Data Reduction*

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- 2. sufficiency principle
- 2.1 minimal sufficient statistics
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how to summarize the information in the sample?

- if the sample size *n* is large, then the sample x_1, \ldots, x_n is a long list of numbers that may be hard to interpret
- solution: compute a few statistics, e.g., sample mean, variance and quantiles, to determine the key features of the sample values
- any statistic T(X) defines a form of data reduction
- like partitioning the sample space into sets $A_t = \{x : T(x) = t\}$, and so we should be very careful in defining these partitions
- general principle: contrive data reduction methods that do not discard important information about the unknown parameter vector θ as well as that do discard irrelevant information

example

- experimenter A and B know that some data X has been generated as a normal random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 .
- only experimenter A has access to the data, but tells B the sample average \bar{X}_n and sample variance S_N^2 . I.e., tells T(x).
- does experimenter B need any additional information to fully characterize the distribution?
- experimenter B could, for example, generate another stretch of data y such that T(x) = T(y)
- we shall see that \bar{X}_N and S^2_N as sufficient statistics for the normal distribution

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principle

• definition:

- (i) T(X) is sufficient for θ if any inference about θ depends on the sample X only through T(X)
- (ii) more formally, a statistic T(X) is a sufficient statistic for θ if the conditional distribution of the sample X given the value of T(X) does not depend on θ .
- the information of θ in the observation of X is concentrated in that of T. Usually, T is of lower dimension than X. Hence, the observation of T is less costly, though it includes the same amount of information on θ. Usefulness of a sufficient statistics lies in such data reduction.
- equivalently, if x and y are two samples such that T(x) = T(y), then the inference about θ should be the same regardless of whether we observe X = x or X = y

• discrete random variables: we can always write

$$\mathbb{P}_{ heta}(X=x, T(X)=T(x)) ~=~ \mathbb{P}_{ heta}ig(X=x \mid T(X)=T(x)ig) \cdot \mathbb{P}_{ heta}ig(T(X)=T(x)ig)$$

• if T(X) is a sufficient statistic, then

$$\mathbb{P}_{ heta}ig(X=x \mid T(X)=T(x)ig) \hspace{.1in} = \hspace{.1in} \mathbb{P}ig(X=x \mid T(X)=T(x)ig)$$

characterization via pdf/pmf

• so to verify whether T(X) is a sufficient statistic, we must check if

$$\mathbb{P}_{\theta}\big(X = x \,|\, T(X) = T(x)\big) \quad = \quad \frac{\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(X = x, T(X) = T(x))}{\mathbb{P}_{\theta}\big(T(X) = T(x)\big)}$$

does not depend on θ , for all fixed x and t. Finally, we use the fact that $\{X = x\}$ is a subset of $\{T(X) = T(x)\}$

$$\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(X = x \mid T(X) = T(x)) = \frac{\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(X = x)}{\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(T(X) = T(x))}$$
$$= \frac{p(x|\theta)}{q(T(x)|\theta)}$$

where p is the pdf of X and q is the pdf of T(x) given θ .

• continuous random variables: analogous with $p(x|\theta)$ and $q(t|\theta)$ denoting the pdfs of X and of the statistic T(X), respectively

binomial sufficient statistic

• theorem: if X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid Bernoulli random variables with parameter θ , then $T(X) = X_1 + \ldots + X_n$ is a sufficient statistic for θ

• proof: given that $T(X) \sim Bin(n, \theta)$, the ratio of pdfs is, defining $t = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$

$$\frac{p(\mathbf{x}|\theta)}{q(\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{x})|\theta)} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \theta^{\mathbf{x}_i} (1-\theta)^{1-\mathbf{x}_i}}{\binom{n}{t} \theta^t (1-\theta)^{n-t}} \\ = \frac{\theta^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbf{x}_i} (1-\theta)^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (1-\mathbf{x}_i)}}{\binom{n}{t} \theta^t (1-\theta)^{n-t}} \\ = \frac{\theta^t (1-\theta)^{n-t}}{\binom{n}{t} \theta^t (1-\theta)^{n-t}} = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{t}}$$

which does not depend on θ

normal sufficient statistic

- theorem: if X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid $N(\mu, 1)$ random variables, then $T(X) = \overline{X}_n$ is a sufficient statistic for μ
- proof: given that $\mathcal{T}(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, 1/n)$, the ratio of pdfs is

