

14/7/25

DECISION THEORY

* Fundamental elements of Decision Theory :

- Action : Alternative courses of actions that are available to the decision maker (statistician)
- States of nature (or events)

Factors : These are the uncertain circumstances of external factors, beyond the control of decision-maker, that can influence the outcome of the action taken by a decision-maker.

Outcomes : These are the consequences that result from combining a specific action with a particular state of nature.

• Payoff (loss) : This is a numerical value (monetary gain, loss or utility) associated with each outcome.

• Objective : Statisticians focus on minimizing loss, on the other hand, decision theorists in other fields might aim to maximize gains (utility).

* Decision Rules

These are the procedures or criteria used to select the best action from the available alternatives, considering the possible outcomes and their probabilities.

* Framework for making decisions :-

- Given a situation with multiple alternatives (courses of action), each potentially leading to various outcomes with certain probabilities, which course of action should the decision-maker choose?

Ans :- Statistical Inference

$\Omega = \text{action space} = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$ (finite countable)

$\Theta = \text{parameter space} = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_n\}$ (finite countable)

Loss function = $L(\theta, a) = \text{Loss to statistician when he chooses } a \in \Omega \text{ & nature chooses } \theta \in \Theta$

* Traveler's Problem :-

Action space = $\{a_1 = \text{no insurance}, a_2 = \text{insurance}\}$

Parameter space = $\{\theta_1 = \text{disease}, \theta_2 = \text{no disease}\}$

Outcomes \rightarrow Exposed to disease (Prob. = 0.03)

\rightarrow Not Exposed to disease (Prob. = 0.97)

Consequences \rightarrow if exposed to disease, then treatment cost = \$ 1000

Take Insurance \rightarrow Buying cost $\rightarrow \$50$.

Does not take Insurance $\rightarrow \$0$.

$L(0, a)$ Actions at instant t) $a_1 = \text{do not take insurance}$ $a_2 = \text{take insurance}$

disease 0_1	\$1000 loss in wealth	\$50 in wealth
no disease 0_2	\$50 in wealth	\$50 in wealth

$$\text{disease} \rightarrow 1000 \text{ loss} \quad \text{no loss} \quad \min(30, 50) = 30$$

No Insurance (a_1)

No disease (0.97)

Do not take Insurance

30

No disease (0.97)

min(30, 50) = 30

(a_2)

No disease (0.97)

min(30, 50) = 30

No disease (0.97)

min(30, 50) = 30

No disease (0.97)

min(30, 50) = 30

Now, suppose there is a medical test available for knowing the chances of getting the disease.

Positive (\rightarrow Prone to disease)

Test Result

Negative (\rightarrow Not prone to disease)

(Used for Extra information)

Random Variable $X \approx \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if test is positive} \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$

$$P(X=1 | \theta_1) = 0.9 \Rightarrow P(X=0 | \theta_1) = 0.1$$

$$P(X=0 | \theta_2) = 0.77 \Rightarrow P(X=1 | \theta_2) = 0.23$$

$x = 1$ if test is positive

$x = 0$ if test is negative

How to incorporate this information about r.v. x in the decision problem?

When a r.v. x is involved in the experiment whose prob. dist' P_0 depends on the state $\theta \in \Theta$ chosen by nature.

* Decision Rule:

- On the basis of outcome $x = x$, the statistician chooses an action $d(x) \in \mathcal{A}$. Such a function d , which maps sample space \mathcal{X} into \mathcal{A} (i.e., $d: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$) which is an elementary strategy for the statistician.

Decision Table

		Decision Rules			
		d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
$x_1 = 0$	a_1	a_1	a_2	a_2	
	a_2	a_1	a_2	a_1	a_2

$D = \text{set of decision rules} = \{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m\}$

No. of decision rules = m^n where $\mathcal{A} = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$

$\mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$

$$\text{P}(D) = (\theta_1 b_1 + \theta_2 b_2 + \dots + \theta_m b_m)^n \cdot P_0 = (\sum_{i=1}^m \theta_i b_i)^n$$

$$\text{P}(D) = (\theta_1 (1-b_1) + \theta_2 (1-b_2) + \dots + \theta_m (1-b_m))^n \cdot P_0 = (\sum_{i=1}^m \theta_i (1-b_i))^n$$

Loss $L(\theta, d)$: Non-Randomized Decision Rules

\cancel{x}	$P_\theta(x)$	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
$x_1 = 0$	$0.03 = \theta_1$	$0, 0 + 0, 20$	$0, 1000, 0$	$0, 60, 0, 20$	$0, 0, 0, 0$
$x_2 = 1$	$0.9 = \theta_2$	$1000 + 0, 20$	$1000, 0, 0$	$50, 50, 50$	$50, 50$
		$E_\theta(d_1(x))$	$E_\theta(d_2(x))$		
		1000	145	905	50
		<u>Expected Loss</u>	<u>11.5</u>	<u>38.5</u>	<u>50</u>

Risk Function $= R(\theta, d) = E_\theta [L(\theta, d(x))]$

Expected value of loss when θ is the true state of nature.

Average loss to the statistician when the true state of nature is θ & statistician uses the decision rule d .

$d = f(\theta)$ is a function of θ called rule : b

(d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4) = Risk Table $R(\theta, d)$ more

$\cancel{\theta} \setminus D$	$(d_1, \theta), (d_2, \theta), (d_3, \theta), (d_4, \theta)$				
$0.03 = \theta_1$	1000	145	905	50	
$0.97 = \theta_2$	1000	11.5	38.5	50	

* Non-Randomized Decision Rules:

Any function $d(x)$ that maps sample space Σ into $\{0, 1\}$ is called non-randomized decision rule (or function).

- Any function $d(x)$ that maps sample space Σ into $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is called non-randomized decision rule (or function) provided it satisfies the condition $R(\theta, d)$ exists and finite $\forall \theta \in \Theta$.

- The class of all non-randomized decision rules is denoted by D .

Expected Overall Loss

$$\text{Under } d_1 = 1000 \times 0.8 + 0 \times 0.97 = 800$$

$$\text{Under } d_2 = 145 \times 0.03 + 11.5 \times 0.97 = 15.50$$

$$\text{Under } d_3 = 905 \times 0.03 + 38.5 \times 0.97 = 64.495 \approx 64.5$$

$$\text{Under } d_4 = 650 \times 0.03 + 0.50 \times 0.97 = 50$$

$\Rightarrow d_2$ is the best decision rule

$\alpha = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\} \rightarrow$ Statistics

$\Theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k\} \rightarrow$ Nature (Parameters)

$x = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$

$L(\theta, a)$ = loss to statistician when he chooses

action $a \in \alpha$ & nature chooses $\theta \in \Theta$

d : decision rule : $d : x \rightarrow \alpha \quad d(x) = a$

D: non-randomized decision rule : $D = (d_1, d_2, \dots, d_m)$

Decision problem : triplet (Θ, α, L)

Loss function = $L(\theta, d) = L(\theta, d(x))$

* Difference between Game theory Problem and Decision :-

- (1) In a two-personal game, both players are simultaneously trying to max the gain / min. loss ; whereas in a decision-theory problem, nature chooses his strategies without having objective of maximization or minimization of gain / loss.

(2) In decision theory, it is assumed that nature chooses the 'true state' once and for all and statistician has possibility of gathering information on this choice by performing a suitable Experiment

payoff table

(Loss Table)

nature (Player-1)

		a_1	a_2 (statistician)
		-3	0
Ω_1	0	1	2
Ω_2	1	2	3

* Risk function = $R(\theta, d) = E_{\theta} [L(\theta, d)]$

$$= \int L(\theta, d(x)) dx$$

$$(x = x) \text{ or } x \in \Omega \Rightarrow \sum L(\theta, d(x)) f(x)$$

$$(x = x) \text{ or } x \in \Omega \Rightarrow \sum L(\theta, d(x)) f(x)$$

$$E[g(x)] = \int g(x) \cdot f(x, \theta) dx \text{ or } \sum g(x) f_p(x; \theta)$$

Ex:- Consider a game in which nature (Player-1) and statistician (player-2) who shows up Head (H) or Tail (T) on a coin available to each one.

Rules :-

$$\alpha = \{ H = a_1, T = a_2 \}, \quad \Omega = \{ H = \Omega_1, T = \Omega_2 \}$$

Odd Rule

Rule :- The price for showing H_1 is y and for T is $2-y$. Nature wins if sum is odd and statistician wins if sum is even

Decision Function Loss Table for Statistician ($L(\theta, a)$)

both $\theta = \theta_1$ (H)	$a_1(H)$	$a_2(T)$	both $\theta = \theta_2$ (T)
$\theta_1(H)$	-2	3	both $\theta = \theta_2$ (T)
$\theta_2(T)$	3	-4	both $\theta = \theta_1$ (H)

Statistician performs a random experiment by asking a group of people about what they will show up and actually what they showed up (H or T) (Note: H=Head, T=Tail)

Define X : answer given by an individual.

$$(a) P(\text{truth}) = \frac{3}{4}, \quad P(\text{lie}) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P((6,3)) = \frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = \frac{9}{16} \quad H = x_1, \quad T = x_2$$

$$(b) \text{ If } \theta = \theta_1(H), \quad P_{\theta_1}(X=x) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\text{If } \theta = \theta_2(T), \quad P_{\theta_2}(X=x) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$(c) \text{ If } \theta = \theta_1(H), \quad P_{\theta_1}(X=x) = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$x = \{x_1 = H, x_2 = T\} \Rightarrow n = 2$$

$$a = \{a_1 = H, a_2 = T\} \Rightarrow m = 2$$

by (1) number of answers among all possible

$$(d) \text{ No. of decision rules} = m^n = 2^2 = 4$$

Set of non-randomized decision rules D

$$= \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4\}$$

$$f_{x_1} = P(X=x_1) = \frac{1}{2}, \quad f_{x_2} = P(X=x_2) = \frac{1}{2}$$

Decision Table

both $\theta = \theta_1$ (H)	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
$x_1 = H$	a_1	a_1	a_2	a_2
$x_2 = T$	a_1	a_2	a_1	a_2

θ	$P_0(x)$	$d_1 < \theta < d_2$	$\theta = d_2$	$\theta > d_2$	$d_3 < \theta < d_4$	$\theta = d_3$	$\theta > d_3$
$x = 0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$	$0, 0,$
$x_1 = H$	$3/4 \approx 1/4$	-2	$3/4 + -2$	$3/4 + -2$	$3/4 + -4$	$3/4 + -4$	-4
$x_2 = T$	$1/4 \approx 3/4$	-2	$3/4 + -2$	$3/4 + -4$	$3/4 + -2$	$3/4 + -3$	-4
	$1 \quad 1$	-2	$3/4 + -3(1/4) = -9/4$	$3/4 + -9/4 = -5/4$	$3/4 + -3 = -3/4$	$3/4 + -3 = -3/4$	-4
		$R(\theta, d)$					

Risk Table $R(\theta, d)$

$\theta \setminus d$	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
$\theta = 0$	$0, -2$	$0, -2$	$0, -2$	$0, -2$
$\theta = 1/4$	$0, -3/4$	$0, -3/4$	$0, -3/4$	$0, -3/4$

~~21/7/25~~

* 3 important categories of 'classical' mathematical statistics, in terms of decision theory problem :-

(i) Suppose $\Omega = \{a_1, a_2\}$ are solution blends.

