

ECE 7251: Signal Detection and Estimation

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Lecture 2, 1/7/02:
Sufficient Statistics and
Exponential Families

Sufficient Statistics

- A statistic $T=T(y)$ is any function of the data
- Think of statistics as “compressing” the data
- T is a sufficient statistic for $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ if

$$p(y | T(y); \mathbf{q}) = p(y | T(y))$$

is not a function of the parameters

- Think of sufficient statistics as not throwing away any useful information about \mathbf{q}
- Note if Y is a r.v., $T=T(Y)$ is a r.v.

Minimal Sufficient Statistics

- A sufficient statistic T is minimal for $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ if it is a function of every other sufficient statistic for $p(y; \mathbf{q})$
- Minimal sufficient statistics “compress” the data as much as possible without losing information about \mathbf{q}
- Can be hard to find!

Finite Dimensional Statistics

- A sufficient statistic T is fixed (or finite) dimensional if it is not a function of the number of data samples
- Collecting more data does not ultimately require more “storage”
- Minimal sufficient statistics often finite dimensional (but not always!)

Ex: Coin flipping

- \mathbf{q} =prob. of heads ; assume indep. flips
- $y_i=1$ if i th flip heads, 0 if tails

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \prod_{i=1}^n q^{y_i} (1-q)^{1-y_i}$$

$$= \mathbf{q}^T (1-\mathbf{q})^{n-T} \quad \text{where } T = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$$

$$p(y | T; \mathbf{q}) = \frac{p(y, T)}{p(T)} = \frac{\mathbf{q}^T (1-\mathbf{q})^{n-T}}{\binom{n}{T} \mathbf{q}^T (1-\mathbf{q})^{n-T}} = \frac{1}{\binom{n}{T}}$$

Not a function of \mathbf{q} ,
hence T is a suf. stat.

Fisher Factorization Theorem

- T is a sufficient statistic for $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ if we can decompose

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \underbrace{g(T(y), \mathbf{q})}_{\text{Parameters coupled to suff. stat., not raw data}} h(y)$$

- A useful consequence: density on T is

$$p(t; \mathbf{q}) = g(t, \mathbf{q}) \underbrace{q(t)}_{\text{Indep. of } \mathbf{q} \text{ (will come in handy later)}}$$

FF Ex. 1: Uniform Density

- $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ is i.i.d. $\text{uniform}(0, \mathbf{q})$

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \frac{1}{\mathbf{q}^n} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{[0, \mathbf{q}]}(y_i)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\mathbf{q}^n} I_{[0, \mathbf{q}]}(\underbrace{\max\{y\}}_{T(y)}) \quad h(y) = 1$$

$g(T(y), \mathbf{q})$

- Satisfies FF, so T is a sufficient statistic
- Note T is finite dimensional

FF Ex. 2: Detection Problems

- $\theta \in \{0, 1\}$

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \mathbf{q} p(y; 1) + (1 - \mathbf{q}) p(y; 0)$$

$$= \left[\mathbf{q} \frac{p(y; 1)}{p(y; 0)} + (1 - \mathbf{q}) \right] p(y; 0)$$

$g(T(y), \mathbf{q})$ $h(y)$

$T(y)$ is the likelihood ratio

- Satisfies FF, so the likelihood ratio is a sufficient statistic for $p(y; \mathbf{q})$

FF Ex. 3: Cauchy Density

- $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ is i.i.d. Cauchy w/median \mathbf{q}

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \frac{1}{\mathbf{q}^n} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{1 + (y_i - \mathbf{q})^2}$$

$g(T(y), \mathbf{q})$

- Uh oh! Denominator is a 2n-degree polynomial in \mathbf{q} ; depends on all cross products of data points
- The raw data is a minimal suff. stat.
- No fixed dimensional suff. stat. exists

FF Ex. 4: Exponential Families

- $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ is an exponential family if it can be decomposed as

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = a(\mathbf{q}) b(x) \exp \left[\sum_{l=1}^m c_l(\mathbf{q}) d_l(y) \right]$$

Coupling between parameters and data has a very specific form

- If support of $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ depends on \mathbf{q} then $p(y; \mathbf{q})$ can't be an exponential family!
– Ex: $\text{uniform}(0, \mathbf{q})$ is not an exponential family!
- Cauchy with unknown median not exp. family

FF for Exponential Families

- Suppose $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ i.i.d.

$$p(y; \mathbf{q}) = \prod_{i=1}^n a(\mathbf{q}) \exp \left[\sum_{l=1}^m c_l(\mathbf{q}) d_l(y_i) \right] b(y_i)$$

$$= a^n(\mathbf{q}) \exp \left[\sum_{l=1}^m c_l(\mathbf{q}) \sum_{i=1}^n d_l(y_i) \right] \prod_{i=1}^n b(y_i)$$

$g(T(y), \mathbf{q})$ $h(y)$

- Sufficient statistic is

$$T = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_1(y_i), \dots, \sum_{i=1}^n d_m(y_i) \right)$$

- Note T is finite dimensional

Sometimes It's Pretty Obvious...

- Ex: Gaussian distribution, $\mathbf{q} = (\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{s}^2)$

$$p(y; \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{s}^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\mathbf{s}^2}} \exp \left(-\frac{(y - \mathbf{m})^2}{2\mathbf{s}^2} \right)$$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\mathbf{s}^2}} \exp \left(-\frac{\mathbf{m}^2}{2\mathbf{s}^2} \right)}_{a(\mathbf{q})} \exp \left(\underbrace{\frac{c_1(\mathbf{q})}{\mathbf{s}^2}}_{d_1(y)} y - \underbrace{\frac{c_2(\mathbf{q})}{2\mathbf{s}^2}}_{d_2(y)} y^2 \right)$$

$b(y) = 1$

Sometimes It's Not So Obvious...

- Ex: Beta distribution, $\boldsymbol{q}=(q,r)$

$$p(y; q, r) = \frac{\overbrace{\Gamma(q+r)}^{a(\boldsymbol{q})}}{\Gamma(q)\Gamma(r)} \underbrace{y^{q-1}(1-y)^{r-1}}^{b(y)} I_{(0,1)}(y)$$

$$= \exp\left\{ \underbrace{(q-1)\ln y}_{c_1(\boldsymbol{q}) \ d_1(y)} + \underbrace{(r-1)\ln(1-y)}_{c_2(\boldsymbol{q}) \ d_2(y)} \right\}$$

- So the Beta distribution is a two-parameter exponential family in q and r

Putting it All Together

- If y is i.i.d. Gaussian with $\boldsymbol{q}=(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \sigma^2)$, then

$$T = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2 \right) \text{ or } T = (\bar{y}, s^2) \text{ where}$$

$$\bar{y} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i}_{\text{Sample mean}}, \quad s^2 = \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}_{\text{Sample variance}}$$

- If y is i.i.d. Beta with $\boldsymbol{q}=(q,r)$, then

$$T = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \ln(y_i), \sum_{i=1}^n \ln(1-y_i) \right)$$