

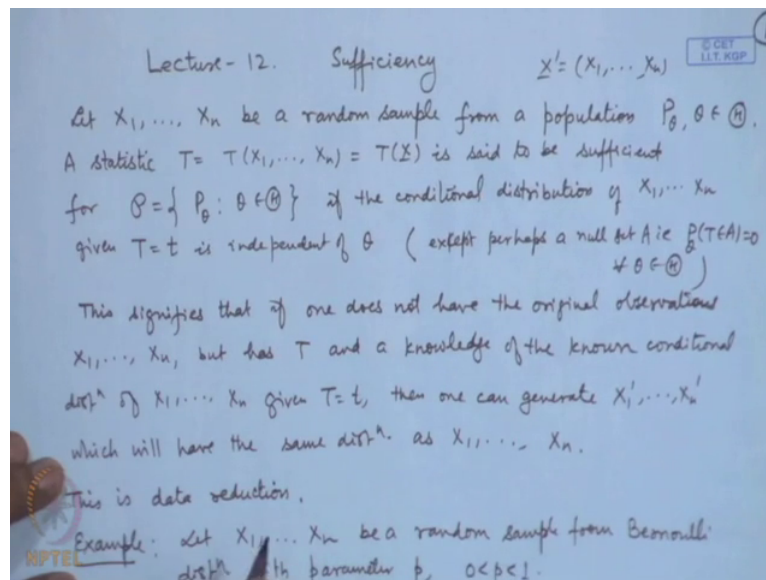
Statistical Inference
Prof. Somesh Kumar
Department of Mathematics
Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur

Lecture No. # 12
Sufficiency

Now, I start with a new concept that is called sufficiency. In the context of statistical inference, there is a concept which is useful to retain the necessary data without losing any information. What is the literal meaning of the word sufficiency? The literal meaning of the word sufficiency is that it is enough sufficient means enough. So, usually we are dealing with the statistical model that we deal in the inference problem is that, we say let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample meaning there by that we have data on n observations or you can say n data points are available to us.

Now, in many of the practical problems it becomes difficult to retain the data, because it may occupy lot of storage space whether it is on computer or it is in the form of hard copy of the data and then there is a danger of losing the data. It will be always interesting to say that let us keep the minimum things, such that whatever information or whatever useful inferences we want to make we are not suffering in that; that means, we do not want lose any important part of it. A formal specification of this concept is called sufficiency or sufficient statistic in the context of statistical inference.

(Refer Slide Time: 02:10)



So, let us introduce the formal definition of sufficiency. As before, we have a random sample. So, let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample from a population say p_θ , θ belonging to Ω . So, let $T = T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$ be a statistic. So, a statistic means a function of observations. So, t that is $T(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$, which we also write as $T(X)$; that means, we are denoting x as X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . So, $T(x)$ is said to be sufficient. Now, what do you mean by sufficient for what. So, we usually mention the word sufficient for the family of probability distributions.

In loose terms we also say sufficient for the parameter θ meaning there by that, whatever be the parameter under consideration, many times in the problems we will have one dimensional parameter, two dimensional parameter etcetera. In that case we will have to consider specifically what parameter is being considered. So, the formal definition I am writing for the family of probability distributions meaning there by that, whatever parameters are under consideration this could be a scalar or a vector parameter. So, this is said to be sufficient if the conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , given $T = t$ is independent of θ of course, except perhaps a null set A that is on a set A where T takes probability 0.

So, this is an exceptional case, but in general the distribution of the random sample given the statistic, if it is independent of the parameter then we say that this T is independent then we say that this T is a sufficient statistic. Now, what is the physical interpretation of this

definition that, the distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , is free from θ and then we say it is sufficient. What does it mean? It means that now if the distribution is free from θ ; that means, the distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , given T is completely known.

So, suppose we know T , we know the distribution of t . Now, this conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , given T since it is free from θ then that is also known therefore, if I merge these 2 distributions that is a conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , given T and the distribution of T , I get the joint distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , and T from there I get the distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n . It means that even if I may not have the initial X_1, X_2, X_n , with us, but we can generate that distribution once again, because of the information or you can say the distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , given T being free from the parameter and t is known to us.

This signifies that if one does not have the original observations X_1, X_2, X_n , but has T and knowledge of the known conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n , given T then one can generate say X_1 prime, X_2 prime, X_n prime, which will have the same distribution as X_1, X_2, X_n . So, this is called data reduction. As we will show later on that in most of the practical problems, the sufficient statistics will become like one dimensional or two dimensional things although you may have any number of observations. So, this data reduction is helpful and we will show statistically also that, basing our decisions on the sufficient statistics is also useful; that means, if there is any inference made in the terms of estimation testing of hypothesis etcetera. If I am making inference based on the sufficient statistics we are better off.

So, let me explain this example say binomial distribution example let me take suppose, I have X_1, X_2, X_n , be a random sample from say Bernoulli distribution with parameter p here p lies between 0 and 1.

