

## Lecture 6: Principle of Data Reduction

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# Outline

- 1 Review
- 2 Population and Sample
- 3 Some popular models
- 4 Statistics
  - Sufficient statistics
  - Minimal Sufficient Statistics Terms
  - Ancillary statistics
  - Complete statistics

# Review

- The Delta Method and The Multivariate Delta Method
- The Edgeworth Expansion

# Estimation

- WLLN and CLT shows that the sample average is a reasonable estimator for the expectation
  - Converges to the expectation
  - Rate  $O(1/\sqrt{n})$
- Is sample average the best estimator for the expectation?
  - 'Best' in what sense?
  - If not, how to find the 'best' estimate have?
  - What performance will the 'best' estimate have?
- Estimations for other parameters, or function of parameters?
  - Example:  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . What is the estimation for  $\sigma$ ?
  - Example:  $X \sim \text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ . How to estimate  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ ? How about  $\alpha + \beta$ ?
  - Not all of them can be estimated from sample mean
  - What is a proper estimation?

# Introduction

This section covers the section topic of our class.including:

- Parametric models
- Data reduction via statistics
- How to construct estimators

Evaluation of estimators will be covered in the third topic.

# Population and Sample

- Population
  - The collection of measurements on a variable of interest: e.g., the condition of each light bulb of one manufactory.
  - Usually, hypothesize a model: e.g., Bernoulli( $p$ )
- Sample

## Definition 5.1.1: Random sample

The random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are called a **random sample** of size  $n$  from the population  $f_X(x)$  if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d. random variables with PMF or PDF  $f_X(x)$ .

- Example: A sample from the light bulb manufactory:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Ber}(p)$
- The "i.i.d" condition can be relaxed
- If "i.i.d" condition holds, then the joint density of the random sample is

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i)$$

# Parameter Estimation

- Usually,  $f_X$  is not known to us. We draw samples to explore the properties of  $f_X$ , e.g., expectation, variance, tails, etc.
- If prior information is known, say,  $f_X$  has an unknown **finite dimensional parameter**  $\theta \in \Theta$ , which characterizes  $f_X$ . Then the problem is to estimate  $\theta$

- Joint distribution of the sample:

$$f_{X_1, \dots, X_n}(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i; \theta)$$

- Estimate  $\theta$
    - Construct some statistical tests for  $\theta$ ; say, model selection
    - asymptotic properties
- If no prior information is known, we cannot assume the distribution family for  $f_X$ . We call it as **non-parametric statistics**
  - Splines
  - Kernel estimation
  - etc

# I.I.D. Normal Model

- A basic model statisticians usually use is the normal model
- Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Here, the unknown parameters are  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$ .
- Given the observations  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ , the joint density is

$$f_{X_{1:n}}(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2\}}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} = \frac{\exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\}}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma)^n}$$

- If the observations are given, then  $f_{X_{1:n}}(x_1, \dots, x_n; \theta)$  can be seen as a function about  $\theta$ ,

$$L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{\exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\}}{(\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma)^n}$$

$L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is called the **likelihood function** for this models.

- One way to estimate the parameters  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma^2)$  is to find the maximizer of  $L(\theta)$ :

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n)$$



# I.I.D. Normal Model

Maximum likelihood function estimation for normal dist.(Quick review)

- Note that  $l(\theta) = \log L(\theta)$  has the same maximizer with  $L(\theta)$ .

$$l(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n) = \log L(\theta; x_1, \dots, x_n) = \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right\} - \frac{n}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2)$$

- Take the partial derivative, we have

$$\left(\frac{\partial l(\theta)}{\partial \mu}, \frac{\partial l(\theta)}{\partial \sigma^2}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu), -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{1}{2(\sigma^2)^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2\right)$$

- Let the derivative to be 0 (local extrema). The solution is

$$\tilde{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \quad \tilde{\sigma}_n^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \tilde{\mu}_n)^2$$

- Since this is the only solution, this local extrema should be a global extrema. Check whether it is a maxima. We need the Hessian matrix to be a negative definite matrix.

# The Exponential Family

- Generalize the family of normal distribution
- **Exponential family** is a class of densities, which for a random variable  $X$  and parameter  $\theta$ , the density function is

$$f_X(x; \theta) = h(x) \exp\{\eta(\theta)T(x) - A(\theta)\}$$

- $h, T, A$  are known functions
- The density functions is a product of data-only part  $h(x)$ , parameter-only part  $\exp\{-A(\theta)\}$ , and the cross-term of data and parameters.
- The cross-term can be expressed as exponential transformation of the product of parameter and data.
- Joint density:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left(\prod_{i=1}^n h(x_i)\right) \exp\{\eta(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^n T(X_i) - nA(\theta)\}$$

# The Exponential Family-Example

- The normal distribution belongs to the exponential Family.

