

University of California, Los Angeles  
Department of Statistics

Statistics 100B

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Hypothesis testing

- A hypothesis test is a claim about a parameter of a population.
- Given the data we want to make a decision about which of two hypothesis is true (or not true).
- The two hypotheses are called the “null” and “alternative” hypotheses (denoted with  $H_0$  and  $H_a$  respectively).
- The test has the following formulation:  
 $H_0 : \theta \in \Theta_0$   
 $H_a : \theta \in \Theta'_0$ , where  $\Theta'_0$  is the complement of  $\Theta_0$ .

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- Examples:
  1. Consider the simple regression model:  $y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i + \epsilon_i$ . We wish to test  
 $H_0 : \beta_1 = 0$  (the null hypothesis states that there is no association between the response  $y$  and the predictor  $x$ ).  
 $H_a : \beta_1 \neq 0$  (the alternative hypothesis states that there is a linear association between  $y$  and  $x$ ).
  2. Consider an experiment in which a patient is given a treatment (some drug) and we want to test if there is a difference between before and after administrating the drug. We wish to test  
 $H_0 : \mu_d = 0$  (the null hypothesis states that there is no difference).  
 $H_a : \mu_d \neq 0$  (the alternative hypothesis states that there is a difference).
  3. Consider an experiment where the goal is to see if on average there is a difference in the production of corn using different fertilizers. We wish to test  
 $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$  (the null hypothesis states that the production is the same under the different fertilizers (treatments)).  
 $H_a : \text{At least two means are not equal}$  (the alternative hypothesis states that there are differences).
  4. Test for the proportion of defective items at a certain production line:  
 $H_0 : p = p_0$   
 $H_a : p > p_0$ .

- We need to find and evaluate hypothesis tests.
- Find a procedure that will tell us for which sample values  $H_0$  is accepted (and therefore for which sample values  $H_0$  is rejected). These are called the acceptance region (accepts  $H_0$ ) and the rejection region (rejects  $H_0$ ).
- Usually the procedure of rejecting (or accepting) involves the so called test statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  which is a function of the data  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)'$ .
- Type I and Type II error

		ACTUAL SITUATION	
		$H_0$ IS TRUE	$H_0$ IS NOT TRUE
STATISTICAL DECISION	DO NOT REJECT $H_0$	Correct Decision $1 - \alpha$	Type II error $\beta$
	REJECT $H_0$	Type I Error $\alpha$	Correct Decision $1 - \beta$ (Power)

- Testing a simple hypothesis, i.e.  $H_0: \theta = \theta'$  against  $H_a: \theta = \theta''$ .

1. Best critical region of size  $\alpha$ .

Definition: Let  $R$  denote a subset of the sample space. Then  $R$  is called “best critical region of size  $\alpha$  for testing the simple hypothesis  $H_0: \theta = \theta'$  against  $H_a: \theta = \theta''$ ” if for every subset  $D$  of the sample space for which  $P[(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in D | H_0] = \alpha$  it is true that

- a.  $P[(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in R | H_0] = \alpha$ .
- b.  $P[(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in R | H_a] \geq P[(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in D | H_a]$ .

Explanation:

In general, there are many subsets  $D$  for which  $P[(X_1, \dots, X_n) \in D | H_0] = \alpha$ , but there is one of these subsets, denoted with  $R$ , such that the power of the test associated with  $R$  is larger than any other subset  $D$ .

2. Example:

Suppose  $X \sim b(5, p)$ . We want to test  $H_0: p = \frac{1}{2}$  against  $H_a: p = \frac{3}{4}$  using one random value of  $X$ . We list all the probabilities of  $b(5, \frac{1}{2})$  and  $b(5, \frac{3}{4})$  in the next table:

$x$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$P(X = x   p = \frac{1}{2})$	$\frac{1}{32}$	$\frac{5}{32}$	$\frac{10}{32}$	$\frac{10}{32}$	$\frac{5}{32}$	$\frac{1}{32}$
$P(X = x   p = \frac{3}{4})$	$\frac{1}{1024}$	$\frac{15}{1024}$	$\frac{90}{1024}$	$\frac{270}{1024}$	$\frac{405}{1024}$	$\frac{243}{1024}$