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

which does not depend on μ

how to find a sufficient statistic

- it may not be the best approach to use the definition directly, since one has to guess the sufficient statistic, find the pmfs, and calculate the ratio.
- fortunately, there is the following theorem
- factorization theorem (CB 6.2.6): let $f_X(x|\theta)$ denote the joint pmf/pdf of a sample X, then T(X) is a sufficient statistic for θ if and only if there exist functions $g(t|\theta)$ and h(x) such that, for all sample points x and all parameter points θ ,

 $f_X(x|\theta) = g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)$

• proof (\Rightarrow , discrete case): note that, because T(X) is a sufficient statistic, $h(X) = \mathbb{P}(X = x | T(X) = T(x))$ does not depend on θ . Letting then $g(t|\theta) = \mathbb{P}_{\theta}(T(X) = t)$ yields

$$F(x|\theta) = \mathbb{P}_{\theta}(X = x)$$

= $\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(X = x, T(X) = T(x))$
= $\mathbb{P}_{\theta}(T(X) = T(x))\mathbb{P}(X = x | T(X) = T(x))$
= $g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)$

how to find a sufficient statistic

• proof (⇐, discrete case): assume that factorization

$$f_X(x|\theta) = g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)$$

exists and examine the ratio $\frac{f_X(x|\theta)}{q(T(x)|\theta)}$, where $q(t|\theta)$ is the pmf of T(X).

$$\frac{f_X(x|\theta)}{q(T(x)|\theta)} = \frac{g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)}{q(T(x)|\theta)} = \frac{g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)}{\sum_{\mathcal{A}_{T(x)}} g(T(y)|\theta)h(y)}$$

where $\mathcal{A}_{T(x)} = \{y : T(y) = T(x)\}$. Then

$$\frac{f_X(x|\theta)}{q(T(x)|\theta)} = \frac{g(T(x)|\theta)h(x)}{g(T(x)|\theta)\sum_{\mathcal{A}_{T(x)}}h(y)} = \frac{h(x)}{\sum_{\mathcal{A}_{T(x)}}h(y)}$$

The ratio does not depend on θ , so T(X) is a sufficient statistic.

- to use the factorization theorem, we factor the joint pdf of the sample into two parts:
 - -h(x): one does not depend on θ
 - $-g(T(x)|\theta)$: depends on the sample x only through T(x)
- let's see some examples...

discrete uniform sufficient statistic

- theorem: if X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid uniform on $1, \ldots, \theta$ then $T(X) = X_{(n)}$ is a sufficient statistic for θ
- proof: the joint pmf of X is

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

write the restriction

$$\{x_i = 1, \dots, \theta \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n\} = \mathcal{I}(x_i \in \mathbb{N}) \cdot \mathcal{I}(x_{(n)} \leq \theta)$$

so

$$f(x|\theta) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\theta^n} \mathcal{I}(x_{(n)} \leq \theta)}_{g(x_{(n)}|\theta)} \cdot \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{I}(x_i \in \mathbb{N})}_{h(x)}$$

normal distribution, both parameters unknown

• theorem: let X_1, \ldots, X_n be iid $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then

$$T_1(x) = \bar{x}$$

$$T_2(x) = s^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

are sufficient statistics.

• proof: the joint pdf of the sample X is

$$f(x|\mu,\sigma^{2}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} (2\pi\sigma^{2})^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-(x_{i}-\mu)^{2}/(2\sigma^{2})\right\}$$

$$= (2\pi\sigma^{2})^{-n/2} \exp\left\{-\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i}-\mu)^{2}/(2\sigma^{2})\right\}$$

$$= (2\pi\sigma^{2})^{-n/2} \exp\left\{-\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_{i}-\bar{x})^{2}+n(\bar{x}-\mu)^{2}\right)/(2\sigma^{2})\right\}$$

$$= (2\pi\sigma^{2})^{-n/2} \exp\left\{-\left((n-1)t_{2}+n(t_{1}-\mu)^{2}\right)/(2\sigma^{2})\right\}$$

then select $g(T(x)|\theta)$ as this expression and h(x) = 1.

