

AOE 5984 Handout on Locally Most Powerful Hypothesis Tests

1. One-Sided Locally Most Powerful Test

Often in hypothesis testing one has alternate hypotheses of the form

$$H_0: \theta = 0$$

$$H_1: \theta > 0$$

where H_1 is considered true for any $\theta > 0$, not just for a single value, and there is no *a priori* distribution given for the possible values of $\theta > 0$ under hypothesis H_1 . Therefore, it is not possible to write down a specific probability density for the measurement z given H_1 , even though it is possible to write down a probability density for z given θ equal to any particular positive value, say $\theta_1 > 0$. This type of situation often occurs when the parameter θ is something like the returned signal strength of a radar reflection. If there is any returned strength, no matter how small, then there is an aircraft or a missile "out there", even though the absolute strength of the signal, θ , can vary with the type of object, its orientation, and its distance.

One attacks this type of problem by using a type of hypothesis test that is called a locally most powerful test. It is developed by first forming the optimal Neyman-Pearson test statistic under the assumption that hypothesis H_1 corresponds to a specific value $\theta = \theta_1$. This statistic takes the form

$$q(z, \theta_1) = \log \left[\frac{p(z | \theta = \theta_1)}{p(z | \theta = 0)} \right]$$

(actually, it is not necessary to take the natural logarithm, but it is often helpful to do so). The next step is to expand this function in a Taylor series in θ_1 :

$$q(z, \theta_1) = q(z, 0) + \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \Big|_{(z, 0)} \right] \theta_1 + \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial \theta_1^2} \Big|_{(z, 0)} \right] \theta_1^2 + O(\theta_1^3)$$

It is easy to show that $q(z, 0) = 0$. Therefore

$$q(z, \theta_1) = \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \Big|_{(z, 0)} \right] \theta_1 + \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial \theta_1^2} \Big|_{(z, 0)} \right] \theta_1^2 + O(\theta_1^3) \quad (1)$$

The locally most powerful test is the Neyman-Pearson test applied in the limit at $\theta_1 \rightarrow 0$. Thus, it minimizes the probability of a missed detection for a given probability of false alarm in the limit as $\theta_1 \rightarrow 0$. This is normally a very wise thing to do because the probability of a missed-detection is likely to be the highest when θ_1 is small because it is near the value that applies for hypothesis H_0 . This test will not be optimal when θ_1 is large; that is, it will not minimize the probability of a missed detection for a given probability of false alarm. This normally is not a

problem because the probability of a missed detection will be very low when θ_1 is large, even though it will not be the lowest that it could possibly be.

If the coefficient of the θ_1 term in the Taylor series expansion is non-zero, then the locally most powerful test takes the following form:

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \bigg|_{(z,0)} \right] \theta_1 \geq q_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

Unfortunately, this test still involves the unknown positive value of θ_1 . Therefore, both sides of the inequality are divided by θ_1 in order to yield the following locally most power test:

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } \beta(z) = \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \bigg|_{(z,0)} \right] \geq \frac{q_0}{\theta_1} = \beta_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

The condition on the derivative function $\beta(z)$ and its threshold value β_0 can be evaluated independent of the particular value of θ_1 that occurs. The threshold value is determined in the usual way. It must satisfy:

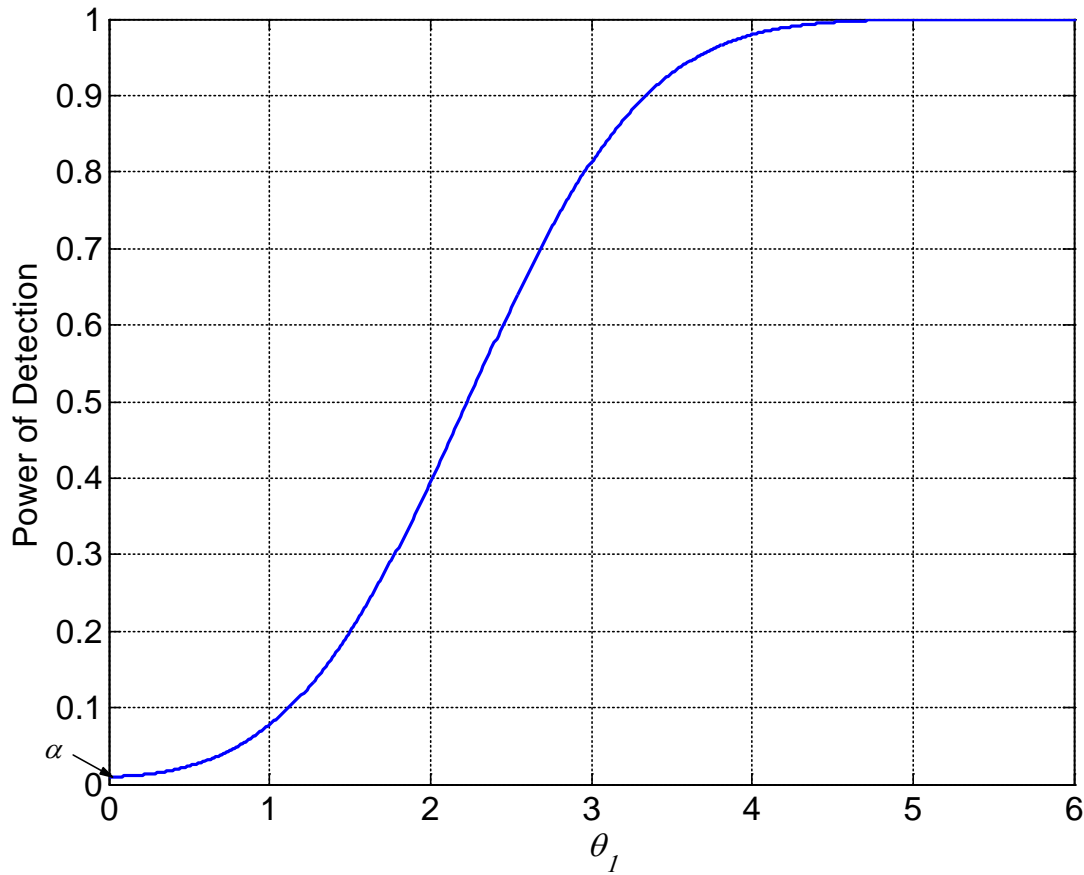
$$\alpha = P\{\beta \geq \beta_0 \mid H_0\} = \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid H_0) d\beta = \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid \theta = 0) d\beta \quad (2)$$

where α is the desired false alarm probability. The test is designed by picking a value for α and then solving this equation for β_0 . Note that the test statistic β is random because it depends on the measurement z , which has randomness that is caused by its measurement error. The probability density function $p(z|\theta=0)$ that models the randomness in z under hypothesis H_0 is used along with the formula for $\beta(z)$ in order to derive the probability density function $p(\beta|\theta=0)$ that is used in the above formula.

It is often interesting in these situations to compute the power of the test as a function of θ_1 . The power of the test is the probably of accepting hypothesis H_1 when $\theta = \theta_1 > 0$. This power function is computed as follows:

$$\text{Power}(\theta_1) = \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid \theta = \theta_1) d\beta \quad (3)$$

A typical plot of this function might look like the following:



It is easy to show that $Power(0) = \alpha$.

If the coefficient of the θ_1 term in the Taylor series expansion of $q(z, \theta_1)$ is identically zero for all z , then the locally most powerful test takes the alternative form:

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial \theta_1^2} \Big|_{(z,0)} \right] \theta_1^2 \geq q_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

This test can be translated into the following test on the second derivative of $q(z, \theta_1)$:

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } \gamma(z) = \left[\frac{\partial^2 q}{\partial \theta_1^2} \Big|_{(z,0)} \right] \geq \frac{2q_0}{\theta_1^2} = \gamma_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

One can perform all of the usual threshold and power-of-test calculations for this test by using the function $\gamma(z)$ and the threshold γ_0 in place of the function $\beta(z)$ and the threshold β_0 in Eqs. (2) and (3).

