

6 Statistical Decision Theory

6.1 Basics

Let $\theta \in \Theta$ be an unknown quantity of interest. We will take a **decision** (or an **action**) d based on the observed data $x \in \mathcal{X}$, such as $d = \delta(x)$.

- The set \mathcal{D} of all possible decisions is called a **decision space**.
- The function $\delta(x)$ is called a **decision rule**.

Example 1. Classification: Consider the problem of predicting $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

- The decision space is $\mathcal{D} = \{0, 1\}$ for 0-1 classification.
- The decision space is $\mathcal{D} = [0, 1]$ for probabilistic classification.

Example 2. Estimation: Let $\theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$ be the parameter vector. We are interested in θ . The decision space is $\mathcal{D} = \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$.

Definition 1 (Loss function). A **loss function** $L(\theta, d)$ is any non-negative function $L : \Theta \times \mathcal{D} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$.

For example:

$$\begin{aligned} L_2 \text{ loss : } \quad L(\theta - d) &= (\theta - d)^2 \\ L_1 \text{ loss : } \quad L(\theta - d) &= |\theta - d|. \end{aligned}$$

Once we apply the loss function to $\delta(x)$, we should treat $L(\theta, \delta(x))$ as a realization from the random variable $L(\theta, \delta(X))$.

Definition 2 (Risk and Posterior Risk). The (frequentist) **risk** is

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \mathbb{E}[L(\theta, \delta(X)) \mid \theta].$$

The **posterior risk** is $\mathbb{E}[L(\theta, \delta) \mid X = x]$.

Example 3. Let $X = [X_1 \ \cdots \ X_n]^T$ be a vector of iid random variables from Bernoulli(p). We are interested in p .

- The sample space is $\mathcal{X} = [0, 1]$. The parameter space is $\Theta = [0, 1]$. The decision space is $\mathcal{D} = [0, 1]$.
- If we choose the loss function $L(\theta - d) = (\theta - d)^2$ and decision rule $\delta(X) = \bar{X}$, the frequentist risk is

$$R(\theta, \delta) = \mathbb{E}[L(p, \delta(X)) \mid p] = \mathbb{E}[(p - \bar{X})^2 \mid p] = \frac{p(1-p)}{n},$$

where $\theta = p$ is treated as a fixed quantity when evaluating expectation.

- If the prior of p is $p \sim \text{Beta}(a_0, b_0)$, then the posterior is

$$p \mid x \sim \text{Beta}\left(a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, b_0 + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i\right).$$

The posterior risk is

$$\mathbb{E}[L(p, \delta) \mid X = x] = \mathbb{E}[(p - \bar{X})^2 \mid X = x].$$

Definition 3 (Integrated Risk). The **integrated risk** is the expectation of the risk with respect to the prior $\Lambda(\theta)$, given by

$$E[L(\theta, \delta)] = \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) = \int E[L(\theta, \delta(X)) | \theta] d\Lambda(\theta).$$

The decision that minimizes the integrated risk is called the **Bayes decision rule** (or **Bayes estimator**). The minimal integrated risk

$$\inf_{\delta} E[L(\theta, \delta)]$$

is called the **Bayes risk**.

Theorem 1 (Find Bayes decision rule via posterior risk). *Suppose that*

1. *there exists a decision rule with finite risk,*
2. *for almost all x , there exists a $\delta(x)$ minimizing the posterior risk $E[L(\theta, \delta) | X = x]$.*

Then, $\delta(x)$ is a Bayes decision rule.

Proof. Let a be any decision rule with finite risk (existence by Assumption 1). Then, $E[L(\theta, a(X)) | X = x]$ is finite almost everywhere. Then, by Assumption 2,

$$\begin{aligned} E[L(\theta, a(X)) | X = x] &\geq E[L(\theta, \delta(X)) | X = x] \\ &\Downarrow \text{ Law of total expectation} \\ E[L(\theta, a(X))] &\geq E[L(\theta, \delta(X))], \end{aligned}$$

which means that $\delta(X)$ is Bayes. □

Theorem 2. *Suppose that there exists a decision rule with finite risk.*

1. *Consider the weighted L_2 loss*

$$L_W(\theta, d) = (\theta - d)^T W (\theta - d).$$

Then, the Bayes decision rule is the posterior mean $E[\theta | X = x]$, where W does not depend on θ .