exponential family

• theorem: if X_1, \ldots, X_n are iid observations from an exponential family then

$$T(X) = \left(\sum_{j=1}^n s_1(X_j), \ldots, \sum_{j=1}^n s_d(X_j)\right)$$

is sufficient for $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

• proof: the joint pdf is

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} \left\{ h(x_i)c(\theta) \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{k} w_j(\theta)t_j(x_i)\right) \right\} = c(\theta)^n \exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{k} w_j(\theta)t_j(x_i)\right) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} h(x_i)$$
$$= \underbrace{c(\theta)^n \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{k} w_j(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_j(x_i)\right)}_{\equiv g(T(x)|\theta)} \cdot \underbrace{\prod_{i=1}^{n} h(x_i)}_{\equiv h(x)}$$

sufficient statistics

- not all sufficient statistic achieve a substantial data reduction
- example: if X_1, \ldots, X_n are i.i.d. from a pdf f_X , the order statistic

$$T(X) = (X_{(1)}, \ldots, X_{(n)})$$

is a sufficient statistic for f_X

• example: the complete sample is a sufficient statistic, since

$$f_X(x|\theta) = f(T(x)|\theta)h(x)$$

with h(x) = 1

- sometimes it is impossible to achieve a substantial data reduction: nonparametric statistics
- it turns out that having a data reduction is a particular property of only a few distributions: outside the exponential family, it is rare to have a sufficient statistic smaller than the sample size

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- as we have seen, there are often numerous sufficient statistics. which one is better?
- a criterion: achieving more data reduction is better
- a minimial sufficient statistic is a statistic that has achieved the maximal amount of data reduction while still retaining all the information about the parameter θ

- theorem: any bijective function of a sufficient statistic is also a sufficient statistic.
- proof: to see this, let T(X) be a sufficient statistic and $T^*(X) \equiv r(T(X))$. Then

$$f_X(X|\theta) = g(T(X)|\theta)h(x) = g(r^{-1}(T^*(X))|\theta)h(x)$$

and defining $g^*(t|\theta) = g(r^{-1}(t)|\theta)$,

$$f(x|\theta) = g^*(T^*(x)|\theta)h(x)$$

so $T^*(x)$ is a sufficient statistic

- definition: a sufficient statistic T(X) is called a minimal sufficient statistic if, for any other sufficient statistic T'(X), T(X) is a function of T'(X).
- we defined a sufficient statistic as a partition of the sample space \mathcal{X} :
 - let $\mathcal{T} = \{t : t = T(x), x \in \mathcal{X}\}$, the image of \mathcal{X} under T(x)
 - T(x) induces a partition of \mathcal{X} , $\{\mathcal{A}_t : t \in \mathcal{T}\}$, $\mathcal{A}_t = \{x : T(x) = t\}$
- ... and back to the minimal sufficient statistics:
 - if T(x) is a function of T'(x), then $T'(x) = T'(y) \implies T(x) = T(y)$
 - let $\mathcal{B}_{t'} = \{x | T'(x) = t'\}$. So $\mathcal{B}_{t'} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_t$ for some t
 - this must be true for any sufficient statistic T'(x)
 - in other words, the minimal sufficient statistic induces the coarsest partition $\{A_t | t \in T\}$ of X among all sufficient statistics

- again, applying this definition may not be too practical. Fortunately, we have the following theorem
- theorem (CB 6.2.13): let $f(x|\theta)$ be the pmf or pdf of a sample X. Suppose that there exists a function T(x) such that, for every two sample points x and y, the ratio $\frac{f(x|\theta)}{f(y|\theta)}$ is a constant function of θ if and only if T(x) = T(y). Then T(X) is a minimal sufficient statistic for θ .
- before proving the theorem, let's see an example

• example: let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, both μ and σ^2 unknown. The ratio of densities are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(x|\mu,\sigma^2)}{f(y|\mu,\sigma^2)} &= \frac{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2}\exp\left\{-[n(\bar{x}-\mu)^2+(n-1)s_x^2]/(2\sigma^2)\right\}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2}\exp\left\{-[n(\bar{y}-\mu)^2+(n-1)s_y^2]/(2\sigma^2)\right\}} \\ &= \exp\left\{\frac{-n(\bar{x}^2-\bar{y}^2)+2n\mu(\bar{x}-\bar{y})-(n-1)(s_x^2-s_y^2)}{2\sigma^2}\right\}\end{aligned}$$

which will be a constant function of μ and σ^2 if, and only if, $\bar{x} = \bar{y}$ and $s_x^2 = s_y^2$. Thus, (\bar{X}, S^2) is a minimal sufficient statistic for (μ, σ^2) .

proof (T(X) is a sufficient statistic): let T = {t : t = T(x) for some x ∈ X} be the image of X under T(X), along with its partitions A_t = {x : T(x) = t}. For each A_t, fix one element x_t ∈ A_t. So for any x ∈ X, there is a x_{T(x)} ∈ A_t. That is, both x and x_{T(x)} ∈ A_t. Therefore T(x) = T(x_{T(x)}) and f(x_{(x)|θ})/f(x_{T(x)|θ} is constant in θ. Now take g(t|θ) = f(x_t|θ) defined on T, and h(x) = f(x_t|θ)/f(x_{T(x)}|θ) defined on X. And write f(x|θ) = g(T(x)|θ)h(x)

By the factorization theorem, T(X) is a sufficient statistic.