(Refer Slide Time: 09:03)

$T = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ Consider the conditional distribution of X_1, \dots, X_n given $T=t$

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

$$= \begin{cases} P(X_1=x_1, \dots, X_{n-1}=x_{n-1}, X_n=t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i) / P(T=t) & \text{if } t = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \\ 0 & \text{if } t \neq \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{p^{x_1} (1-p)^{n-x_1} \dots p^{x_{n-1}} (1-p)^{n-x_{n-1}} p^{t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i} (1-p)^{n - t + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i}}{\binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}}$$

$$= \frac{p^t (1-p)^{n-t}}{\binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}}$$

Let us consider say T is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, i is equal to 1 to n let us look at the conditional distribution of, consider the conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , given T that is equal to t . X_1 is equal to x_1 and so on. X_n is equal to x_n given T is equal to t that is equal to probability of X_1 is equal to small x_1 and. So, on X_n is equal to small x_n T is equal to t divided by probability of T is equal to t . Now, that is equal to since, T is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, if small x_1 plus small x_2 plus small x_n is equal to t , then only this probability will be calculated in other cases this will be simply equal to 0. So, that is equal to probability of X_1 is equal to small x_1 and. So, on X_{n-1} is equal to small x_{n-1} and X_n is equal to $t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$, i is equal to 1 to $n-1$. If t is equal to $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ is equal to 1 to n otherwise this is 0.

Now, here we can make use of the fact that X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are independently distributed Bernoulli random variables. So, if they are independent this probability of the joint occurrence will be equal to the product of these probabilities. So, this term let me write this term is anyway 0. So, this term is equal to probability of X_1 is equal to small x_1 and. So, on X_{n-1} is equal to small x_{n-1} , probability of X_n is equal to $t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$, i is equal to 1 to $n-1$ that is equal to p to the power x_1 , $1-p$ to the power $1-x_1$ and. So, on p to the power x_{n-1} , $1-p$ to the power $1-x_{n-1}$ p to the power $t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$, $1-p$ to the power $1 - t + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} X_i$ and divided by probability T is equal to t .

Now, what is the distribution of t , if X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are Bernoulli's independent then this will be binomial n, p . So, probability T is equal to t that will be equal to $\binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}$. Now, we can easily see these terms this p to the power t if you add you will get p to the power t similarly, if you add $1-p$ exponents you will get $(1-p)^{n-t}$, that will cancel out with plus $\sum X_i$, you get $n-t$. So, you get it as $p^t (1-p)^{n-t}$ divided by $\binom{n}{t} p^t (1-p)^{n-t}$.

Now, this term simply cancels out. So, we get it as $1 / \binom{n}{t}$. So, this conditional distribution then.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:29)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on a whiteboard. At the top, it says "This is independent of p. So $T = \sum X_i \sim \text{Ber}(1, p), 0 < p < 1$ ". Below that, it says "Example: let X_1, \dots, X_n be a random sample from $P(\lambda), \lambda > 0$ ". Then it defines $T = \sum X_i \sim P(n\lambda)$. The main equation is
$$P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n | T = t) = \frac{P(X_1 = x_1, \dots, X_n = x_n, X_n = t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i)}{P(T = t)}$$
 where $t = \sum x_i$. The numerator is $\prod_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!} \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i}}{(t - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i)!}$. The denominator is $\frac{e^{-n\lambda} (n\lambda)^t}{t!}$. The final result is 0 if $t \neq \sum x_i$ and $1 / \binom{n}{t}$ if $t = \sum x_i$. An NPTEL logo is visible in the bottom left corner.

We can express as probability of X_1 is equal to small X_1 and. So, on X_n is equal to small X_n given T is equal to t that is equal to $1 / \binom{n}{t}$, for t is equal to $\sum X_i$ and it is equal to 0 , if t is not equal to $\sum x_i$. You look at this term there is no θ , no parameter appearing here, p is not appearing here. So, this is independent of p . So, t is equal to $\sum X_i$ is sufficient for the family of Bernoulli distributions we may also say it as that t is sufficient for p . Now, note here the physical significance of sufficiency.

If we are observing X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n as p independent Bernoulli random variables; that means, their observations related to success or failure in n Bernoullian trials for example, you are looking at a game of say dart and we are considering hitting a target and we make naims at the

target, then what is important whether individual hits whether this say second one hit correctly, third one did not hit correctly is it important information or out of n total attempts how many are correct; that means, x that is some of x_i 's. Now, here you see in this concept of sufficiency exactly $\sum X_i$ is turning out to be sufficient therefore, this is the relevant information and whatever individual information about X_1, X_2, X_n is there that is not necessary to be retained.

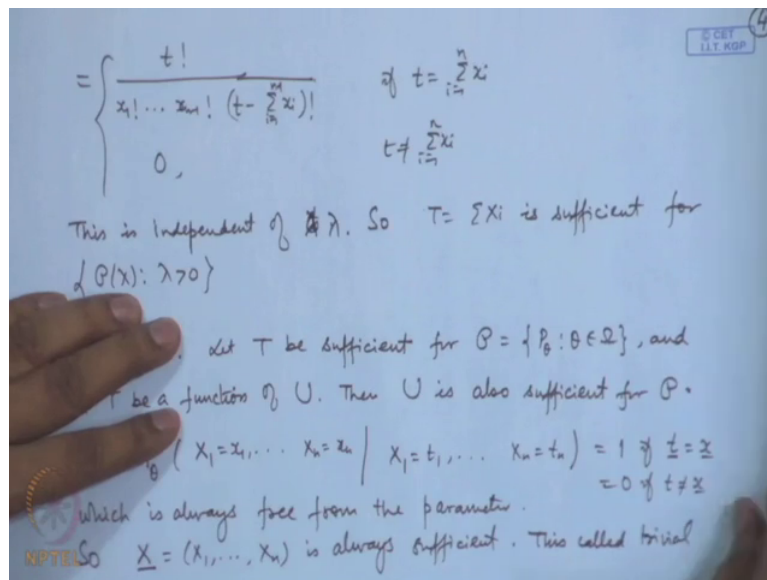
In fact, now if we know this and we know the distribution of t that is binomial $n p$. We can generate another random sample let us call it say X_1 prime, X_2 prime, X_n prime, which will have Bernoulli $1 p$ distribution. Let me explain through another examplesay let X_1, X_2, X_n be a random sample from Poisson λ distribution, where λ is positive. Once again let us define t is equal to say $\sum X_i$. now, you can proceed in the same way like in the binomial case we can consider X_1 is equal to X_1 and. So, on X_n is equal to X_n given T is equal to t .