If  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , the density function is

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x - \mu)^2\right\} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left\{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu x}{\sigma^2 - \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \log \sigma}\right\}$$

Let

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \eta(\theta) = \left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}, \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2}\right), T(x) = (x^2, x), A(\theta) = \frac{\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} + \log \sigma.$$

Then we have

$$f_X(x; \theta) = h(x) \exp\{\eta(\theta)^T T(x) - A(\theta)\},$$

which is an exponential family distribution.

# Bayesian Models: Example

**Example:** Suppose that  $X_i|\theta \sim \exp(\lambda)$ . Also, we know that  $\lambda \sim \text{Gamma}(a, b)$ . Given the observations  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , what information can we get about  $\lambda$ ?

**Solution**

The joint density for  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and  $\lambda$  is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \lambda) &= \left[ \prod_{i=1}^n f_X(x_i; \lambda) \right] \pi(\lambda) \\ &= \left[ \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda e^{-\lambda x_i} \right] \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{a-1} e^{-b\lambda} = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{a-1} e^{\lambda \sum x_i} \lambda^{a-1} e^{-b\lambda} \\ &= \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{n+a-1} e^{-\lambda(b + \sum x_i)} \end{aligned}$$

Now, we are curious about  $\lambda$ , so we want to know the conditional distribution of  $\lambda$  given the observations.

According to the definition of conditional distribution, we have

$$\pi(\lambda | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \lambda)}{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}$$

Here, to differentiate the density function for  $X$  and  $\lambda$ , we always use  $\pi$  for the density function of  $\lambda$ , and  $f$  for the density function of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .

# Bayesian Models: Example

We want to solve

$$\pi(\lambda|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \lambda)}{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)}$$

- The numerator is known,  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \lambda) = \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{n+a-1} e^{-\lambda(b+\sum x_i)}$
- The denominator can be calculated :

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= \int_{\lambda} f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \lambda) d\lambda \\ &= \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{n+a-1} e^{-\lambda(b+\sum x_i)} d\lambda \\ &= \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \times \frac{\Gamma(n+a)}{(b+\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^{n+a}} \end{aligned}$$

- So, the conditional distribution for  $\lambda$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\lambda|x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= \frac{(b+\sum_{i=1}^n x_i)^{n+a}}{\Gamma(n+a)} \frac{b^a}{\Gamma(a)} \lambda^{n+a-1} e^{-\lambda(b+\sum x_i)} \\ &\sim \text{Gamma}(n+a, b+\sum x_i) \end{aligned}$$

We call it as **posterior distribution**.

# Bayesian Models:Remarks

- ▶ In the previous example, if we have prior information about  $\lambda$ , say, the expectation and variance, then we can identify the values of  $a$  and  $b$ , and the posterior is totally known.
- ▶ In Bayesian statistics, the posterior function is the "final answer". For frequentist, the estimation is a value.
- ▶ Depend on the loss function, the posterior function can be further reduced to a value. For example, when the loss function is  $L^2 - \text{loss}((\hat{\theta} - \theta)^2)$ , then the Bayes estimator can be reduced as  $E[\pi(\theta|x_1, \dots, x_n)]$ . Details discussed later.
- ▶ Therefore, there is no "confidence interval" in Bayesian statistics. A similar notion is "credible interval". Details later.

# The Linear Model

► Consider a sequence of data in pairs:  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , where  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p, p \geq 1, 1 \leq i \leq n$ .

► The  $y_i$ 's are called **response variables** and the  $x_i$ 's are **explanatory variables**. It is hypothesised that there exist some functional relationship of the form

$$Y_i = g_\theta(x_i) + \epsilon$$

Therefore, we can use  $x_i$  to predict the responses  $y_i$ . Here,  $\epsilon_i$  is interpreted as noise.

► A simple prediction function is linear function. Therefore, the prediction function is

$$Y_i = \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{p-1} \theta_j x_{ij} + \epsilon_i,$$

where  $\epsilon_i$  are i.i.d. zero mean random samples, usually assumed to be  $N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

This model is called the **linear regression model**.

# Statistics

- Random sample:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ .
- Work on the random sample to achieve information.