• proof (T(X) is a minimal sufficient statistic): let T'(X) be any other sufficient statistic. By the factorization theorem, there exists functions g' and h' such that $f(x|\theta) = g'(T'(x)|\theta)h'(x)$. Let x and y be any two sample points with T'(x) = T'(y). Then

$$\frac{f(x|\theta)}{f(y|\theta)} = \frac{g'(T'(x)|\theta)h'(x)}{g'(T'(y)|\theta)h'(y)} = \frac{h'(x)}{h'(y)}$$

since the ratio does not depend on θ , by assumption T(x) = T(y). Thus, T(x) is a function of T'(x) and T(x) is minimal.

• example: let $\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$ be a random sample. Find the minimal sufficient statistics for θ with distribution.

$$f(x| heta) = e^{-(x- heta)}, \ heta < x < \infty, \ -\infty < heta < \infty$$

• answer:

$$\frac{f(x|\theta)}{f(y|\theta)} = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(e^{-(x_i - \theta)} \cdot \mathcal{I}(\theta < x_i < \infty) \right)}{\prod_{i=1}^{n} \left(e^{-(y_i - \theta)} \cdot \mathcal{I}(\theta < y_i < \infty) \right)}$$
$$= \frac{e^{n\theta} e^{-\sum_i x_i} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{I}(\theta < x_i < \infty)}{e^{n\theta} e^{-\sum_i y_i} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{I}(\theta < y_i < \infty)}$$
$$= \frac{e^{-\sum_i x_i} \mathcal{I}(\theta < \min x_i < \infty)}{e^{-\sum_i y_i} \mathcal{I}(\theta < \min y_i < \infty)}$$

which is independent of θ if, and only if, $T(X) = \min\{X_1, \ldots, X_n\}$.

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• definition: let $f_X(x|\theta)$ denote the joint pdf/pmf of X, then the likelihood function of θ given X = x is

$$\ell(\theta|x) = f_X(x|\theta)$$

• discrete case: if we compare the likelihood functions at θ_1 and θ_2 and find that

$$P_{\theta_1}(X = x) = \ell(\theta_1|x) > \ell(\theta_2|x) = P_{\theta_2}(X = x),$$

then the sample we observe is more likely to stem from $\theta = \theta_1$ than from $\theta = \theta_2$.

- in other words, θ_1 is more plausible that θ_2 given X = x
- continuous case: remains a basis for comparison

$$\frac{P_{\theta_1}(|X-x|<\epsilon)}{P_{\theta_2}(|X-x|<\epsilon)} \;\;\cong\;\; \frac{\ell(\theta_1|x)}{\ell(\theta_2|x)} \qquad \text{for small } \epsilon>0$$

• example: let X have a binomial distribution. The p.d.f. is a function of x, given p,

$$f_X(x|p=0.3) = {\binom{10}{x}} (0.3)^x (0.7)^{10-x}$$

and the likelihood is a function of p given x

$$\ell(p|x=3) = {\binom{10}{3}}p^3(1-p)^{10-3}$$



Binomial pdf



Binomial likelihood

principle

- likelihood principle: if x and y are two sample points such that $\ell(\theta|x)$ is proportional to $\ell(\theta|y)$, that is to say, there exists a constant c(x, y) such that $\ell(\theta|x) = c(x, y) \ell(\theta|y)$ for all θ , then they entail the same information about θ
- that is, even if two sample points x and y have only proportional likelihoods, then they contain equivalent information about θ (this is true as long as c(x, y) does not depend on θ)
- we are careful enough to say that θ₁ is more plausible that θ₂ rather than more probable, not only because ℓ(θ|x) is typically not a pdf, but also because θ is usually fixed

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Reference:

• Casella and Berger, Ch. 6

Exercises:

• 6.1-6.6, 6.8, 6.9, 6.16, 6.17.