2. *Consider the absolute error loss*

$$L(\theta, d) = |\theta - d|.$$

Then, the Bayes decision rule is the posterior median.

Example 4. Consider the L_2 loss. Find the Bayes estimator.

1. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid sample from Bernoulli(θ). Suppose that $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$. Then, the posterior is proportional to

$$\theta^{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i} (1 - \theta)^{n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \frac{\Gamma(a + b)}{\Gamma(a)\Gamma(b)} \theta^{a-1} (1 - \theta)^{b-1} \propto \theta^{a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - 1} (1 - \theta)^{b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - 1},$$

a Beta distribution $\text{Beta}(a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)$. The posterior mean is

$$\delta = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} = \frac{a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{a + b + n}.$$

If a decision rule has a finite risk, then it is the Bayes rule by the theorem. Consider the decision rule $\delta(x) = \bar{X}$. It has finite risk since

$$E[L(\theta, \delta) | \theta] = E[(\bar{X} - \theta)^2 | \theta] = \frac{\theta(1 - \theta)}{n},$$

which is finite for any θ .

2. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid sample from $N(\theta, 1)$. Suppose that $\theta \sim N(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2)$. The posterior is

$$\theta | x \sim N\left(\frac{\sigma_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \mu_0}{n\sigma_0^2 + 1}, \frac{\sigma_0^2}{n\sigma_0^2 + 1}\right).$$

The Bayes rule under the L_2 loss is $\frac{\sigma_0^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \mu_0}{n\sigma_0^2 + 1}$. We only need to find an estimator with finite risk. Consider just \bar{X} such that $E[(\bar{X} - \theta)^2 | \theta] = \theta/n$.

6.2 Point Estimation

We want our estimator to have a small frequentist risk.

Theorem 3 (Rao-Blackwell Theorem). *Let T be a sufficient statistic for $\mathcal{P} = \{P_\theta : \theta \in \Theta\}$. Let δ be an estimator of $g(\theta)$. Define $\eta(T) = E[\delta(X) | T]$. If $R(g(\theta), \delta) < \infty$, and $L(\theta, \cdot)$ is convex for all θ , then $R(g(\theta), \eta(T)) \leq R(g(\theta), \delta)$.*

The Rao-Blackwell Theorem in the Estimation section is a special case of the above Rao-Blackwell theorem, where we only consider unbiased estimators, the loss is the L_2 loss, and the frequentist risk is the variance.

Theorem 4 (Lehmann-Scheffé Theorem). *Let T be a complete and sufficient statistic for a parameter θ . Let $\delta(X)$ be any unbiased estimator of $g(\theta)$. Then $\eta(T) = E[\delta(X) | T]$ is the unique unbiased of $g(\theta)$ that minimizes the frequentist risk $R(g(\theta), d)$, if $L(\theta, \cdot)$ is convex for all θ .*

Example 5. Consider X_1, \dots, X_n from Bernoulli(θ). Note that

$$p(X | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \theta^{X_i} (1 - \theta)^{1-X_i} = \exp \left\{ \sum_i X_i \log \left(\frac{\theta}{1 - \theta} \right) + n \log(1 - \theta) \right\}$$

Hence, $T = \sum_i X_i$ is sufficient and complete. Note that $E[n^{-1}T | \theta] = \theta$. Hence, \bar{X} is the unique unbiased of θ that minimizes any convex loss function.

In practice, we usually cannot compute the closed form expression of $E[L(\theta, \delta(X)) | \theta]$. In supervised learning, we want to learn a function $h : x \rightarrow y$ from the data $\{(x_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n\}$. The corresponding frequentist risk is $E[L(Y, h(X)) | \theta]$. Hence we often minimize the empirical risk to estimate θ :

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, h(x_i)).$$

Example 6. Some examples are

$$\begin{aligned} \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [\log q(y_i) - \log p(y_i | \theta(x_i))] &= \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(\frac{q(y_i)}{p(y_i | \theta(x_i))} \right) \\ \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_1 - \theta_2 x_i)^2 \\ \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_1 - \theta_2 x_i) [\tau - 1(y_i - \theta_1 - \theta_2 x_i < 0)], \quad \text{known } \tau, \\ \arg \inf_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max \{0, 1 - y_i(\theta_1 + \theta_2 x_i)\}. \end{aligned}$$

6.3 Admissible Estimator and Minimax

Definition 4 (Admissible Estimator). A decision rule δ_0 is called **inadmissible** if there exists a decision rule δ_1 such that

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta, \delta_0) &\geq R(\theta, \delta_1), \text{ for all } \theta \in \Theta, \\ R(\theta, \delta_0) &> R(\theta, \delta_1), \text{ for some } \theta \in \Theta. \end{aligned}$$

We say that δ_1 **dominates** δ_0 . Otherwise, the decision rule δ_0 is called **admissible**.