## Definition: Statistics

For a random sample  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , a **statistics** is a function of the random sample  $T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ .

- The statistic  $T(X)$  is also a random variable. Most times, its distribution changes with  $n$ , and we denote the CDF as  $G_n$ , called the **sampling distribution**.
- With the observations  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , we have  $T(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , a **realization** of the statistic  $T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ .



# Statistics: Examples

Some examples of Statistics:

- ▶ Single observation of the sample:  $X_1$
- ▶ order statistics:  $X_{(1)} \leq X_{(2)} \leq \dots \leq X_{(n)}$
- ▶ Sample mean:  $\bar{X}_n$ .
- ▶ Sample variance:  $S_n^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X}_n)^2$
- ▶ sample minimum:  $X_{(1)}$
- ▶ sample maximum:  $X_{(n)}$
- ▶ sample range:  $X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$

What is a "good" statistics?

# Properties of Statistics

- Recall that we are doing parametric inference, where the model is

$$f_X(X; \theta)$$

- We hope the statistics can be a summary of all the the data, relevant to the parameter.
- The process can be seen as a **data reduction** process
- Properties:
  - ▶ Sufficient statistics
  - ▶ Ancillary statistics
  - ▶ Complete statistics

# Sufficient statistics

- ▶ Reduce the data, so that all the information relevant to the parameter can be summarized in one statistic

## Sufficiency Principle

Let  $X = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  be random sample from the distribution  $f(x; \theta)$ . If  $T(x)$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ , then any inference about  $\theta$  should depend upon the sample  $X$  **only through the value** of  $T(X)$

- ▶ We say,  $T(X)$  is sufficient for the parameter  $\theta$
- ▶ We can replace  $X$  with  $T(X)$  without losing information

### Definition: Sufficiency/sufficient statistics

A statistic  $T(X)$  is a **sufficient** for  $\theta$  if the conditional distribution of the sample  $X$  given  $T(X)$  does not depend on  $\theta$ , i.e.,

$$f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | t; \theta) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | t).$$

The above definition is not easy to check whether a statistic  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic.

### Theorem 6.2.2

If  $p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)$  is the pdf or pmf of  $\mathbf{X}$ , and  $q(t|\theta)$  is the pdf or pmf of  $T(\mathbf{X})$ , then  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  if, for every  $\mathbf{x}$ ,

$$\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)}{q(T(\mathbf{x})|\theta)} \equiv \text{constant in } \theta$$

# Example 1

**Example.**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$ . Let  $T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ . Since Poisson distribution is a discrete distribution, we are working with the PMF. The conditional distribution is

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n | t) = \frac{P(X_1=x_1, \dots, X_n=x_n, T=t)}{P(T=t)}$$

Since  $T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ ,

$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n, T = t) = \begin{cases} 0, & T(x) \neq t \\ P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n), & T(x) = t \end{cases}$$

And,

$$P(X^n = x^n) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\theta} \theta^{\sum x_i}}{\prod (x_i!)}$$

Now,  $T(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum x_i = t$ . According to the property of Poisson distribution,  $T \sim \text{Poisson}(n\theta)$ , so

$$P(X^n = x^n) / P(T = t) = t! / [\prod (x_i!) n^t].$$

which does not depend on  $\theta$ . So,  $T$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

## Example 6.2.3

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. Bernoulli( $p$ ). Let

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} p(\mathbf{x}|p) &= p^{x_1 + \dots + x_n} (1-p)^{n-(x_1 + \dots + x_n)} \\ q(t|p) &= \binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t} \\ \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|p)}{q(T(\mathbf{x})|p)} &= \frac{p^{x_1 + \dots + x_n} (1-p)^{n-(x_1 + \dots + x_n)}}{\binom{n}{x_1 + \dots + x_n} p^{x_1 + \dots + x_n} (1-p)^{n-(x_1 + \dots + x_n)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\binom{n}{T(\mathbf{x})}} \quad \text{does not depend on } \theta \end{aligned}$$

## Example 6.2.4

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , where  $\sigma$  is unknown.