Suppose we decided to use  $\alpha = \frac{1}{32}$ . We want to find the best critical region of size  $\alpha = \frac{1}{32}$ . We observe that  $P(X = 0|p = \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{32}$  and  $P(X = 5|p = \frac{1}{2}) = \frac{1}{32}$ . Therefore, there are two subsets  $D_1(x = 0)$  and  $D_2(x = 5)$ , for which  $P(X \in D_1|H_0) = \frac{1}{32}$  and  $P(X \in D_2|H_0) = \frac{1}{32}$ . One of these subsets will be our best critical region. Which one of these two subsets has the largest power? We compute:  $P(X = 0|p = \frac{3}{4}) = \frac{1}{1024}$  and  $P(X = 5|p = \frac{3}{4}) = \frac{243}{1024}$ , therefore the best critical region of size  $\alpha = \frac{1}{32}$  is  $R = \{x = 5\}$ .

We also observe that the best critical region of size  $\alpha = \frac{1}{32}$  corresponds to the point in  $D$  for which  $\frac{P(X=x|p=\frac{1}{2})}{P(X=x|p=\frac{3}{4})}$  is the minimum. We see this in the next table where we compute the ratios  $\frac{P(X=x|p=\frac{1}{2})}{P(X=x|p=\frac{3}{4})}$ .

$x$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$P(X = x p = \frac{1}{2})$	$\frac{1}{32}$	$\frac{5}{32}$	$\frac{10}{32}$	$\frac{10}{32}$	$\frac{5}{32}$	$\frac{1}{32}$
$P(X = x p = \frac{3}{4})$	$\frac{1}{1024}$	$\frac{15}{1024}$	$\frac{90}{32}$	$\frac{270}{1024}$	$\frac{405}{1024}$	$\frac{243}{1024}$
$\frac{P(X=x p=\frac{1}{2})}{P(X=x p=\frac{3}{4})}$	32	$\frac{32}{3}$	$\frac{32}{9}$	$\frac{32}{27}$	$\frac{32}{81}$	$\frac{32}{243}$

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Another example. Suppose  $\alpha = \frac{6}{32}$ . Find the best critical region of size  $\alpha = \frac{6}{32}$ .

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3. Neyman-Pearson theorem:

Suppose  $X$  is a random variable and we need to decide whether the probability distribution is either  $f_0(x)$  or  $f_1(x)$ . For example, we may want to test that  $f_0(x)$  is  $N(18, 1)$  against the alternative that  $f_1(x)$  is  $N(28, 1)$ .

Let  $k$  be some positive number, and define the following two sets:

$$A = \left\{ x \mid \frac{f_0(x)}{f_1(x)} > k \right\}$$

and

$$R = \left\{ x \mid \frac{f_0(x)}{f_1(x)} < k \right\}$$

The Neyman-Pearson decision rule is the following:

If data  $x$  is in set  $A$ , then accept  $H_0$ .

If data  $x$  is in set  $R$ , then accept  $H_a$ .

Let  $\alpha$  be the probability of Type I error based on  $A$  and  $R$  above.

Therefore for the Neyman-Pearson Lemma we have:

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and

$$\alpha = \int_R f_0(x) dx \text{ and } 1 - \alpha = \int_A f_0(x) dx,$$

Suppose that there is a competitor test with acceptance region  $A^*$  and rejection region  $R^*$ , such that  $\alpha^* \leq \alpha$ .

Therefore for this competitor test we have:

$$\alpha^* = \int_{R^*} f_0(x) dx \text{ and } 1 - \alpha^* = \int_{A^*} f_0(x) dx,$$

