

**Statistical Inference**  
**Prof. Somesh Kumar**  
**Department of Mathematics**  
**Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur**

**Lecture No. # 19**  
**Bayes and Minimax Estimation – II**

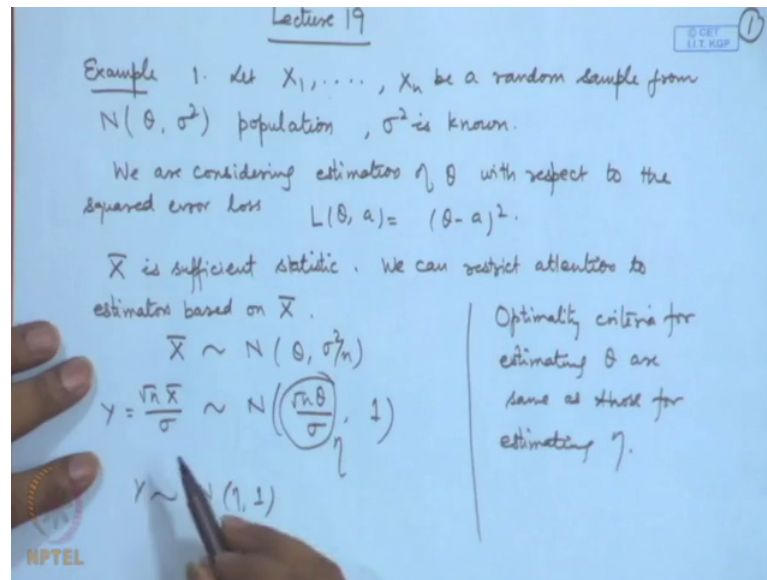
In the last lecture I have introduced two criteria for determining optimal estimators. As we discussed earlier, that in an estimation problem it is not possible to find the best estimator or which is optimal in every sense or which is having the smallest risk function throughout, except in the trivial or in consequential situations. So, what we did? We introduced, there are two methods of resolving these issues; one is that we can restrict attention to a smaller class of estimators. We can consider criteria such as unbiasedness or invariance and then find out the best in that class, that is the best unbiased estimator, which we call as uniformly minimum variance unbiased estimator or a best equivariant estimator, that is having the smallest risk in the class of equivariant estimators if we can introduce certain group of transformations under which the estimation problem is invariant.

Another method is that we can introduce a new criterion for ordering the decision rules, one is through averaging and this is called the Bayesian estimation. Here, what we do, we consider the parameter also, which is appearing in the distribution as a random variable and we take a distribution, which we call prior distribution. Now, we take the average of the risk function with respect to this prior distribution. So, the risk function is reducing to a number and now you order, that is the one, which is having the smallest Bayes risk, this is called Bayes estimator. And another criterion is, consider the worst possible scenario for every estimator. So, we take the maximum risk and then we minimize, that is known as the minimax estimator.

So, we introduced Bayesian and minimax estimation. Now, related to the Bayesian estimation, I introduce some additional concept, such as limit obvious rules and epsilon Bayes rule, extended Bayes rule or generalized Bayes rule.

So, today we will start with the elaboration of each of these concepts and then we will try to look at some relationship, how to find out minimax estimation given a sequence of Bayes estimators, etcetera.

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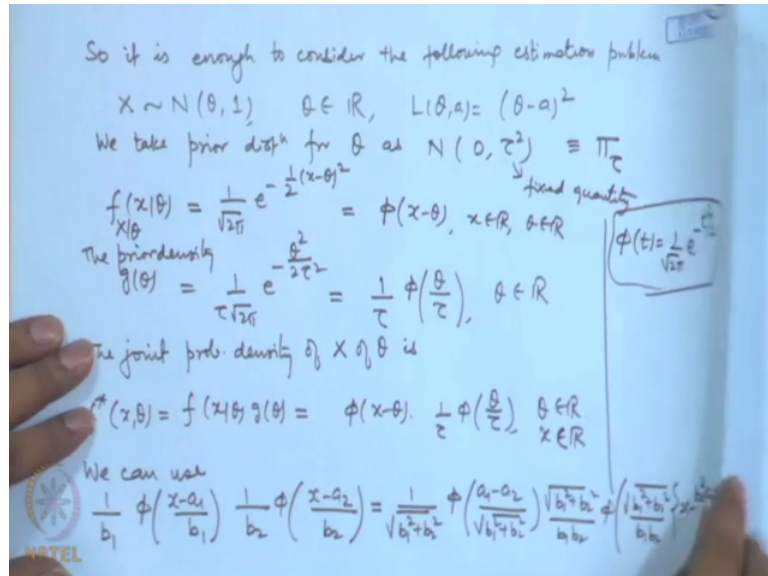
So, let us take, say  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample from normal, say  $\theta$   $\sigma^2$  population and  $\sigma^2$  is known. Now, if  $\sigma^2$  is known, in this case we are considering estimation of  $\theta$  with respect to say, squared error loss function, that is,  $L(\theta, a)$  is equal to  $(\theta - a)^2$ .