So, arguing as before we get it as X_1 is equal to X_1 and. So, on X_n minus 1 is equal to X_n minus 1, X_n is equal to t minus $\sum X_i$, I is equal to 1 to n minus 1 divided by probability, T is equal to t , if t is equal to $\sum X_i$, 1 to n it is equal to 0 if t is not equal to $\sum X_i$ 1 to n . So, once again this term will be equal to e to the power minus λ , λ to the power X_i by X_i factorial for I is equal to 1 to n minus 1 and the last 1 is e to the power minus λ , λ to the power t minus $\sum X_i$, 1 to n minus 1 divided by t minus $\sum X_i$, I is equal to 1 to n minus 1 factorial.

Now, this will become e to the power minus n minus 1 λ and then e to the power minus n λ and also we have in the denominator t . Now, this will follow Poisson n λ , because Poisson distribution is additive. So, if we are considering a random sample each one following Poisson λ then $\sum X_i$ will follow Poisson n λ .

So, we can write e to the power minus n λ , n λ to the power t by t factorial. So, this e to the power minus n λ cancels out and if you look at λ to the power X_1 plus, X_2 plus, X_n minus 1, that cancels here you get λ to the power t and in the denominator also we have λ to the power t here so, what we get here this t factorial will go in the numerator.

(Refer Slide Time: 18:58)



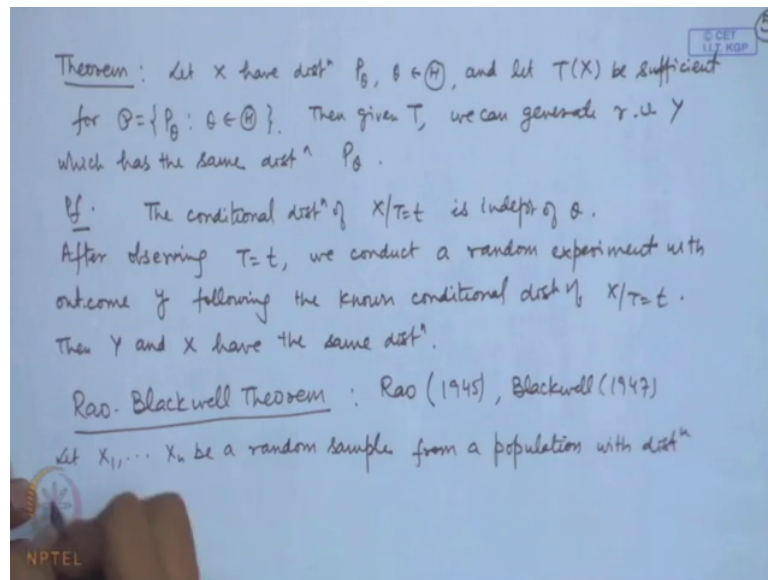
So, let me write it here, this is equal to factorial divided by X_1 factorial, X_2 factorial X_n minus 1 factorial, t minus $\sum X_i$, t is equal to 1 to n minus 1 factorial, if t is equal to $\sum X_i$ and it is equal to 0 if t is not equal to $\sum X_i$, i is equal to 1 to n . Once again you notice here that this is independent of t . So, t is equal to $\sum X_i$ this is independent of λ **sorry**. So, t is equal to $\sum X_i$ is sufficient for the family of Poisson distributions, we may also say that $\sum X_i$ is sufficient for the parameter λ .

Now, we can make certain statements here if I am considering conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n given t and suppose t is a function of u , then if I consider the conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n given u then that will also be free from the parameter, because if that is not free from the parameter then the conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n given t will also not be free from the parameter. Therefore if t is sufficient and t is a function of u then u is also sufficient and of course, if I have a 1-to-one function of t , then that will also be sufficient. So, let me give some remarks here. Let t be sufficient for a family of distributions and let t be a function of u then u is also sufficient for p .

