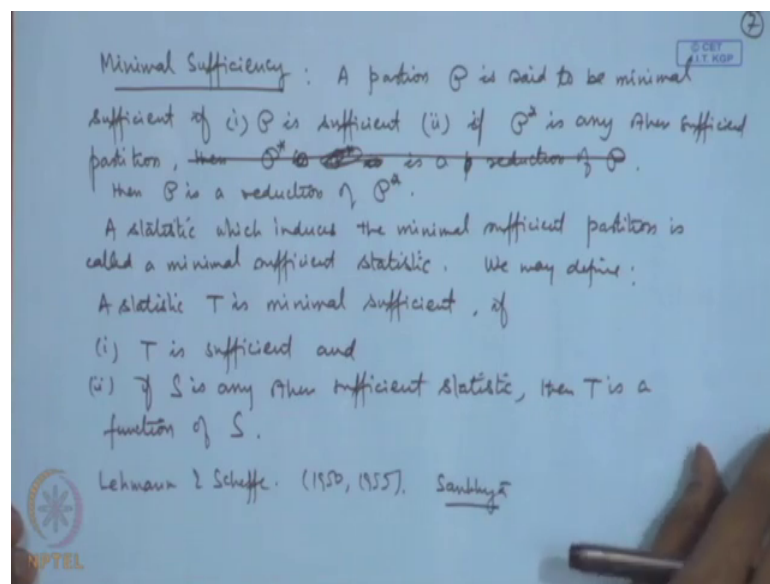


**Statistical Inference**  
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**Lecture – 28**  
**Minimal Sufficiency, Completeness – II**

Now, we define the concept of Minimal Sufficient partition and minimal sufficient a statistics.

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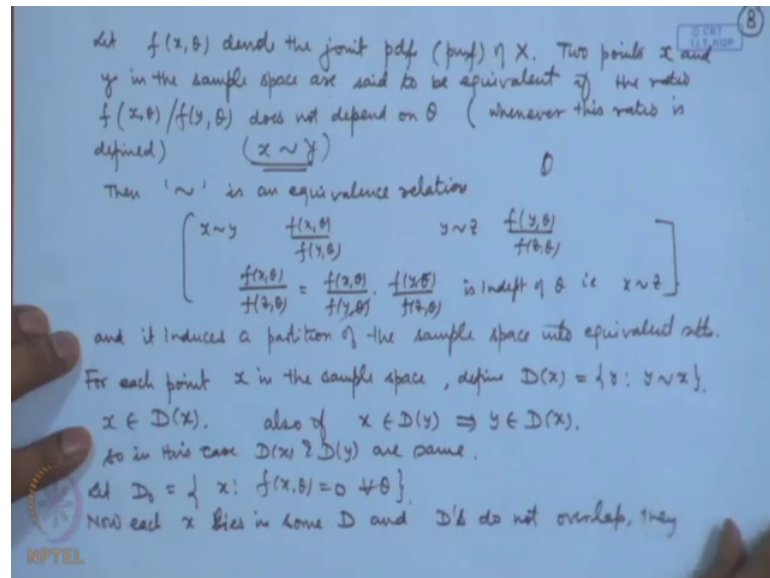


So, a partition say  $\mathcal{P}$  is said to be minimal sufficient if this is sufficient and second if  $\mathcal{P}^*$  is any other sufficient partition, then  $\mathcal{P}$  is then  $\mathcal{P}^*$  is a reduction of  $\mathcal{P}$ . No, I am sorry this is written wrongly. If  $\mathcal{P}^*$  is any other sufficient partition, then  $\mathcal{P}$  is a reduction of  $\mathcal{P}^*$ . So, let me explain we will call it minimal sufficient partition if first of all this should be sufficient partition.

And if there is any other sufficient partition then this should be a reduction of that. That is why this is the maximal reduction or we say that it is a minimal sufficient partition. So, a statistic which induces the minimal sufficient partition is called a minimal sufficient statistic. So, we can say that, a statistic  $T$  is minimal sufficient, if it is sufficient and if  $S$  is any other sufficient statistic, then  $T$  is a function of  $S$ .