Now, note here, that when  $\sigma^2$  is known,  $\bar{X}$  is sufficient statistic and we can restrict attention to the, we can restrict attention to estimators based on  $\bar{X}$ . Now, what is the distribution of  $\bar{X}$ ?  $\bar{X}$  follows normal  $\theta$   $\sigma^2/n$ . See, we can do some shifting, we can write  $\sqrt{n} \bar{X} / \sigma$  that will follow  $\sqrt{n} \theta / \sigma$  by  $\sigma$ . Now, let us use some other notation, say  $\eta$  here, and we call this  $Y$ , then actually,  $Y$  is following normal  $\eta$ . Estimation of  $\theta$  is same as estimation of  $\eta$  because it is only a scalar multiple of  $\theta$  here.

So, optimality criteria for estimating  $\theta$  are same as those for estimating  $\eta$ . For example, if I say  $\delta$  is a minimax estimator for  $\theta$ , then  $\sqrt{n} \delta / \sigma$ , that will be minimax for  $\eta$ . If  $\delta$  is Bayes with respect to for  $\theta$ , then correspondently, for  $\eta$  we can obtain  $\sqrt{n} \delta / \sigma$  as Bayes estimator. Similarly, if I say  $\delta$  is UMVUE for  $\theta$ , then  $\sqrt{n} \delta / \sigma$  will be UMVUE

E for eta. Therefore, the whole problem has been then reduced to, you can consider the model **in a simplified...**

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So, it is enough to consider the following estimation problem. We can consider  $x$  follows normal  $\theta$ , 1;  $\theta$  is any real number  $L$ ,  $\theta - a$  is equal to  $\theta$  minus  $a$  squared. Now, this is a hallmark of all such problems. In any inference problem, we reduce the problem to the simpler model by means of sufficiency. Now, in this particular case, this is extremely straight forward because the loss function is squared error.

In fact, the first thing, that we can always say, that whenever there is a general inferential procedure and it is not based on sufficient statistics, then we can always consider the class of all inferential procedures based on sufficient statistics. They will be more optimal correspondent to or in some sense, they will be better than the original procedures. If the loss function is convex, then we can restrict attention to further non-randomized estimators. See, randomized estimators means that we may choose estimator  $\delta_1$  with certain probability, estimator  $\delta_2$  with certain probability, etcetera, or we can have a probability distribution over the class of usual estimators.

Now, if the loss function is convex, we can restrict further and we can consider only non-randomized estimators. Same thing happens in the Bayesian estimation also, where we can always restrict attention to the non-randomized Bayes estimators. So, the initial problem of estimating the parameter  $\theta$  in a sampling from a normal distribution has

been reduced to writing, that  $x$  follows normal  $\theta$ ,  $1$ ;  $\theta$  belongs to  $R$  and  $L$ ,  $\theta$  a is equal to  $\theta$  minus  $a$  square.

Now, let us consider here Bayesian estimation. We consider prior distribution for  $\theta$  as, say normal  $0$   $\tau$  square, so this is our notation; I call it  $\pi$   $\tau$  as the prior distribution. This is normal  $0$   $\tau$  square, so  $\tau$  square is some fixed quantity because we are assuming some prior distribution. So, this parameter of the prior distribution will be known. Now, in order to calculate the Bayes estimator, we need to calculate the posterior distribution, that is, the conditional distribution of  $\theta$  given  $x$ .

So, we write down all the models here. The distribution of  $x$  will be considered as the conditional distribution of  $x$  given  $\theta$ . So, the probability density is  $1$  by  $\sqrt{2\pi}$   $E$  to the power minus  $1$  by  $2$   $x$  minus  $\theta$  square, we will use the  $\phi$  notation here,  $\phi$  of  $x$  minus  $\theta$ , where  $\phi$  denotes the probability density function of a standard normal random variable. So, we will use this notation, this notation will simplify these calculations. Here,  $x$  is any real number and  $\theta$  is any real number. So, this is treated as the conditional distribution of  $x$  given  $\theta$ , which is actually the original distribution of  $x$ , the density of  $\theta$ , the prior density that is equal to  $1$  by  $\tau$   $\sqrt{2\pi}$   $E$  to the power minus  $\theta$  square by  $2$   $\tau$  square. Once again we will use the  $\phi$  notation, then we can write it as  $1$  by  $\tau$   $\phi$  of  $\theta$  by  $\tau$   $\theta$  belonging to  $R$ . Now, we write down, this is the conditional distribution of  $x$  given  $\theta$ ; this is the prior distribution or the marginal distribution of  $\theta$ .

