

# Recap $\Rightarrow$ LRTs for Simple Hypothesis

14<sup>th</sup> Feb' 2024

- $\hookrightarrow$  1-parameter Case
- $\hookrightarrow$  Multi-parameter Case

## Section 4.3 :- LRTs for Composite Hypothesis.

**Composite Hypothesis** : Reduces the # of unknown parameters, but not to zero.

i.e., at least one parameter unspecified.

i.e., any hypothesis that is not simple.

### Recall Ex 4.2.1 (Measurement Errors of Scale)

① Assume  $\sigma$  known,  $H_0: \mu = 226 \leftarrow$  Simple;  $D \sim \chi^2_{(1)}$

② Assume  $\sigma$  unknown,  $H_0: \mu = 226, \sigma = 1 \leftarrow$  Simple;  $D \sim \chi^2_{(2)}$

What if  $\sigma$  is known and we want to test  $H_0: \mu = 226$ ?

$$LRS: D = 2 \left[ \underbrace{\ell(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})}_{\text{Basic Model}} - \underbrace{\ell(\mu_0 = 226, \sigma_0)}_{\text{"Hypothesized Model"}}$$

Basic Model  
 $(\hat{\mu}, \hat{\sigma})$  joint MLE

"Hypothesized Model"  
Find the MLE of  $\sigma_0$  which is the MLE of  $\sigma$  under  $H_0$ .

LRS for testing Composite Hypothesis  $H_0$  is:

$$D = 2 \left[ \ell(\hat{\underline{\theta}}) - \ell(\tilde{\underline{\theta}}) \right],$$

where,  $\hat{\underline{\theta}}$  is the joint MLE of  $\underline{\theta}$ , and  $\tilde{\underline{\theta}}$  is joint MLE of  $\underline{\theta}$  under  $H_0$

Under  $H_0$  we have,  $D \approx \chi^2_{(k-q)}$

Where,  $K = \#$  of functionally independent unknown parameters in basic model.

$q = \#$  " " " " " " hypothesized model ( $H_0$ ) ,

In our composite for for  $C_X: 4.2.1$ ,  $K=2$ ,  $q=1$  so,

②  $\sim \chi^2_{(1)}$  still, but obs will be calculated differently.

↳ Let's look at the Example 4.2.3 of the Complete Lecture Notes.

Here,  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_7) \sim \text{multinomial}(63, p_1, \dots, p_7)$

Suppose,

$$H_0: \beta_1 \text{ unspecified}$$
$$p_2 = \dots = p_7 = p, \text{ otherwise}$$

It does not specify numerical values for every parameter in the model, since  $b$  is unknown.  $\therefore$  It is a Composite Hypo...

Under Basic, we found  $\hat{\beta}_i = x_i/n$ , for  $i=1(1)7$   
(see this w/o proof)

(use this w/o proof)

$$L(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_7) = \prod_{i=1}^7 p_i^{x_i}$$

$$J(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_7) = \sum_{i=1}^7 x_i \ln(p_i) \leftarrow \text{Sub in } p_i' \text{ for Basic model.}$$

Under  $H_0$ :  $l(p_1, p) = \alpha_1 \ln(p_1) + \sum_{i=2}^7 \alpha_i \ln(p_i)$

$$\left[ \sum_{i=1}^7 p_i = 1 \quad \text{H}_0 \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} p_1 + 6p &= 1 \\ \text{or, } p_1 &= 1 - 6p \end{aligned} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \ell(p) = x_1 \ln(1 - G(p)) + \sum_{i=2}^7 x_i \ln(p_i).$$

~~4/11/2019~~

$$\text{at } \tilde{p}, \quad l'_H = 0$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial l_H}{\partial \tilde{p}} \right|_{\tilde{p}} = \frac{-6x_1}{1-6\tilde{p}} + \frac{\sum_{i=2}^7 x_i / \tilde{p}}{1-6\tilde{p}} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sum_{i=2}^7 x_i}{\tilde{p}} = \frac{6x_1}{1-6\tilde{p}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{i=2}^7 x_i = 6n\tilde{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{p} = \frac{\sum_{i=2}^7 x_i / 6n}{1} = \frac{41}{6(63)} \approx 0.1085$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{p}_1 = 1 - 6\tilde{p} \approx 0.349$$

$$D_{\text{obs}} = 2 \left[ \sum_{i=1}^7 x_i \ln\left(\frac{x_i}{n}\right) - \left( x_1 \ln(\tilde{p}_1) + \sum_{i=2}^7 x_i \ln(\tilde{p}) \right) \right]$$

plug in  $x_i/n$ ,  $\tilde{p}_1$ ,  $\tilde{p}$ , and  $n$ , we get.

$$D_{\text{obs}} = 6.53$$

If,  $D \approx \chi^2_{(k-2)}$ , what is  $k$ ? what is  $2$ ?

$$\underline{k=6}, \quad 2=1$$

$$D \approx \chi^2_{(5)}, \quad p\text{-value} \approx P(\chi^2_{(5)} \geq 6.53) = 0.258$$

Conclusion! —

Expected frequencies under  $H_0$ :  $E(\tilde{x}_1) = n\tilde{p}_1 \approx 21.987$   
 $= 22$

$$i=1, 2, \dots, 7; \quad E(\tilde{x}_i) = n\tilde{p} \approx 6.835 \approx 6.8$$

We have no evidence against  $H_0$ , with a  $p$ -value of 0.258;  
 The data support the hypothesis that fatal heart attacks were  
 more likely to occur on Mondays for this cohort, and equally  
 likely to occur on the other days.

## ★ See Section 4.3.2 : Summary of LRT's.

A note about Degrees of freedom (dof) :

⇒ D.o.f represents the # of values in the calculation of a statistic that are free to vary. It is the number of components needed before a statistic is fully determined.

Because, we are assessing the "distance" between the hypothesized model from the basic model, we subtract the d.o.f of the former from the latter. In a sense, d.o.f measure/reflect the complexity of a model.

When  $k-q$  is big  $\Rightarrow$  Big reduction in complexity of model under  $H_0$ , i.e., we believe we can explain a phenomenon with a simpler model.

$k-q$  is small  $\Rightarrow$  Complexity isn't reduced by much  
(not necessarily a bad thing)

Of course, we don't to use simple models as statisticians, but you can imagine that over simplifying can lead to a bad model fit; see fractured plastics Ex: 2.2.1, (v.s) when we re-parameterized it with  $\lambda$  in Sec 3.1.

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