Copyright © 2013, Anima Anandkumar

# CS/CNS/EE/IDS 165: Foundations in Machine Learning and Statistical Inference

# **Sufficient Statistics**

Anima Anandkumar

Computing and Mathematical Sciences
California Institute of Technology
anima@caltech.edu
Copyright ©2013

#### **Outline**

### **Concepts**

- Parametric statistical model.
- Statistics, sufficient statistics, and minimal sufficient statistics.
- Exponential families.

#### References

- 1. H.V. Poor, An Introduction to Signal Detection and Estimation, 2nd Ed., Springer-Verlag, 1994, Chapter IV.C.
- L. L. Scharf, Statistical Signal Processing: Detection, Estimation and Time Series Analysis, Addison-Wesley, Publishing Company, Inc., 1991, Chapter 3.
- 3. P.J. Bickel and K.A. Doksum, Mathematical Statistics: Basic Ideas and Selected Topics, Prentice Hall, 1977, Chapter 2.
- 4. T. S. Ferguson, Mathematical Statistics: A Decision Theoretic Approach, Academic Press, 1967, Chapter 3.3.
- 5. J. Shao, Mathematical Statistics, Springer-Verlag, 1999, Chap. 2.

# **Motivating Examples**

### Coin Flip

The experiment of flipping a coin with probability of showing head  $\theta$  can be modeled by pmfs indexed by  $\theta$ 

$$f(y|\theta) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \begin{cases} \theta & y=1\\ 1-\theta & y=0 \end{cases}, \quad \theta \in \Theta \stackrel{\Delta}{=} [0,1]$$

# Binary signaling in Gaussian noise

The transmission of  $\theta \in \{1, -1\}$  over an AWGN channel

$$Y = \theta + N, \quad N \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

with known  $\sigma^2$  can be modeled by pdfs indexed by  $\theta \in \{\pm 1\}$ 

$$f(y|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\{-\frac{(y-\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}\}, \quad \theta \in \Theta \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \{\pm 1\}$$

#### **Channel Estimation**

An unknown linear fading channel in Gaussian noise

$$Y_1 = \theta s_1 + N_1, \ Y_2 = \theta s_2 + N_2, \ N_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

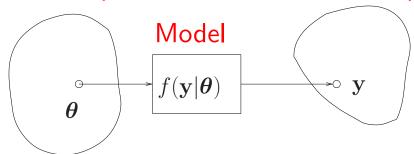
with known input  $s_1, s_2$  and  $\sigma^2$  can be modeled by

$$f(y_1, y_2 | \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\{-\frac{(y_1 - s_1\theta)^2 + (y_2 - s_2\theta)^2}{2\sigma^2}\}, \quad \theta \in \Theta \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \Re$$

### **Parametric Model**



Observation Space Γ



### Frequentist Model

The statistic model is defined by the probability density (or pmf) function  $f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  on the observation space  $\Gamma$  indexed by deterministic parameter  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \Theta$ . Note that  $f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is not the conditional PDF ( $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is deterministic); it is merely for notational convenience.

### **Bayesian Model**

If the parameter can be modeled as random with prior pdf  $\pi(\theta)$ , we then have a Bayesian model

$$f(\mathbf{y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

The posterior distribution of  $\Theta$  given observation y is

$$f(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{y}) = \frac{\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\int \pi(\mathbf{t})f(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{t})d\mathbf{t}}$$

### Statistics vs. Probability

In statistics, we are interested in inferring  $\theta$  after observing  $\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}$ . In probability, we are interested in deducing the chance of various outcomes without experiments.

# Frequentist vs. Bayesian

### Frequentist Viewpoint

- Probability is objective; it is connected to the physical world through the relative frequency of event occurrence.
- Parameters are deterministic and unknown; it does not make sense to calculate  $Pr(\theta \in X|Y = y)$ .
- Statistical procedures should have well-behaved long-run properties.