Decision theory problem in this case can be looked upon as a problem of 'testing of hypothesis'.

Let $L(H) = R$ and loss function is

$$L(\theta, a_1) = \begin{cases} l_1 & \text{if } \theta > \theta_0 \\ l_2 & \text{if } \theta \leq \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

$$l_1 = \text{loss if } \theta > \theta_0$$

$$L(\theta, a_2) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \theta > \theta_0 \\ l_2 & \text{if } \theta \leq \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{where } l_1, l_2 > 0$$

Hence, statistician would like to take actions a_1 if $\theta \leq \theta_0$ and a_2 if $\theta > \theta_0$.

The set D of non-randomized decision rules

consists of those functions ' d ' from $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ with the property that $P_\theta \{d(x) = a_1\}$ is well defined for all values of $\theta \in \mathbb{H}$.

In this case, the risk function will be:

$$R(\theta, d) = \begin{cases} l_1 P_\theta \{d(x) = a_1\} & \text{if } \theta > \theta_0 \\ l_2 P_\theta \{d(x) = a_2\} & \text{if } \theta \leq \theta_0 \end{cases}$$

Thus, for $\theta > \theta_0$, $P_\theta \{d(x) = a_1\}$ = Prob. of making an error in taking action a_1 when statistician should actually take action a_2 and θ is the true state of nature.

for $\theta > \theta_0$, $P_\theta \{d(x) = a_2\}$ = Prob. of making an error in taking action a_2 when statistician should actually take action a_1 and θ is the

true state of nature.

Suppose $H_0 : \theta > \theta_0$ | $a_1 = \text{Reject } H_0$

v/s $H_1 : \theta \leq \theta_0$ | $a_2 = \text{Accept } H_0$

$$P_{H_0} \{d(x) = a_1\} = P[\text{Reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true}] = P[\text{Type - I error}] = \alpha$$

8

$$P_{H_1} \{d(x) = a_2\} = P[\text{Accept } H_0 \mid H_1 \text{ true}] = P[\text{Type - II error}]$$

$\theta \leq \theta_0$ and $a_2 = \text{Accept } H_0$

a.

(ii) When $\Omega = \{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$, $k > 2$.

In this case, the decision theory problem is called
Multiple decision problem.

e.g. double sampling plan, SPRT, etc

(iii) When $\Omega = R$

Such decision theory problems can be referred to as 'Point estimation' of a real parameter.

e.g. Let us take $\Theta = R$ and $\Omega = R$.
 $L(\theta, a) = c \cdot (\theta - a)^2$ (i.e. $c > 0$) (squared error loss
 A real-valued function of θ with Ω as domain functn)

(Other Loss functions are the soft error loss)

$L(\theta, a) = c \cdot |\theta - a|$ called absolute error loss

(ii) $L(\theta, a) = \beta \cdot \theta + \gamma \cdot a$ (Risk functn)

Then a decision functn d can be defined as a real-valued functn defined on Ω , which may be considered as an 'estimate' of the true state of nature θ .

So, statistician would like to choose functn d which minimizes the risk functn.

$$R(\theta, d) = c \cdot E_{\theta} [(\theta - d(x))^2]$$

Ans. $R(\theta, d) = c \cdot [\text{Mean squared error of estimate } d(x)]$

* Randomized Decision Rules :-

Consider a decision problem

(Θ, Ω, L) with $\Theta = \{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$

$$\Omega = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$$

$$\Omega = \{a_1, \dots, a_m\}, \quad \text{①}$$

$$L(\theta, a)$$

Random Expt \rightarrow r.v. X

$$d: \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$$

$$\Omega = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$$

Loss table $L(\theta, a)$

			$D = \{d_1, \dots, d_m\}$	
$\frac{1}{2}$ instances of θ_1 & θ_2			$d_j = \text{set of non-randomized decision rule.}$	
θ_1	a_1	a_2	a_3	randomized decision rule.
θ_1	4	2	3	$a^* = \{P_j P_j \geq 0 \text{ & } \sum_{j=1}^m P_j = 1\}$
θ_2	1	4	3	

A randomized decision for other statistician in problem (H, Ω, L) is "a random dist" over Ω .

- IF P is a prob. dist over Ω & z is a r.v. taking values in Ω , whose prob. dist is given by P , then the Expected / avg. loss in using the randomized decision P is

$$L(\theta, P) = E[L(\theta, z)] \quad (1)$$

exists if & only if it exists for all $\theta \in \Omega$.

So every statistician has a fixed loss function.

The space of randomized decisions P for which $L(\theta, P)$ exists and finite $\forall \theta \in H$ is denoted by

Ex: Let $P_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0 \right)$ & let s_1 be the

randomized decision rule corresponding to P_1 , then the expected loss in using s_1 will be:

$$\rightarrow L(\theta_1, P_1) = \sum_{j=1}^{m=3} l(\theta_1, a_j) \cdot p_j$$

$$(0, s_1) = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3(0) = \underline{12.5}$$

8. 2. 6

$$L(\theta_2, P_1) = \sum_{j=1}^{m=3} l(\theta_2, a_j) \cdot p_j = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3(0) = \frac{5}{2}$$

$$= 2.5$$

Let δ_2 be another randomized decision rule which chooses a_1 with prob. $\frac{1}{4}$, a_2 with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$ & a_3 with prob. $\frac{1}{4}$ (i.e. $P_2 = \left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}\right)$)

$$P(s, \theta_2, \delta_2) = P(s, \theta_2, a_1) + P(s, \theta_2, a_2) + P(s, \theta_2, a_3)$$

$$L(\theta_1, P_2) = 4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 9/4 = 2.25$$

$$L(\theta_2, P_2) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = 12/4 = 3$$

$$\delta_3 \text{ with } P_3 = \left(\frac{9}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}\right)$$

$$\delta_4 \text{ with } P_4 = \left(\frac{3}{8}, \frac{5}{8}, 0\right)$$

Pure Strategy $\rightarrow \delta = (1, 0, 0)$ or $(0, 1, 0)$ or $(0, 0, 1)$
 Mixed Strategy \rightarrow

Thus, the decision problem (H, α^*, L) can be considered as a problem (H, α, L) in which the statistician is allowed randomization on his actions.

By analogy, we may extend this decision problem (H, D, R) to (H, D^*, R) where D^* is a space / set containing prob. dist over D .

$$D^* = \{ \delta = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m) ; p_j \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^m p_j = 1 \}$$

= set of randomized decision rule.

* Randomized Action :-

- A prob. dist' p defined over Ω is called randomized action provided

$$L(\theta, p) = E[L(\theta, z)],$$

where z is a r.v. taking values provides a with prob. dist' p , exists & finite.

$$\text{Thus, } L(\theta, p) = \sum_{j=1}^m L(\theta, \alpha_j) \cdot p_j$$

* Randomized Decision Rule :-

- Any prob. dist' δ on the space of non-randomized decision funct' D is called a 'randomized decision function / rule' provided the risk funct' $R(\theta, \delta) = E[R(\theta, z)]$ exists & finite $\forall \theta \in H$ where z is a r.v. taking values in D with prob. dist' δ .

The space / set of all randomized decision rules is denoted by δ^* .

δ^* contains basic elements of H .

$$\text{Ex: } \mathcal{X} = \{x_1, x_2\}, \mathcal{A} = \{a_1, a_2\}, H = \{\emptyset, \Omega\}$$

$n=2, m=2$

$$\Rightarrow \text{No. of decision rules} = m^n = 2^2 = 4$$

$L(\theta, a)$

Decision rules

θ	a_1	a_2	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
θ_1	1/3	2/3	θ_1	θ_1	θ_1	θ_1
θ_2	2/3	1/3	θ_2	θ_2	θ_2	θ_2

θ	$P_\theta(x)$	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4
θ_1	$0_1 \quad 0_2$				
x_1	$1/3 \quad 1/4$	1 2	1 2	2 1	2 1
x_2	$2/3 \quad 3/4$	2 1	2 1	2 1	2 1

to find minimum risk in second stage

so simulate next minimum among middle path

to get Risk Table $R(\theta, d)$

θ	$\delta_1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{10} \quad \frac{3}{10} \quad \frac{3}{10} \quad \frac{1}{10}$	
θ_1	$d_1 \quad d_2 \quad d_3 \quad d_4$	$5/3 \quad 4/3 \quad 1/2 \quad 0$	$= 15/6 = 2.5$
θ_2	2	$5/4$	$5/4 \quad 1$

finite values

$$\text{let } \delta_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{3}{10}, \frac{1}{10} \right) = 0$$

$$\text{Then } R(\theta_1, \delta_1) = E[R(\theta_1, z)]$$

$$= 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \frac{5}{3} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{10} + 4 \cdot \frac{4}{3} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{10}$$

$$= \frac{15}{30} + \frac{5}{30} + \frac{12}{30} + \frac{6}{30} = \frac{38}{30} = \frac{19}{15} = 1.27$$

$$R(\theta_2, \delta_1) = 9/10 = 0.9$$

$$R(\theta_2, \delta_2) = E[R(\theta_2, z)]$$

$$= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{5}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{10} + \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{3}{10} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{10}$$

$$= \boxed{7/4}$$

* Behavioral Decision Rule function:

- The term 'behavioral strategy' refers to those strategies that tell the player how to randomize at each move.
- In decision theory, a behavioral decision rule tells the statistician.
- How to randomize after observing the outcome of the experiment whereas a randomized decision rule chooses at random a decision function that tells him before observing the outcome of the experiment that exactly what action to take as a result of the experiment!