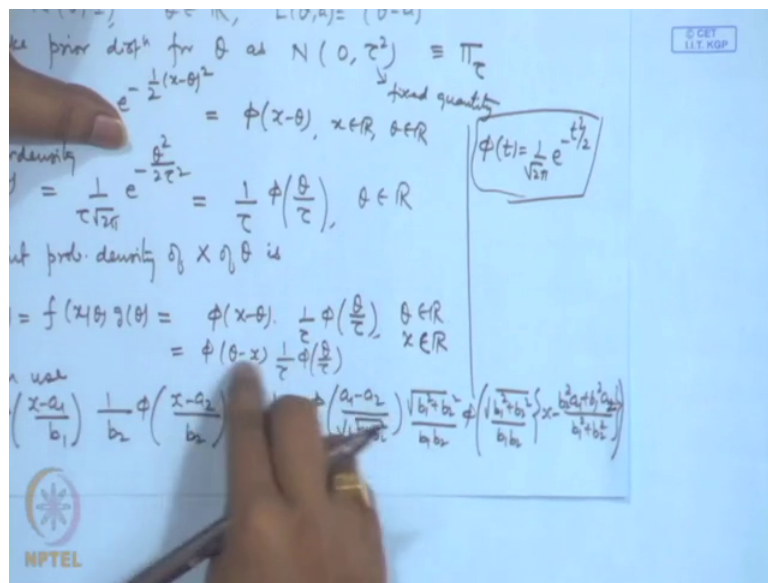
So, we write down the joint probability, both are continuous and therefore, this is density. We can talk about the joint probability density of  $x$  and  $\theta$  is  $f^* x \theta$ , that is, the product of the conditional distribution into the marginal distribution, so that is equal to  $\phi$  of  $x$  minus  $\theta$   $1$  by  $\tau$   $\phi$  of  $\theta$  by  $\tau$ . Here,  $\theta$  and  $x$ , both are on the real line. Now, to calculate the conditional distribution of  $\theta$  given  $x$ , we need the marginal distribution of  $x$  and the marginal distribution of  $x$  is obtained by integrating this term with respect to  $\theta$ .

Now, you note this thing, here  $\theta$  is involved at both the places, therefore we need to resolve this into a single term involved in  $\theta$ . So, we use the following formula, we can use the following formula something like  $1$  by  $b$   $1$   $\phi$  of  $x$  minus  $a$   $1$  by  $b$   $1$   $1$  by  $b$   $2$   $\phi$  of  $x$  minus  $a$   $2$  by  $b$   $2$ . So, this is  $1$  by  $\sqrt{2\pi}$   $b$   $1$   $E$  to the power minus half  $x$  minus

a 1 by b 1 square and this is 1 by root 2 pi b 2 E to the power minus half x minus a 2 by b 2 square.

In this one what we do? We collect and make a perfect square for x again and if we resolve this, this turns out to be 1 by root b 1 square plus b 2 square phi of a 1 minus a 2 by root b 1 square plus b 2 square into root b 1 square plus b 2 square by b 1 b 2 phi of root b 1 square plus b 2 square by b 1 b 2 x minus b 2 square a 1 plus b 1 square a 2 by b 1 square plus b 2 square, this is b 1 square a 2.

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Now, you notice here, in this expression x is appearing in both of them here, x is appearing here and this term is free from x. So, if we apply this formula to this one, we can write, this is phi of theta minus X 1 by tau phi of theta by tau. If we compare this with this here, here x is playing the role of theta here and x is a 1, b 1 is 1, then b 2 is tau, a 2 is 0 and b 2 is tau here.

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So

$$f^*(x, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}} \phi\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}\right) \frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \left\{ \theta - \frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1} \right\}\right)$$

So the marginal prob. density of  $X$  is

$$h(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^*(x, \theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}} \phi\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}\right), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Marginal  $X \sim N(0, 1+\tau^2)$ .

