

# Statistical Decision Theory and Bayesian Analysis

## Chapter1 Basic Concepts

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## Outline

- Introduction
- Basic Elements
- Bayesian Expected Loss
- Frequentist Risk
- Randomized Decision Rules
- Decision Principles
- Misuse of Classical Inference Procedures

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## Introduction

- Decision theory is concerned with the problem of making decisions.
- Statistical decision theory is concerned with the making of decisions in the presence of statistical knowledge which sheds light on some of the uncertainties involved in the decision problem (will be presented by  $\theta$ )

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## Introduction(cont.)

- Classical statistics is directed towards the use of sample information in making inference.
- In decision theory, an attempt is made to combine the sample information with loss function and prior information.

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## Basic Elements

- The unknown quantity  $\theta$  which affects the decision process is commonly called the state of nature.
- The symbol  $\Theta$  will be used to denote the set of all possible states of nature and it is also called the parameter or parameter space.
- Decisions are more commonly called actions in the literature. Particular actions will be denoted by  $a$ , while the set of all possible actions under consideration will be denoted  $A$

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## Basic Elements (cont.)

- Loss function  $L(\theta, a)$  is defined for all  $(\theta, a) \in \Theta \times A$ . For technical convenience, only loss functions satisfying  $L(\theta, a) \geq -K > -\infty$
- Outcome (Observations) will be denoted  $X$  (that's a vector), the possible outcomes is the sample space, and will be denoted  $\mathfrak{X}$
- Denote  $P_\theta(A)$  the probability of the event  $A$ .

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## Bayesian Expected Loss

- Definition 1.

If  $\pi^*(\theta)$  is the believed probability distribution of  $\theta$  at the time of decision making, the **Bayesian expected loss of an action**  $a$  is

$$\rho(\pi^*, a) = E^{\pi^*} L(\theta, a) = \int_{\Theta} L(\theta, a) dF^{\pi^*}(\theta)$$

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## Frequentist Risk

- Definition 2.

A decision rule  $\delta(x)$  is a function from  $\mathbb{N}$  into  $A$ . If  $X=x$  is the observed value of the sample information, then  $\delta(x)$  is the action that will be taken. Two decision rules,  $\delta_1(x)$  and  $\delta_2(x)$ , are considered equivalent if  $P_{\theta}(\delta_1(X) = \delta_2(X)) = 1$  for all  $\theta$

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## Frequentist Risk(cont.)

- Definition 3.

The risk function of a decision rule  $\delta(x)$  is defined by

$$R(\theta, \delta) = E_{\theta}^X [L(\theta, \delta(X))] = \int_{\mathbb{N}} L(\theta, \delta(x)) dF^X(x | \theta)$$

example

- Definition 4.

A decision rule  $\delta_1$  is **R-better** than a decision rule  $\delta_2$  if  $R(\theta, \delta_1) \leq R(\theta, \delta_2)$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ , with strict inequality for some  $\theta$ . A rule  $\delta_1$  is **R-equivalent** to  $\delta_2$  if  $R(\theta, \delta_1) = R(\theta, \delta_2)$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$

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## Frequentist Risk(cont.)

- Definition 5.

A decision rule  $\delta$  is **admissible** if there exists no R-better decision rule. A decision rule  $\delta$  is **inadmissible** if there does exist an R-better decision rule.

	$a_1$	$a_2$	$a_3$
$\theta_1$	1	3	4
$\theta_2$	-1	5	5
$\theta_3$	0	-1	-1

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## Frequentist Risk(cont.)

$D = \{\text{all decision rules } \delta: R(\theta, \delta) < \infty \text{ for all } \theta \in \Theta\}$ .

- Definition 6.

The Bayes risk of a decision rule  $\delta$ , with respect to a prior distribution  $\pi$  on  $\Theta$ , is defined as

$$r(\pi, \delta) = E^{\pi} [R(\theta, \delta)]$$

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## Randomized Decision Rules

- Definition 7.

A **randomized decision rule** is  $\delta^*(x, \bullet)$ , for each  $x$ , a probability distribution on  $A$ , with the interpretation that if  $x$  is observed,  $\delta^*(x, A)$  is the probability that an action in  $A$  will be chosen.

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## Randomized Decision Rules( cont.)

- Definition 8.

The **loss function**  $L(\theta, \delta^*(x, \bullet))$  of the randomized rule  $\delta^*$  is defined to be

$$L(\theta, \delta^*(x, \bullet)) = E^{\delta^*(x, \bullet)}[L(\theta, a)]$$

The **risk function** of  $\delta^*$  will then be defined to be

$$R(\theta, \delta^*) = E_{\theta}^X L(\theta, \delta^*(x, \bullet))$$

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## Randomized Decision Rules(cont.)

- Matching Pennies

	$a_1$	$a_2$
$\theta_1$	-1	1
$\theta_2$	1	-1

- Definition 9.

Let  $D^*$  be the set of all randomized decision rules  $\delta^*$  for which  $R(\theta, \delta^*) < \infty$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta$ . The concepts introduced in **Definitions 4 and 5** will hence forth be considered to apply to all randomized rules in  $D^*$ .

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## Decision Principles

- The Conditional Bayes Principle**

Choose an action  $a \in A$  which minimizes  $\rho(\pi^*, a)$ . Such an action will be called a **Bayes action** and will be denoted  $a^*$ .

- The Bayes Risk Principle**

A decision rule  $\delta_1$  is preferred to a rule  $\delta_2$  if

$$r(\pi, \delta_1) < r(\pi, \delta_2)$$

A decision rule which minimizes  $r(\pi, \delta)$  is optimal; it is called a Bayes rule, and will be denoted  $\delta^*$ . The quantity  $r(\pi) = r(\pi, \delta^*)$  is then called the **Bayes risk** for  $\pi$ .