# **Bayesian Viewpoint**

- Probability is subjective; it merely describes the degree of a belief. ("tomorrow, 30% chance of snow).
- Even if  $\theta$  is deterministic, we can assign certain distribution of prior belief.
- The inference of a parameter is made based on the posterior distribution  $f(\theta|\mathbf{y})$ .

### Likelihood

#### **Likelihood Function**

Given the observation data Y = y, then the likelihood function of  $\theta$  is a function of the form

$$l(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \gamma(\mathbf{y}) f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

where  $\gamma(\mathbf{y})$  does not depend on  $\theta$ . A standard choice is when  $\gamma(\mathbf{y}) = 1$ .

- A likelihood function should be viewed as a function of parameter  $\theta$ , and it is not uniquely defined.
- Sometimes, it is more convenient to work with log-likelihood function

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) = \log f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}).$$

• The average log-likelihood function happens to be the entropy:

$$H_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{Y}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(-L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{Y})) = -\int f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) \log f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) d\mathbf{y}$$

Note that the connection between entropy and likelihood function is only valid when the expectation is taken using the same probability model that the observations are generated.

# **Example: Uniform Distribution**

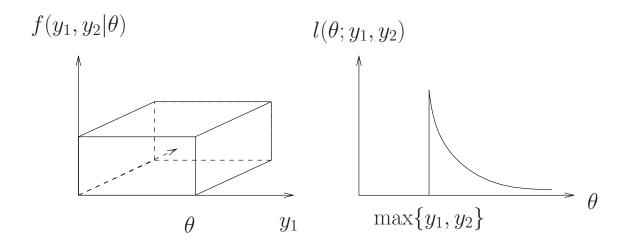
Consider N independent random samples  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{U}(0,\theta)$ . The parametric model is then given by the PDF

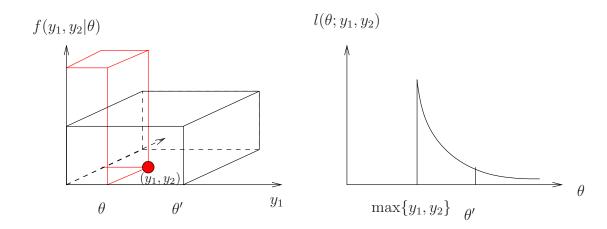
$$f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta^n} & \theta \ge \max\{y_i\} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The likelihood function  $l(\theta; \mathbf{y})$  defined

$$l(\theta; \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} f(\mathbf{y}|\theta)$$

has a very different look from the PDF.





# **Examples: The Gaussian Popoulation**

### **Independent Sampling**

Consider N independent random samples  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . With  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\mu, \sigma^2) \in \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{R}^+$ , the parametric model is then given by

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}^N} \exp\{-\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N y_i^2 - 2\mu \sum_{i=1}^N y_i + N\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\}$$

The likelihood function can be defined as

$$l(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) = \exp\{-N \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i^2 - 2\mu \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i + \mu^2 + 2\sigma^2 \ln \sigma}{2\sigma^2}\}$$

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) = -N \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i^2 - 2\mu \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i + \mu^2 + 2\sigma^2 \ln \sigma}{2\sigma^2}$$

$$l(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y})$$

$$\sigma^2$$

$$0$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i^2 - 2\mu \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i + \mu^2 + 2\sigma^2 \ln \sigma}{\mu}$$

#### Remark

- The likelihood function depends only on data summary  $(\sum_i y_i, \sum_i y_i^2)$ .
- What happens when  $N \to \infty$ ? By the law of large numbers, we have roughly

$$\frac{1}{N}L(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{y}) \to -\frac{1+2\ln\sigma^2}{2}$$

# **Example: Independent Bernoulli Trials**

#### The Model

Suppose that we conduct N independent Bernoulli trials with probability of success  $\Pr(Y_i=1)=\theta$ ,  $\Pr(Y_i=0)=1-\theta$ , and  $\theta\in\{\theta_1,\theta_2\}$ , and  $\theta_1\neq\theta_2$ . The parametric model is then given by