Another point that you notice here, that if I consider the conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, X_n given X_1 is equal to small X_1, X_2 is equal to small X_2, X_n is equal to small X_n , then that is always independent of parameter. We can write conditional distribution of say X_1 is equal to X_1, X_n is equal to X_n given say X_1 is equal to t_1 and. So, on X_n is equal to t_n this is equal to 1 if this t vector is same as x vector otherwise it is 0. So, this is naturally free

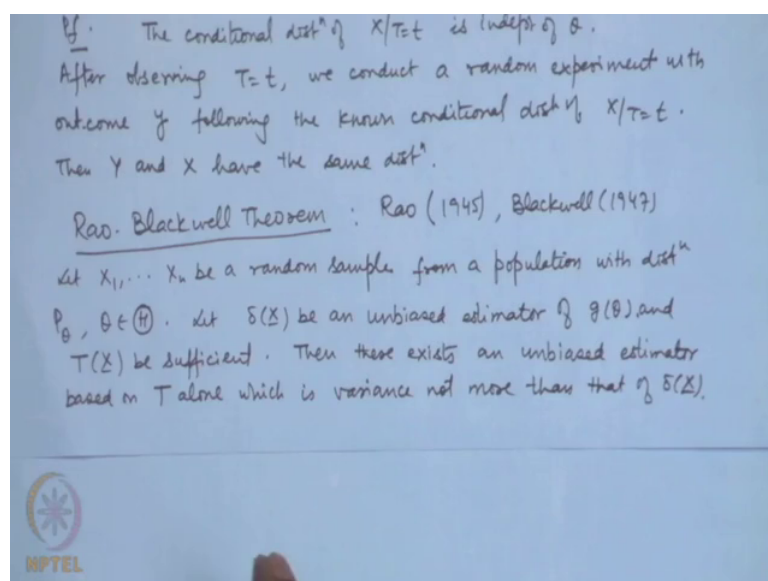
from the parameter free from the parameter. So, the sample x is always sufficient. So, the full sample is always sufficient, we will be interested in getting some sort of reduction over there. This is known as trivial sufficient statistics, trivial sufficient statistics.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:21)



Let me formally prove that given a sufficient statistics, you can generate the original sample. So, let x have distribution says p_θ , θ belonging to say script θ .

(Refer Slide Time: 23:21)



And let T, X be sufficient, then given T we can generate random variable y which has the same distribution p_θ , that is the same distribution of x . So, the conditional distribution of x given T is independent of θ . So, after observing T is equal to t , we conduct a random experiment with outcome say y following the known conditional distribution of x given t and then y and x have the same distribution.

Now, another important significance you can say of sufficient statistics is that, if we are considering any one by the estimator I can have another one by estimator which is based on the sufficient statistics and its variance will be less than or equal to the variance of the initial estimator. This famous result is known as Rao Blackwell theorem; it is named after the Indian statistician C. R. Rao, who proved this result in 1945 and David Blackwell 1947. Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample from a population with distribution p_θ , θ belonging to some set Θ . Let $\delta(x)$ be an unbiased estimator of parametric function say $g(\theta)$ and t be sufficient, then there exists an unbiased estimator based on t alone which has variance not more than that of $\delta(x)$.

Now, this is a very significant statement in a given problem, if I have a sufficient statistics then I can always base our unbiased estimators on that statistics. So, that I will do better than if I do not base it; that means, I will be utilizing the full information in the sample for making my statistical inference.

(Refer Slide Time: 28:11)

Proof Let $h(t) = E[\delta(x) | T(x)=t]$ (this is independent of θ)
 as T is sufficient. So $h(T)$ is a statistic
 $E_\theta h(T) = E_\theta E[\delta(x) | T=t] = E_\theta \delta(x) = g(\theta) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$
 So $h(T)$ is unbiased for $g(\theta)$.
 $Var_\theta \delta(x) = E_\theta \{Var_\theta \delta(x) | T\} + Var_\theta \{E[\delta(x) | T]\}$
 $= \underbrace{E_\theta \{Var_\theta \delta(x) | T\}}_{\geq 0} + Var_\theta \{h(T)\}$
 $\Rightarrow Var_\theta h(T) \leq Var_\theta \delta(x)$

The proof is. In fact, not very difficult let us consider $h(t)$ to be expectation of δx , given T x is equal to T since, we know the conditional distribution of x given T is independent of θ therefore, this expectation is going to be a function of t alone this is independent of θ as T is sufficient. So, $h(T)$ is a statistic and I can consider it for my estimation purpose. Let us consider expectation of $h(T)$ now, expectation of $h(T)$ is simply expectation of expectation δx given T . Now, this is nothing, but expectation of δx that is equal to $g(\theta)$. So, this new estimator that I have used $h(T)$ is unbiased. So, this is unbiased for $g(\theta)$.

Further let us consider say variance of δX . Now, this variance of δX I can express as expectation of variance δx given t , plus variance of expectation δx given T . Now, this is equal to this quantity if you see this is a non-negative quantity and expectation of δx given T we have defined to be $h(T)$. So, this is equal to variance of $h(T)$. So, what we are getting variance of δx is equal to variance of $h(T)$ plus a non-negative quantity; that means, variance of $h(T)$ is going to be less than or equal to variance of δx , you will give applications of this result a little later.

Another important point that we notice when we were proving that t is equal to $\sum X_i$ is sufficient in the two examples that I have considered is that, we are already guessing what is a sufficient statistics. Now, in many given problems it may not be obvious that what is sufficient and therefore, this definition of taking conditional distribution to prove that I have given statistic sufficient may be too cumbersome and moreover it may give rise to like we consider conditional distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n given say X_1 minus, X_2 plus, x_3 minus, x_4 and so on. It may turn out that this is not free we may take $\sum X_i^2$, it may not be free from θ then how to get or you can say how to get guess an sufficient statistic.