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)/n$$

is sufficient for  $\mu$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}|\mu) &= \prod_{i=1}^n (2\pi)^{-1/2} \sigma^{-1} \exp(-(x_i - \mu)^2 / (2\sigma^2)) \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2 / (2\sigma^2)\right] \\ &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 - \frac{n}{2\sigma^2} (\bar{x} - \mu)^2\right] \end{aligned}$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{X}} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$$

$$f_{\bar{\mathbf{X}}}(t|\mu) = (2\pi\sigma^2/n)^{-n/2} \exp\left[-\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} (t - \mu)^2\right]$$

So

$$\frac{f(\mathbf{x}|\mu)}{f_{\bar{\mathbf{X}}}(t|\mu)} = \frac{(2\pi)^{-n/2}}{(2\pi n^{-1})^{-1/2}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2\right]$$

does not depend on  $\mu$ .

## Example 6.2.5 (Sufficient Order Statistic)

Suppose  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d.  $f(x)$ . Then

$$(X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \dots, X_{(n)})$$

is sufficient for  $f(\cdot)$ .  $(X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \dots, X_{(n)})$  is the order statistic of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ .



# Sufficient Partition

► The sufficient can be viewed as a proper partition of the sample space.

**Example.** Let  $X_1, X_2, X_3 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ , Let  $T = \sum x_i$ .

$(x_1, x_2, x_3)$		$t$	$p(x t)$
$(0, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	0	1
$(1, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3
$(0, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3
$(0, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3
$(1, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3
$(0, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3
$(0, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3
$(1, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	3	1

According to different values of  $T$ , the original sample space  $\Omega$  is partitioned onto 4 subsets.

$$\Omega = \{(0, 0, 0)\} \cup \{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\} \\ \cup \{(0, 1, 1), (1, 0, 1), (1, 1, 0)\} \cup \{(1, 1, 1)\}$$

# Sufficient Partition: Remarks

$$\Omega = \{(0, 0, 0)\} \cup \{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\} \\ \cup \{(0, 1, 1), (1, 0, 1), (1, 1, 0)\} \cup \{(1, 1, 1)\}$$

- ▶ In each element of the partition (each of the four subset), the conditional probability of the data does not depend on  $\theta$
- ▶ We call such a partition as **sufficient partition**
- ▶ This partition is introduced by the statistic  $T$ . Any statistic  $T$  can introduce a partition.
- ▶ Different statistic may introduce the same partition. For example,  $10 \sum x_i, (\sum x_i)^2$  introduce the same partition introduced is also sufficient.
- ▶  $T$  is sufficient if and only if the partition introduced is also sufficient.

# Sufficient Partition: One More Example

► How about the partition induced by other statistic?

**Example.** Let  $X_1, X_2, X_3 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ . Let  $T = X_1 + X_2$ . Then partition introduced is as following.

$(x_1, x_2, x_3)$		$t$	$p(x t)$
$(0, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	0	$1 - p$
$(0, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	0	$p$
$(1, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	$(1 - p)/2$
$(0, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	$(1 - p)/2$
$(0, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	1	$p/2$
$(1, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	1	$p/2$
$(1, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	2	$1 - p$
$(1, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	$p$

The sample space is decomposed into a 3-element partition. However, in this partition, the conditional distribution still depends on  $p$ . This is not a sufficient partition, and  $T$  is not a sufficient statistic.

# The Fractorization Theorem

How to find a sufficient statistics?

## The Factorization Theorem

Let  $f_X(x; \theta)$  be the density of a random sample. A statistic  $T(X)$  is sufficient for  $\theta$  if and only if there exist functions  $g(t; \theta)$  and  $h(x)$ , such that for any  $(x, \theta)$ ,

$$f_X(x; \theta) = g(T(X); \theta)h(x)$$

- $f_X(x; \theta)$  is the joint density for the random sample  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ ,
- The density function can be seen as a product of function about  $T$  and  $\theta$ , and function about  $x$  only.
- No need to calculate the conditional distribution.

This theory is most useful in finding out sufficient statistic

# Proof

We prove it assuming  $X$  is discrete; the continuous case is similar.

■ "Only if": Let  $T$  be sufficient. Choose  $g(t; \theta) = P(T(X) = t; \theta)$  and  $h(x) = P(X = x | T(X) = T(x))$ . Since  $T$  is sufficient,  $h(x)$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f_X(x; \theta) &= P(X = x; \theta) = P(X = x | T(X) = T(x); \theta) \\ &= P(X = x | T(X) = T(x); \theta) P(T(X) = T(x); \theta) \\ &= P(X = x | T(X) = T(x)) P(T(X) = T(x); \theta) \\ &= h(x) g(T(x); \theta). \end{aligned}$$

■ "if": suppose the factorization holds, and we want to show  $T$  is sufficient for  $\theta$ . Let  $A_{T(X)} = y$ ;  $T(y) = T(x)$ , then consider