So, that is how it is the minimal sufficient that is the maximal reduction of the data. Now, the question is that how to determine a minimal sufficient statistic or a minimal sufficient partition in a given problem. This problem is settled by Lehman and Scheffe in 1950 and 55 in papers in Sankhya. We consider here the case when the distribution is either discrete or continuous.

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So, let us consider  $f(x, \theta)$  let  $f(x, \theta)$  denote the joint probability density function or probability mass function of  $X$ ; that means, we have observations  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  which we are calling as  $X$  here. Now two points  $x$  and  $y$  in the sample space are said to be equivalent if the ratio  $f(x, \theta) / f(y, \theta)$  does not depend on  $\theta$ . Of course, when we write the ratio of the densities at two different variable points and there is a possibility that either the numerator or the denominator may be 0 or both may be 0.

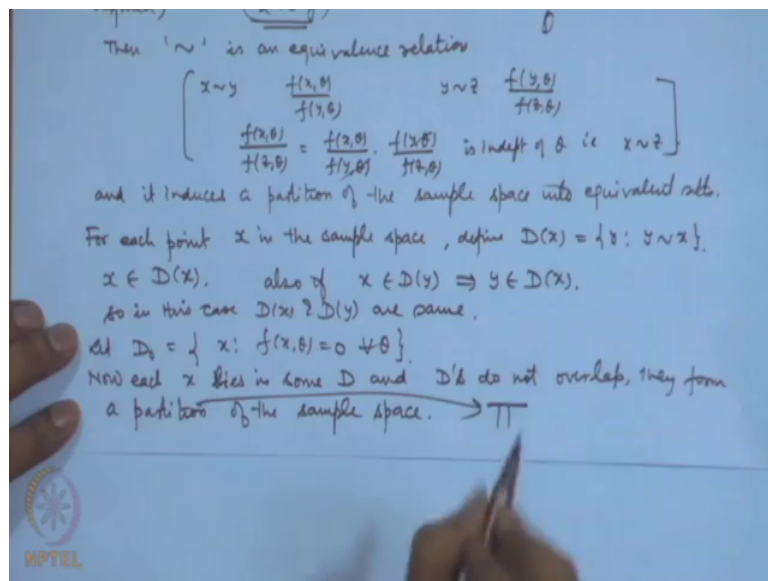
So, in that case we qualify this statement by saying whenever this ratio is defined. So, this we say that  $x$  and  $y$  are equivalent and we use the notation  $x$  is equivalent to  $y$ . Then, this relation is an equivalence relation because it is reflexive if I consider  $f(x, \theta) / f(x, \theta)$  that is going to be 1 which is free from the parameter. If  $f(x, \theta) / f(y, \theta)$  is free from  $\theta$  then  $f(y, \theta) / f(x, \theta)$  is also free from the parameter. Therefore,  $x$  related to  $y$  is equivalent to saying  $y$  is equivalent to  $x$  so the relation is symmetric.

If I say  $x$  is equivalent to  $y$  that is  $f(x, \theta) / f(y, \theta)$  is independent of  $\theta$  and if I say  $y$  is related to  $z$  or  $y$  is equivalent to  $z$  then  $f(y, \theta) / f(z, \theta)$  is independent of  $\theta$ .

So, if I consider  $f(x, \theta)$  by  $f(y, \theta)$  then that is equal to product of these two terms. So, that is also free from  $\theta$  so this is independent of  $\theta$  that is we can say  $x$  is equivalent to  $y$ . So, the relation is also transitive. So, this is an equivalence relation and it induces a partition of the sample space into equivalent sets. That means, if I consider one set in this partition class then within that class all the points will be equivalent and if I take two different partition sets then the points in that will not be equivalent.

