

# Chapter 4: Statistical Decision Theory \*

## 4 Statistical Decision Theory

### 4.1 Basic Framework and Concepts

- To the usual statistical modeling framework from earlier

$$X, \quad \Theta, \quad \mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\}$$

we add the following elements

1. some “action space”  $\mathcal{A}$  with  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\epsilon$ ,
2. a suitably measurable “loss function”

$$L(\theta, a) : \Theta \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty),$$

3. and (non-randomized) decision rules

$$\delta(x) : (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}) \rightarrow (\mathcal{A}, \epsilon)$$

For data  $X$ ,  $\delta(x)$  is the action taken based on  $X$ .

To identify “good” decision rules  $\delta$ , we have to average over  $X$ , which naturally leads to expectation.

- **Risk function** The mapping from  $\Theta \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  given by

$$R(\theta, \delta) \equiv \mathbb{E}_\theta L(\theta, \delta(X)) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} L(\theta, \delta(x)) dP_\theta(x)$$

is call the risk function for  $\theta$ .

- $\delta$  is *at least as good as*  $\delta'$  if  $R(\theta, \delta) \leq R(\theta, \delta')$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$
- $\delta$  is *better than*  $\delta'$  if  $R(\theta, \delta) \leq R(\theta, \delta')$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ , and  $R(\theta_0, \delta) < R(\theta_0, \delta')$  for some  $\theta_0$
- $\delta$  and  $\delta'$  are *risk equivalent* if  $R(\theta, \delta) = R(\theta, \delta')$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ .
- $\delta$  is *best in a class of decision rules*  $\Delta$  if  $\delta \in \Delta$ , and  $\delta$  is at least as good as any other  $\delta' \in \Delta$
- Example:  $X \sim N(\theta, 1), \theta \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $\Delta =$  “the class of all estimators of  $\theta$ ”. There is no best element here. Prove by proposing two constant estimators and zero-one loss.
- If there is no best estimator,
  - Try a smaller and appropriate  $\Delta$ , e.g. unbiased estimators.
  - Reduce the risk function  $R(\theta, \delta)$  to a number and compare numbers for different  $\delta$ ’s, e.g.: averaging over  $\theta$  according to some distribution  $G$  on  $\Theta$  is a way to make “Bayes Risk” and look for “Bayes optimal ” decision rules.
  - Maximize  $R(\theta, \delta)$  over  $\theta$  and seek to minimize over  $\delta$ ’s, i.e. mini-max procedures.
- **Inadmissible:**  $\delta$  is inadmissible in  $\Delta$  if there exists  $\delta' \in \Delta$  that is better than  $\delta$ .
- **Admissible:**  $\delta$  is admissible in  $\Delta$  if it is not inadmissible in  $\Delta$ .

Note: One may never want to use an inadmissible rule, but there are decision problems where every rule is inadmissible.

- **Behavioral decision rule:** If for each  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ ,  $\phi_x$  is a distribution on  $(\mathcal{A}, \epsilon)$ , then  $\phi_x$  is called a behavioral decision rule.

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- $\mathcal{D}^* \equiv \{\phi_x\} \equiv$  the class of behavioral decision rules
- $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{D}^*$  where

$$\mathcal{D} \equiv \{\delta(x)\} \equiv \text{the class of non-randomized decision rules } \delta : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$$

- The risk function of a behavioral decision rule is defined as

$$R(\theta, \phi) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \int_{\mathcal{A}} L(\theta, a) d\phi_x(a) dP_{\theta}(x)$$

- **Randomized decision rule:** A randomized decision rule  $\psi$  is a probability measure on  $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{F})$  ( $\delta$ , with a distribution  $\psi$ , becomes a random object and we take decision  $\delta(X)$ .) Notes:

- Let  $\mathcal{D}_* \equiv \{\psi\} \equiv$  the class of randomized decision rules.
- It's possible to think of

$$\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{D}_*$$

by associating with  $\delta \in \mathcal{D}$  a randomized decision rule  $\psi_{\delta}$  which places mass 1 on  $\delta$  ( i.e.  $\psi_{\delta}(\{\delta\}) = 1$ )

- The risk function of a randomized decision rule is defined as

$$R(\theta, \psi) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} R(\theta, \delta) d\psi(\delta) = \int_{\mathcal{D}} \int_{\mathcal{X}} L(\theta, \delta(x)) dP_{\theta}(x) d\psi(\delta)$$

- Among  $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^*, \mathcal{D}_*)$ ,  $\mathcal{D}^*$  is perhaps the most natural, while  $\mathcal{D}_*$  is the easiest to deal with in some proofs. A natural question is “When are  $\mathcal{D}^*$  and  $\mathcal{D}_*$  equivalent in terms of generating the same set of risk functions?” It is typically the case under certion space, distribution and loss functions conditions.

