### **Data Reduction**

Jacob M. Montgomery

2017

Data Reduction

## Key concepts

► For traditional approaches to statistical inference, we do not want to handling our entire dataset.

### Key concepts

- ► For traditional approaches to statistical inference, we do not want to handling our entire dataset.
- Intead, we often make parametric assumptions about the DGP that allow us to focus on specific statistics calculated from the sample.

# Key concepts

- ► For traditional approaches to statistical inference, we do not want to handling our entire dataset.
- Intead, we often make parametric assumptions about the DGP that allow us to focus on specific statistics calculated from the sample.
- ► Here we focus on two conceptual quantities that we can calculate from our sample:
  - Sufficient statistics
  - The likelihood

► The basic idea is that we take our vector of data,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  or  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and throw a bunch of

information away.

- The basic idea is that we take our vector of data,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  or  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and throw a bunch of
- information away.
  ▶ By making assumptions about the DGP, we can calculate statistics like T(x) or T(y) that include all the information we need to make statistical inference.

▶ The basic idea is that we take our vector of data.

y that give us the same values for T(x) and T(y).

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  or  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and throw a bunch of information away.
- By making assumptions about the DGP, we can calculate need to make statistical inference.
- statistics like  $T(\mathbf{x})$  or  $T(\mathbf{y})$  that include all the information we ▶ The drawback is that we can have very different vectors **x** and

The basic idea is that we take our vector of data,  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  or  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and throw a basic idea.

assumptions.

- $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$  or  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and throw a bunch of information away. By making assumptions about the DGP, we can calculate
- By making assumptions about the DGP, we can calculate statistics like T(x) or T(y) that include all the information we need to make statistical inference.
- need to make statistical inference.

  ➤ The drawback is that we can have very different vectors **x** and **y** that give us the same values for T(**x**) and T(**y**).

  ➤ The value of this approach is computational efficiency. The drawback is that our inferences are only as good as our

### Sufficient statistics

► The core concept is that we want to determine a reduced form of the data that will tell us about the DGP.

### Sufficient statistics

- ► The core concept is that we want to determine a reduced form of the data that will tell us about the DGP.
- First we make a paremetric assumption about the DGP, which allows us to characterize it in terms of a set of parameters  $\theta$

If T(X) is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ , then any inference about  $\theta$  sholud depend on the sample X only through the value of T(X).

### Formal definition

A statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic if the conditional distribution of the sample  $\mathbf{X}$  given the value of  $T(\mathbf{X})$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .

### Formal definition

A statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic if the conditional distribution of the sample  $\mathbf{X}$  given the value of  $T(\mathbf{X})$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .

▶ In words, this means that the conditional distribution of our data does not change for any value of  $\theta$  once we know  $T(\mathbf{X})$ 

### Establishing sufficiency

- ightharpoonup Calculate  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$
- ▶ Choose some candidate for the sufficient statistic  $T(\mathbf{X}|\theta)$
- ightharpoonup Calculate  $q(T(x)|\theta)$
- Calculate

$$\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)}{q(T(\mathbf{x})|\theta)}$$

▶ If this quantity does not depend on  $\theta$ , it is suffficent.

### Why?

- ▶ IF the distribution of **X** does not depend on  $\theta$  then
- $\blacktriangleright$

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \text{ and } T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}{P(T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}$$

### Why?

▶ *IF* the distribution of **X** does not depend on  $\theta$  then

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \text{ and } T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}{P(T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}$$

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}$$

### Why?

▶ IF the distribution of **X** does not depend on  $\theta$  then

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} \text{ and } T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}{P(T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}$$

$$P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x} | T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x})) = \frac{P(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})}{P(T(\mathbf{X}) = T(\mathbf{x}))}$$

▶ Which can be re-written as

$$\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)}{q(T(\mathbf{x})|\theta)}$$

### Example 6.2.3: Binomial sufficient statistic

Let

$$X_1, \ldots, X_n$$

be iid Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $\theta$ . Show that  $T(\mathbf{X}) = \sum X_i$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

### Example 6.2.4

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  by iid  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  where  $\sigma^2$  is known. Show that the sample mean is a sufficient statistic for  $\mu$ .

### Logistic distribution

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  by iid logistic where  $f(x|\theta) = \frac{e^{-(x-\theta)}}{1+e^{-(x-\theta)^2}}$ . Show that the order statistics are a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

### The exponential family

- ► A number of very common distributions can be "factored" in such a way that they can be re-represented as having a common family form.
- ► This is useful because we can then prove results for this broader family without having to prove it for each individual distribution.

### Defining the expontential family

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is a random sample from a pdf or pmf  $f(x|\theta)$ .

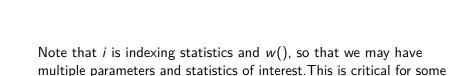
### Defining the expontential family

Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  is a random sample from a pdf or pmf  $f(x|\theta)$ . We say this is an exponential family if we can factor the distribution such that:

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp(\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i(\theta)t(x))$$

# Note that i is indexing statistics and w(), so that we may have

multiple parameters and statistics of interest.



calculations later, but the single-variable example is enough to make

the point.

An equivalent way to write this is:

 $f(x|\theta) = h(x) \exp(\eta' T(x) - A(\eta))$ 

#### Exercises

- Show that the normal distribution with known variance  $\sigma$  can be written as a member of the exponential family.
- ► Show that the poisson distribution is a member of the exponential family.