Example 7. Let X_1, \dots, X_n be independent random variables where $X_i \sim N(\theta_i, 1)$. The parameter is $\theta = [\theta_1 \ \dots \ \theta_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- An unbiased estimator of θ is $\delta_0(X) = X = [X_1 \ \dots \ X_n]^T$.
- The **James-Stein estimator** is

$$\delta_1(x) = \left(1 - \frac{n-2}{x^T x}\right)x.$$

- If we consider the L_2 loss, then the difference in the risk satisfies

$$E[L(\theta, \delta_0(X)) | \theta] - E[L(\theta, \delta_1(X)) | \theta] \geq \frac{(n-2)^2}{n-2 + \theta^T \theta} > 0,$$

for all θ .

Definition 5 (Minimax). A decision rule is **minimax** if it minimizes the maximum risk as

$$\inf_{d \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, d) \right] = \inf_{d \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} E[L(\theta, d(X)) | \theta] \right].$$

Example 8. Suppose $X | \theta$ follows a 5-category multinomial distribution and $\theta \in \Theta = \{1, 2, 3\}$ indicates which distribution it is. The candidate distributions are

	x				
θ	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	0.05	0.05	0.8	0.1
2	0.05	0.05	0.8	0.1	0
3	0.9	0.05	0.05	0	0

Suppose that our decision space $\mathcal{D} = \Theta$. Consider

Our decision rule						Loss function			
Observed x						Decision d			
δ	1	2	3	4	5	θ	1	2	3
δ_1	$d=3$	3	2	2	1	1	$L(\theta, d) = 0$	0.8	1
δ_2	3	2	2	1	1	2	0.3	0	0.8
δ_3	1	1	1	1	1	3	0.3	0.1	0

The frequentist risk is $R(\theta, \delta) = E[L(\theta, d) | \theta]$ as

$$R(\theta, \delta) = E[L(\theta, d) | \theta] = \sum_{x=1}^5 L(\theta, \delta(x)) P(X = x | \theta)$$

For example,

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta_1, \delta_1) &= 1 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 0.05 + 0.8 \cdot 0.05 + 0.8 \cdot 0.8 + 0 \cdot 0.1 = 0.73 \\ R(\theta_1, \delta_2) &= 1 \cdot 0 + 0.8 \cdot 0.05 + 0.8 \cdot 0.05 + 0 \cdot 0.8 + 0 \cdot 0.1 = 0.08 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the risk matrix is

θ	δ		
	1	2	3
1	0.73	0.08	0
2	0.08	0.07	0.3
3	0.005	0.01	0.3

The maximum risk $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, d)$ is attained as

	δ		
	1	2	3
$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, d)$	0.73 ($\theta = 1$)	0.08 ($\theta = 1$)	0.3 ($\theta = 2, 3$)

The minimax decision rule is δ_2 .

Theorem 5 (Relation between minimax rule and admissible rule). *1. If there exists a unique minimax decision rule, then it is also admissible.*

2. If δ is admissible and has constant risk, then δ is minimax.

3. Suppose that \mathcal{D} is convex and, for all $\theta \in \Theta$, the loss function $L(\theta, \cdot)$ is strictly convex. If δ_0 is admissible and has constant risk, then δ_0 is unique minimax.

Proof. We only prove Part I and Part II of the theorem. □

1. Minimax \Rightarrow admissible: Let δ^* be the minimax decision rule. Suppose that it is not admissible. Then, there exists another decision rule δ such that

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta, \delta^*) &\geq R(\theta, \delta), \text{ for all } \theta \in \Theta, \\ R(\theta_0, \delta^*) &> R(\theta_0, \delta), \text{ for a } \theta_0 \in \Theta. \end{aligned}$$

This implies that

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta^*) \geq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta).$$

Since δ^* is minimax, we should have

$$\inf_{d \in \mathcal{D}} \left[\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, d) \right] = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta^*) \stackrel{\text{above result}}{\geq} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta).$$

The only possible way for this to happen is that δ is also minimax, since the LHS is the minimal and should be \leq RHS. This contradicts the assumption that δ^* is the unique minimax decision rule.