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## Decision Principles(cont.)

- The Minimax Principle**

A decision rule  $\delta_1^*$  is preferred to a rule  $\delta_2^*$  if

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_1^*) < \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta_2^*)$$

- Definition 10.

A rule  $\delta^{*M}$  is a **minimax decision rule** if it minimizes  $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta^*)$  among all randomized rules in  $D^*$ , if

$$\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta^{*M}) < \inf_{\delta^* \in D^*} \sup_{\theta \in \Theta} R(\theta, \delta^*)$$

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## Decision Principles(cont.)

- The Invariance Principle**

The invariance principle basically states that if two problems have **identical formal structured**, then the same decision rule should be used in each problem. That leads to a restriction to so-called **"invariant" decision rules**.

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## Misuse of Classical Inference Procedures

- For a **large enough sample size**, the classical test will be virtually certain to reject, because the point null hypothesis is **almost certainly not exactly true**, and that this will always be confirmed by a large enough sample.
- In the other hand, a **"statistically significant"** difference between the true parameter and the null hypothesis can be **an unimportant difference practically**.

Example:

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim N(\theta, 1) \quad \frac{\bar{X} - \theta_0}{1/\sqrt{n}}$$

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## Misuse of Classical Inference Procedures

- **The Frequentist Perspective:** it's risk function has not eliminated dependence on  $\theta$

$$R(\theta, \delta) = E_{\theta}^X [L(\theta, \delta(X))] = \int_{\mathcal{X}} L(\theta, \delta(x)) dF^X(x | \theta)$$

- **The Conditional Perspective :**

At level  $\alpha = 0.01$  , rejection region:  $R = \{X : 1, 2\}$

$$H_0 : \theta = 0$$

$$H_1 : \theta = 1$$

	x		
	1	2	3
$f(x 0)$	0.005	0.005	0.99
$f(x 1)$	0.0051	0.9849	0.01

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## Misuse of Classical Inference Procedures

- The standard frequentist ,observing  $x=1$ , would report that the decision is  $H_1$  and that the test had **error probabilities** of 0.01.
- But the likelihood ratio is very close to 1. To a conditionalist that means the data does very little to distinguish  $\theta=0$  and  $\theta=1$ .

$$\lambda(X) = \frac{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} L(\theta | X)}{\sup_{\theta \in \Theta} L(\theta | X)} = \frac{0.005}{0.0051}$$

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## The Likelihood Principle

- **The Likelihood Principle:** In making inferences or decisions about  $\theta$  after  $x$  is observed, all relevant experimental information is contained in the likelihood function for the observed  $x$ . Furthermore **two likelihood functions contain the same information about** if they are proportional to each other.

$$L_1(\theta | X) \propto L_2(\theta | X)$$

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## Sufficient Statistics

- **Definition:** Let  $X$  be a random variable whose distribution depends on the unknown parameter  $\theta$  , but is otherwise known. A function  $T$  of  $X$  is said to be a **sufficient statistic** for  $\theta$  if the conditional distribution of  $X$ , given  $T(X)=t$ , is independent of  $\theta$  .
- **Theorem:** Assume that  $T$  is a sufficient statistic for  $\theta$  ,and let  $\delta_0^*(t, \bullet)$  be any randomized rule in  $D^*$  . Then there exists a randomized rule  $\delta_1^*(t, \bullet)$ , depending only on  $T(x)$ , which is R-equivalent to  $\delta_0^*$  .

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## Convexity

- Theorem: Assume that  $A$  is a convex subset of  $R^m$  ,and that for each  $\theta \in \Theta$  the loss function  $L(\theta, a)$  is a convex function of  $a$ . Let  $\delta^*$  be a randomized decision rule in  $D^*$  for which  $E^{\delta^*} [ |a| ] < \infty$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  . Then the nonrandomized rule

$$\delta(x) = E^{\delta^*} [a]$$

has  $L(\theta, \delta(x)) \leq L(\theta, \delta^*(x))$  for all  $x$  and  $\theta$

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## Conclusion

- Bayesian analysis combine the sample information with loss function and prior information.
- It can improve the defects of classical statistic.

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### example

- Consider the situation of a drug company deciding whether or not to market a new pain reliever. Two of the many factors affecting its decision are the proportion of people for which the drug will prove **effective**  $\theta_2$ , and the **proportion** of the market the drug will capture  $\theta_1$ , both  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  will be generally unknown.
- Loss function:

$$L(\theta_2, a) = \begin{cases} \theta_2 - a & , \theta_2 - a > 0 \\ 2(a - \theta_2), & \theta_2 - a \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

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### example

- Assume n people are interviewed, and the number X who would buy the drug is observed. It might be reasonable to assume that X is  $B(n, \theta_2)$

$$f(x | \theta_2) = \binom{n}{x} \theta_2^x (1 - \theta_2)^{n-x}$$

- By historical record, assume prior distribution

$$\pi(\theta_2) = 10I_{(0.1, 0.2)}(\theta_2)$$

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### example

- Bayesian expected loss of an action

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(\pi^*, a) &= E^{\pi^*} L(\theta, a) = \int_0^1 L(\theta_2, a) \pi(\theta_2) d\theta_2 \\ &= \begin{cases} 0.15 - a & , a \leq 0.1 \\ 15a^2 - 4a + 0.3, & 0.1 \leq a \leq 0.2 \\ 2a - 0.3 & a \geq 0.2 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

- Frequentist Risk

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(x) &= x / n \\ R(\theta, \delta(x)) &= E_{\theta}^X [L(\theta, \delta(X))] \end{aligned}$$

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