Ex: $\alpha = \{a_1, a_2\}$, $x = \{x_1, x_2\}$, $H = \{0_1, 0_2\}$

\downarrow \downarrow
 $m=2$ $n=2$

$$D = \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4\}$$

s_1	D	$P_1 = \frac{1}{2} [(s_1, p_1) = \frac{3}{10}]$	$P_2 = \frac{1}{2} [(s_1, p_2) = \frac{3}{10}]$	$P_3 = \frac{1}{2} [(s_2, p_1) = \frac{3}{10}]$	$P_4 = \frac{1}{2} [(s_2, p_2) = \frac{3}{10}]$
x_1	d_1	a_1	d_2	a_1	d_3
x_2	d_4	a_1	d_1	a_2	d_2

$$\text{F.S. } P_1 + P_2 = x_{12} = a_1 + s_1 + a_2 + s_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

$$D^* = \{s = (p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m); p_j \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^m p_j = 1\}$$

$$\alpha^* = \{p | (\text{on } \alpha; Tp) \geq 0, \sum_{j=1}^m p_j = 1\}$$

Then from above table,

$$d_1(x_1) = a_1, \quad d_1(x_2) = a_1 \quad \text{from table}$$

$$d_2(x_1) = a_1, \quad d_2(x_2) = a_2 \quad \text{from table}$$

$$d_3(x_1) = a_2, \quad d_3(x_2) = a_1$$

$$d_4(x_1) = a_2, \quad d_4(x_2) = a_2 \quad \text{from table}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{with } \hat{s}_1 = \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{10}, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{10} \right)$$

Then define $\pi_1 = \text{Prob. of choosing action } a_1$
when $x = x_1$

$$= P_{x_1}(a_1)$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \pi_1 = P_{x_2}(a_2)$$

2. $\pi_2 = \text{Prob. of choosing action } a_1 \text{ when } x = x_2$

$$= P_{x_2}(a_1)$$

$$1 - \pi_2 = P_{x_2}(a_2)$$

Then $\hat{s}_1 = (\pi_1, \pi_2)$ s.t. $0 \leq \pi_1, \pi_2 \leq 1$

$$= \left(\pi_1 = \frac{4}{5}, \pi_2 = \frac{3}{5} \right)$$

(sum of p_j 's = 1 but sum of $\pi_1, \pi_2 \neq 1$)

Under \hat{s}_1 ,

$$\pi_1 = P_{x_1}(a_1) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{10} = P_1 + P_2$$

$$= \frac{8}{10} = \boxed{\frac{4}{5}}$$

$$\pi_2 = P_{x_2}(a_1) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{10} = \boxed{\frac{3}{5}}$$

Defn: Behavioral decision rule :-

→ A functⁿ $\hat{s}(x)$, from \mathcal{X} into \mathcal{A}^* is called
a Behavioral decision rule / functⁿ provided

$\hat{\theta} = (\theta, \delta) = E_{\theta} [L(\theta, \delta(x))]$ exists and finite, and set of all behavioral decision rules $\delta = p(x)$, denoted by \mathcal{P} by

* Optimal (Best) Decision Rules:

- Given a decision problem (\mathcal{A}, α, L) and r.v. x whose dist' is $p_{\theta}(x) / f(x; \theta)$; what decision rule δ should the statistician use?

Method-1: Restricting the available rules OR

Reduction of the size of randomized decision δ^* according to some criteria.

(i) Unbiasedness :- We know that, an estimate $\hat{\theta}$ of a parameter θ is said to be Unbiased if

$$E_{\theta} [\hat{\theta}] = \theta \quad \text{or} \quad \hat{\theta} = T(x) \rightarrow \text{estimator of } \theta$$

A decision rule is said to be unbiased IF $E_{\theta} [T(x)] = \theta$ $\Rightarrow T(x) = \hat{\theta}$ is UE.

$$E_{\theta} [L(\theta, \delta(x))] \leq E_{\theta} [L(\theta', \delta(x))] ; \theta \neq \theta'$$

(ii) Invariance :- To be discussed in Unit-3.

Note:

28/7/25

'a priori' $P(A) = \frac{\text{No. of defectives}}{\text{Total items}}$
 'a posteriori'
 A : item is defective

PAGE NO.: 11
 DATE: 28/7/25

Method - 2 = Ordering the decision rules

(i) The Bayes Principle

(e) Priom & Distribution

- The prob. distⁿ defined

over \mathcal{H} is called prior probability distribution. Suppose, prior distⁿ

Define $g_1(z, \delta) = E[R(z, \delta)]$, where z is a r.v. over \mathcal{H} having prob. distⁿ z .

Defⁿ: Baye's Rule

Defⁿ: A decision rule δ is said to be Bayes decision rule w.r.t. to the prior distⁿ $z \in \mathcal{H}$ if

$$\text{If } g_1(z, \delta_0) = \inf_{\delta \in D^*} g_1(z, \delta)$$

Then δ_0 is Baye's min. Bayes risk w.r.t. to prior distⁿ z .

Note: It is possible that min. Bayes risk w.r.t. to prior distⁿ z exists but there is no Bayes decision rule (So whose Bayes risk is w.r.t. to min. is equal to min. Bayes risk). In this case, Bayes rule may not exist. Then statistician may have to be satisfied with a rule whose Bayes risk is closer to the min. Bayes risk.



Defⁿ: E - Bayes Rule:

- Let $E > 0$ A decision rule s_0 is said to be E - Bayes w.r.t. to a prior distⁿ $\pi \in \mathcal{H}^*$ if

$$\pi(\pi, s_0) \leq \inf_{s \in D^*} \pi(\pi, s) + E \quad (2)$$

(ii) The minimax Principle:

- According to this principle, the statistician would arrange decision rules in order of the max risk involved with them.

Defⁿ: A decision rule s_0 is said to be minimax if

$$\sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{H}} R(\theta, s_0) = \inf_{s \in D^*} \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{H}} R(\theta, s)$$

minimax value / upper value

Notes:

(1) Decision rule s_0 is minimax if & only if

$$\text{Each entry of } R(\theta, s_0) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{H}} R(\theta, s) \text{ if } \theta \in \mathcal{H} \text{ and } s \in D^*$$

(2) Even if the minimax value is finite, there may not be a minimax decision rule, so the statistician may have to be satisfied with a rule whose max risk is within ϵ of the minimax value.

Defn: Let $\epsilon > 0$. A decision rule s^* is said to be ϵ -minimax iff $\forall \theta \in \Theta$

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, s_0) \leq \inf_{s \in D^*} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, s) + \epsilon$$

(2)

$$\text{That is, } R(\theta', s_0) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, s) + \epsilon \quad \forall \theta' \in \Theta \quad \& \quad \theta' \neq \theta$$

Defn: Least Favourable Prior distribution:

- A prior dist' $\pi_0 \in \Pi^*$ is said to be the least favourable if

$$\inf_{s \in D^*} \pi_0(s) = \sup_{\pi \in \Pi^*} \inf_{s \in D^*} \pi(s)$$

maximum / lower value of value game.

Geometric Interpretation of a Decision Problem

- Given set A . Let P_1 & P_2 be the two points in A . Then $\alpha P_1 + (1-\alpha)P_2$ is called Convex Combination of P_1 & P_2 .

Suppose P_1, \dots, P_K are K points in A , then their convex combination will be

$$P = \alpha_1 P_1 + \alpha_2 P_2 + \dots + \alpha_K P_K$$

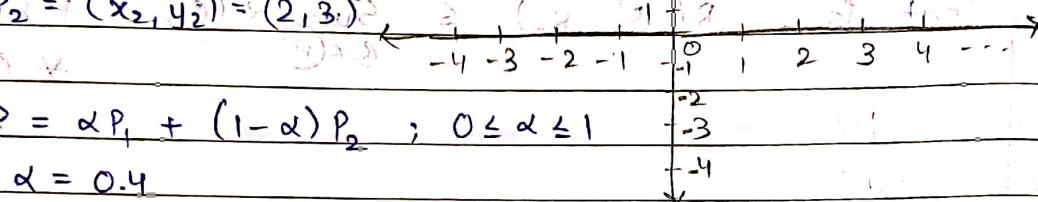
where $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^K \alpha_i = 1$.

Set $A \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be a convex set, if whenever $p \in A$ whenever $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k \in A$ (α convex set)

e.g. $A = \mathbb{R}^2$ & $\exists i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ such that

$$P_1 = (x_1, y_1) = (1, 2)$$

$$P_2 = (x_2, y_2) = (2, 3)$$



$$P = \alpha P_1 + (1-\alpha) P_2 ; 0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$$

$$\alpha = 0.4$$

$$\Rightarrow P = (0.4)(1, 2) + (0.6)(2, 3)$$

$$\Rightarrow P = (1.6, 2.6)$$

31/7/25

* Geometric Interpretation of Decision Problem

Defn: Convex Hull:

If $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ is a set sequence of points

in \mathbb{R}^n and $0 \leq \alpha_1 \leq \dots \leq 1$ are numbers s.t.

$\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = 1$ then $\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i$ is called a convex

combination. + α_i coeff of x_i in a linear

→ The convex hull of a set S is the set of all points which are convex combinations of points in S .

→ Convex Hull is a set with no hole in its interior and no boundary on its exterior.

x_1
 x_2
 x_3
 \vdots
 x_K

$\Omega \rightarrow$ Convex set

A

Not convex

B

PAGE NO.:
DATE: / /

Also Convex hull of a set Ω is defined as the smallest convex set containing Ω i.e. it is intersection of all convex sets containing Ω .

* Consider a decision problem with follow loss Table :-

Ω	$L(\Omega, a)$	E	P
Ω_1	$L(\Omega_1, a_1)$	P_1	P_1
Ω_2	$L(\Omega_2, a_1)$	P_2	P_2
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
Ω_K	$L(\Omega_K, a_1)$	P_K	P_K
	$L(\Omega_1, a_2)$	P_1	P_1
	$L(\Omega_2, a_2)$	P_2	P_2
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
	$L(\Omega_K, a_2)$	P_K	P_K
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
	$L(\Omega_1, a_m)$	P_1	P_1
	$L(\Omega_2, a_m)$	P_2	P_2
	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
	$L(\Omega_K, a_m)$	P_K	P_K

$$L_1 = E [L(\Omega_1, a)]$$

$$= l(\Omega_1, a_1) \cdot P_1 + l(\Omega_1, a_2) \cdot P_2 + \dots + l(\Omega_1, a_m) \cdot P_m$$

$$L_K = E [L(\Omega_K, a)]$$

$$= l(\Omega_K, a_1) \cdot P_1 + l(\Omega_K, a_2) \cdot P_2 + \dots + l(\Omega_K, a_m) \cdot P_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} L_1 \\ L_2 \\ \vdots \\ L_K \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} P_1 & l(\Omega_1, a_1) & l(\Omega_1, a_2) & \dots & l(\Omega_1, a_m) \\ P_2 & l(\Omega_2, a_1) & l(\Omega_2, a_2) & \dots & l(\Omega_2, a_m) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ P_K & l(\Omega_K, a_1) & l(\Omega_K, a_2) & \dots & l(\Omega_K, a_m) \end{bmatrix}$$

(L_1, L_2, \dots, L_K) is a point in R^K which is a convex combination points $(l(\Omega_i, a_1), l(\Omega_i, a_2), \dots, l(\Omega_i, a_m))$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, K$.

problem

of points

v.s.t.

Convex

set

in its

exterior.