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \theta^{\sum y_i} (1 - \theta)^{N - \sum y_i}$$

#### Remarks

• Again, the model depends not on the entire y but only on a single number  $t(y) = \sum_i y_i$ —the total number of successes in N trials, *i.e.*, the model can be written as

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = g(t(\mathbf{y});\theta)$$

 A less obvious but more fundamental fact is that the model depends only on the likelihood ratio

$$r(\mathbf{y}) = \frac{f(\mathbf{y}|\theta_1)}{f(\mathbf{y}|\theta_2)} = \left(\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2}\right)^{\sum_i y_i} \left(\frac{1 - \theta_1}{1 - \theta_2}\right)^{n - \sum_i y_i}$$

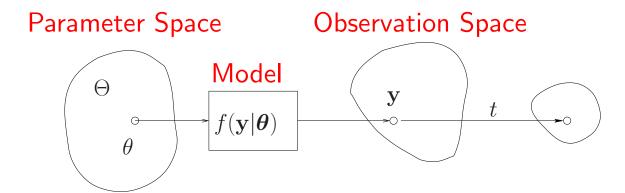
This follows from

$$r(\mathbf{y}) \to t(\mathbf{y}) \to f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = q(r(\mathbf{y});\theta)$$

• If we can write  $f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = g(t(\mathbf{y});\theta)$ , can we discard  $\mathbf{y}$  using only  $t(\mathbf{y})$ ?

### **Statistics**

Given a parametric model  $f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$ , a (measurable) function  $\mathbf{t}(\mathbf{Y})$  of the random observation  $\mathbf{Y} \sim f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  is called a statistic.



- A statistic is a random vector that conveys information about the original parametric model. It often has lower dimension than y and less complex; it represents a (possibly lossy) data reduction.
- There are many statistics. The original observation Y is a trivial statistic.
- Statistics are used for inference. It is therefore desirable that (i) they do not loose information about the model—sufficiency and (ii) their dimension is as low as possible—parsimony.

# **Sufficiency**

A statistic  $t(\mathbf{Y})$  is a sufficient statistic for model  $f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  if the conditional density of r.v.  $\mathbf{Y}$  given  $t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}$  is not a function of  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  for all  $\mathbf{u}$ . A sufficient statistic  $t(\mathbf{Y})$  is a minimal sufficient statistic if, for any other sufficient statistic  $\tilde{t}$ , there is a (measurable) function  $h(\cdot)$  such that  $t(\mathbf{y}) = h(\tilde{t}(\mathbf{y}))$ .

### **Example**

Consider n Bernoulli trials  $Y_i \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} \mathcal{B}(\theta)$ . Denote  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ . We claim that  $t(\mathbf{Y}) = \sum Y_i$  is a sufficient statistic.

$$\begin{split} \Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y} | t(\mathbf{Y}) = j) &= \frac{\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{Y}) = j)}{\Pr(t(\mathbf{Y}) = j)} \\ &= \begin{cases} \frac{\theta^{j} (1 - \theta)^{n - j}}{\binom{n}{j} \theta^{j} (1 - \theta)^{n - j}} & \text{if } t(\mathbf{y}) = j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{split}$$

#### **Remarks:**

- If we know t(y), then we can discard y since, given t(Y) = t(y), the probability of Y no longer depends on  $\theta$ ; the outcome of Y = y is no longer informative.
- How to find sufficient statistics?

# The Neyman-Fisher Factorization Theorem

**Theorem:** A statistic  $t(\mathbf{Y})$  is sufficient if and only if the pdf  $f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  has the factorization

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = g(t(\mathbf{y}); \boldsymbol{\theta})h(\mathbf{y})$$

where g and h are non-negative functions.