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f_X(x; \theta)}{f_T(t; \theta)} &= \frac{h(x) g(T(x); \theta)}{f_T(t; \theta)} = \frac{h(x) g(T(x); \theta)}{\sum_{u \in A_{T(x)}} h(u) g(T(u); \theta)} h(u) g(T(u); \theta) \\ &= \frac{h(x) g(T(x); \theta)}{g(T(x); \theta) \sum_{u \in A_{T(x)}} h(u)} = \frac{h(x)}{\sum_{u \in A_{T(x)}} h(u)} \end{aligned}$$

The conditional distribution does not depend on  $\theta$ , hence  $T$  is sufficient for  $\theta$ .

- **Example 6.2.7**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ ,  $\sigma$  known, we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\mu) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \right] \exp \left[ -\frac{n}{2\sigma^2} (\bar{x} - \mu)^2 \right]$$

since  $\exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \right]$  does not involve  $\mu$ ,  
 $\bar{\mathbf{X}} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\mu$ .

## Example 6.2.8: Uniform Sufficient Statistic

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. observations from discrete Uniform distribution on  $1, 2, \dots, \theta$ .

$$f(x|\theta) = \begin{cases} 1/\theta, & x = 1, 2, \dots, \theta \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Thus the joint pmf of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \begin{cases} \theta^{-n}, & x_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, \theta\} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) &= \theta^{-n} I(x)_{\{1, 2, \dots, \theta\}} = \theta^{-n} I(\max\{x_i\})_{\{\max\{x_i\} \leq \theta\}} \\ g(t|\theta) &= \theta^{-n}, t \leq \theta \\ &= \theta^{-n} \cdot 1[t \leq \theta] \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$f(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = g\left(\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{x_i\} | \theta\right) \cdot h(\mathbf{x})$$

$\Rightarrow T(\mathbf{X}) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{X_i\}$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

## Example 6.2.9

$$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2).$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}|\mu, \sigma^2) &= (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2 - \frac{n}{2\sigma^2} (\bar{x} - \mu)^2 \right\} \\ &= h(\mathbf{x})g(T_1(\mathbf{x}), T_2(\mathbf{x})|\mu, \sigma^2) \end{aligned}$$

Here,

$$h(\mathbf{x}) \equiv 1$$

$$g(t_1, t_2|\mu, \sigma^2) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{n-1}{2\sigma^2} \cdot t_2 - \frac{n-1}{2\sigma^2} (t_1 - \mu)^2 \right\}$$

Hence,  $T_1(\mathbf{x}) = \bar{X}$ ,  $T_2(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  are sufficient statistics.



## Theorem 6.2.10

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. observations from a pdf or pmf  $f(x|\boldsymbol{\theta})$  that belongs to an exponential family given by

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

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

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = \left( \sum_{j=1}^n t_1(X_j), \sum_{j=1}^n t_2(X_j), \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n t_k(X_j) \right)$$

is a sufficient statistic for  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

- **Example** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Gamma}(\alpha, \beta)$ , then  $T(\mathbf{X}) = \left( \sum_{j=1}^n \log X_j, \sum_{j=1}^n X_j \right)$  are sufficient for  $(\alpha, \beta)$ .
- **Example** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Uniform}(\alpha, \beta)$ ,  $\alpha < \beta$ , then  $(\min_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i, \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} X_i)$  is sufficient for  $(\alpha, \beta)$ .

# Minimal Sufficient Statistics(MSS)

- There are multiple sufficient statistics for one parameter
- Example:  $X_1, X_2, X_3 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ . For  $p, \sum_{i=1}^3 X_i, (\sum_{i=1}^3 X_i)^2, (X_1 + X_2, X_3)$  are all sufficient statistics
- Which is the "best" one for us?

Recall:

- Sufficient statistics: data reduction
- Best: the sufficient statistics that maximal the data reduction
- The "best" statistics has minimal data but sufficient information. We call it the **minimal sufficient statistics**.

## Minimal Sufficient Statistic

A statistic  $T$  is called a **Minimal Sufficient Statistic** if

- $T$  is sufficient;
  - For any other sufficient statistics  $U, T = g(U)$  for some function  $g$ .
- 
- For a fixed family of distribution, many sufficient statistics exist. We need to find the sufficient statistic which achieves the maximal data reduction.
  - First, any one-to-one transformation of sufficient statistic is a sufficient statistic.