The set of Loss Points (L_1, L_2, \dots, L_k) defined by all possible randomized actions (P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m) is a convex set in R^k . If it forms a Convex Polyhedron where the extreme points are pure action strategies. (e.g. $P = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$ or $(0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ etc.)

$$L(\theta, a)$$

P_1	1	0	0	0	0	0
θ	a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4	a_5	
0_1	2	4	3	5	3	
0_2	3	0	(0, 3)	(2, 0)	5	9

$$P_1 = (1, 0, 0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow L_1 = E[L(\theta, a)]$$

$$= l(\theta_1, a_1)P_1 + \dots + l(\theta_5, a_5)P_5 = [2]$$

and

$$L_2 = E[L(\theta_2, a)] = l(\theta_2, a_1)P_1 + \dots + l(\theta_2, a_5)P_5 = [3]$$

\Rightarrow Loss Point corresponding to

$$(P_1, P_2) = (L_1, L_2) = (2, 3) = a_1$$

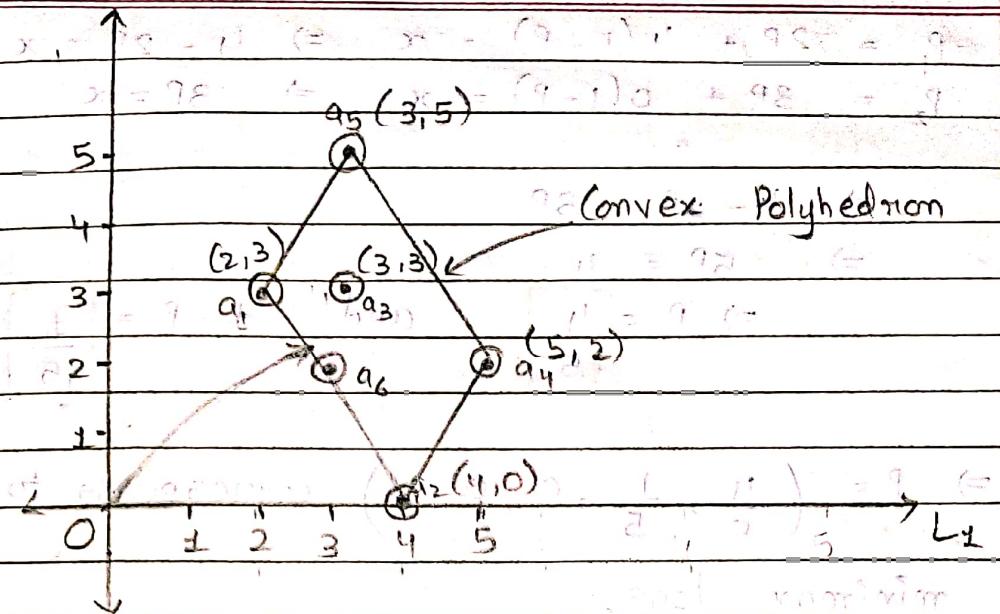
Similarly, $P_2 = (0, 1, 0, 0, 0) \Rightarrow L_1 = 4, L_2 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow (L_1, L_2) = (4, 0) = a_2$$

$(P_1, P_3) = (0, 0, 1, 0, 0) \Rightarrow (L_1, L_2) = (3, 3) = a_3$

$P_4 = (0, 0, 0, 1, 0) \Rightarrow (L_1, L_2) = (5, 2) = a_4$

$P_5 = (0, 0, 0, 0, 1) \Rightarrow (L_1, L_2) = (3, 5) = a_5$



Let $P_6 = (0.6, 0.4, 0, 0; 0)$
 $\Rightarrow (L_1, L_2) = (2.8, 1.8) = F$

* Loss Table:

a	a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4	a_5
0_1	2	4	3	5	3
0_2	3	0	3	2	5
$\max \alpha(0, a)$	3	4	3	5	5

$$\min_{\alpha} \max_{a \in A} L(0, a) = 3$$

Bisector falls on \overline{AB} , so if the statistician choose a mixed strategy that involves only actions a_1 and a_2 then the points (P_1, P_2) of interest will be a convex combination of points A and B given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} P_1 \\ P_2 \end{pmatrix} = P\alpha + (1-P)\beta = P\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) + (1-P)\left(\frac{4}{5}\right)$$

$$P_1 = 2P + 4(1-P) = x \Rightarrow 4 - 2P = x$$

$$P_2 = 3P + 0(1-P) = x \Rightarrow 3P = x$$

$$\Rightarrow 4 - 2P = 3P$$

$$\Rightarrow 5P = 4$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \boxed{\frac{4}{5}} \quad \text{and} \quad 1-P = \boxed{\frac{1}{5}}$$

$\Rightarrow P = \left(\frac{4}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, 0, 0, 0 \right)$ corresponds to

minimax loss.

$$L_1 = \frac{8}{5} + \frac{40}{5} = \frac{12}{5} \text{ A.S.} = 2.4 \text{ C.R.}$$

$$L_2 = \frac{12}{5} + \frac{0}{5} = \frac{12}{5}$$

4/8/25

Lemma: The risk set S is a convex subset

of E_K .

* Result:

Proof: Let $\mathcal{H} = \{O_1, O_2, \dots, O_K\}$. Let $S = \text{risk set}$

Let $y^{(1)}$ and $y^{(2)}$ be two points in S

$$\Rightarrow y^{(1)} = (y_1^{(1)}, y_2^{(1)}, \dots, y_K^{(1)})^T \text{ and } S$$

$$\text{also } y^{(2)} = (y_1^{(2)}, y_2^{(2)}, \dots, y_K^{(2)})^T$$

Proof:-

Since $y^{(1)} \in S \Rightarrow \exists \text{ some } \delta_1 \in D^*$ s.t.

$$R(O_j, \delta_1) = y_j^{(1)}, j=1, 2, \dots, K \text{ and}$$

$$R(O_j, \delta_2) = y_j^{(2)}, j=1, 2, \dots, K$$

$\underline{y}^{(2)} \in S \Leftrightarrow \exists s_2 \in D^* \text{ s.t. } (\underline{s})$

$$R(\underline{o}_j, s_2) = y_j^{(2)}, j=1, 2, \dots, k$$

Let $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ and $y = \alpha \underline{y}^{(1)} + (1-\alpha) \underline{y}^{(2)}$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{y}_j &= j^{\text{th}} \text{ coordinate of } (\underline{s}) \\ &= \alpha y_j^{(1)} + (1-\alpha) y_j^{(2)} \quad j=1, 2, \dots, k \\ &= \alpha R(\underline{o}_j, s_1) + (1-\alpha) R(\underline{o}_j, s_2) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow y = (\underline{y}_1, \underline{y}_2, \dots, \underline{y}_k) \in S$

Moreover, S is convex and $S \subset E_k$. Hence S is convex subset of E_k .

4/8/25

* Baye's Rule in Estimation:

Result: If $(\underline{o}, S) \in \mathcal{E} = (\underline{o}, S)$, then \underline{o} is least favourable prior distⁿ if and only if

Definition: $\underline{o} \in \mathcal{E} \text{ s.t. } g_1(\underline{o}, s') \geq \inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}, s) \forall s \in D^*$ and $\inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}, s) = \sup_{\underline{o} \in \mathcal{E}} (\inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}, s))$ (1)

Proof: (i) Let \underline{o}' be a least favourable prior distⁿ max. min

$$\text{Defn} \Rightarrow \inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}', s) = \sup_{\underline{o} \in \mathcal{E}} (\inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}, s))$$

$$\Rightarrow g_1(\underline{o}', s') \geq \sup_{\underline{o} \in \mathcal{E}} \inf_{s \in D^*} g_1(\underline{o}, s) + s' \in D^* \quad (2)$$

$$\Rightarrow g(\tau_0, s') \geq \inf_{\tau \in D^*} g(\tau, s) + s' \in D^* \text{ and } \tau \in H^*$$

and hence (i)

(ii) Suppose (i) holds, that is

$$\Rightarrow g(\tau_0, s') \geq \inf_{\tau \in D^*} g(\tau, s) + s' \in D^* \text{ and } \tau \in H^*$$

$$\Rightarrow g(\tau_0, s') \geq \sup_{\tau \in H^*} \inf_{s \in D^*} g(\tau, s) + s' \in D^*$$

$$\Rightarrow \inf_{s \in D^*} g(\tau_0, s) = \sup_{\tau \in H^*} \inf_{s \in D^*} g(\tau, s)$$

$\Rightarrow \tau_0$ is least favourable.

* Obtaining the Baye's Estimate:

- We know that $g(\tau, s) = E[R(\tau, s)]$ where τ is a r.v. taking values in H with prob. distn τ .

In a problem of estimation if \exists a randomized Baye's rule w.r.t a prior distn τ , then there will also exist a non-randomized Baye's rule w.r.t the same prior τ .

$(\exists s) g(\tau, d) = E[R(\tau, d)]$ where d is a non-randomized decision rule.

$$f_1(x|y) = \frac{g(x,y)}{g_2(y)} \Rightarrow g(x,y) = f_1(x|y) \cdot g_2(y)$$

$$f_2(y|x) = \frac{g(x,y)}{g_1(x)}$$

$$g(x,y) = f_2(y|x)g_1(x)$$

PAGE NO.:
DATE: / /

- Suppose d_0 is a non-randomized Baye's rule w.r.t. prior dist' τ then

$$\pi(\tau, d_0) = \inf_{d \in D} \pi(\tau, d)$$

Now,

$$\pi(\tau, d) = E[R(z, d)]$$

$$= \int R(\theta, d) d\tau(\theta)$$

where

$$R(\theta, d) = E_\theta [L(\theta, d(x))]$$

$$= \int L(\theta, d(x)) dF(x|\theta)$$

where $F(x|\theta)$ is a conditional dist' function of x given θ and x is the variable.

$$\Rightarrow \pi(\tau, d) = \int \int L(\theta, d(x)) dF(x|\theta) d\tau(\theta)$$

where

$$= \int \left[\int L(\theta, d(x)) d\tau(\theta|x) \right] dF(x)$$

randomized
then
ed Baye's

* Objective: To find Baye's decision rule and Baye's risk

\Rightarrow We need to find decision rule which minimizes $\pi(\tau, d)$, that is to minimize $\int L(\theta, d(x)) d\tau(\theta|x)$, for each given x .



$$\text{If } x \sim G(\alpha, \beta) \\ f(x) = \frac{e^{-x/\beta} x^{\alpha-1}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma(\alpha)}, x > 0$$

$$\text{If } x \sim \exp(\theta) \\ f(x) = \theta e^{-\theta x}, x > 0$$

PAGE NO.: 111
DATE: / /

Ex: Let $\mathcal{H} = \{a\} = (0, \infty)$, $L(0, a) = c.(0-a)^2$
Suppose $(x|\theta) \sim U(0, \theta)$
↳ (nature's action space)

$$\Rightarrow f(x|\theta) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta}, & 0 \leq x \leq \theta \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$(a) \mathbb{E}[L(\theta)] = 0.001, \text{ if } \theta = 1$$

