever the distributions of the classes, p_1 and p_2 , are (n, δ) -different, the closeness tests $\Delta^{\hat{P}(\Psi)}$ or $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$ can be used to construct classifiers whose error probability is $\leq \sqrt{\delta} \exp(7n^{2/3})$. We define two distributions (p_1, p_2) to be (n, δ) -classifiable if length-*n* sequence pairs generated by (p_1, p_2) can be distinguished with error probability $< \delta$ from those generated by (p_1, p_1) and (p_2, p_2) by a symmetric test. While (n, δ) -different implies (n, δ) -classifiable, it remains to answer if the opposite is also true.

As mentioned earlier, our results are applicable when the error probabilities $\delta \leq \exp(-14n^{2/3})$, and while we partially address the case of general $\delta < \frac{1}{2}$, and it remains to perform a better analysis. We also hope to reduce the subexponential factor of $\exp(7n^{2/3})$ in the right hand side of Theorems 7 and 12 using a tighter analysis.

Lastly, it remains to fully answer the question of when two distributions (p_1, p_2) are (n, δ) -different. In many cases such as Example 1, the quantity $\frac{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}{N(\varphi(\overline{X}_1, \overline{X}_2))}$ in the test $\Delta^{N(\varphi)}$ can be shown to be exponentially large in n with high probability, that implies (n, δ) -difference for a suitable δ . This question is also answered in part by [2] and [19] where distributions are parametrized in terms of alphabet size.

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Appendix A. Number of profiles of a given length

Lemma 15 For all $d \ge 1$ and all $n_1, n_2, ..., n_d \ge 2^{d+1}$,

$$P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d) \le \exp\left(2\left(1 + \frac{1}{d}\right)\sum_{j=1}^d n_j^{d/(d+1)}\right).$$

Proof The (ordinary) generating function of $P(n_1, n_2, ..., n_d)$ is

$$G(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) = \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2=0}^{\infty} \dots \sum_{n_d=0}^{\infty} P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d) x_1^{n_1} x_2^{n_2} \dots x_d^{n_d} = \prod_{\substack{(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_d) \\ \in \mathbb{N}^d \setminus (0, 0, \dots, 0)}} \frac{1}{1 - x_1^{\mu_1} x_2^{\mu_2} \dots x_d^{\mu_d}}$$

where $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ and $0 < x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d < 1$. Hence,

$$\begin{split} \log G(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) &= \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_d) \\ \in \mathbb{N}^d \setminus \{0, 0, \dots, 0\}}} -\log \left(1 - \prod_{j=1}^d x_j^{\mu_j}\right) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_d) \\ \in \mathbb{N}^d \setminus \{0, 0, \dots, 0\}}} \sum_{l=1}^\infty \frac{1}{l} \left(\prod_{j=1}^d x_j^{\mu_j}\right)^l \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^\infty \frac{1}{l} \sum_{\substack{(\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_d) \\ \in \mathbb{N}^d \setminus \{0, 0, \dots, 0\}}} \prod_{j=1}^d (x_j^l)^{\mu_j} \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^\infty \frac{1}{l} \left(\frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j^l)} - 1\right) \\ &= \sum_{l=1}^\infty \frac{1}{l} \frac{1 - \prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j^l)}{\prod_{j=1}^d \left((1 - x_j) \left(\sum_{l=0}^{l-1} x_j^l\right)\right)} \\ &< \sum_{l=1}^\infty \frac{1}{l} \frac{1 - \prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j^l)}{\left(\prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j)\right) \left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^{l-1} x_j^l\right)} \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{=} \frac{1}{\prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j)} \left(1 + \sum_{l=2}^\infty \frac{1}{l(l-1)}\right) \\ &= \frac{2}{\prod_{j=1}^d (1 - x_j)}. \end{split}$$

In the Inequality (a), we consider the cases l = 1 and l > 1 separately. When l > 1, in the denominator, $\left(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{d} \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} x_j^i\right) > (l-1) \sum_{j=1}^{d} x_j^i > (l-1) \left(1 - \prod_{j=1}^{d} (1-x_j^l)\right)$. Since $G(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) > P(n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_d) x^{n_1} x^{n_2} \cdots x^{n_d}$, we have

$$\log P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d) < \log G(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d) - \sum_{j=1}^d n_j \log x_j < \frac{2}{\prod_{j=1}^d (1-x_j)} - \sum_{j=1}^d n_j \log x_j.$$

Substituting $x_j = 1 - n_j^{-1/(d+1)}$ for j = 1, 2, ..., d, we get

$$\log P(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d) < 2 \prod_{j=1}^d n_j^{1/(d+1)} + \sum_{j=1}^d n_j \log \left(1 - n_j^{-1/(d+1)}\right) \le 2\left(1 + \frac{1}{d}\right) \sum_{j=1}^d n_j^{d/(d+1)}.$$

In the last step, we used AM-GM inequality, *i.e.*, $\prod_{j=1}^{d} n_j^{1/(d+1)} = (\prod_{j=1}^{d} n_j^{d/(d+1)})^{1/d} \leq \frac{1}{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} n_j^{d/(d+1)}$, and $\log(1-\epsilon) < 2\epsilon$ for $\epsilon \leq \frac{1}{2}$, hence $\log(1-n_j^{-1/(d+1)}) \leq 2n_j^{-1/(d+1)}$ for $n_j > 2^{d+1}$ and j = 1, 2, ..., d.