# MSS:Example

Example: Let  $X_1, X_2, X_3 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ . Let  $T = \sum_{i=1}^3 X_i$ ,  
 $U = 2X_1 + 3X_2 + 4X_3$ .

$(x_1, x_2, x_3)$		$t$	$p(x t)$	$u$	$p(x u)$
$(0, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	0	1	0	1
$(1, 0, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3	2	1
$(0, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3	3	1
$(0, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	1	1/3	4	1
$(0, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3	7	1
$(1, 0, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3	6	1
$(1, 1, 0)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1/3	5	1
$(1, 1, 1)$	$\rightarrow$	2	1	9	1

Both  $T$  and  $U$  are sufficient statistics, but  $U$  is not minimal.

# MSS

- How to check the minimal sufficiency?
- How to find a minimal sufficient statistic?

## Theorem: Minimal Sufficient Statistics

Let  $f_X(x; \theta)$  be the density of a random sample  $X$ , Let

$$R(x, y; \theta) = \frac{f_X(x; \theta)}{f_Y(y; \theta)}$$

For a statistic  $T$ ,  $T$  is minimal sufficient if  $R(x, y; \theta)$  does not depend on  $\theta \Leftrightarrow T(x) = T(y)$ .

- Here,  $x$  and  $y$  are two random samples with the same sample size
- Sometimes, it is hard to show the equivalence.

# MSS:Example

■ Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta), Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n \sim \text{Poisson}(\theta)$ , then

$$p(x; \theta) = \frac{e^{-n\theta} \theta^{\sum x_i}}{\prod y_i!}, \quad R(x, y; \theta) = \frac{\theta^{\sum y_i - \sum x_i}}{\prod y_i! / \prod x_i!}$$

It is independent with  $\theta$  if and only if  $(\sum y_i = \sum x_i)$ , So  $T = \sum x_i$  is a minimal sufficient statistic for  $\theta$ .

■ Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample with Cauchy distribution. Recall for Cauchy distribution, the PDF is  $f(x; \theta) = \frac{1}{\pi(1+(x-\theta)^2)}$ . So, the ratio is

$$R(x, y; \theta) = \frac{f(x; \theta)}{f(y; \theta)} = \frac{\prod 1/[\pi(1+(x_i-\theta)^2)]}{\prod 1/[\pi(1+(y_i-\theta)^2)]} = \frac{\prod 1/[1+(y_i-\theta)^2]}{\prod 1/[1+(x_i-\theta)^2]}$$

The result cannot be further reduced. However, note that the final result is not affected by the order of the data. Therefore,  $R$  does not depend on  $\theta$  if and only if  $(x_{(1)}, x_{(2)}, \dots, x_{(n)}) = (y_{(1)}, y_{(2)}, \dots, y_{(n)})$ . The sufficient statistic is  $T = (X_{(1)}, X_{(2)}, \dots, X_{(n)})$ .

- **Example 6.2.14**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then  $\bar{X}_n = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)$  and  $S_X^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  are minimal sufficient for  $\mu, \sigma^2$ .
- **Example 6.2.15**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Uniform}(\theta, \theta + 1)$ . Then

$$f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \begin{cases} 1, & \max_i x_i - 1 < \theta < \min_i x_i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This implies (Theorem 6.2.13) that  $\left(\max_i X_i, \min_i X_i\right)$  is minimal sufficient for  $\theta$ .

**Remark 1** The above is an example of two-dimensional minimal sufficient statistic for one-dimensional parameter.

**Remark 1** Any one-to-one function of minimal sufficient statistic is also a minimal sufficient statistic.

# Ancillary Statistics

- Sufficient statistic: the statistics that contain all information about  $\theta$ .
- Ancillary statistics: the statistics does not depend on  $\theta$ .

## Definition: Ancillary Statistics

a statistic  $S(X)$  of a random sample whose distribution does not depend on  $\theta$  is called an ancillary statistics.

**Example** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d.  $\text{Uniform}(\theta, \theta + 1)$ , we see that (from Example 6.1.15)  $X_{(n)}, X_{(1)}$  are minimal sufficient for  $\theta$ . Therefore  $\left(X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}, \frac{X_{(n)} + X_{(1)}}{2}\right)$  are minimal sufficient for  $\theta$ . But Example 6.1.17 shows that  $X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$  is ancillary for  $\theta$ .

**Remark** An ancillary statistic by itself may contain no information on  $\theta$ , but when combine with other statistics, it may offer very important information. It is certainly not true that ancillary statistics are independent of minimal sufficient statistics.