2. Admissible \Rightarrow Minimax: From 2), we already know that δ_0 satisfying the assumptions must be minimax. We only need to show that it is unique. Suppose that δ_0 is not unique minimax, that is, we can find a $\delta_1 \neq \delta_0$ such that δ_1 is also minimax as

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_1) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_0) \quad R(\theta, \delta_0) \text{ is constant} = R(\theta_0, \delta_0) \text{ for any } \theta_0 \in \Theta.$$

Thus,

$$R(\theta_0, \delta_1) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_1) = R(\theta_0, \delta_0) \text{ for any } \theta_0 \in \Theta.$$

First consider the case where the equality holds: $R(\theta_0, \delta_1) = R(\theta_0, \delta_0)$. We define a new decision rule

$$\delta_2 = \frac{\delta_1 + \delta_0}{2}.$$

Such $\delta_2 \in \mathcal{D}$ if we assume \mathcal{D} is convex. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq R(\theta_0, \delta_2) &= E[L(\theta_0, \delta_2(x)) | \theta_0] \\ L \text{ is strictly convex} &< E\left[\frac{1}{2}L(\theta_0, \delta_0(x)) + \frac{1}{2}L(\theta_0, \delta_1(x)) | \theta_0\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}R(\theta_0, \delta_0) + \frac{1}{2}R(\theta_0, \delta_1) \\ &= R(\theta_0, \delta_0) \end{aligned}$$

This means that $R(\theta_0, \delta_2) < R(\theta_0, \delta_0)$, for any $\theta_0 \in \Theta$, which contradicts the assumption δ_0 is admissible. Hence, we must have

$$R(\theta_0, \delta_1) < \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_1) = R(\theta_0, \delta_0) \text{ for any } \theta_0 \in \Theta.$$

But this also contradicts the assumption δ_0 is admissible. Thus, we cannot find such δ_1 .

6.4 Why Bayesian Statistics?

Theorem 6. *The Bayes decision rule is [admissible](#) if either set of the following conditions hold.*

1. $\lambda(\theta) > 0$ for all $\theta \in \Theta$, $R(\theta, \delta)$ is continuous in θ for all δ , and

$$\inf_{\delta \in \mathcal{D}} \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) < \infty.$$

2. *The Bayes decision rule is unique.*

3. \mathcal{D} is convex, the loss function $L(\theta, \cdot)$ is strictly convex for all $\theta \in \Theta$, and

$$\inf_{\delta \in \mathcal{D}} \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) < \infty.$$

Proof. We only prove the first set of conditions. Condition set 1: Suppose that the Bayes rule δ_B is not admissible. Then there exists a δ_1 such that

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta, \delta_B) &\geq R(\theta, \delta_1), \text{ for all } \theta \in \Theta, \\ R(\theta_1, \delta_B) &> R(\theta_1, \delta_1), \text{ for some } \theta_1 \in \Theta. \end{aligned}$$

Because $R(\theta, \delta)$ is continuous in θ for all δ , then there exists a neighborhood C of θ_1 such that

$$\begin{aligned} R(\theta_1, \delta_B) &> R(\theta_1, \delta_1), \text{ for all } \theta \in C \subset \Theta, \\ \text{and } \int_{\theta \in C} R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) &> \int_{\theta \in C} R(\theta, \delta_1) d\Lambda(\theta). \end{aligned}$$

For $\theta \in C^c$, we should have

$$\int_{\theta \in C^c} R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) \geq \int_{\theta \in C^c} R(\theta, \delta_1) d\Lambda(\theta).$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \int R(\theta, \delta_1) d\Lambda(\theta) &= \int_{\theta \in C} R(\theta, \delta_1) d\Lambda(\theta) + \int_{\theta \in C^c} R(\theta, \delta_1) d\Lambda(\theta) \\ &< \int_{\theta \in C} R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) + \int_{\theta \in C^c} R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) \\ &= \int R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) < \infty, \end{aligned}$$

where the last inequality holds since $\inf_{\delta \in \mathcal{D}} \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) < \infty$. This contradicts the fact that δ_B is Bayes. \square