Appendix B. Number of patterns of a given profile

The number of joint patterns with the same profile φ is denoted by $N(\varphi)$. For example, consider the profile $\varphi = \varphi(1232, 13)$ which has $\varphi_{1,1} = 2$, $\varphi_{2,0} = 1$ and all other $\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2} = 0$. Then, $N(\varphi) = 12$ since the set of all joint patterns that have this profile is {(1123, 23), (1123, 32), (1213, 32), (1223, 13), (1223, 31), (1231, 23), (1231, 32), (1232, 13), (1232, 31), (1233, 13), (1233, 21)}. The following lemma gives an expression for $N(\varphi)$ and extends Lemma 3 in [14].

Lemma 16 For all $d \geq 1$ and all $\varphi \in \Phi^{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_d}$,

$$N(\varphi) = \frac{\prod_{j=1}^{d} n_d!}{\prod_{\mu_1=0}^{n_1} \prod_{\mu_2=0}^{n_2} \cdots \prod_{\mu_d=0}^{n_d} (\mu_1! \mu_2! \cdots \mu_d!)^{\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2,\dots,\mu_d}} \varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2,\dots,\mu_d}!}$$

Proof We show the lemma for d = 2, and the proof is similar for any $d \ge 1$. Let $\varphi \in \Phi^{n_1,n_2}$. Any joint pattern $(\overline{\psi}_1,\overline{\psi}_2)$ that has profile φ is a pair of sequences with symbols from $\{1,2,\ldots,m\}$, where $m = \sum_{\mu_1=0}^{n_1} \sum_{\mu_2=0}^{n_2} \varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}$ is the total number of symbols in $\overline{\psi}_1\overline{\psi}_2$. Let $\{\mu_1(i)\}_{i=1}^m$ and $\{\mu_2(i)\}_{i=1}^m$ be non-negative integers such that $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_1(i) = n_1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^m \mu_2(i) = n_2$. The number of sequence pairs whose alphabet is $\{1,2,\ldots,m\}$, and the number of appearances of i in first sequence is $\mu_1(i)$ and in second sequence is $\mu_2(i)$, for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, is

$$\binom{n_1}{\mu_1(1),\mu_1(2),\dots,\mu_1(m)}\binom{n_2}{\mu_2(1),\mu_2(2),\dots,\mu_2(m)} = \frac{n_1!n_2!}{\prod\limits_{i=1}^m \mu_1(i)!\mu_2(i)!}$$

The number of different ways of choosing $\{\mu_1(i)\}_{i=1}^m$ and $\{\mu_2(i)\}_{i=1}^m$ such it conforms to profile is φ is

$$\binom{m}{\varphi_{0,0}, \varphi_{0,1}, \dots, \varphi_{n_1,n_2}} = \frac{m!}{\prod_{\mu_1=0}^{n_1} \prod_{\mu_2=0}^{n_2} \varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}!}$$

Thus, the number of sequence pairs whose alphabet is $\{1, 2, ..., m\}$ and profile is φ is

$$N^{*}(\varphi) = \frac{n_{1}!n_{2}!}{\prod\limits_{i=1}^{m} \mu_{1}(i)!\mu_{2}(i)!} \frac{m!}{\prod\limits_{\mu_{1}=0}^{n_{1}} \prod\limits_{\mu_{2}=0}^{n_{2}} \varphi_{\mu_{1},\mu_{2}}!} = \frac{n_{1}!n_{2}!m!}{\prod\limits_{\mu_{1}=0}^{n_{1}} \prod\limits_{\mu_{2}=0}^{n_{2}} (\mu_{1}!\mu_{2}!)^{\varphi_{\mu_{1},\mu_{2}}}\varphi_{\mu_{1},\mu_{2}}!}$$

Clearly, $N^*(\varphi) = m! \cdot N(\varphi)$, since

- ≥: For each joint pattern having profile φ , the labels $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ can be permuted in m! ways to generate m! different sequence pairs whose alphabet is $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ and profile is φ . Furthermore, the sets of sequence pairs generated in this way by different joint patterns are disjoint. So $N^*(\varphi) \ge m! \cdot N(\varphi)$.
- \leq : Given any pair of sequences $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$ having alphabet $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ and profile φ , their symbols can be permuted keeping the positions same to obtain a joint pattern with profile φ , which is in fact $\Psi(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$. There are exactly m! sequence pairs having alphabet $\{1, 2, \ldots, m\}$ and profile φ that have the same joint pattern. Hence, $N^*(\varphi) \leq m! \cdot N(\varphi)$.