Fortunately, for this there is an important result called factorization theorem, which readily produces the sufficient statistics.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:08)

Neyman-Fisher Factorization Theorem
 (For general rigorous statement & proof see Lehmann & Romano)
 Let X be a discrete r.v. with pmf $f(x, \theta)$, $\theta \in \Theta$. Then $T(X)$ is sufficient if and only if

$$f(x, \theta) = g(T(x), \theta) h(x) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

Proof: Let $f(x, \theta) = g(T(x), \theta) h(x)$

$$P_{\theta}(T(X)=t) = \sum_{x: T(x)=t} f(x, \theta) = \sum_{x: T(x)=t} g(T(x), \theta) h(x) = g(t, \theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)$$

$$P_{\theta}(X=x' | T(X)=t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } T(x') \neq t \\ \frac{P(X=x', T(X)=T(x'))}{P(T(X)=T(x'))} & \text{if } T(x') = t \end{cases}$$

Neyman-Fisher Factorization Theorem
 (For general rigorous statement & proof see Lehmann & Romano)
 Let X be a discrete r.v. with pmf $f(x, \theta)$, $\theta \in \Theta$. Then $T(X)$ is sufficient if and only if

$$f(x, \theta) = g(T(x), \theta) h(x) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

Proof: Let $f(x, \theta) = g(T(x), \theta) h(x)$

$$P_{\theta}(T(X)=t) = \sum_{x: T(x)=t} f(x, \theta) = \sum_{x: T(x)=t} g(T(x), \theta) h(x) = g(t, \theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)$$

$$P_{\theta}(X=x' | T(X)=t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } T(x') \neq t \\ \frac{P(X=x', T(X)=T(x'))}{P(T(X)=T(x'))} & \text{if } T(x') = t \end{cases}$$

So, this is known as Neyman Fisher factorization theorem named after a fisher and Jersey Neyman who proved in around 1939. We are not going to give a very rigorous statement and proof of this theorem which will be applicable to all situations rather, we will consider a discrete case here and to write the proof here, for general rigorous statement and proof see the book of say Lehmann and Romano. We are considering a discrete case here, let x be a discrete random variable with probability mass function say $f(x, \theta)$, θ belonging to script Θ then $T(x)$ is sufficient if and only if $f(x, \theta)$ is equal to $g(T(x), \theta) h(x)$ for all θ .

So, we are calling this as the factorization theorem, what I am saying is the distribution can be written as product of two terms g and h . Where h is a term where parameter does not appear in the term g the parameter θ appears, but appearance of x is through t alone. So, if that is happening then we say t is sufficient. So, the factorization means that the part of the distribution, where the parameter is involved should involve only the sufficient statistics in the form of variables and the other term should be free from the parameter.

Let us look at a proof of this. So, we are considering the discrete case here. So, let us assume say $f(x|\theta) = g(T|x, \theta) h(x)$. Now, let us consider say probability that $T = t$ is equal to $P(T=t)$ now, this is a probability which is involving a function of the random variable x . So, this can be considered as the sum over the probability mass function over those values of x for which $T = t$, if I am assuming this factorization I can write it as $g(T|x, \theta) h(x)$ such that, $T = t$ now in the term $h(x)$ this $T = t$ condition is not it is coming whereas, here $T = t$ will be true for all the values. So, this term can be taken out of the summation sign, this can be written as $g(T|\theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)$.

So, if I consider probability of $x = x'$ given $T = t$; that means, conditional distribution of x given $T = t$ is equal to 0, if $T(x') \neq t$ and in other case it is equal to probability of $x = x'$, $T(x') = t$ divided by probability of $T = t$, which is actually equal to $T(x') = t$ here, because I am taking $T(x') = t$. So, if you consider this now probability of $x = x'$, $T(x') = t$, it is same as probability $x = x'$. So, this becomes equal to let me consider only this star portion let me call this as a star here I will consider this portion.

(Refer Slide Time: 36:56)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \textcircled{*} &= \frac{P_{\theta}(X=x')}{\sum_{x: T(x)=t} g(t, \theta) h(x)} = \frac{g(t, \theta) h(x')}{g(t, \theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)} \\
 &\text{which is indep't of } \theta. \text{ So the conditional dist'n of } X \text{ given } T \text{ is} \\
 &\text{independent of the parameter. So } T \text{ is sufficient statistic.} \\
 &\text{Conversely, let } T \text{ is sufficient for } \theta. \\
 \Rightarrow P_{\theta}(X=x' | T(X)=t) &= c(x', t) \text{ (indep't of } \theta). \\
 \Rightarrow \frac{P_{\theta}(X=x', T(X)=T(x'))}{P(T(X)=T(x'))} &= c(x', t) \text{ (if } T(x')=t) \\
 \Rightarrow P_{\theta}(X=x') &= c(x', t) P_{\theta}(T(X)=T(x')) = \frac{c(x', t) \cdot g(t, \theta)}{g(t, \theta)} \\
 &= h(x) g(t, \theta)
 \end{aligned}$$

So, this is star portion is equal to $p_{\theta}(x=x')$ is equal to $g(t, \theta) h(x')$ divided by $g(t, \theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)$ such that $T(x)$ is equal to t that is equal to $g(t, \theta) h(x')$ divided by $g(t, \theta) \sum_{x: T(x)=t} h(x)$ such that, $T(x)$ is equal to t now this term cancels out. So, you look at this conditional distribution of x given t now, this term is free from the parameter independent of θ . So, the conditional distribution of x given T is independent of the parameter. So, t is sufficient by the definition of the sufficiency.