- **Example 6.2.17**  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d.  $\text{Uniform}(\theta, \theta + 1)$ ,  $-\infty < \theta < \infty$ . Then  $R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$  is ancillary.

**Answer** The joint pdf of  $(X_{(n)}, X_{(1)})$  is

$$g(x_{(1)}, x_{(n)} | \theta) = n(n-1) (x_{(n)} - x_{(1)})^{n-2}, \quad \theta < x_{(1)} < x_{(n)} < \theta + 1.$$

Let

$$\begin{cases} R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}, \\ M = (X_{(1)} + X_{(n)})/2, \end{cases}$$

then

$$f_{R,M}(r, m) = n(n-1)r^{n-2}, \quad 0 < r < 1, \theta + (r/2) < m < \theta + 1 - (r/2).$$

So the marginal distribution of  $R$  is

$$f_R(r) = \int_{\theta+r/2}^{\theta+1-r/2} n(n-1)r^{n-2} dm = n(n-1)r^{n-2}(1-r), \quad 0 < r < 1.$$

$\implies$  The pdf of  $R$  does not depend on  $\theta$ . So  $R$  is ancillary for  $\theta$ .

- Example 6.2.18 (Location Family Ancillary Statistic)

$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d with cdf  $F(x - \theta)$ ,  $-\infty < \theta < \infty$ .  $F$  is a known distribution function. In this case  $R = X_{(n)} - X_{(1)}$  is ancillary for  $\theta$ .

- Example 6.2.19 (Scale Family Ancillary Statistic)

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d from  $F(x/\sigma)$ ,  $\sigma > 0$ . Then any statistic that depends on the sample through the  $n - 1$  values

$X_1/X_n, \dots, X_{n-1}/X_n$  is an ancillary statistic. For example,  $(X_1 + \dots + X_n)/X_n$  is ancillary. The joint distribution of  $X_1/X_n, \dots, X_{n-1}/X_n$  are

$$\begin{aligned} F(y_1, \dots, y_{n-1} | \sigma) &= \Pr_{\sigma} \{X_1/X_n \leq y_1, \dots, X_{n-1}/X_n \leq y_{n-1}\} \\ &= \Pr_{\sigma} \left\{ \frac{\sigma Z_1}{\sigma Z_n} \leq y_1, \dots, \frac{\sigma Z_{n-1}}{\sigma Z_n} \leq y_{n-1} \right\} \\ &= \Pr_{\sigma} \{Z_1/Z_n \leq y_1, \dots, Z_{n-1}/Z_n \leq y_{n-1}\} \end{aligned}$$

does not depend on  $\sigma$ .  $Z_1, \dots, Z_n$  are i.i.d. from  $F(x)$ .

**Remark** Ancillary statistic may still useful in estimation of  $\theta$ . One example is that  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  i.i.d  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  with  $\sigma^2$  unknown. Then  $T_1(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$  is minimal sufficient for  $\mu$ . But the variance estimate of  $T_1(\mathbf{X})$  depends on  $S_n^2$ , which is ancillary for  $\mu$ .

# Complete Statistics

## Definition: Complete Statistics

Let  $X$  be a random sample with density  $f_X(x; \theta)$  and  $T$  a statistic with density  $f_T(t; \theta)$ . The collection of densities  $f_X$  is called complete if

$$E_\theta[g(T)] = 0 \Rightarrow P_\theta[g(T) = 0] = 1 \quad g : T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \theta \in \Theta.$$

$T$  is called a Complete Statistics.

Remark.

- $g$  is a fixed function. Say,  $g(x) = x$ . There is no randomness for  $g$ . The randomness of  $g(T)$  comes from  $T$ .
- $g$  does not depend on  $\theta$ .
- $g$ : a function so that  $E_\theta[g(T)] = 0$  for any  $\theta \in \Theta$ . For any  $g$  satisfying such condition,  $g(T) = 0$  with probability 1 for any  $\theta$ .
- The statistic is the statistic which ensures  $\theta$  is identifiable.

# Complete Statistics: Example

Example. Let  $X_1, X_2, X_3 \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ ,  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ . Prove that  $T = \sum X_i$  is complete.