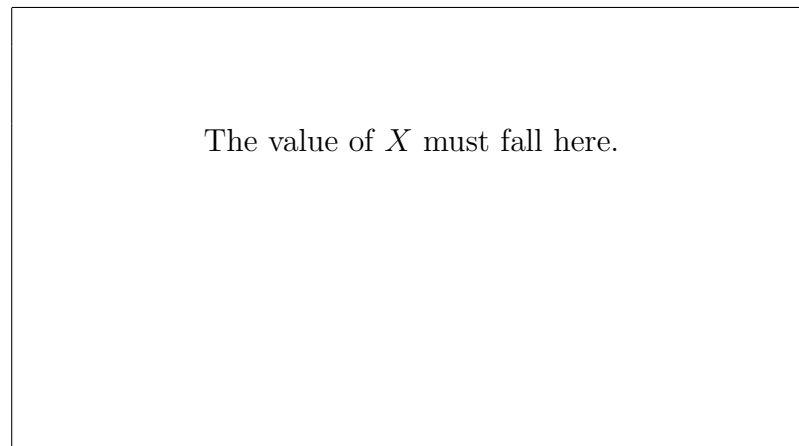
and

$$\beta^* = \int_{A^*} f_1(x) dx$$

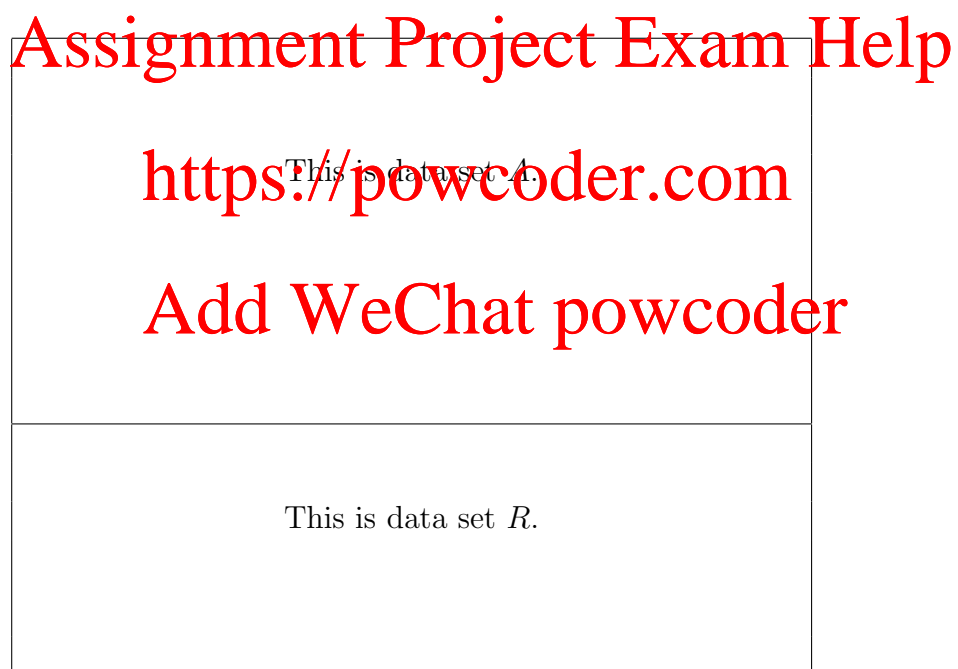
The Neyman-Pearson Lemma claims that this test is the best, in the sense that any other competitor test with Type I error  $\alpha^*$  such that  $\alpha^* \leq \alpha$  will have higher probability of Type II error. Therefore,  $\beta^* - \beta \geq 0$ .

Proof:

This is the entire data space:



This is the data space partitioned by the Neyman-Pearson Lemma:



This is the data space partitioned by the competitor test:

This is set $A^*$ .	This is set $R^*$ .
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This is the final picture showing the partitioned of the data space based on the two tests:

$A \cap A^*$	$A \cap R^*$
$R \cap A^*$	$R \cap R^*$

We need to calculate  $\beta^* - \beta$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \beta^* - \beta &= \int_{A^*} f_1(x) dx - \int_A f_1(x) dx \\
 &= \int_{(A^* \cap A) \cup (A^* \cap R)} f_1(x) dx - \int_{(A \cap A^*) \cup (A \cap R^*)} f_1(x) dx \\
 &= \int_{A^* \cap A} f_1(x) dx + \int_{A^* \cap R} f_1(x) dx - \left\{ \int_{A \cap A^*} f_1(x) dx + \int_{A \cap R^*} f_1(x) dx \right\} \\
 &= \int_{A^* \cap R} f_1(x) dx - \int_{A \cap R^*} f_1(x) dx.
 \end{aligned}$$

For the first integral  $\int_{A^* \cap R} f_1(x) dx$ , it should be true that  $\frac{f_0(x)}{f_1(x)} < k$  because it is done over the subset  $R$ . Therefore the integral will be smaller if we replace  $f_1(x)$  with  $\frac{f_0(x)}{k}$  since  $f_1(x) > \frac{f_0(x)}{k}$ .