Let us take the converse part of this theorem, let us assume that t is sufficient for θ . If we assume that T is sufficient for θ ; that means, I am saying the conditional distribution of x given $T(x)$ is a function of only x' and t , that is independent of θ . But this left hand side you can write as $p_{\theta}(x=x' | T(x)=T(x')) = \frac{P_{\theta}(X=x', T(X)=T(x'))}{P(T(X)=T(x'))}$ that is equal to $c(x', t)$ if $T(x')$ is equal to T in other case of course, it is equal to 0. So, we do not write the case here.

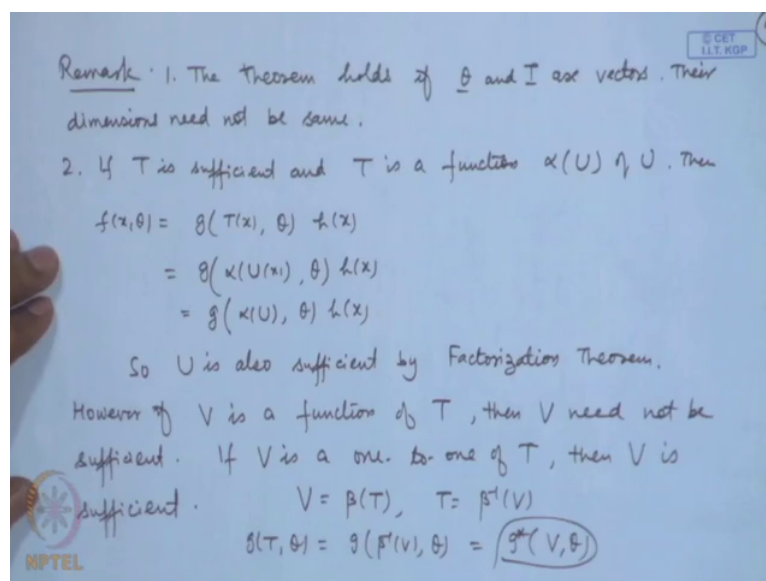
This means that probability of x equal to x' is equal to $c(x', t)$ and this term now, what is this term this term will be simply $c(x', t)$, $g(t, \theta)$, because I am taking $T(x')$ is equal to t now, this is nothing, but the factorization because this term I can write as $h(x) g(t, \theta)$. So, I have considered this discrete case here, because it is easy to write this conditional probabilities, if the distributions are continuous then probability of $T(x)$ equal to t does not make sense, because that will be 0 we have to use the conditional density function form. So,

the general proof which is given in the Lehmann and Romano this takes care of all these cases.

Another point which I would like to mention here, here I have taken theta to be a scalar, but suppose theta is a vector here then what will be the change here? If we make this assumption this theta will become vector this theta will become vector here, here also theta will become a vector this will become a vector this will become a vector. So, there is no change in the argument here; that means, if the factorization holds T will be sufficient. Let us look at the converse part. In the converse part we are saying that this is free from theta. So, theta will become vector here and it will not make any difference and here we will write it as a function of t and theta where theta is a vector parameter.

So, this result holds even if theta is a vector parameter and another thing is about t also I am writing here t as a 1 dimensional term, but that is also not must here T also can have several components like it could be t 1, t 2, t k similarly theta can be theta 1, theta 2, theta n.

(Refer Slide Time: 41:40)



So, let me write this as a remark here, the theorem holds if theta and t are vectors and another point is that their dimensions need not be the same. Now, let us revisit our statement I said that if T is a function of u then u is also sufficient. Now, in the factorization theorem if I substitute t as a function of u, then I will be writing it as something like h of u, if I put that thing then it will mean that u is also sufficient by the same argument. So, let me add that here,

if T is sufficient and T is a function say h of U , then let us look at the density function f of x theta is equal to g of T X theta into h x , this we can write as g of now, T it is a function of $alpha$ u . So, this we can write as g of a function of u . So, we can just $alpha$ u we can write. So, u is also sufficient by factorization theorem.

However, if V is a function of T then v need not be sufficient, if V is a one-to-one function of T then V is sufficient. Now, this proof is again simple, if we say V is a one-to-one function say V is equal to $beta$ of T then we can say T is equal to $beta$ inverse of V , in that case g T theta you can write as g of $beta$ inverse V theta; that means, it is a function of V and theta. So, V is also sufficient.

Now, the definition of sufficiency can be used to prove whether a given statistic is sufficient or not sufficient, because we can find out the conditional distribution of a given statistic and you can see whether it is free from the parameter or not; however, you should know what statistic you are checking.

Whereas, the factorization theorem yield say sufficient statistic, because it is appearing there now, if we want to prove that something is not a sufficient statistics, then factorization theorem will not be useful, because to show that it is it cannot be represented is more difficult than saying that it is a function. So, both of that is the original definition as well as the factorization theorem have different uses.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:56)

Examples. 1. Let $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$, $\sigma^2 > 0$

Case I: σ^2 is known (i.e. $\sigma^2 = 1$).

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, 1)$.