Let the prior dist. π of θ is
→ π - Parameter Gamma

$$\pi(\theta) = \begin{cases} \theta^{-1} e^{-\theta}, & \theta > 0 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases} \quad \text{Take } \alpha = 1, \beta = 2$$

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\theta} e^{-x/\theta}, \theta > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta \sim G(2)$$

If Pdf of x and $\theta = f_1(x, \theta)$

$$= f(x, \theta) \cdot \pi(\theta)$$

$$(a) f(x|y) = f_1(y|x) = \frac{f(x, y)}{g_1(y)} \quad \text{[} \therefore f_1(x|y) = \frac{f(x, y)}{g_1(y)} \text{]}$$

$$f(x, y) = f_1(x|y) \cdot g(y)$$

$$(a) f(x, y) = f_1(x|y) \cdot g_1(y)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\theta} \theta e^{-\theta}, & 0 < x < \theta \text{ and } \theta > 0 \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

$$\int(f+g) dx = \int f dx + \int g dx$$

$$= \begin{cases} e^{-\theta}, & 0 < x < \theta \\ 0, & \text{elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

Marginal Pdf of $x \equiv h(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, \theta) d\theta$

$$= \int_{\theta=0}^{\infty} f_1(x, \theta) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{\theta=x}^{\infty} e^{-\theta} d\theta \quad \begin{array}{l} \theta > 0 \text{ and } \theta > x \\ \Rightarrow \theta > \max(\theta, x) \end{array}$$

but $x > 0 \Rightarrow \theta > x$



$$= \left[-e^{-\theta} \right]_{-\infty}^{\infty} = e^{-x}$$

$$\Rightarrow h(x) = e^{-x}, x > 0 \Rightarrow x \sim \exp(\lambda)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Conditional Dist}^n \text{ of } \theta|x = \frac{f_1(\theta|x)}{h(x)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(\theta|x) &= \frac{e^{-\theta}}{e^{-x}} \\ &= e^{x-\theta} \\ &= \begin{cases} e^{x-\theta} & \theta > x \\ 0 & \text{o.w.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

\therefore Conditional Expected Loss (s)

$$s = \int_{\theta} (\theta, d(x)) \cdot dF_{Z_1}(\theta|x)$$

$$= c \int_x^{\infty} (\theta - a)^2 e^{x-\theta} d\theta$$

To minimize s , $\frac{ds}{d\theta} = 0$

$$\int_a^b (f+g) d\theta = \int_a^b f d\theta + \int_a^b g d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow c \int_x^{\infty} 2(\theta - a)(-1) e^{x-\theta} d\theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_x^{\infty} (\theta - a) e^{x-\theta} d\theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_x^{\infty} \theta e^{x-\theta} d\theta - a \int_x^{\infty} e^{x-\theta} d\theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow e^x \int_{\theta=x}^{\infty} \theta e^{-\theta} d\theta = a e^x \left[\int_x^{\infty} e^{-\theta} d\theta \right]$$

$$= ae^x \left[-e^{-\theta} \right]_{-\infty}^x =$$

$$(t) \text{ or } d(x) = ae^x e^{-x} = [a] = (x) \text{ or } a =$$

$$(\Rightarrow e^x \left[[\theta(-e^{-\theta})]_{-\infty}^{\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -e^{-\theta} d\theta \right] = a)$$

$\theta = x$ (rule of Bayes)

$$\Rightarrow e^x \left[-xe^{-x} + (-e^{-\theta})_{-\infty}^x \right] = a$$

$$\Rightarrow e^x \left[-xe^{-x} + e^{-x} \right] = a$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-x}(x+1) = a$$

$$\Rightarrow a = x+1$$

$\Rightarrow d(x) = x+1$. (is it Baye's estimate of θ w.r.t prior distⁿ $G(2)$)

Note: $E[\theta | x = x]$ = mean of conditional (Posterior) distⁿ of $\theta | x$

$$= \int_0^\infty \theta \cdot \tau_1(\theta | x) d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^\infty \theta e^{x-\theta} d\theta$$

$$= e^x \int_0^\infty \theta e^{-\theta} d\theta$$

$$= e^x \left[(\theta(-e^{-\theta}))_{-\infty}^x - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} -e^{-\theta} d\theta \right]$$

If f is pdf of x over (a, b) then median
M of x will be obtained on
 $\int_a^M f(x) dx = 0.5$.

PAGE NO.:
DATE: / /

$$\begin{aligned} M &= e^x [x e^{-x} + (-e^{-x})] \\ &= e^x [x e^{-x} + e^{-x}] \\ &= e^x e^{-x} [x + 1] \\ &= x + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Rule 2 : In problem of estimating a real parameter θ , with loss proportional to squared error (i.e. $L(\theta, a) = c(\theta - a)^2$), a Bayes decision rule w.r.t a given prior dist' $\tau(\theta)$ is :-

To estimate θ as the mean of the posterior dist' of θ given data (i.e. x or observation) that is,

$$\text{Bayes estimate } d(x) = E[\theta | x=x] = \int_{\theta} \theta d\tau(\theta | x=x)$$

Rule 1 : In problem of estimating a real parameter θ with loss proportional to absolute error (i.e. $L(\theta, a) = c|\theta - a|$) a Bayes decision rule w.r.t a given prior dist' $\tau(\theta)$ is : To estimate θ as the median of the Posterior dist' of θ given data (i.e. given x or obs' x_i) that is

$$d(x) = \text{median of conditional dist' of } \theta | x=x$$

Posterior dist' $(\theta | x)$



7/8/25

PAGE NO.:

DATE: / /

known

Ex: Let $(x|\theta) \sim B(n, \theta)$, $\theta \sim \beta_I(\alpha, \beta)$,
 $L(\theta, a) = (\theta - a)^2$. Find Bayes estimation of θ under the given loss function.

Sol: Here $H = [0, 1]$

$$\Rightarrow f(x|\theta) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}; \quad x=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

Information & loss in estimating θ is standard $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$

$$\text{Hence } \theta \sim \beta_I(\alpha, \beta) \Rightarrow \tau(\theta) = \frac{\theta^{\alpha-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 1$$

$$\text{Marginal prior } \pi(\theta) = \frac{\theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}, \quad \alpha, \beta > 0$$

Marginal PDF of x and θ : $f_{\theta}(x, \theta) = f(x|\theta) \tau(\theta)$

$$\text{Conditional PDF } x = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} \frac{\theta^{\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}; \quad x=0, \dots, n$$

$$0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \quad \alpha, \beta > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f_{\theta}(x, \theta) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

$$(x+\alpha-1) \times (n-x+\beta-1) = B(\alpha, \beta)$$

Marginal density of $x = h(x) = \int f_{\theta}(x, \theta) d\theta$

$$\text{Marginal PDF of } x = \binom{n}{x} \int_0^1 \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta$$

$$\text{Marginal PDF } h(x) = \binom{n}{x} B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)$$

$$\text{Hence } h(x) = \binom{n}{x} B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta) \int_0^1 \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} d\theta$$

$$\text{If } x \sim \beta_I(\alpha, \beta) \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{\beta-1} d\theta = \frac{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$$

$$\Rightarrow h(x) = \frac{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)} = \frac{x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$h(x) = \frac{\binom{n}{x} B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)}{B(\alpha, \beta)}; \quad x=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\alpha, \beta > 0 \quad \Rightarrow \int_{x=0}^1 x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} dx = B(\alpha, \beta)$$



Conditional distⁿ = P of θ , $\theta | x=x$ = Posterior distⁿ of θ
 $= \tau_1(\theta | x=x) = f_1(x, \theta)$

$$(n+x+\alpha) \cdot \frac{(n-x)}{x} \cdot \frac{\alpha^{x+\alpha-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}$$

$$\therefore \tau_1(\theta | x=x) = \frac{\binom{n}{x} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)} \cdot \frac{B(\alpha, \beta)}{\binom{n}{x} B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau_1(\theta | x) = \frac{\theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} ; 0 \leq \theta \leq 1$$

$$(x+\alpha) \cdot B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta) \cdot (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1} = \text{PdF of } \beta_I(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta).$$

$$\text{Given } L(\theta, a) = (\theta - a)^2 b$$

Bayes estimate of $\theta = d(x) = a = E[\theta | x=x]$

If $x \sim \beta_I(\alpha, \beta)$ then $E[\theta | x=x] = \text{Mean of Conditional dist}^n$ of $\theta | x=x$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } E(x) &= \alpha \\ E(x) &= \frac{\alpha + \beta}{\alpha + \beta + n} = \frac{(\alpha + \beta)x}{\alpha + \beta + n} = \frac{x + \alpha}{x + \alpha + n - x + \beta} \\ &= \text{Mean of Posterior dist}^n \tau_1(\theta | x=x) \\ &= \text{Mean of } \beta(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta) \end{aligned}$$

$$D = E(x) = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{\alpha + \beta + n} \text{ is estimation moment mean}$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x) = \frac{x + \alpha}{\alpha + \beta + n}$$

Ex: If $x \sim B(5, \theta)$, $\theta \sim \beta_I(1, 9)$

$$\text{then } d(x) = \frac{x+1}{15}$$

* Bayes Estimate in case of weighted squared error loss?

$$\text{Let } L(\theta, a) = \omega(\theta)(\theta - a)^2$$

Then to find Bayes estimate w.r.t. to $\tau(\theta)$.

we minimize $\int L(\theta, a) d\tau(\theta|x=x)$

i.e. minimize $\int w(\theta)(\theta - a)^2 d\tau(\theta|x=x)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \left[\int w(\theta) (\theta - a)^2 d\tau(\theta|x=x) \right] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -2a \int w(\theta) (\theta - a) d\tau(\theta|x=x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \int w(\theta) \theta d\tau(\theta|x=x) = a \int w(\theta) d\tau(\theta|x=x)$$

\Rightarrow Bayes estimate of θ

$$= d(x) = a$$

$$\text{Now, } d(x) = b_0 \frac{\int \theta \cdot w(\theta) d\tau(\theta|x=x)}{\int w(\theta) d\tau(\theta|x=x)} = \frac{E[\theta \cdot w(\theta)|x=x]}{E[w(\theta)|x=x]}$$