Proof for the discrete case: If  $f(y|\theta) = g(t(y);\theta)h(y)$ , then

$$\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y} | t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}{\Pr(t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta})}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{g(\mathbf{u}, \boldsymbol{\theta})h(\mathbf{y})}{\Pr(t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta})} & \text{if } t(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{u} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

But

$$\Pr(t(\mathbf{Y})) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{\mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}} f(\mathbf{y} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = g(\mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \sum_{\mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{u}} h(\mathbf{y})$$

Hence

$$\Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y} | t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{cases} \frac{h(\mathbf{y})}{\sum_{\mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{u}} h(\mathbf{y})} & \text{if } t(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{u} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If  $t(\mathbf{Y})$  is sufficient, let

$$g(t(\mathbf{y}); \boldsymbol{\theta}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \Pr(t(\mathbf{Y}) = t(\mathbf{y}); \boldsymbol{\theta}),$$
  
 $h(\mathbf{y}) = \Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y} | t(\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{y}))$ 

Then

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \Pr(\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{y}, t(\mathbf{Y}) = t(\mathbf{y}); \boldsymbol{\theta})$$
  
=  $g(t(\mathbf{y}); \boldsymbol{\theta})h(\mathbf{y})$ 

# **Sufficiency of Likelihood**

**Corollary** Consider a binary hypothesis model given by  $\mathbf{y} \sim p(\mathbf{y}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \{\boldsymbol{\theta}_0, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1\}$ . Define the statistic by the likelihood ratio

$$r(\mathbf{Y}) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_1)}{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_0)}.$$

We then have  $p(y; \theta) = f(y|\theta_0)g(r(y); \theta)$ , where

$$g(r(\mathbf{y}); \theta) = \begin{cases} 1 & \theta = \theta_0 \\ r(\mathbf{y}) & \theta = \theta_1 \end{cases}$$

By the Neyman-Fisher factorization,  $r(\mathbf{Y})$  is a sufficient statistic.

#### **Remarks:**

• For the general discrete model  $\Theta = \{\theta_1, \cdots, \theta_M\}$ , the M-dimensional vector of likelihood functions  $l(\mathbf{y}) = [p(\mathbf{y}; \theta_1), \cdots, p(\mathbf{y}; \theta_M)]$  or the M-1 dimensional vectors of likelihood ratios

$$r(\mathbf{Y}) = \left[\frac{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_2)}{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_1)}, \cdots, \frac{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_M)}{f(\mathbf{Y}|\theta_1)}\right]$$

are also sufficient statistics.

• If we broaden the notion of statistic whose values are functions of  $\theta$ , the the likelihood function  $r(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \mathbf{Y})$  is minimal sufficient (Dynkin,1951)<sup>†</sup>.

<sup>†</sup>E.B. Dynkin, "Necessary and sufficient statistics for families of distributions," *Sel. Transl. Math., Stat., and Prob.,* vol. 1, pp. 23–41, 1951.

# **Examples**

**I.I.D. Gaussian Model:** Consider  $Y_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

$$pf(\mathbf{y}|\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma^2)^n} e^{\left\{-\frac{\sum y_i^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu \sum y_i}{\sigma^2} - \frac{n\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}\right\}} \to \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{y}) = \left(\frac{\sum_i y_i}{\sum_i y_i^2}\right).$$

**I.I.D. Poisson Model:** Consider  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{P}(\lambda)$ .

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^{\sum y_i} e^{-n\lambda}}{\prod y_i!} \to t(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_i y_i.$$

**Extreme Statistic.** Suppose  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{U}(0, \theta)$ .

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta^{-n}} & 0 < y_i < \theta, & \forall i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = h(\mathbf{y})g(\theta, \max_i y_i)$$

$$h(\mathbf{y}) = \begin{cases} 1 & y_i > 0, & \forall i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} g(\theta, t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta^{-n}} & t < \theta, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Channel Estimation in AWGN. Given

$$y_n = x_0 s_n + x_1 s_{n-1} + w_n$$
,  $w_n \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ ,  $n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$ ,

To estimate  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [x_0 \ x_1]^T$  with known  $s_n$ , let