For the second integral  $\int_{A \cap R^*} f_1(x) dx$ , it should be true that  $\frac{f_0(x)}{f_1(x)} > k$  because it is done over the subset  $A$ . Therefore the integral will be larger if we replace  $f_1(x)$  with  $\frac{f_0(x)}{k}$  since  $f_1(x) < \frac{f_0(x)}{k}$ .

These two changes above will give us:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta^* - \beta &\geq \int_{A^* \cap R} \frac{1}{k} f_0(x) dx - \int_{A \cap R^*} \frac{1}{k} f_0(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{k} \int_{A^* \cap R} f_0(x) dx - \frac{1}{k} \int_{A \cap R^*} f_0(x) dx.\end{aligned}$$

Now, add and subtract  $\frac{1}{k} \int_{A \cap A^*} f_0(x) dx$  to get:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta^* - \beta &\geq \frac{1}{k} \int_{A^* \cap R} f_0(x) dx + \frac{1}{k} \int_{A \cap A^*} f_0(x) dx \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{k} \int_{A \cap R^*} f_0(x) dx - \frac{1}{k} \int_{A \cap A^*} f_0(x) dx.\end{aligned}$$

Because,  $A^* = (A^* \cap A) \cup (A^* \cap R)$  and  $A = (A \cap A^*) \cup (A \cap R^*)$  we finally get:

$$\begin{aligned}\beta^* - \beta &\geq \frac{1}{k} \int_{A^*} f_0(x) dx - \frac{1}{k} \int_A f_0(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{k} (1 - \alpha) - \frac{1}{k} (1 - \alpha^*) \\ &\geq \frac{1}{k} (\alpha - \alpha^*) \geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the competitor test with equal or better Type I error probability must have larger Type II error probability.

#### 4. Neyman-Pearson theorem. Summary and examples:

Suppose we wish to test the simple hypothesis

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$$

against the alternative simple hypothesis

$$H_a : \theta = \theta_a.$$

As always, a sample of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is selected from a probability distribution with unknown parameter  $\theta$ . Let  $L(\theta_0)$  denote the likelihood function when  $\theta = \theta_0$  and  $L(\theta_a)$  denote the likelihood function when  $\theta = \theta_a$ . Then for a given significance level  $\alpha$ , the test that maximizes the power has a rejection region determined by  $\frac{L(\theta_0)}{L(\theta_a)} < k$ , where  $k$  is some constant. This test will be the most powerful test for testing  $H_0$  against  $H_a$ .

The previous result applies to simple hypotheses. Usually one of the two hypotheses is composite. For example:  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$   
against the alternative composite hypothesis

$$H_a : \theta > \theta_0.$$

We say that a test that is most powerful for every simple alternative in  $H_a$  is uniformly most powerful.

**Example 1:**

Let  $X$  be a single observation from the probability density function  $f(x) = \theta x^{\theta-1}, 0 < x < 1$ . Find the most powerful test using significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$  for testing

$$H_0 : \theta = 1$$

$$H_a : \theta = 2.$$

**Example 2:**

Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , with known  $\sigma^2$ . Find the uniformly most powerful test using significance level  $\alpha$  for testing

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$$

$$H_a : \mu > \mu_0$$

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**Example 3:**

Let  $X \sim \exp(\frac{1}{\lambda})$ . Therefore,  $f(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda}e^{-\frac{1}{\lambda}x}$ ,  $\lambda > 0, x > 0$ . Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from this distribution.

- a. Show that the best critical region for testing

$$H_0 : \lambda = 3$$

$$H_a : \lambda = 5$$

is based on  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$ .

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- b. If  $n = 12$  and using  $\frac{2}{\lambda} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \sim \chi_{24}^2$  find the best critical region when the significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

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**Example 4:**

Suppose  $X$  has the possible values 0,1,2,3,4. Suppose that the null hypothesis says that  $X$  is uniform on these integers, while the alternative hypothesis says that  $X \sim b(4, \frac{1}{2})$ . Let's see what happens if we let  $k$  of the Neyman-Pearson lemma be equal to 0.6. Complete the next table and find the best critical region when  $k = 0.6$  and compute the power of the test.

$x$	0	1	2	3	4
$P(X = x H_0)$					
$P(X = x H_a)$					
$\frac{P(X=x H_0)}{P(X=x H_a)}$					

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