### Relating back to sufficiency: Factorization theorem

Let  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  denote the joint pdf or pmf of a sample  $\mathbf{X}$ . A statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  iff the pmf/pdf can be re-written as

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = g(T(\mathbf{x}|\theta))h(\mathbf{x})$$

### Theorem 6.2.10

Let  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  denote the joint pdf or pmf that belongs to an exponential famility given by

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i(\theta)t_i(x)\right)$$

where theta =  $(\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_d)$ , where  $d \leq k$ . Then

$$\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{X}) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n t_1(X_j), \ldots, \sum_{j=1}^n t_k(X_j)\right)$$

is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

# Example 6.2.9: Normal sufficient statistic, both parameters unknown

Assume that  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are iid  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  where neither parameter is known, such that  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Use the factorization tehorem to show that  $\bar{x}$  and  $s^2$  are sufficient statistics for this distribution.

### The likelihood function

- As we have seen, in some cases simply handling a sufficient statistic may be inadequate since a sufficient statistic may be the entire dataset.
- Moreover, for several types of statistical inference we will not rely on sufficient statistics at all.
- ► For both of these reasons, we often wich to calculate a statistic called the *likelihood*.

### Defining the likelihood function

Let  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  denote the joint pdf of pmf of the sample  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ . Then, given that  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$  is observed, the function of  $\theta$  defined by

$$L(\theta|\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$$

is called the *likelihood function*.

#### Thinking about the likelihood function

- ► We seem to be defining the likelhood the same as the pdf/pmf.
  - ▶ The only difference is how we will think about  $\theta$  and  $\mathbf{x}$ .
    - ▶ For  $f(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  we consider  $\mathbf{x}$  as the variable and  $\theta$  to be fixed.
    - For f(x|θ) we consider x to be the observed sample and θ to be varying over all possible parameter values.
  - ▶ Bayesian thinking will consider  $\theta$  as a variable. Other approaches tend to think of  $\theta$  as a fixed but unknown parameter.

### Poisson likelihood.

Let

$$X_1,\ldots,X_n$$

be iid Poisson random variables with parameter  $\theta$ . Assume that the observed values of **X** are  $\mathbf{x} = (4, 17, 4)$ .

- Find  $L(\theta|\mathbf{x})$ .
- Write out the generic version for any (non-empty) observed data x

### Binomial Likelihood.

Let

$$X_1, \ldots, X_n$$

be iid Bernoulli random variables with parameter  $\theta$ . Find  $L(\theta|\mathbf{x})$ .

### Normal likelihood.

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  by iid  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  where  $\sigma^2$  is known.

- Find  $L(\theta|\mathbf{x})$ .
- ▶ Can it be represented in terms of the sufficient statistic T(x)?

### The likelihood principal

If x and y are two sample points such that  $L(\theta|x)$  is proportional to  $L(\theta|y)$ , that is, there exists a constant C(x,y) such that

$$L(\theta|x) = C(x,y)L(\theta|y)\forall \theta,$$

then the conclusion drawn from x and y should be identical.

▶ If  $L(\theta_2|x) = 2L(\theta_1|x)$ , this means that  $\theta_2$  is twice as likely.

- ▶ If  $L(\theta_2|x) = 2L(\theta_1|x)$ , this means that  $\theta_2$  is twice as likely.
- ▶ If we instead observe  $L(\theta_2|y)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y)$ , then  $\theta_2$  should still be twice as likely such that  $L(\theta_2|y) = 2L(\theta_1|y)$ .

- ▶ If  $L(\theta_2|x) = 2L(\theta_1|x)$ , this means that  $\theta_2$  is twice as likely.
- ▶ If we instead observe  $L(\theta_2|y)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y)$ , then  $\theta_2$  should still be twice as likely such that  $L(\theta_2|y) = 2L(\theta_1|y)$ .
- So long as the underlying DGP does not change, no one realization from the data should change our conclusions about which values of  $\theta$  are relatively more likely so long as the likelihood of the two points is proportional.

- ▶ If  $L(\theta_2|x) = 2L(\theta_1|x)$ , this means that  $\theta_2$  is twice as likely.
- ▶ If we instead observe  $L(\theta_2|y)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y)$ , then  $\theta_2$  should still be twice as likely such that  $L(\theta_2|y) = 2L(\theta_1|y)$ .
- So long as the underlying DGP does not change, no one realization from the data should change our conclusions about which values of  $\theta$  are relatively more likely so long as the likelihood of the two points is proportional.
- Imagine if we knew that  $L(\theta_1|x) = 4L(\theta_1|y)$  and  $L(\theta_2|x) = 4L(\theta_2|y)$  but somehow concluded  $L(\theta_1|x) > L(\theta_2|x)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y) > L(\theta_2|y)$

- ▶ If  $L(\theta_2|x) = 2L(\theta_1|x)$ , this means that  $\theta_2$  is twice as likely.
- ▶ If we instead observe  $L(\theta_2|y)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y)$ , then  $\theta_2$  should still be twice as likely such that  $L(\theta_2|y) = 2L(\theta_1|y)$ .
- So long as the underlying DGP does not change, no one realization from the data should change our conclusions about which values of  $\theta$  are relatively more likely so long as the likelihood of the two points is proportional.
- ▶ Imagine if we knew that  $L(\theta_1|x) = 4L(\theta_1|y)$  and  $L(\theta_2|x) = 4L(\theta_2|y)$  but somehow concluded  $L(\theta_1|x) > L(\theta_2|x)$  and  $L(\theta_1|y) > L(\theta_2|y)$
- ► This seems almost tautologically true, but we shall see that frequentist approaches to inference actually break this rule.