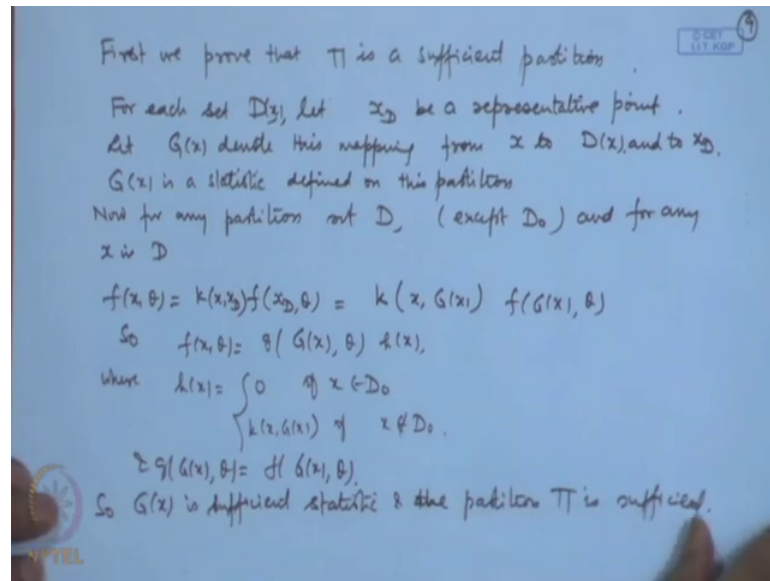
So, now let us consider for each point  $x$  in the sample space, define  $D(x)$  as the set of all the  $y$ 's such that  $y$  is equivalent to  $x$ . That is for every point, whatever be the equivalent points I will put them in the set  $D(x)$ . Then  $x$  belongs to  $D(x)$  and also if  $x$  belongs to  $D(y)$  then  $y$  will belong to  $D(x)$ . So, in this case  $D(x)$  and  $D(y)$  are same. And also there will be place where the density will take value 0 that is density or the probability mass function we put in another set. Let  $D_0$  be the set of all those points for which  $f(x, \theta) = 0$  for all  $\theta$ .

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So, now each  $x$  lies in some  $D$  and  $D$ 's do not overlap, they form a partition of the sample space. Let us call this partition  $\pi$  this partition I will name as  $\pi$ .

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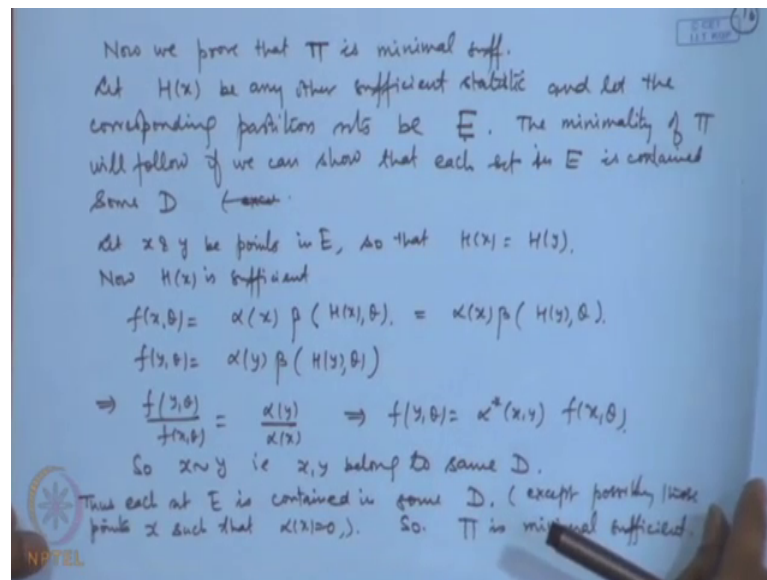


First we prove that  $\pi$  is a sufficient partition. Now, let us consider for each set  $D$ , let  $x_D$  be a representative point. Now, let  $G(x)$  denote this association; that means, from  $D$  to  $x_D$  we are having a mapping. So, let  $G(x)$  denote this mapping from  $x$  to  $D(x)$  and to  $x_D$ . So, for a given point  $x$  we have the point  $D(x)$  and then I am choosing a representative point  $x_D$  of that set. That means, in this set  $D(x)$  all the points are equivalent to each other and I choose I specify one point  $x_D$  there.