Thus,

$$N(\varphi) = \frac{N^*(\varphi)}{m!} = \frac{n_1!n_2!}{\prod_{\mu_1=0}^{n_1} \prod_{\mu_2=0}^{n_2} (\mu_1!\mu_2!)^{\varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}} \varphi_{\mu_1,\mu_2}!}.$$

Appendix C. Symmetric tests

We provide a formal treatment to the intuition that joint patterns of sequences contain sufficient information for the problem of closeness testing, similar to [4].

We define the symmetric error probability of a test Δ for (p_1, p_2) as its worst case error probability over all possible permutations of the alphabet, *i.e.*,

$$P_{\mathrm{e},\mathrm{sym}}^{n}(\Delta,p_{1},p_{2}) \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \max_{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}} P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\Delta,p_{1}^{\sigma},p_{2}^{\sigma}),$$

where $S_{\mathcal{A}}$ is the set of all permutations of \mathcal{A} . Clearly, since separation between distributions does not depend on the actual symbols, and depends only the probability multiset, it is appropriate to look at the symmetric error probability.

A symmetric test is a test whose output does not change when the alphabet is permuted and gives the same output for all sequence pairs which have the same joint pattern, *i.e.*, $\Delta(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) = \tilde{\Delta}(\Psi(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2))$ for all $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$, where $\tilde{\Delta} : \Psi^{n,n} \to \{\text{same}, \text{diff}\}$. Hence, a symmetric test depends only the joint pattern of the sequences. Note that for a symmetric test Δ , $P_{e,sym}(\Delta, p_1, p_2) = P_e(\Delta, p_1, p_2)$ for all distribution pairs (p_1, p_2) . The following observation shows that we may limit ourselves to considering only symmetric closeness tests.

Observation 17 Let $\Delta : \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n \to \{\text{same, diff}\}\$ be any test for closeness, possibly not symmetric. Then, there exists a symmetric test $\tilde{\Delta} : \mathcal{A}^n \times \mathcal{A}^n \to \{\text{same, diff}\}\$ such that for all pairs of distributions (p_1, p_2) over \mathcal{A} , $P_{e,sym}^n(\tilde{\Delta}, p_1, p_2) \leq 2 \cdot P_{e,sym}^n(\Delta, p_1, p_2)$.

Proof Let $\hat{\Delta}$ be the test whose output for a sequence pair is same as that made by Δ for the majority of sequence pairs with the same joint pattern, *i.e.*, $\tilde{\Delta}(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2) =$ majority $\{\Delta(\overline{x}'_1, \overline{x}'_2) : \Psi(\overline{x}'_1, \overline{x}'_2) = \Psi(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)\}$. Clearly, $P_{\rm e}^n(\tilde{\Delta}, p_{1,2}^{\sigma})$ is same for all permutations σ of \mathcal{A} . Thus, if p_1, p_2 are similar,

$$\begin{split} P_{\mathrm{e},\mathrm{sym}}^{n}(\tilde{\Delta},p_{1},p_{2}) &= P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\tilde{\Delta},p_{1},p_{2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!}\sum_{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}} P_{\mathrm{e}}^{n}(\tilde{\Delta},p_{1,2}^{\sigma}) \\ &= \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!}\sum_{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}} \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}):\\ \tilde{\Delta}(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}) = diff}} p_{1}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{1})p_{2}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{2}) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}):\\ \tilde{\Delta}(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}) = diff}} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!}\sum_{\substack{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}}} p_{1}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{1})p_{2}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{2}) \\ &\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} 2 \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}):\\ \Delta(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}) = diff}} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!}\sum_{\substack{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}}} p_{1}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{1})p_{2}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{2}) \\ &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!}\sum_{\substack{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}}} \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}):\\ \Delta(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}) = diff}} p_{1}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{1})p_{2}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{2}) \\ &\leq 2 \cdot \max_{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}} \sum_{\substack{(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}):\\ \Delta(\overline{x}_{1},\overline{x}_{2}) = diff}} p_{1}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{1})p_{2}^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_{2}) \\ &= 2 \cdot P_{\mathrm{e},\mathrm{sym}}^{n}(\Delta,p_{1},p_{2}), \end{split}$$

where in (a), we note that all $(\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2)$ having the same joint pattern have the same probability $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}|!} \sum_{\sigma \in S_{\mathcal{A}}} p_1^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_1) p_2^{\sigma}(\overline{x}_2)$. A similar argument can be shown for the case $p_1 \neq p_2$. \Box