The joint pdf of X_1, \dots, X_n is

$$f(x, \mu) = \prod_{i=1}^n \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \mu)^2} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum (x_i - \mu)^2} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n}}_{h(x)} e^{-\frac{\sum x_i^2}{2}} \underbrace{e^{-\frac{n\mu^2}{2} + n\mu\bar{x}}}_{g(x, \mu)}$$

So Factorization theorem gives \bar{x} as a suff. statistic for $\{N(\mu, 1) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}\}$

Let me give some examples here. So, let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n follow say normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . I will consider different cases. As I mentioned to you that the sufficiency is a property of the family of distribution it is not a property of a variable or a property of the parameter, it is a property which is holding for the family. So, here we are saying μ belongs to σ^2 is positive.

Let us take these special cases suppose I say σ^2 is known say σ^2 is equal to 1; that means, I am saying X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n follows normal μ distribution. Now, let us write down the joint distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n . So, that is equal to product $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x_i - \mu)^2}$ for $i = 1$ to n . So, this if you see $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ to the power n , $e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum (x_i - \mu)^2}$, this we can write as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum x_i^2 + n\mu \bar{X}}$, because here if I take the cross product term that is twice $\mu \sum x_i$ with a minus sign. So, two will cancel out minus minus will become plus. So, we get $\mu \sum x_i$ that I write as $n\mu \bar{X}$.

Now, if you write this function as $h(x)$ and this part we consider as a function of \bar{X} and μ then it is exactly in the form of factorization theorem. We have one term which is free from the parameter and the other term which is dependent upon the parameter depends on the variable only through \bar{X} . So, by factorization theorem gives \bar{X} as a sufficient statistic now, this family is normal distributions with variances known. So, here the sufficient statistics is \bar{X} in a rough way we can say \bar{X} is sufficient for μ .

(Refer Slide Time: 49:14)

Case II: μ is known (say $\mu = \mu_0$), $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma^2)$

$$f(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu_0)^2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-g^*(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2)}$$

$\sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2$ is suff. for $\{N(\mu_0, \sigma^2) : \sigma^2 > 0\}$

$\sum (x_i^2 + \mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0 x_i)$
 $\sum x_i^2 + n\mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0 \sum x_i$

Case III: Both μ & σ^2 are unknown.

$$f(\mathbf{z}, \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2} = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{n\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{\sum x_i^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{2\mu \sum x_i}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Case II: μ is known (say $\mu = \mu_0$), $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma^2)$

$$f(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu_0)^2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^n e^{-\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-g^*(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2)}$$

$\sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2$ is suff. for $\{N(\mu_0, \sigma^2) : \sigma^2 > 0\}$

$\sum (x_i^2 + \mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0 x_i)$
 $\sum x_i^2 + n\mu_0^2 - 2\mu_0 \sum x_i$

Case III: Both μ & σ^2 are unknown.

$$f(\mathbf{z}, \mu, \sigma^2) = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2} = \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{n\mu^2}{2\sigma^2} - \frac{\sum x_i^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{2\mu \sum x_i}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Let us take the second case, I take μ is known if μ is known say μ is equal to μ_0 in that case the distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n is normal μ_0 σ^2 . So, the joint distribution of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n will become $\frac{1}{(\sigma \sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2}$ that is equal to $\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-g^*(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2)}$ by twice sigma square. Here you see I cannot separate out x_i 's like in the case of sigma known case. So, we can say here that $\sum x_i^2$, this term I write as say $h(\mathbf{x})$ and remaining

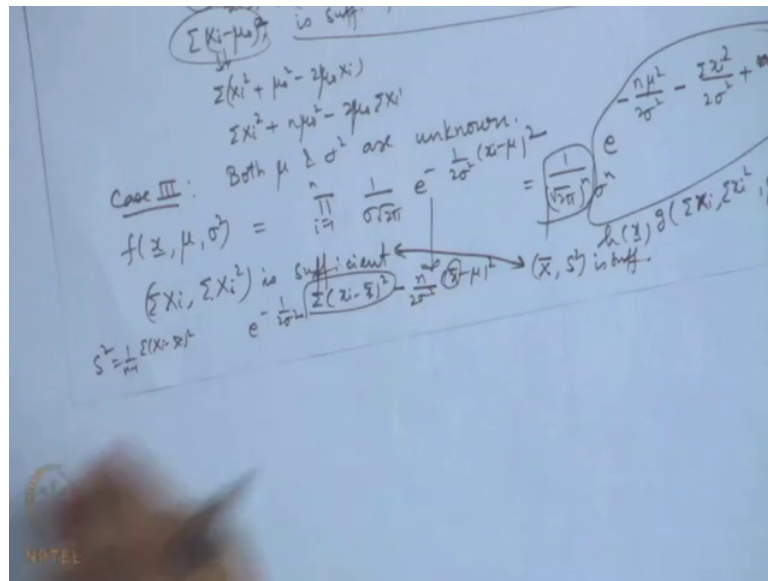
term I write as $g(\sum X_i, \mu^2 \text{ and } \sigma^2)$. So, $\sum X_i - \mu^2$ is sufficient for the family of normal distributions.