2. Two-Sided Locally Most Powerful Test

Suppose, now, that the H_1 hypotheses is altered so that the two hypotheses are:

$$H_0: \theta = 0$$

$$H_1: \theta \neq 0$$

It is still possible to define a locally most powerful test using similar techniques in this case, only now the test must consider the two possibilities $\theta_1 > 0$ and $\theta_1 < 0$. Equation (1) still applies as does the limiting Neyman-Pearson test

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \Big|_{(z,0)} \right] \theta_1 \geq q_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

The two sign possibilities for θ_1 force the following transformation of this test in order to eliminate its θ_1 dependence:

$$\text{Accept } H_1 \text{ if } |\beta(z)| = \left| \left[\frac{\partial q}{\partial \theta_1} \Big|_{(z,0)} \right] \right| \geq \frac{q_0}{|\theta_1|} = \beta_0; \text{ otherwise, accept } H_0.$$

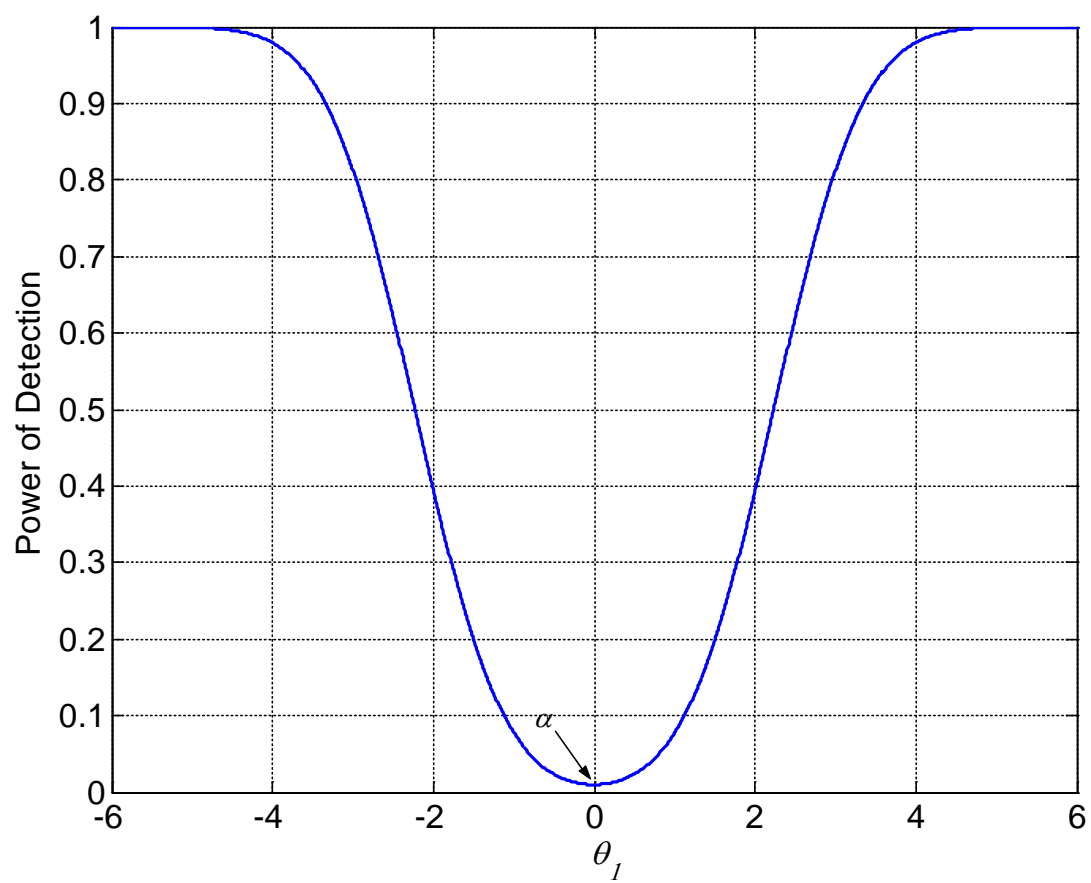
The threshold value β_0 is then evaluated by picking the false alarm probability α and solving the following equation for β_0 :

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha = P\{|\beta(z)| \geq \beta_0 \mid H_0\} &= \int_{-\infty}^{-\beta_0} p(\beta \mid H_0) d\beta + \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid H_0) d\beta \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{-\beta_0} p(\beta \mid \theta = 0) d\beta + \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid \theta = 0) d\beta \end{aligned}$$

The test's power as a function of θ_1 is determined by using the formula:

$$\text{Power}(\theta_1) = \int_{-\infty}^{-\beta_0} p(\beta \mid \theta = \theta_1) d\beta + \int_{\beta_0}^{\infty} p(\beta \mid \theta = \theta_1) d\beta$$

A typical plot of this two-sided power function looks like:



Again, it is easy to show that $Power(0) = \alpha$.