- Example:  $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^*, \mathcal{D}_*)$  where Behavioural rule and Randomized rule has the same risk function.

$X \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ , Estimation of  $p \in \Theta \equiv [0, 1] \equiv \mathcal{A}$

$\mathcal{X} = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $\mathcal{A} = [0, 1]$ ,  $\delta \in \mathcal{D} \iff (\delta(0), \delta(1)) \in [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \equiv \mathcal{A}_0$

$\mathcal{D} = \{\delta(x) : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}\} = \{\delta(x) \mid x = 0, 1 \text{ and } \delta(0), \delta(1) \in [0, 1]\}$

$\mathcal{D}^* = \{\phi_x \mid x = 0, 1 \text{ and } \phi_0, \phi_1 \text{ are distributions on } \mathcal{A} \equiv [0, 1]\}$

$\mathcal{D}_* = \{\psi \mid \psi \text{ is a probability measure on } (\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{F})\}$

\*  $\delta(0) = 0.3, \delta(1) = 0.7$  is non-randomized rule

\*  $\phi_{X=0} \sim U(0, 0.5), \phi_{X=1} \sim U(0.5, 1)$  then  $\phi_X \in \mathcal{D}^*$

\*  $\psi$  on  $\mathcal{D}$ , where  $\psi$  has a uniform distribution on  $(0, 0.5) \times (0.5, 1)$

Note: if  $\tilde{\delta}$  is randomly chosen according to  $\psi$  then we observe  $X \in \{0, 1\}$ , we take  $\tilde{\delta}(0)$  if  $X = 0$ ,  $\tilde{\delta}(1)$  if  $X = 1$ , so  $\psi \in \mathcal{D}_*$ . That is, first determine the rule, then plug in the observed  $X$ .

\* Remark:  $\phi_X$  and  $\psi$  in this case are equivalent because

$$\tilde{\delta}(0) \sim U(0, 0.5) \quad \tilde{\delta}(1) \sim U(0.5, 1)$$

- When  $\mathcal{D}^*, \mathcal{D}_*$  contain better rules that are better than those in  $\mathcal{D}$ ? For convex loss functions, rules in  $\mathcal{D}^*, \mathcal{D}_*$  are typically no better.

- Lemma 51: Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  and  $\phi_x$  is a behavioral decision rule. Define a non-randomized decision rule by

$$\delta(x) = \int_{\mathcal{A}} a d\phi_x(a)$$

assuming the integral exists. (In the case that  $d > 1$ , interpret  $\delta(x)$  as vector-valued, and the integral as a vector of integrals over  $d$  coordinates of  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .)

1. If  $L(\theta, \cdot) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is convex, then

$$R(\theta, \delta) \leq R(\theta, \phi)$$

2. If  $L(\theta, \cdot) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is strictly convex,  $R(\theta, \phi) < \infty$  and  $P_{\theta}(\{x \mid \phi_x \text{ is non-degenerate}\}) > 0$ , then

$$R(\theta, \delta) < R(\theta, \phi)$$

Prove by Jensen's Inequality. This lemma shows randomization does not help in picking the best decisions. Next two lemmas shows averaging out the randomization will improve convex loss function.

- Corollary 52: Suppose that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $\phi_x$  is a behavioral decision rule, and

$$\delta(x) = \int_{\mathcal{A}} ad\phi_x(a)$$

assuming the integral exists.