So,  $G(x)$  is a statistic defined on this partition. Now for any partition set  $D$ , of course, I am not considering  $D$  naught where  $f(x, \theta)$  is 0 and for any  $x$  in  $D$  let us write  $f(x, \theta)$ . Now  $x$  belongs to  $D(x)$  and  $x_D$  also belongs to this. So,  $f(x, \theta)$  divided by  $x_D$  is free from the parameter; that means, this is a multiple of  $f(x_D, \theta)$  by a term which we can say it is free from  $\theta$  it is a function of  $x$  and  $x_D$ . So, we can call it a function of  $x$  and  $G(x)$  and  $f(G(x), \theta)$ , this  $x_D$  I am writing as  $G(x)$  which we can write as  $f(x, \theta)$  is equal to  $g(G(x), \theta) h(x)$ . Where,  $h(x)$  is actually 0 if  $x$  belongs to  $D$  naught and it is equal to  $k(x, G(x))$  if  $x$  does not belong to  $D$  naught. And  $g(G(x), \theta)$  is nothing, but  $f(G(x), \theta)$ .

Now, if you see this carefully this is nothing, but the factorization here. So, we conclude that  $G(x)$  is a sufficient statistic and the partition  $\pi$  is sufficient partition because, that is induced by  $g$ .

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Now let us consider. Now, we prove that  $\pi$  is minimal sufficient. For that let us consider another say  $H(x)$  that  $H(x)$  be any other sufficient statistic and let the corresponding partition sets be let me call them  $E$ . The partition sets induced by  $\pi$  were  $D$  and the partition sets induced by  $E$  let me call by  $H$  let maybe call it to be  $E$ .

Now, if we can show that the minimality of  $\pi$  will follow if we can show that each set in  $E$  is contained in some  $D$ . Except of course, the points where the probability is 0. So, let us consider  $x$  and  $y$  be points in  $E$ , so that say  $H(x)$  is equal to  $H(y)$ . Now  $H$  is sufficient so we can write  $f(x, \theta)$  is equal to say  $\alpha(x) \beta(H(x), \theta)$ . Now, that we can write as  $\alpha(x) \beta(H(y), \theta)$  and  $f(y, \theta)$  we can write as  $\alpha(y) \beta(H(y), \theta)$ . So, if I take the ratio here we get  $f(y, \theta) / f(x, \theta)$  is equal to  $\alpha(y) / \alpha(x)$ ; that means, we can say  $f(y, \theta)$  is equal to a function of say  $x, y$  into  $f(x, \theta)$ .

So,  $x \sim y$  that is  $x, y$  belong to same  $D$ . Thus, each set  $E$  is contained in some  $D$ . Of course, except possibly those points  $x$  such that  $\alpha(x)$  is equal to 0. So,  $\pi$  is minimal sufficient. Because,  $\pi$  is a reduction of this partition that we have introduced second partition. So, this gives us a method of determining the minimal sufficient statistics. What we consider that you take ratio  $f(x, \theta)$  divided by  $f(y, \theta)$  and this should be free from the parameter. So, what is the partition that will induce this condition and the corresponding sufficient statistic corresponding statistic then if you find out that will be minimal sufficient. So, let me explain through some examples.

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Examples: 1. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim P(\lambda), \lambda > 0$   
 $Z = (X_1, \dots, X_n), \quad \mathcal{Z} = (z_1, \dots, z_n)$   
 $f(z, \lambda) = \frac{e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum x_i}}{\prod_i x_i!}$   
 $\frac{f(z, \lambda)}{f(y, \lambda)} = \left( \frac{\prod x_i!}{\prod y_i!} \right) \lambda^{\sum x_i - \sum y_i}$  is indep't of  $\lambda$  iff  $\sum x_i = \sum y_i$   
 So we conclude that  $T(X) = \sum X_i$  is minimal sufficient  
 Any one-to-one function of a minimal sufficient statistic is also minimal sufficient.