Now, suppose $L(\theta, a) = \frac{(\theta - a)^2}{\theta(1-\theta)}$

$$\text{Then Bayes estimate of } \theta = d(x) = a$$

$$E[\theta \cdot w(\theta)|x=x] = \int \theta \cdot w(\theta) \cdot \tau_1(\theta|x) dx \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{\theta=0}^1 \theta \cdot \frac{x+\alpha-1}{\theta(1-\theta)} \frac{(1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} d\theta \\ &= \frac{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta-1)}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} \int_{\theta=0}^{x+\alpha-1} \frac{(1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1-1}}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta-1)} d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Let $f(x)$ be a pdf of X & $g(x)$ be any other functⁿ of X , then

$$E[g(x)] = \int g(x) f(x) dx$$

Ex:

$$\frac{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta-1)}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} \quad (2)$$

$$E[\omega(\theta) | x=x] = \int_{\theta} w(\theta) \pi_1(\theta|x) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{\theta} \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)} \cdot \frac{\theta^{x+\alpha-1} (1-\theta)^{n-x+\beta-1}}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{B(x+\alpha-1, n-x+\beta-1)}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} \quad (3)$$

Using (2) & (3) in (1)

$$\Rightarrow d(x) = \frac{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta-1)}{B(x+\alpha, n-x+\beta)} \cdot \frac{B(x+\alpha-1, n-x+\beta-1)}{B(x+\alpha-1, n-x+\beta-1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x) = \frac{x+\alpha}{x+\alpha+n-x+\beta-1} \cdot \frac{x+\alpha-1}{x+\alpha-1+n-x+\beta-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x) = \frac{x+\alpha}{x+\alpha+n-x+\beta-1} \cdot \frac{x+\alpha-1}{x+\alpha-1+n-x+\beta-1}$$

$$= \frac{x+\alpha}{x+\alpha+\beta+n-2} \cdot \frac{x+\alpha-1}{x+\alpha-1+\beta+n-2}$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x) = \frac{(x+\alpha-1)x+\alpha-1}{(\alpha+\beta+n-2)x+\beta+n-2} \cdot \frac{x+\alpha+n-2}{x+\alpha-1}$$

$$d(x) = \frac{x+\alpha-1}{\alpha+\beta+n-2}$$

Ex: If $L(\theta, a) = |\theta - a|$ absolute error loss

Then $d(x) = a = \text{median of dist}^n(\theta|x=x)$
 $= \text{median of Posterior dist}^n \pi_1(\theta|x=x)$

Thus, the problem will be to find $d(x) = a$ s.t.

$$\int_0^{\infty} \tau_1(\theta|x) d\theta = 0.5$$

$$\theta = 0$$

Incomplete beta Integral

13/8/25

Ex: Let $\mathbb{H} = (0, \infty)$, $\alpha = R$, $\tau(0, \alpha) = (0 - \alpha)^2$
 $x|0 \sim p(\theta)$, $\theta \sim G(\alpha, \beta)$

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{\bar{e}^{-\theta} \theta^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \theta > 0$$

$$\text{and } \tau(\theta) = \frac{e^{-\theta/\beta}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma_\alpha} \theta^{\alpha-1}; \theta > 0 \text{ and } \alpha, \beta > 0$$

$$\text{It Pdf of } x \text{ and } \theta = f_{\theta}(x, \theta) = f(x|\theta) \cdot \tau(\theta)$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\theta} \theta^x}{x!} \frac{e^{-\theta/\beta} \theta^{\alpha-1}}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma_\alpha}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \theta > 0; \alpha, \beta > 0$$

Marginal Pdf of $x = h(x) = \int f_{\theta}(x, \theta) d\theta$

$$= \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma_\alpha} \int_0^\infty e^{-\theta(1+\frac{1}{\beta})} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma_\alpha} \int_0^\infty e^{-\theta/(1+\beta)} \theta^{x+\alpha-1} \left(\frac{\beta}{\beta+1}\right)^{x+\alpha} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{\beta^{x+\alpha}}{(\beta+1)^{x+\alpha}} \frac{1}{\beta^\alpha \Gamma_\alpha} \int_0^\infty \Gamma(x+\alpha, \frac{\beta}{\beta+1}) d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow h(x) = \frac{\beta^x}{(\beta+1)^{x+\alpha}} \Gamma(x+\alpha, \frac{\beta}{\beta+1})$$

$$(x = 0, 1, 2, \dots)$$

Posterior distⁿ of $\theta | x = x$

$$= \text{Conditional dist}^n \text{ of } \theta | x = x = \tau_1(\theta|x)$$

$$= \frac{f_1(x, \theta)}{h(x)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau_1(\theta|x) = e^{-\theta/\beta} e^{-(x+\alpha)/(\beta+1)} \frac{x!}{\beta^\alpha} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(x+\alpha+1)} \frac{\Gamma(x+\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(x+\alpha)} \frac{\Gamma(\alpha+1)}{\Gamma(\alpha+1)} ; \quad \alpha > 0$$

$$= G(x+\alpha, \beta)$$

(squared error loss)

with $L(\theta, a) = (\theta - a)^2$, Bayes estimate = $d(x)$

$$= a = E(\theta|x=x)$$

= Mean of $\tau_1(\theta|x)$

$$= (x+\alpha) \cdot \frac{\beta}{\beta+\alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow E(x) = \alpha \beta$$

$$= (x+\alpha) \frac{\beta}{\beta+1}$$

Ex: Let $H \Rightarrow \alpha = R$, $L(\theta, a) = (\theta - a)^2$

Let $x|\theta \sim N(\theta, 1)$. Find Bayes estimate of θ

w.r.t. to a prior distⁿ of θ , where $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$

$$f(x|\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(x-\theta)^2} ; -\infty < x < \infty \text{ and}$$

$$\theta \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

and

$$\tau(\theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\theta^2}{\sigma^2}} ; -\infty < \theta < \infty ; \sigma > 0$$

It pdf of x and $\theta = f_1(x, \theta) = f(x|\theta) \cdot T(\theta)$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(x-\theta)^2 + \frac{\theta^2}{\sigma^2}]}$$

Then marginal distⁿ of $x = h(x) = \int f_1(x, \theta) d\theta$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \int_{\theta=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[(x-\theta)^2 + \frac{\theta^2}{\sigma^2}]} d\theta = (x/\sigma)\sqrt{\pi}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \int_{\theta=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2}[x^2 - 2x\theta + \theta^2(1 + \frac{1}{\sigma^2})]} d\theta$$

$$\left(-\frac{1}{2} [x^2 - 2x\theta + \theta^2(1 + \frac{1}{\sigma^2})] \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} [x^2 - 2x\theta + \frac{\theta^2(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2}]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2} \left[\frac{\theta^2 - 2x\theta\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} + \frac{x^2\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2} \left[\frac{\theta^2 - 2x\theta\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} + \frac{x^2\sigma^4}{(\sigma^2 + 1)^2} - \frac{x^2\sigma^4}{(\sigma^2 + 1)^2} + \frac{x^2\sigma^2}{(\sigma^2 + 1)} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2} \left[\left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} \right)^2 - \frac{x^2\sigma^4}{(\sigma^2 + 1)^2} + \frac{x^2\sigma^2}{(\sigma^2 + 1)} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2} \left[\left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} \right)^2 - \frac{x^2\sigma^2}{(\sigma^2 + 1)} \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} - 1 \right) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\sigma^2 + 1)}{\sigma^2} \left[\left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{\sigma^2 + 1} \right)^2 - \frac{x^2\sigma^2}{(\sigma^2 + 1)^2} \right]$$

$\cdot \tau(\theta)$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\sigma^2+1}{\sigma^2} \left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{\sigma^2+1} \right)^2} \frac{-1}{e^{\frac{1}{2} (\sigma^2+1)}} d\theta$$

 $\cdot \theta) d\theta$

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2+1)}} \cdot \sigma \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(\theta-x\sigma^2)^2}{\sigma^2+1}} d\theta$$

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2+1)}} \cdot \sigma \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} N\left(\frac{x\sigma^2}{\sigma^2+1}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}\right) d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sqrt{1+\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2+1)}} \quad ; \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Posterior dist}^n \text{ of } \theta | x=x = \tau_2(\theta|x) = \frac{f_1(x, \theta)}{h(x)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma} e^{\frac{-1}{2} \left[(x-\theta)^2 + \frac{\theta^2}{\sigma^2} \right]}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sqrt{1+\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2(\sigma^2+1)}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\sigma^2}} e^{\frac{-1}{2} \left(\frac{1+\sigma^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} \right)^2} \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2}{2(1+\sigma^2)}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{1+\sigma^2}}} e^{\frac{-1}{2} \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} \left(\theta - \frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} \right)^2}$$

$$= N\left(\frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}\right)$$

\Rightarrow Bayes Estimate w.r.t. to prior $\tau(\theta)$ for
Squared error loss

$$= E[\theta|x=x]$$

$$= \text{Mean of } N\left(\frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$= \frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} = d_\sigma(x) = a$$

Also, Bayes risk $= r_1(\tau_\sigma, d_\sigma)$

$$= E[E\{(0 - d_\sigma(x))^2 | x\}]$$

$$\Rightarrow r_1(\tau_\sigma, d_\sigma) = E\left[\left(0 - \frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}\right)^2 | x\right] \quad \begin{aligned} & \quad \begin{aligned} & E[x-E(x)]^2 \\ & = v(x) \end{aligned} \\ & \quad \begin{aligned} & E[(0-x)^2] \\ & = v(x) \end{aligned} \end{aligned}$$

$= \text{Var of } \tau(\theta|x=x)$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2}$$

NOTE: If we let $d(x) = x$, and we know that

$$d_\sigma(x) = \frac{x\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} = \frac{x-\bar{x}}{\sigma^2} + \bar{x} \quad (\because \text{dividing N \& D by } \sigma^2)$$

and it can be observed that $d_\sigma(x) \rightarrow d(x)$
as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$.

* Useful Extension in the definition of Bayes rule:

Defn: A rule δ is said to be a limit of Bayes rules δ_n ($n \rightarrow$ sample size), if for almost all x , $\delta_n(x) \rightarrow \delta(x)$ in distribution.

(long term behaviour so we use limit)

PAGE NO.: 11
DATE: 11

for

Note: For non-randomized decision rules, this defn becomes $d_n \rightarrow d$ for almost all x .

Ex: In the previous Example, where $x|o \sim N(0, 1)$ and $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{T}_2$, we have seen that $d_\sigma(x) \rightarrow d(x)$ if $\sigma^2 \rightarrow \infty$ where $d_\sigma(x) = \frac{x\sigma^2}{1 + \sigma^2}$ and $d(x) = x$.

Defn: Generalized Bayes Rule:

A rule s_0 and p_s is said to be generalized Bayes rule if \exists a measurement $\mathcal{C}(H)$ such that $\int L(\theta, s) f_x(x|\theta) d\mathcal{C}(\theta)$ takes on a finite minimum value when $s = s_0$. (Note that $\mathcal{C}(\theta)$ is not prior distⁿ)

Ex: Consider Example where $x|o \sim N(0, 1)$, $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$. Let $d(x) = x$ be generalized Bayes rule when $d\mathcal{C}(\theta) = d\theta$ i.e. $\mathcal{C}(\theta) = \mathcal{O}(1)$.