Now, we may do this factorization in different way also we may write here $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ to the power n , σ to the power n and as before let us expand this. So, we get $\sum X_i^2$ by $2\sigma^2$ plus $n\bar{X}$ by μ . So, this μ is μ^2 here σ^2 and e to the power $-\frac{n}{2} \frac{\sum X_i^2 + n\bar{X}\mu}{\sigma^2}$. If you look at this break up then I can consider this as a function of \bar{X} and $\sum X_i^2$. So, we can also conclude that \bar{X} and $\sum X_i^2$ is sufficient which is of course, true here, but if you see this $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$ this is a larger reduction than this, because here the sufficient statistic is two dimensional here you have sufficient statistic as one dimensional and of course, you can see here that this itself is a function of $\sum X_i$ and $\sum X_i^2$, because if I expand this I get $\sum X_i^2 + n\bar{X}\mu - \frac{n}{2} \frac{\sum X_i^2 + n\bar{X}\mu}{\sigma^2}$.

So, this is equal to $\sum X_i^2 + n\bar{X}\mu - \frac{n}{2} \frac{\sum X_i^2 + n\bar{X}\mu}{\sigma^2}$. So, this is actually a function of this. So, we will prefer this, because this is a higher level of data reduction, because this is one dimensional, this is a two dimensional let us take the case where both μ and σ^2 are unknown. Now, notice here if both are unknown then I have to consider the joint distribution by treating both μ and σ^2 as the parameter. So, this is a two dimensional parameter case here and the product of the individual distributions of X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n it is equal to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum (X_i - \mu)^2}$.

You expand this is equal to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum X_i^2 + \frac{\mu}{\sigma^2} \sum X_i - \frac{n\mu^2}{2\sigma^2}}$ or you can say $\mu \sum X_i$ by σ^2 .

(Refer Slide Time: 49:14)



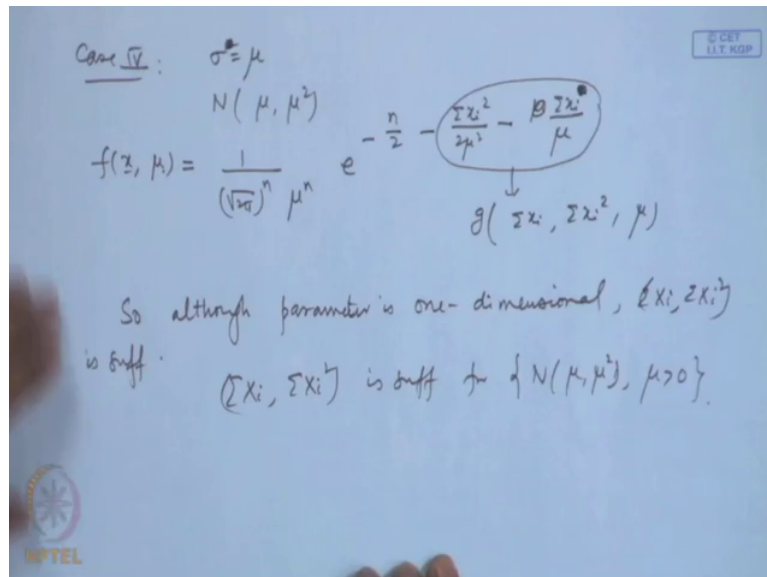
So, this term you can see, it is a function of this term is a function of sigma X I, sigma X i square and mu and sigma square and this term you can call h x. So, we conclude that sigma X i, sigma X i square is sufficient. Here you can see that a further reduction is not possible; however, we can consider it in a slightly different way as follows, we may write this as e to the power, minus 1 by twice sigma square sigma X i minus X bar whole square minus n by 2 sigma square X bar minus mu square; that means, I have added and subtracted X bar term here.

In that case this is actually, sigma X i minus X bar whole square this is X bar. So, you can conclude that X bar and s square, where we have used earlier the notation s square for 1 by n minus 1 sigma, X i minus X bar Whole Square that is the sample variance. So, this is sufficient. Now, you see there is no discrepancy in this statement, if I consider x sigma X i and sigma X i square then this is one-to-one function of X bar and s square, because from here I can obtain this and from here I can obtain this. So, we consider that when both the parameters in a normal distribution are unknown then the sample mean and the sample variance are sufficient.

Now, many times we are using it as a misnomer that X bar is sufficient for mu and s square is sufficient for sigma square actually, we have to say this is sufficient for the family normal mu sigma square mu belonging to r and sigma square greater than 0.

I will just explain this discrepancy may occur if we do not maintain this family here

(Refer Slide Time: 56:00)



For example, I take another case say sigma is equal to sigma square is equal to say sigma is equal to mu then what happens to the density, it is the distribution is normal mu mu square.

If I have this then you can look at this break up here that joint density although, it is a function of x and mu alone, because sigma is vanished here this is equal to 1 by root 2, pi to the power n, mu to the power n, e to the power minus n by 2 minus sigma X i square by twice mu square minus mu sigma X i square pi mu square that is mu. So, here you see this is a function of sigma X i, sigma X i square and mu although the parameter is 1 dimensional the sufficient statistics is 2 dimensional.

So, although parameter is 1 dimensional sigma X i, sigma X i square is sufficient. So, again the statement is again the same that is sigma X i, sigma X i square is sufficient for this family normal mu mu square of course, you may put mu greater than 0 here. So, sufficiency is a property of the family of distributions.

In the next lecture, we will consider few more examples that are, how to apply the factorization theorem. To derive the various sufficient statistics and we will look at the maximal data reduction by means of sufficiency that is the concept of minimal sufficient statistics. So, in the next lecture we will be considering these concepts.