2.  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$   
 if  $\mu, \sigma^2$  are unknown then  $(\sum X_i, \sum X_i^2)$  is minimal suff  
 $(\bar{X}, s^2)$  is minimal sufficient

Let us consider the cases of the standard estimations suppose I consider Poisson lambda distribution. And we denote by  $X$  the  $X_1 X_2 \dots X_n$  and by small  $x$  we denote the points. So, consider the  $f(x, \lambda)$  here that is  $e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum x_i} / \prod x_i!$  is equal to  $1/n$ . So, let me consider the ratio  $f(x, \lambda) / f(y, \lambda)$  then that is equal to  $e^{-n\lambda} \lambda^{\sum x_i - \sum y_i} / \prod y_i!$  and product of  $y_i$  factorial divided by product of  $x_i$  factorial.

Now, this term is dependent upon parameter through this and we can easily see that this is independent of lambda if and only if  $\sum x_i = \sum y_i$ . So, whether previous result that we have proved of laid by Lehman and Scheffe we conclude that  $T(X) = \sum X_i$  is minimal sufficient. Of course, we can say that any one to one function of a minimal sufficient statistic is also minimal sufficient. Let me just take up the cases of the sufficient statistics that we worked out in the previous classes. We had seen like binomial distribution, normal distribution, exponential distribution etcetera let us look at each of those cases and see what were the sufficient statistics.

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

Case I:  $\sigma^2$  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

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

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

$h(\mathbf{z}) \cdot g(\mathbf{z}, \mu)$

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

Consider this case,  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  is a random sample from normal  $\mu, \sigma^2$  and  $\sigma^2$  is known. Now, in this case the joint distribution that we wrote was of the form  $\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum (x_i - \mu)^2}$ . Now in this case if I consider the ratio by taking  $f(x, \mu)$  divided by  $f(y, \mu)$  this term will become free from the variable free from the parameter  $\mu$ .  $e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum (x_i - \mu)^2}$  to the power minus  $n\mu^2$  plus  $n\mu \bar{x}$  will also cancel out we will be left with  $e^{-\frac{1}{2} \sum x_i^2 + n\mu \bar{x}}$ . Now that will be free from  $\mu$  if and only if  $\bar{x}$  is equal to  $\bar{y}$  and therefore,  $\bar{X}$  is the minimal sufficient statistics.

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{\sum (x_i - \mu_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}} \rightarrow \frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n \sigma^n} e^{-\frac{\sum x_i^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{\mu_0 \sum x_i}{\sigma^2} - \frac{n\mu_0^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$h(\mathbf{z}) \cdot g(\mathbf{z}, \sigma^2)$

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

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

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

Case III: Both  $\mu$  &  $\sigma^2$  are unknown.

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

$(\sum x_i, \sum x_i^2)$  is sufficient

$(\bar{X}, S^2)$  is suff. for  $\{N(\mu, \sigma^2) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 > 0\}$



So, like that if we consider various problems like in the second case we have taken  $\mu$  is known. And in this case we figured out that  $\sum X_i - \mu$  is sufficient so this will also become minimal sufficient. When both  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown then  $\sum X_i$  and  $\sum X_i^2$  will become minimal sufficient. So, in most of the problems where we have applied factorization theorem we actually have a factorization. So, if we write down the ratio then the term which is consisting of the parameter  $\theta$  there then it is related to  $g(T; \theta)$  divided by  $h(T)$ .

So, this ratio if you consider and obtain the condition when it is going to be free from the parameter, that will give the minimal sufficient statistics. So, like that if I just mention  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  follow normal  $\mu, \sigma^2$ . So, if  $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  are unknown then  $\sum X_i$  and  $\sum X_i^2$  is minimal sufficient. Of course, you can say  $\bar{X}$  and  $S^2$  is minimal sufficient. And we can answer various other questions let me just tell few of this here.

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Lecture 13  
Applications of Factorization Theorem (Continued)

Examples. 1. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, x > 0, \lambda > 0$

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i, \lambda) = \lambda^n e^{-\lambda \sum x_i} = g(\sum x_i, \lambda) h(\mathbf{x}) \rightarrow 1$$

So by FT,  $\sum X_i$  is sufficient.

2. Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \begin{cases} e^{\theta-x}, & x > \theta \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases}$

The joint density of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is

$$f(\mathbf{x}, \theta) = \begin{cases} e^{n\theta - \sum x_i}, & x_i > \theta, i=1, \dots, n \\ 0, & \text{ew.} \end{cases} = e^{-\sum x_i} e^{n\theta} \cdot I(x_{(1)} > \theta) \prod_{i=2}^n I(x_i > \theta)$$

$$= \theta(x_{(1)}, \theta) h(\mathbf{x}), \text{ where } h(\mathbf{x}) = e^{-\sum x_i} \prod_{i=2}^n I(x_i > \theta)$$

So  $X_{(1)}$  is sufficient.

Let us consider say exponential distribution with parameter  $\lambda$ . Here if I write down the ratio we will get  $\sum X_i$  as the minimal sufficient.



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Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from a two parameter exponential distribution with pdf  $f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sigma} e^{-\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}}, & x \geq \mu \\ 0, & \text{ew} \end{cases}$

The joint pdf of  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is

$$f(x, \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma^n} e^{-\frac{\sum x_i}{\sigma}} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{(\mu, \infty)}(x_{(i)}) = g(\sum x_i, \mu, \sigma) h(x)$$

So  $(X_{(1)}, \sum X_i)$  is sufficient  
 or  $(X_{(1)}, \bar{X})$  is sufficient.

If we consider exponential distribution with location parameter then  $X_1$  will be turning out to be minimal sufficient. If we consider say two parameter exponential distribution with parameter  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  here then  $X_1$  and  $\bar{X}$  or  $X_1$  and  $\sum X_i$  will be minimal sufficient. If we consider say a double exponential distribution in that case the full sample which is written in by a reduced to the order statistics that will be minimal sufficient.

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Let  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim U(0, \theta), \theta > 0$

$$f(x, \theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta^n}, & 0 < x_i < \theta, \quad i=1, \dots, n \\ 0, & \text{ew} \end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta^n} \prod_{i=1}^n I_{(0, \theta)}(x_{(i)}) = g(x_{(n)}, \theta) h(x)$$

$x_{(n)}$  is sufficient. So  $(x_{(1)}, x_{(n)})$  is sufficient

$X_1, \dots, X_n \sim U(\theta - \frac{1}{2}, \theta + \frac{1}{2})$

$$f(x, \theta) = \begin{cases} 1, & \theta - \frac{1}{2} < x_{(1)} \leq \dots \leq x_{(n)} < \theta + \frac{1}{2} \\ 0, & \text{ew} \end{cases} = \prod_{i=1}^n I_{(\theta - \frac{1}{2}, \theta + \frac{1}{2})}(x_{(i)}) = g(x_{(1)}, x_{(n)}, \theta) h(x)$$

If we consider uniform distribution on the interval 0 to theta then  $X_n$  will be minimal sufficient. If we are considering exponential family then this statistic that we have written this will be minimal sufficient.

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Exponential Family

Let  $f(x, \theta) = c(\theta) h(x) e^{\sum_{i=1}^k Q_i(\theta) T_i(x)}$

Based on a random sample  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ , the joint pdf

$$f(x, \theta) = c(\theta) \prod_{j=1}^n h(x_j) e^{\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^k Q_i(\theta) T_i(x_j)}$$

$$= c(\theta) e^{\sum_{i=1}^k Q_i(\theta) \sum_{j=1}^n T_i(x_j)} \prod_{j=1}^n h(x_j)$$

$$g\left(\sum_{j=1}^n T_1(x_j), \sum_{j=1}^n T_2(x_j), \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n T_k(x_j), \theta\right) h(x)$$

$\left(\sum_{j=1}^n T_1(x_j), \sum_{j=1}^n T_2(x_j), \dots, \sum_{j=1}^n T_k(x_j)\right)$  is sufficient.

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Completeness: Let  $X$  be a r.v. with probability distr<sup>n</sup>.  $P_\theta: \theta \in \Theta$ .

We say that the family of probability distributions  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta: \theta \in \Theta\}$  is complete if  $E_\theta g(X) = 0 \forall \theta \in \Theta$  and any fn.  $g$

$$\Rightarrow P_\theta(g(X) = 0) = 1 \forall \theta \in \Theta.$$

A statistic  $T(X)$  is said to be complete if the family of probability distributions of  $T$  is complete.