Theorem 7 (Blyth Theorem). *Let Θ be an open set. Suppose that the set of decision rules with continuous $R(\theta, d)$ in θ forms a class \mathcal{C} such that for any $d' \notin \mathcal{C}$ we can find a $d \in \mathcal{C}$ such that d dominates d' . Let δ be an estimator such that $R(\theta, \delta)$ is continuous of θ . Let $\{\Lambda_n\}$ be a sequence of priors such that*

1. $\int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda_n(\theta) < \infty$ for all n ,
2. for every nonempty open set $\Theta_0 \in \Theta$, there exist constants $B > 0$ and N such that

$$\int_{\Theta_0} d\Lambda_n(\theta) \geq B, \text{ for all } n \geq N,$$

3. $\int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda_n(\theta) - \int R(\theta, \delta_n) d\Lambda_n(\theta) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where δ_n is the Bayes rule under the prior Λ_n .

Then, δ is admissible.

We have shown that the Bayes decision rule is admissible under some assumption. The Blyth theorem says that the admissible decision can be obtained such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda_n(\theta) - \int R(\theta, \delta_n) d\Lambda_n(\theta) = 0.$$

We can in fact claim that every admissible estimator is either a Bayes estimator or a limit of Bayes estimators as

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(x) = \delta_B(x), \text{ almost everywhere,}$$

under quite mild assumptions (e.g., $f(x | \theta) > 0$ for any $(x, \theta) \in \mathcal{X} \times \Theta$, $L(\theta, d)$ is continuous and strictly convex in d for every θ , among others). See Lehmann Theory of Point estimation Theorem 5.7.15 or Bayesian Choice Theorem 8.3.9.

Definition 6. A prior distribution Λ is **least favorable** if

$$\int R(\theta, \delta_B(\Lambda)) d\Lambda(\theta) \geq \int R(\theta, \delta_B(\Lambda')) d\Lambda'(\theta)$$

for all prior distributions Λ' .

Theorem 8. *Let δ_B be the Bayes decision rule with respect to the prior $\pi(\theta)$. Suppose that*

$$\int R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) = \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta_B).$$

Then, δ_B is minimax and $\pi(\theta)$ is least favorable. Further, if δ_B is the unique Bayes decision rule with respect to the prior $\pi(\theta)$, then it is the unique minimax estimator.

Proof. We only prove the minimax part. The assumption $\int R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) = \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta_B)$ means that the minimum integrated risk equals to the maximum of the frequentist risk. Let δ be any other decision rule. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) &= \int \left[\sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) \right] d\Lambda(\theta) \geq \int R(\theta, \delta) d\Lambda(\theta) \\ &\quad \text{definition of Bayes rule} \geq \int R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) \\ &\quad \text{assumption} = \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta_B). \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Hence, δ_B is minimax since any other δ leads to $\sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) \geq \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta_B)$. \square

Corollary 1. Let δ_B be the Bayes decision rule with respect to the proper prior $\Lambda(\theta)$. If δ_B has constant (frequentist) risk, then it is minimax.

Proof. Since δ_B has constant frequentist risk (e.g., $R(\theta, \delta_B) = c$), then we trivially have

$$\begin{aligned} \int R(\theta, \delta_B) d\Lambda(\theta) &= c \int d\Lambda(\theta) = c, \text{ we need } \Lambda \text{ to be a proper prior.} \\ \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta_B) &= c. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the condition of the theorem (Bayes is minimax) is satisfied. The theorem means that δ_B is minimax. \square

Example 9 (Minimax Estimator of Binomial Proportion). Let X_1, \dots, X_n be an iid sample from Bernoulli (θ) . Suppose that $\theta \sim \text{Beta}(a, b)$. Then, the posterior is $\text{Beta}(a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, b + n - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i)$. The Bayes estimator is the posterior mean as

$$\delta_B = \frac{a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{a + b + n}$$

Its risk is

$$R(\theta, \delta_B) = E \left[\left(\frac{a + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i}{a + b + n} - \theta \right)^2 \mid \theta \right] = \frac{[(a+b)^2 - n] \theta^2 + [n - 2a(a+b)] p + a^2}{(a+b+n)^2}.$$

The numerator is a polynomial in θ . It is a constant if $(a+b)^2 = n$ and $n = 2a(a+b)$. In such a case,

$$R(\theta, \delta_B) = \frac{a^2}{(a+b+n)^2} \text{ is a constant.}$$

Hence, the Bayes decision rule is minimax. The solutions of a and b are $a = \sqrt{n}/2$ and $b = \sqrt{n}/2$.