To verify this, let $S = \int L(\theta, d) f_x(x|\theta) d\mathcal{C}(\theta)$

$$= \int (x - \theta)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2}} d\theta.$$

For S to be minimum, $\frac{\partial S}{\partial \theta} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-2\theta}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int (\theta - a) \frac{-1}{2} e^{\frac{(x-\theta)^2}{2}} d\theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \theta e^{\frac{-1}{2}(x-\theta)^2} d\theta = a \int e^{\frac{-1}{2}(x-\theta)^2} d\theta.$$
$$E(\theta) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \theta e^{\frac{-1}{2}(x-\theta)^2} d\theta = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow E(\theta) = a = d(x)$$

\Rightarrow If $\theta \sim N(x, 1)$, then $E(\theta) = x$ and therefore $d(x) = x$ is a generalized Bayes rule.

Defn: Extended Bayes Rule:

A rule s_0 is said to be Extended Bayes if s_0 is E-Bayes for every $\epsilon > 0$.

OR

A rule s_0 is said to be Extended Bayes if for every $\epsilon > 0$, \exists a prior dist' τ such that s_0 is E-Bayes w.r.t. τ , that is, $\boxed{g_1(\tau, s_0) \leq \inf_s g_1(\tau, s) + \epsilon}$

Mathematical form

Ex: Consider in Ex. 1 where $x|\theta \sim N(\theta, 1)$, $\theta \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ i.e. $\tau(\theta) = N(0, \sigma^2)$. To show that $d(x) = x$ is Extended Bayes rule.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Compute } g_1(\tau_0, d) &= E[(\theta - x)^2] = E[E\{(\theta - x)^2 | \theta\}] \\ &= E[E\{(x - \theta)^2 | \theta\}] \\ &= E[v(x|\theta)] = \boxed{\frac{1}{1+\sigma^2}} E[x|\theta] \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now, } \inf_d g_1(\tau_0, d) = g_1(\tau_0, d) = \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} \leftarrow \text{Min. vsk.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \inf_d g_1(\tau_0, d) &= \inf_d [g_1(\tau_0, d) + \epsilon] \text{ for } \epsilon = \frac{1}{1+\sigma^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{1+\sigma^2} + \left(\because \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} + \epsilon = 1 \right) \\ &\Rightarrow \epsilon = \frac{1}{1+\sigma^2} - \frac{\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} = \frac{1-\sigma^2}{1+\sigma^2} \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow d$ is $E \rightarrow$ Bayes rule for choice of $c = 1$

$1 + \alpha^2$

~~14/8/25~~

UNIT - 2

* Admissibility and Completeness :-

Defⁿ(2) :- Natural Ordering

- A decision rule s_1 is said to be as good as a rule s_2 if

$$R(\theta, s_1) \leq R(\theta, s_2) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

[If $R(\theta, s_1) = R(\theta, s_2)$ a decision rule of s_1 is equivalent to rule s_2]

A rule s_1 is said to be better than a rule s_2 if

$$R(\theta, s_1) < R(\theta, s_2) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

and $R(\theta, s_1) \geq R(\theta, s_2)$ for atleast one

$$\theta \in \Theta$$

A rule s_1 is said to be equivalent to a

rule s_2 if

$$R(\theta, s_1) = R(\theta, s_2) \quad \forall \theta \in \Theta$$

NOTE :- If s_1 is as good as s_2 , then s_1 is not to be preferred over s_2 .

Defⁿ(2) :- A rule s is said to be "admissible" if \exists no rule better than s .

A rule is said to be "inadmissible" if it is not admissible that is \exists a better decision rule than that rule.

(m)

Ex: Let $H = \{d_1, d_2, d_3\}$, $\alpha = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$, $\omega = \{x_1, x_2\}$

(n)

(H)	d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4	d_5	d_6	d_7	d_8	d_9
ω_1	0	$\frac{1}{64}$	$\frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{3}{64}$	$\frac{1}{16} = \frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{7}{64}$	$\frac{3}{16} = \frac{12}{64}$	$\frac{1}{64}$	$\frac{1}{4} = \frac{16}{64}$
ω_2	$\frac{1}{16} = \frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{2}{64}$	$\frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{2}{64}$	0	$\frac{2}{64}$	$\frac{1}{16} = \frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{2}{64}$	$\frac{1}{16} = \frac{4}{64}$
ω_3	$\frac{1}{4} = \frac{16}{64}$	$\frac{7}{64}$	$\frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{13}{64}$	$\frac{1}{16} = \frac{4}{64}$	$\frac{1}{64}$	$\frac{3}{16} = \frac{12}{64}$	$\frac{3}{64}$	0
	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓	✓	✗	✗	✓

There does not exist any decision rule (among (d_2, \dots, d_9)) which is better than d_1 .

$\Rightarrow d_1$ is admissible

d_2 is better than d_4

$\Rightarrow d_4$ is inadmissible

d_2 is better than $d_7 \Rightarrow d_7$ is inadmissible

\nexists any rule better than d_2

$\Rightarrow d_2$ is admissible.

d_5 is better than $d_3 \Rightarrow d_3$ is inadmissible

\nexists any rule better than d_5

$\Rightarrow d_5$ is admissible.

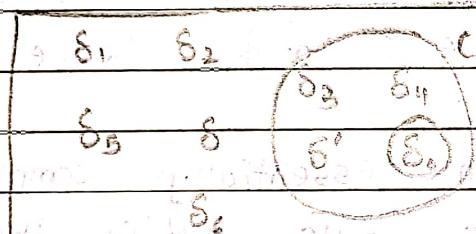
d_6 is better than $d_5 \Rightarrow d_5$ is inadmissible
 If any rule better than d_6 and d_9
 $\Rightarrow d_6$ and d_9 are admissible.

Hence, class of admissible rules = $\{d_1, d_2, d_5, d_6, d_9\}$
 Class of inadmissible rules = $\{d_3, d_4, d_7, d_8\}$

Defⁿ(3) - A class C of decision rules, $\exists c \in D^*$ (or D^*)
 is said to be complete iff given any rule
 $s \in D^*$ and $s \notin C$, \exists a rule $s_0 \in C$ such
 that s_0 is better than s .

- A class C of decision rules is said to be
 essentially complete iff given any rule $s \in C$,
 a rule $s_0 \in C$ that is as good as s .

Ex:-



$s \in D^*$ but $s \notin C$.

Suppose s_0 is better

than s and $s_0 \in C$.

Suppose $C = \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_5, d_6, d_9\}$

$\rightarrow d_1 \in D^*$ but $d_1 \notin C$, but $\exists d_2 \in C$

which is better than d_1 .

$\rightarrow d_7 \in D^*$ but $d_7 \notin C$, but $\exists d_2 \in C$

which is better than d_7 .

$\rightarrow d_8 \in D^*$ but $d_8 \notin C$ but $\exists d_6 \in C$

which is better than d_8 .

$\Rightarrow C$ is complete class.

Lemma 1: If C is a complete class and A denotes the class of all admissible rules then $A \subseteq C$.

Proof: Let A be the set of all admissible decision rules and C is a complete class.

Let s be any admissible decision rule $\Rightarrow s \in A$ but suppose $s \notin C$ and since C is a complete class, and $s \notin C \Rightarrow \exists$ a decision rule say $s' \in C$ such that s' is better than s .

$\Rightarrow s$ is inadmissible and $s \notin A$, which is a contradiction.

Hence, our assumption that $s \notin C$ is wrong.
Thus $s \in A \Rightarrow s \in C$ and hence $A \subseteq C$.

Lemma 2: If C is an essentially complete class and \exists an admissible rule $s \notin C$ then \exists a rule $s' \in C$ which is equivalent to s .

Proof: Since C is an essentially complete class s is admissible and $s \notin C \Rightarrow \exists s' \in C$ such that s' is as good as s , by defⁿ of essentially complete class.

$$\Rightarrow R(\theta, s') \leq R(\theta, s) \quad \forall \theta \in \mathcal{H}$$

If $R(\theta, s') < R(\theta, s)$ for some $\theta \in \mathcal{H}$ then

$$\text{Since } R(\theta, s') \leq R(\theta, s) \quad \forall \theta \in \mathcal{H}$$

and $R(\theta, s') < R(\theta, s)$ for some $\theta \in \mathcal{H}$.

$\Rightarrow s'$ is better than s .

which means s is inadmissible which is a contradiction.

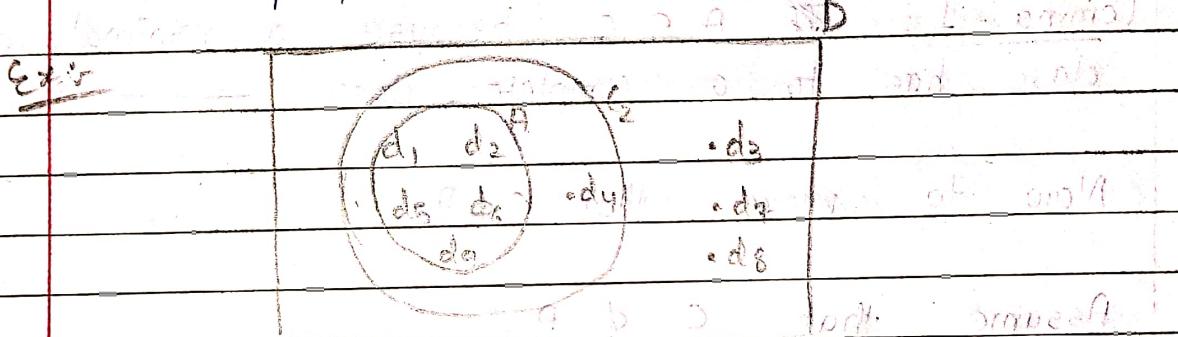
\exists any $\theta \in H$, for which $R(\theta, s') < R(\theta, s)$

$$\Rightarrow R(\theta, s') = R(\theta, s) \wedge \theta \in H$$

$$\Rightarrow s' \text{ is equivalent to } s.$$

Defⁿ \Rightarrow A class C of decision rules is said to be "minimal Complete" if

- (i) C is complete \Rightarrow and
- (ii) no proper subset of C is complete.



$C_1 = \text{Complete class} = \{d_1, d_2, d_3, d_5, d_6, d_9\}$

$C_2 = \text{Complete class} = \{d_1, d_2, d_4, d_5, d_6, d_9\}$

$C_3 = \{d_1, d_4, d_5, d_6, d_9\} \rightarrow \text{Not a Complete class}$

(minimal Complete class)

$C = \{d_1, d_2, d_5, d_6, d_9\} \rightarrow \text{Complete class}$

$C' \subset C$, say $C' = \{d_2, d_5, d_6, d_9\}$

$C \subset C_2$

- A class C of decision rules is said to be "minimal essentially complete"

- (i) C is essentially complete and
- (ii) no proper subset of C is essentially complete.