The posterior density of  $\theta$  given  $X=x$

$$g^*(\theta|x) = \frac{f^*(x, \theta)}{h(x)} = \frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \left\{ \theta - \frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1} \right\}\right)$$

$$\theta|x \sim N\left(\frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1}, \frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + 1}\right).$$

So, using this we can write,  $f^*(x, \theta)$  can be written as  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}} \phi\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}\right) \frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}{\tau} \left\{ \theta - \frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1} \right\}\right)$ . Here,  $\theta$  is a real number,  $x$  is any real number. So, the marginal probability density of  $x$ , let me use a notation, say  $h(x)$  here, that is,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f^*(x, \theta) d\theta$  from minus infinity to infinity. So, here if we integrate this term with respect to  $\theta$ , note here, this is term free from  $\theta$  and in the 2nd term is nothing, but a probability density of  $\theta$  with mean  $\mu$  given by  $\frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1}$  and sigma given by  $\frac{\tau}{\sqrt{\tau^2 + 1}}$ . So, integral of this quantity will be 1 and you will be left with  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}} \phi\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{1+\tau^2}}\right)$  for  $x$  belonging to  $\mathbb{R}$ , that means, actually, the marginal distribution  $x$  is normal with mean 0 and variance  $1 + \tau^2$ .

Now, if we consider the conditional distribution, that is the posterior density of  $\theta$  given  $x$ , let me use the notation,  $g^*(\theta|x)$ , that is,  $f^*(x, \theta)$  divided by  $h(x)$ . If we consider this term divided by this, then you can see easily this density part cancels out and we are left with the remaining density, which is again a normal density. So, what we are saying, that  $\theta$  given  $x$  follows a normal distribution with mean  $\frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1}$  and the variance is  $\frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + 1}$ . Now, the loss function is squared error, therefore the Bayes estimator will be nothing, but the mean of the prior distribution.

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Since the loss function is the squared error, the Bayes estimator is the mean of the posterior distribution given by

$$\delta_{\tau}(x) = E(\theta | X=x) = \frac{\tau^2 x}{\tau^2 + 1}$$

The Bayes risk of  $\delta_{\tau}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} r(\pi_{\theta}, \delta_{\tau}) &= E^X E^{\theta|X} (\theta - \delta_{\tau}(X))^2 \\ &= E^X E^{\theta|X} [\theta - E(\theta|X)]^2 \\ &= E^X \text{Var}(\theta|X) \\ &= E^X \left( \frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + 1} \right) = \frac{\tau^2}{\tau^2 + 1} \end{aligned}$$

If we take  $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ , then

$$\delta_{\tau} \rightarrow X$$

So  $\delta(X) = X$  is a limit of Bayes rules.

So, since the loss function is the squared error, the Bayes estimator is the mean of the posterior distribution, that is, so let me use the notation delta tau, so that is equal to expectation of theta given x. So, here the mean is tau square x by tau square plus 1. So, the Bayes estimator is simply tau square x by tau square plus 1. The Bayes risk of delta tau is,  $r(\pi_{\theta}, \delta_{\tau})$  that is equal to expectation of theta minus delta tau. Here, what we can consider? Firstly, I can consider with respect to the posterior distribution and then with respect to the marginal distribution of x.

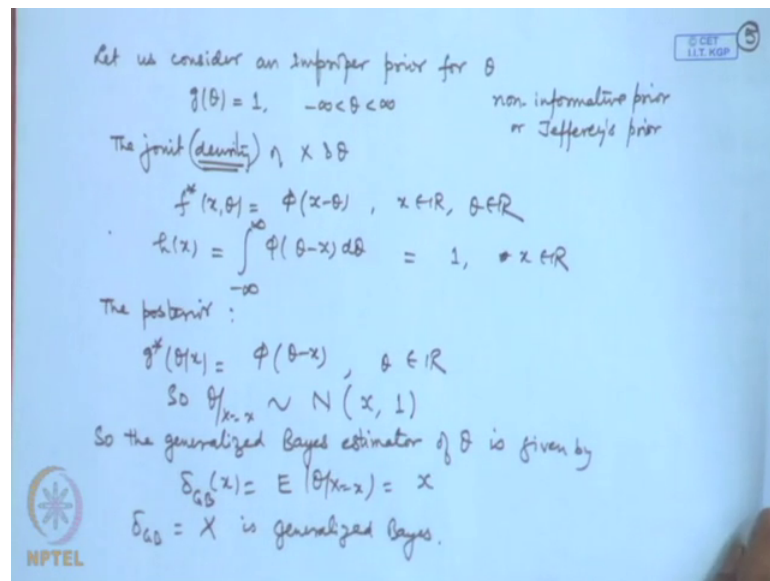
Now, here if you see, delta tau is nothing, but the mean of this, so we can express it as expectation of theta given x theta minus expectation theta given x, but this is nothing, but the variance of this distribution. So, it is variance of theta given X. Now, variance of theta given x is tau square by tau square plus 1. So, this value turns out to be tau square by tau square plus 1. Now, this is constant, therefore this value will remain as it is.