Theorem 9. Let $\{\Lambda_m\}$ be a sequence of proper prior distributions, and δ_m be the Bayes decision rule corresponding to the prior Λ_m . If δ is an estimator such that

$$\sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, \delta_m) d\Lambda_m(\theta).$$

Then δ is minimax.

Proof. Suppose that d is any other decision rule. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, d) &= \int \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, d) d\Lambda_m(\theta) \text{ we need proper priors here} \\ &\geq \int R(\theta, d) d\Lambda_m(\theta) \\ &\Downarrow \\ \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, d) &\geq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, d) d\Lambda_m(\theta). \end{aligned}$$

By the assumption of the theorem, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, \delta_m) d\Lambda_m(\theta) \\ \text{definition of Bayes rule} &\leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, d) d\Lambda_m(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have

$$\sup_{\theta} R(\theta, \delta) \leq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \int R(\theta, d) d\Lambda_m(\theta) \leq \sup_{\theta} R(\theta, d),$$

which means that δ is minimax. \square

Example 10 (Minimax for Normal Mean). Let X_1, \dots, X_n be iid observations from $N(\theta, \sigma^2)$, where σ^2 is known. Consider the L_2 loss $L(\theta, d) = (\theta - d)^2$. The posterior is $\theta | x \sim N\left(\frac{\tau^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sigma^2 \mu_0}{n\tau_m^2 + \sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2 \tau_m^2}{n\tau_m^2 + \sigma^2}\right)$. Let $\delta(x) = \frac{\tau_m^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sigma^2 \mu_0}{n\tau_m^2 + \sigma^2}$. Then

$$E(\theta - \delta)^2 = E_X \left\{ E_{\theta|X} [(\theta - \delta)^2 | X] \right\} = E_X \left\{ \frac{\sigma^2 \tau_m^2}{n\tau_m^2 + \sigma^2} \right\} = \frac{\sigma^2 \tau_m^2}{n\tau_m^2 + \sigma^2}.$$

If $\tau_m^2 \rightarrow \infty$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$, then $E(\theta - \hat{\theta})^2 \rightarrow \sigma^2/n$. By the theorem, \bar{X} is minimax, since

$$R(\theta, \bar{X}) = \int (\theta - \bar{X})^2 N(\theta, \sigma^2/n) d\bar{x} = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}.$$

Let $m(x; \Lambda)$ be the marginal likelihood of x under the prior $\Lambda(\theta)$. We define the frequentist risk between $p(x | \theta)$ and $m(x; \Lambda)$ as

$$R_n(\theta, \Lambda) = \text{KL}(p(x | \theta), m(x; \Lambda)) = \int p(x | \theta) \log \left[\frac{p(x | \theta)}{m(x; \Lambda)} \right] d\mu(x).$$

The integrated risk is then

$$R_n(\Lambda) = \int R_n(\theta, \Lambda) d\Lambda(\theta) = E[\text{KL}(\pi(\theta | x), \pi(\theta))],$$

which is the same as the mutual information of X and θ , and the expected Kullback-Leiber divergence.

Remark 1. Suppose that some regularity conditions are satisfied, including Θ is a compact set, the Fisher information equals to the negative expected Hessian, among others.

- It has been proved that, among all positive and continuous priors,

$$\sup_{\pi} R_n(\Lambda) - \inf_{p(x)} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} \text{KL}(p(x | \theta), p(x)) \rightarrow 0.$$

- It has also been proved that the Jeffreys prior $\lambda^*(\theta)$ is the unique continuous and positive prior such that

$$\sup_{\pi} R_n(\Lambda) - R_n(\lambda^*) \rightarrow 0.$$

Hence, asymptotically, Jeffreys prior maximizes the mutual information, is the least favorable prior, and the integrated risk equals to the minimax risk.