1. If  $L(\theta, a) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is convex in  $a$  for all  $\theta$ , then  $\delta$  is at least as good as  $\phi$
2. If  $L(\theta, a) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is convex in  $a$  for all  $\theta$  and, for some  $\theta_0$ , the function  $L(\theta_0, a) : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  is strictly convex in  $a$ ,  $R(\theta_0, \phi) < \infty$  and  $P_{\theta_0}(\{x \mid \phi_x \text{ is non-degenerate}\}) > 0$ , then  $\delta$  is better than  $\phi$

## 4.2 Finite Dimensional Geometry of Decision Theory

- A helpful device for understanding some of the basics of decision theory is the geometry involved when

$$\Theta = \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k\}$$

Assume that  $R(\theta, \psi) < \infty$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$  and  $\psi \in \mathcal{D}_*$ . Note that in this case

$$R(\cdot, \psi) : \Theta \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

corresponds to a  $k$ -vector in  $[0, \infty)^k$

Let  $\mathcal{S} = \{y_\psi = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid y_i = R(\theta_i, \psi) \text{ for all } i \text{ and some } \psi \in \mathcal{D}_*\} =$  the set of all randomized risk vectors.

- Theorem 53:  $\mathcal{S}$  is a convex set in  $\mathbb{R}^k$
- Let  $\mathcal{S}^0 = \{y_\delta = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid y_i = R(\theta_i, \delta) \text{ for all } i \text{ and some } \delta \in \mathcal{D}\} =$  the set of all non-randomized risk vectors. It turns out that  $\mathcal{S}$  is the convex hull of  $\mathcal{S}^0$  (or, equivalently, the smallest convex set containing  $\mathcal{S}^0$  or the set of all convex combinations of points in  $\mathcal{S}^0$  or the intersection of all convex sets containing  $\mathcal{S}^0$ )
- **Lower Quadrant:** Definition 54: For  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k$ , the lower quadrant of  $x$  is

$$Q_x = \{z = (z_1, \dots, z_k) \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid z_i \leq x_i \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, k\}$$

- Theorem 55:  $y \in \mathcal{S}$  (or the decision rule giving rise to  $y$ ) is admissible if and only if

$$Q_y \cap \mathcal{S} = \{y\}$$

- Definition 56: For  $\bar{\mathcal{S}}$  the closure of  $\mathcal{S}$ , the lower boundary of  $\mathcal{S}$  is

$$\lambda(\mathcal{S}) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid Q_y \cap \bar{\mathcal{S}} = \{y\}\}$$

- Definition 57:  $\mathcal{S}$  is closed from below if  $\lambda(\mathcal{S}) \subset \mathcal{S}$ . Denote the set of admissible risk points as

$$A(\mathcal{S}) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^k \mid Q_y \cap \mathcal{S} = \{y\}\}$$

- Theorem 58: If  $\mathcal{S}$  is closed (i.e.,  $\mathcal{S} = \bar{\mathcal{S}}$ ), then  $\lambda(\mathcal{S}) = A(\mathcal{S})$
- Theorem 59: If  $\mathcal{S}$  is closed from below, then  $\lambda(\mathcal{S}) = A(\mathcal{S})$ .

## 4.3 Complete Classes of Decision Rules

- **Complete Class** Definition 60: A class of decision rules  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}^*$  is a complete class (for  $\mathcal{D}^*$ ) if, for any given  $\phi \notin \mathcal{C}$ , there exists  $\phi' \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $\phi'$  is better than  $\phi$ .

Remark: This indicates  $\mathcal{C}$  contains the best rules that we should focus on.

- **Essentially Complete Class** Definition 61:  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}^*$  is called an essentially complete class (for  $\mathcal{D}^*$ ) if, for any given  $\phi \notin \mathcal{C}$ , there exists  $\phi' \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $\phi'$  is at least as good as  $\phi$ .
- **Minimal Complete Class** Definition 62:  $\mathcal{C} \subset \mathcal{D}^*$  is a minimal complete class for  $\mathcal{D}^*$  if  $\mathcal{C}$  is complete and is a subset of any other complete class for  $\mathcal{D}^*$ . Denote the set of admissible rules in  $\mathcal{D}^*$  as  $A(\mathcal{D}^*)$  in the following results.

- Theorem 63: If a minimal complete class  $\mathcal{C}$  exists, then  $\mathcal{C} = A(\mathcal{D}^*)$
- Theorem 64: If  $A(\mathcal{D}^*)$  is a complete class, then  $A(\mathcal{D}^*)$  is a minimal complete class.

Note: The statement "  $A(\mathcal{D}^*)$  is a minimal complete class" is, in general, incorrect. Minimal complete class does not always exist, when  $\mathcal{S}$  is not closed and does not contain the minimum  $Q_y$ .