**Proof:** Suppose that  $T \sim \text{Bernoulli}(n, \theta)$ ,  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  and  $g$  be such that  $E_\theta[g(T)] = 0$ . Then we must have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 = E_\theta[g(T)] &= \sum_{t=0}^n g(t) \binom{n}{t} \theta^t (1 - \theta)^{n-t} \\ &= (1 - \theta)^n \sum_{t=0}^n g(t) \binom{n}{t} \left(\frac{\theta}{1 - \theta}\right)^t \\ &= (1 - \theta)^n \sum_{t=0}^n g(t) \binom{n}{t} r^t \end{aligned}$$

where  $r = \theta/(1 - \theta)$ . Let  $r$  be a very small number so that  $g(0) \binom{n}{0} r^0$  term be the giant component, then since the summation is 0, obviously  $g(0) = 0$ . Similarly, we show that  $g(t) = 0$  for each  $t \in 0, \dots, n$  must hold. Hence,  $T$  is complete.

## Complete Statistics: Example 6.2.23

Let  $X_i \sim Unif(0, \theta)$ ,  $i \in 1, \dots, n$ , for  $\theta > 0$ . Recall that  $T = X_{(n)}$  (the maximum of the sample) is sufficient for  $\theta$ . Now, we want to prove that  $T$  is also complete.

Proof. The CDF of  $t$  is

$$F_T(t) = P(T \leq t) = P(\max X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \leq t) = \left(\frac{t}{\theta}\right)^\theta$$

so the PDF of  $t$  is the derivative of  $F_T$ , which is  $\frac{nt^{n-1}}{\theta^n}$ ,  $0 < t < \theta$ . Suppose that  $g(t)$  satisfies that  $E_\theta[g(T)] = 0$ , then  $\int_0^\theta g(t) \frac{nt^{n-1}}{\theta^n} dt = 0$ . Since it stands for all  $\theta$ , the derivative of  $E_\theta[g(T)]$  also equals to 0.

$$0 = \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_0^\theta g(t) \frac{nt^{n-1}}{\theta^n} dt = \frac{d}{d\theta} (\theta^{-n}) \int_0^\theta g(t) nt^{n-1} dt + \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \int_0^\theta g(t) nt^{n-1} dt \right) (\theta^{-n})$$

The first part equals to 0, since  $\int_0^\theta g(t) \frac{nt^{n-1}}{\theta^n} dt = 0$ . So we have

$$0 = \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \int_0^\theta g(t) nt^{n-1} dt \right) (\theta^{-n}) = g(\theta) n \theta^{n-1}.$$

So,  $g(\theta) = 0$  for any  $\theta > 0$ , which means that  $g(x) = 0$  when  $x > 0$ . Recall that  $T > 0$  with probability 1, so  $g(T) = 0$  with probability 1, for any  $\theta$ .

- **Theorem 6.2.24 (Basu's Theorem)** If  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is a complete and minimal sufficient statistic, then  $T(\mathbf{X})$  is independent of every ancillary statistic.
- **Theorem 6.2.25 (Complete Statistics in the exponential Family)** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be i.i.d. observations from an exponential family with pdf or pmf of the form

$$f(x|\theta) = h(x)c(\theta) \exp \left( \sum_{j=1}^k w_j(\theta)t_j(x) \right)$$

where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k)$ . Then the statistic

$$T(\mathbf{X}) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^k t_1(X_i), \sum_{i=1}^k t_2(X_i), \dots, \sum_{i=1}^k t_k(X_i) \right)$$

is complete as long as the parameter space  $\Theta$  contains an open set in  $R^k$ .

- **Theorem 6.2.28** If a minimal sufficient statistic exists, then any complete statistic is also a minimal sufficient statistic.
- **Example 6.2.26 (Using Basu's Theorem I)** To show  $g(\mathbf{X}) = \frac{X_n}{X_1 + \dots + X_n}$  and  $T(\mathbf{X}) = X_1 + \dots + X_n$  are independent when  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d.  $\exp(\text{mean}=\theta)$ .
- **Example 6.2.27 (Using Basu's Theorem II)** To show  $\bar{X}_n$  and  $S^2$  are independent if  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ .

# Remarks

- Sufficient statistics, ancillary statistics, and complete statistics are the statistics for data reduction
- In past days, when the space is not enough
  - Sufficient statistics is to reduce data so that estimation through likelihood is doable.
  - Ancillary statistics is to figure out the part that not related to  $\theta$
  - Complete statistics is to make sure that  $\theta$  is identifiable (no two  $\theta$  with exactly the same model)
  - Reduce the samples to be only these statistics
- Currently, thanks to the technology development, saving the data is not that difficult. These statistics are used to help understand the model and the data and accelerate the algorithm.
- Complete statistics and ancillary statistics are not popular now.