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_0 \\ \vdots \\ y_{N-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} s_0 & s_{-1} \\ s_1 & s_0 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ s_{N-1} & s_{N-2} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{N}{2}}} exp\{-\frac{||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\theta}||^2}{2\sigma^2}\}$$
$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{N}{2}}} exp\{\frac{2\mathbf{y}'\mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\theta} - ||\mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\theta}||^2}{2\sigma^2}\} exp\{-\frac{||\mathbf{y}||^2}{2\sigma^2}\}$$

Hence

$$t(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}'\mathbf{S} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum_{i} s_i y_i \\ \sum_{i} s_{i-1} y_i \end{pmatrix}$$

# The K-Parameter Exponential Family

**Definition:** A family of distributions is said to be a K-parameter exponential family if there exist  $c_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, c_K(\boldsymbol{\theta}), d(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \ t_1(\mathbf{y}), \dots, t_K(\mathbf{y}), s(\mathbf{y})$  and a set  $\mathcal{A}$  such that

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp\{\sum_{i=1}^{K} c_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}) t_i(\mathbf{y}) + d(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + s(\mathbf{y})\} 1_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathbf{y})$$

where  $I_A(y)$  is the indicator function not related to  $\theta$ . It is often more convenient to use the canonical form (or the natural representation) of the exponential distribution

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \exp\{\sum_{i=1}^K \eta_i t_i(\mathbf{y}) + d(\boldsymbol{\eta}) + s(\mathbf{y})\} 1_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathbf{y}).$$

**Theorem:** Let  $\{f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \boldsymbol{\Lambda}\}$  be a K-parameter exponential family, *i.e.*,

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \exp\{\sum_{i=1}^{K} c_i(\boldsymbol{\theta})t_i(\mathbf{y}) + d(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + s(\mathbf{y})\}I_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathbf{y})$$

If  $\{\mathbf{c}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = [c_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \cdots, c_K(\boldsymbol{\theta})], \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \boldsymbol{\Theta}\}$  has an interior point, then  $t(\mathbf{y}) = [t_1(\mathbf{y}), \cdots, t_K(\mathbf{y})]^T$  is minimal sufficient.

Proof: The sufficiency of  $\mathbf{t}(\mathbf{y})$  follows the Neyman-Fisher factorization. The minimality is implied by the completeness of  $\mathbf{t}(\mathbf{y})$ , which will be discussed later. The reason for the existence of "interior point" is to prevent the trivial cases such as by splitting  $c_1(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = c_{11}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + c_{12}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  thus increasing the dimension of the statistic.

# **Examples of Exponential Family**

These belong to the exponential family

- 1. Gaussian.  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- 2. Binomial:  $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(\theta, n)$

$$f(k|\theta) = \binom{n}{k} \theta^k (1-\theta)^{(n-k)} = \binom{n}{k} e^{k \ln \frac{\theta}{1-\theta} + n \ln(1-\theta)}$$

3. Multinomial: In n independent trials with s outcomes in each trial. Let  $p_i$  be the probability for the ith outcome. Let  $y_i$  be the number of trials that have the ith outcome.

$$f(y_1, \dots, y_s | p_1, \dots, p_s) = \frac{n!}{y_1! \dots y_s!} p_1^{y_1} \dots p_s^{y_s}$$
$$= exp(k_1 \ln p_1 + \dots + k_s \ln p_s) h(\mathbf{y}) I_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathbf{y})$$

4. Poisson.  $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} \mathcal{P}(\theta)$ 

$$f(y_1, \dots, y_n | \theta) = \frac{\theta^{\sum y_i}}{\prod y_i!} e^{-n\theta} = \exp\{\sum y_i \ln \theta - n\theta\} h(\mathbf{y})$$

These do not belong to the exponential family

1. Uniform.  $Y \sim \mathcal{U}(0, \theta)$ .

$$f(y|\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} I_{(0,\theta)}(y)$$

2.

$$f(y|\theta) = 2\frac{y+\theta}{1+2\theta} = exp\{\ln 2(y+\theta) - \ln(1+2\theta)\}, \ 0 < y < 1, \ \theta > 0$$