Example 1. Let  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$ ,  $n$  is known,  $0 < p < 1$ .

$$E_p g(X) = 0 \forall p \in (0, 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{x=0}^n g(x) \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = 0 \forall p \in (0, 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{x=0}^n h(x) \Delta^x = 0 \forall \Delta > 0 \quad \left( h(x) = g(x) \binom{n}{x} \right)$$

$\Delta = \frac{p}{1-p} > 0.$

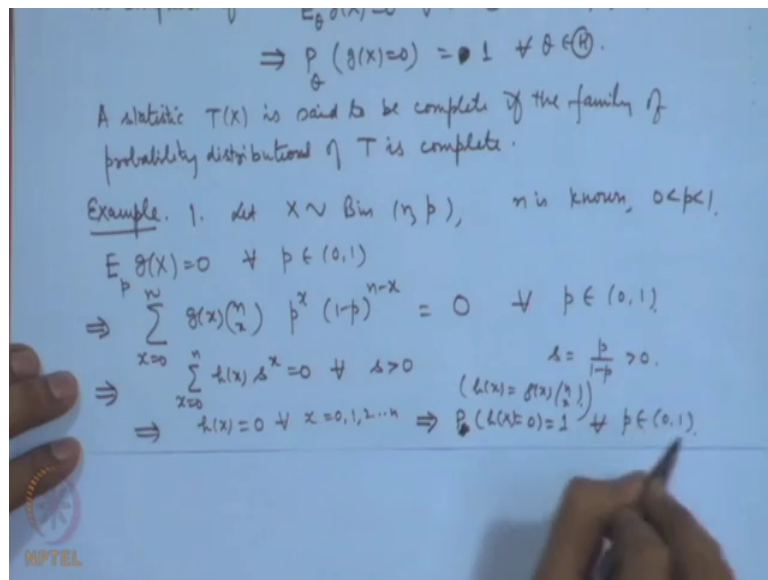
Let me introduce another concept that is completeness. Let  $X$  be a random variable with probability distribution  $P_\theta$ ;  $\theta$  belonging to  $\Theta$ . So, we say that the family of probability distributions  $\mathcal{P}$  that is equal to  $\{P_\theta; \theta \in \Theta\}$  is complete if, expectation  $E_\theta g(X)$  is equal to 0 for all  $\theta$  belonging to  $\Theta$  and any function  $g$

implies that probability that  $g(x)$  is equal to 0 is 1 for all  $\theta$  belonging to  $\Theta$ . Then a statistic  $T$  is said to be complete if the family of probability distributions of  $T$  is complete.

Let me give an example here. Let  $X$  follow say binomial  $n, p$  distribution where  $n$  is known and parameter  $p$  lies between 0 to 1. Let us consider expectation of  $g(x)$  is equal to 0 for all  $p$  in the interval 0 to 1. Now, this statement is equivalent to  $g(x) \sum_{x=0}^n \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} = 0$  for all  $p$  in the interval 0 to 1. This is equal to 0 for all  $p$  belonging to 0 to 1.

Now this we can also write as see  $1 - p$  to the power  $n$  we can cancel out on both the sides and let us write say let me write say  $s$  is equal to  $p$  divided by  $1 - p$ . So, this will be any positive term. So, we can say  $h(x)$  into  $s^x$  equal to 0 for all  $s$  greater than 0 where  $h(x)$  is nothing, but the function  $g(x)$  into  $\binom{n}{x}$ . Now, if you see this left hand side this is a polynomial of degree  $n$  in  $s$  and I am saying it is vanishing identically over an interval.

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This implies that  $h(x)$  must be 0 for all  $x$ ; now, here for all  $x$  means because  $x$  can take values 0 to  $n$ . This means that probability that  $h(x)$  is equal to 0 is 1 for all  $p$ . So, the family of binomial distributions is complete.

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So the family  $\{ \text{Bin}(n, p), 0 < p < 1 \}$  is complete.