NOTE. It is not necessarily that minimal complete or minimal essentially complete classes exist.

Theorem (1) - IF a minimal complete class exists it consists of exactly the admissible decision rules

Proof = Let C denote a minimal complete class and let A denote the class of all admissible rules.

To show that $C = A$

Lemma - 1 : $A \subseteq C$ because a minimal complete class has to a complete class (i)

Now to prove that $C \subseteq A$.

Assume that $C \not\subseteq A$.

Let $s_0 \in C$ but $s_0 \notin A$

We assume that $\exists s_1 \in C$ that is better than $s_0 \Rightarrow s_0$ is inadmissible

Because s_0 is inadmissible \exists a rule say s is better than s_0 .

If $s \in C$ we may take $s = s$

If $s \notin C$ then because C is complete $\exists s_1 \in C$ that is better than s and hence better than s_0

Thus, in either case $s_1 \in C$ is better than s_0

Now,

let $C_1 = C - \{s_0\}$

$$\begin{array}{c} s_1 > s_0 \\ s_1 > s \\ s > s_0 \end{array} \Rightarrow s_1 > s_0$$

let s_1 be an arbitrary rule not in C_1 .

If $s_1 = s_0$ then $s_1 \in C_1$ which is better than s_0 .

and if $s \neq s_0 \in s' \cap c$, which is better than s .

\Rightarrow If $s' = s_0$, then $s, \in c$ is better than s and
if $s' \neq s_0$, then $s' \in c$ is better than s .

Thus in any case if a decision rule of c ,
is better than s which means $c \subseteq c$ is complete

\Rightarrow a proper subset of c of c is complete which
violates the second condition for a class
 c to be minimal complete which contradicts
our assumption then $c \not\subseteq A$.

$\Rightarrow c \not\subseteq A$ is incomplete

$\Rightarrow c \subseteq A$ — (ii)

Hence (i) and (ii) $\Rightarrow c = A$

Result: (Converse of the Previous Theorem)

If the class of admissible rules is complete
then it is minimal complete.

Proof: Let A' be the class of admissible rules,
which is complete.

To prove that A' is minimal complete.

Let us assume that A' is not minimal

complete. Since minimal complete class is
intersection of all complete classes,

let A_1 be the proper subset of A' which
is complete.

Let $s_0 \in A'$ but $s_0 \notin A_1$ and A_1 is complete

\Rightarrow If a decision rule say s_1 such that $s_1 \in A_1$
and s_1 is better than s_0 .

$\Rightarrow s_0$ is not admissible which is a contradiction because A is class of admissible rules and $s_0 \in A$ and $s_0 \in C$ which means s_0 has to be admissible. Hence C has to be a minimal complete class.

Result: Show that if C is complete and contains a non proper essentially incomplete sub class, then C is minimal complete and minimal, essentially complete.

Proof: Given C is complete. Let $C, C \subset C$ and therefore C_1 is not essentially complete.

(i) Prove that C_1 is minimal complete.

That is, to prove that $C_1, C \subset C$ is not complete.

Suppose C_1 is not complete.

\Rightarrow if $s_0 \notin C_1$, then $\exists s \in C_1$ which is better than s_0 .

that is $R(\emptyset, s) \leq R(\emptyset, s_0) \nvdash \emptyset \in H$. (1)

and $R(\emptyset, s) \nvdash R(\emptyset, s_0) \vdash \emptyset \in H$ for some $\emptyset \in H$

But C_1 is not essentially complete.

For $s_0 \notin C_1$, $\nexists s \in C_1$ which is as good as

i.e. $R(\emptyset, s) \nvdash R(\emptyset, s_0) \nvdash \emptyset \in H$ (2)

Thus (1) & (2) contradicts each other.

$\Rightarrow C_1$ is not complete and $C_1 \subset C$.

\Rightarrow if C is minimal complete class.

(ii) To prove that C is minimal essentially complete

First, we shall prove that C is essentially complete.

Suppose, we assume C is not essentially complete.

\therefore For $s_0 \notin C$, $\exists s_1 \in C$ such that s_1 is as good as s_0 that is $R(\theta, s_1) \leq R(\theta, s_0) \forall \theta \in H$

$\therefore \nexists s_1 \in C$ which is better than s_0 .

$\Rightarrow s_0$ is admissible and $s_0 \notin C$ but C is minimal complete (\therefore Part (i))

$\Rightarrow s_0 \notin C$ is a contradiction

$\Rightarrow s_0 \in C \Rightarrow C$ must contain (all) admissible rules.

Also $\exists s_1 \in C$ such that $R(\theta, s_1) \leq R(\theta, s_0) \forall \theta \in H$

$\Rightarrow s_1$ is as good as s_0

$\Rightarrow C$ is essentially complete

Let C_1, C_2, C_3 and as per statement C_1, C_2, C_3 is not essentially complete

$\Rightarrow C$ is minimal essentially complete

Hence the proof.

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Ex:

		d_1	d_2	d_3	d_4	d_5	d_6	d_7	d_8	d_9
		θ_1	θ_2	θ_3	θ_4	θ_5	θ_6	θ_7	θ_8	θ_9
θ_1	0	$1/64$	$4/64$	$3/64$	$4/64$	$7/64$	$12/64$	$16/64$	$16/64$	
θ_2	$4/64$	$2/64$	$4/64$	$2/64$	0	$2/64$	$4/64$	$2/64$	$4/64$	
θ_3	$16/64$	$7/64$	$4/64$	$13/64$	$4/64$	$1/64$	$12/64$	$3/64$	0	

$$\pi(\theta) = \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}$$

Bayes rule wrt Prior $\pi(\theta)$?

PAGE NO.:

DATE: / /

Suppose we take prior dist' of θ

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &: \theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3 \\ P(\theta) &: \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{1}{3} \quad \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned} \quad \text{--- } \pi(\theta)$$

$$\text{Bayes risk} = \pi(\tau, d) = E[R(\theta, d)] = \sum_{\theta} R(\theta, d) \cdot P(\theta)$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_1) = \frac{20}{192} = \frac{10}{96} = \frac{5}{48}$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_2) = \frac{10}{192} = \frac{5}{96} = \frac{5}{48}$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_3) = \frac{12}{192} = \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{48}$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_4) = \frac{18}{192} = \frac{3}{32} = \frac{3}{48}$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_5) = \frac{10}{192} \Rightarrow \pi(\tau, d_6) = \frac{28}{192}$$

$$\pi(\tau, d_7) = \frac{21}{192}, \quad \pi(\tau, d_8) = \frac{20}{192}$$

Bayes dec. rule is the one for which Bayes risk is minimum

\Rightarrow Here, d_5 is Bayes rule wrt Prior

* Important theorems on decision theory & Game Theory:

Recall

(H)* = set of all prior dist's = set of all prob. dist's defined over (S)



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$$\text{Maximin value} = \sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} \inf_{s \in D^*} r(\tau, s)$$

\underline{v} = lower value of the game = \underline{v} — (1)

(1) represents the 'maximin' value of the game
 If 'nature' is an opponent who is playing to
 ruin the statistician then it could use a
 lenient favourable dist if it existed which
 guarantees that the statistician expected loss
 would be atleast equal to \underline{v} . No matter what
 decision rule he might use whereas,

$$\text{minimax value} = \inf_{s \in D^*} \sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} r(\tau, s)$$

\bar{v} = Upper value of game = \bar{v} — (2)

(2) represents the 'minimax' value or 'upper value'
 of game'. Since, for every randomised rule
 $s \in D^*$, $\sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} r(\tau, s) = \sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} R(s, \tau)$ — (3)

Thus, statistician has a rule which ensures him
 that his expected loss will not be greater than
 any pre-assigned number larger than the upper
 value no matter what prior dist nature decides
 to used.

- The minimax Theorem : (The fundamental thm of game theory) :

- Consider a game and assume that the risk set
 S is bounded from below. Then the game has value

$$\underline{v} = \sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} \inf_{s \in D^*} r(\tau, s) = \inf_{s \in D^*} \sup_{\tau \in \mathbb{H}^*} r(\tau, s) = \bar{v}$$

and a maximin strategy (that is, a least favourable prior distⁿ τ) exists. Moreover, if S is closed from below, then a minimax strategy (s) exists, and $r(\tau_0, s_0) = v$

- NOTES:
- (1) It is important to know, when (4) holds
 - (2) In game theory, where nature is also a thinking player, (4) holds under general conditions for 2-person zero-sum games.
 - (3) In decision theory, the minimax thm is helpful in helping the statistician to find minimax decision rule
 - (4) Also, the minimax thm is useful in answering the questions :- where are the # minimax rules also Bayes rules w.r.t. some prior distⁿ?

Ans: If the minimax thm holds and if there is a least favourable prior distⁿ, say τ_0 , exists, then any minimize rule, say s_0 , is Bayes w.r.t. to τ_0 .

Result: Prove that $\sup_{\tau \in H^*} r(\tau, s) = \sup_{\theta \in H} R(\theta, s)$

Proof: Let $H^* =$ set of all prior distⁿ defined over H .
 $\omega =$ set of all degenerate distⁿ defined over H .

Then,

$$\omega \subset H^*$$

$$\Rightarrow \sup_{\tau \in \omega} r(\tau, s) \leq \sup_{\tau \in H^*} r(\tau, s) \quad (4)$$

Since W is the set of all degenerate dist^{ns}
for $R(\theta_j, \delta)$, $\tau = (\theta_0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0) + j$
 j^{th} position

$$\therefore \sup_{\tau \in W} r(\tau, \delta) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta) \quad (2)$$

Thus (1) and (2)

$$\Rightarrow \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta) \leq \sup_{\tau \in \Theta^*} r(\tau, \delta) \quad (3)$$

Now consider

$$R(\theta', \delta) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta) + \theta' \in \Theta \quad (4)$$

Taking Expectation on both the sides w.r.t prior
distⁿ τ .

$$E[R(\theta', \delta)] \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} E[R(\theta, \delta)]$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_j R(\theta', \delta) \cdot p_j \leq \sum_j \underbrace{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta)}_{\text{constant}} \cdot p_j$$

$$\Rightarrow r(\tau, \delta) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta) \quad \forall \tau \in \Theta^* \quad (\because \sum_j p_j = 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sup_{\tau \in \Theta^*} r(\tau, \delta) \leq \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta) \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Hence, (3) and (5)} \Rightarrow \sup_{\tau \in \Theta^*} r(\tau, \delta) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta).$$