2.  $X \sim \mathcal{P}(\lambda), \lambda > 0$

$E_{\lambda} g(X) = 0 \iff \forall \lambda > 0$

$\Rightarrow \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = 0 \iff \forall \lambda > 0$

$\Rightarrow \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} g^*(x) \lambda^x = 0 \iff \forall \lambda > 0, \quad g^*(x) = \frac{g(x)}{x!}$

$\Rightarrow g^*(x) = 0 \iff \forall x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$\Rightarrow P(g^*(X) = 0) = 1 \iff \forall \lambda > 0$

$\Rightarrow P(g(X) = 0) = 1, \forall \lambda > 0$

$\{ \mathcal{P}(\lambda); \lambda > 0 \}$  is complete.

So, the family of binomial distributions  $n p$  where  $p$  lies between 0 to 1 is complete or we can say here  $x$  is a complete statistic. Let us take another example say  $X$  follows Poisson  $\lambda$ . Then  $\lambda$  is a positive parameter here, let us write down the statement expectation of  $g(X)$  is equal to 0 for all  $\lambda$ . Now, this is equivalent to  $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} = 0$  for all  $\lambda > 0$ . Now  $e^{-\lambda}$  is a positive term so we can multiply by  $e^{\lambda}$  on both the sides. This statement becomes equivalent to say  $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} g^*(x) \lambda^x = 0$  where this  $g^*$  is nothing, but  $g(x)$  by  $x!$ .

Once again if you notice on the left hand side I have a power series in  $\lambda$  which is vanishing identically over the positive half of the real line. So, if a power series vanishes identically over an interval all the coefficients must vanish. So that means, this is equal to 0 for all  $x = 0, 1, 2$  and so on. Therefore, we can say that probability that  $g^*(X)$  is equal to 0 is 1 for all  $\lambda$ . Now  $g^*$  is nothing but  $g(x)$  by  $x!$ ; that means,  $g(X)$  itself is 0 with probability 1. So, this family of probability distributions of Poisson  $\lambda$  is complete.

(Refer Slide Time: 32:23)

3.  $X \sim N(\mu, 1)$ ,  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$E_{\mu} g(X) = 0 \forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^2} dx = 0 \forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cdot e^{\mu x} dx = 0 \forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow g(x) = 0$  a.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$\Rightarrow P(g(X) = 0) = 1 \forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$\{N(\mu, 1) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}\}$  is complete.

Let us consider say  $X$  follows normal  $\mu, 1$ , here  $\mu$  is any real number let us write down expectation of  $g(X)$  is equal to 0 for all. Now, this is equivalent to saying  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^2} dx = 0$  for all  $\mu$  belonging to  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Now this is nothing, but the bilateral or bi-variate Laplace transform of this function and we are saying this vanishes identically and therefore, the function itself should vanish. That means, we should have  $g(x)$  is equal to 0 almost everywhere on  $x$  real line. This means that probability that  $g(X)$  is equal to 0 is 1 for all  $\mu$ . So, the family of the normal distributions is complete family.

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4.  $X \sim U(0, \theta), \theta > 0$   
 $E_{\theta} g(X) = 0 \forall \theta > 0 \Rightarrow \int_0^{\theta} \frac{g(x)}{\theta} dx = 0 \forall \theta > 0$   
 $\Rightarrow g(x) = 0$  a.e.  
 $\Rightarrow P_{\theta}(g(X) = 0) = 1 \forall \theta > 0.$   
So  $\{U(0, \theta): \theta > 0\}$  is complete.

Let us consider  $X$  following uniform  $0$  theta, expectation of  $g X$  is equal to  $0$  for all theta this is equivalent to the statement  $\int_0^{\theta} g x$  by theta  $dx$   $0$  to theta is equal to  $0$ . Now this term I can adjust here. So, what we are saying is that the integral of  $g x$  is  $0$  for all values for over all the intervals of the form  $0$  to theta. Therefore, we can using the Lebesgue integration theory we can say that the function  $g x$  itself is  $0$  almost everywhere; that means, probability that  $g x$  is equal to  $0$  must be  $1$  for all theta.

So, the family of uniform distributions is also complete. So, what in the next lecture I will give a general framework for the completeness. We will also define bounded completeness and the consequence of the sufficiency and completeness is that we can easily derive uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimators. So, we will give these applications in the next lecture.