Now, we note certain facts here. In this, if I consider tau tending to infinity, if we take, say tau tending to infinity, then we observe, that delta tau converges to x. So, x, which is equivalent to  $\bar{X}$ , in the original problem if I consider  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  following normal  $\theta_1$ , then that is actually a limit of Bayes rule. In the earlier case we have discussed the maximum likelihood estimator etcetera, so we have seen  $\bar{x}$  is actually a

maximum likelihood estimator, it is method of moments estimator, it was also shown as the minimum variance unbiased estimator.

Here, what we are showing is, that actually it is a limit of Bayes rules, here let me use a notation, delta x or we can call it, yeah, delta x is a limit of Bayes rules because this convergence is for all x. Now, let me also illustrate the concept of generalized Bayes rules and extended Bayes rule, etcetera.

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Let us consider an improper prior for theta and we consider g theta is equal to 1 minus infinity less than theta less than infinity. So, if this is nothing, but the Lebesgue measure actually and what this is actually denoting? This is, actually in popular terminology, called a non-informative prior or it is, in this particular case, it is a Jefferey's prior named after Jefferey. And Jefferey proposed that non-informative prior should be taken as a proportional to the Fisher's information.

Now, in this particular case we have calculated the Fisher information. The Fisher information was n r 1, so that was actually a constant, if you remember, for the normal distribution n by sigma square. And then, when we take the reciprocal, we get sigma square by n as the (C) lower bound for the variance of the unbiased estimator of theta. Here, n is 1 and sigma square is also 1, that we have taken in the model. So, the Fisher information will be actually equal to 1. So, we are taking simply that constant. We can

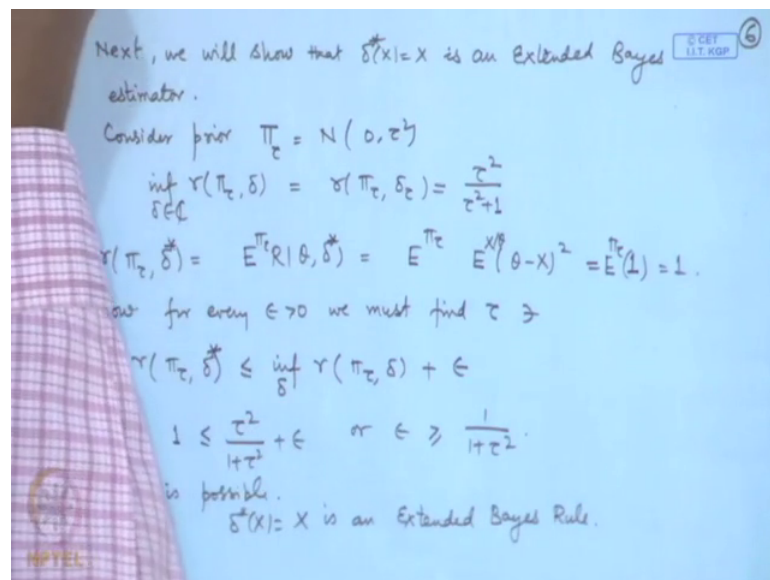


put  $c$  here also, it does not matter, this is called non-informative prior and here it is improper prior.

Let us calculate the, apply the same procedure for calculating the base estimators. So, the joint density, which is not actually density, it is improper of  $x$  and  $\theta$ . So, we use a notation, say  $f^*(x|\theta)$ , so  $f(x|\theta)$  was  $\phi(x-\theta)$  and  $g(\theta)$  is 1 here,  $x$  and  $\theta$ , so  $h(x)$ , that is, the marginal distribution of  $x$ , that we obtain by integrating this with respect to  $\theta$ . So, if you integrate this with respect to  $\theta$ , you get 1 and again this is not a distribution. Surprisingly, if you calculate the posterior, this is a density, let me use a notation  $g^*(\theta|x)$ , then it is  $\phi(\theta-x)$  divided by 1, here  $\theta$  is a real number. So,  $\theta|x$  equal to  $x$ , that is a proper distribution, it is normal distribution with mean  $x$  and variance 1.

Therefore, we will be able to calculate the Bayes estimator, which will be called the generalized Bayes estimator here. So, the generalized Bayes estimator of  $\theta$  is, let me call it  $\delta_{GB}$ , that is equal to  $x$ , that is the mean of this  $x$ . So,  $\delta_{GB}$  is equal to  $x$ , is generalized Bayes.

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Next, we consider extended Bayes estimation. So, we will show, that  $\delta_{GB}$  is equal to,  $x$  is an extended Bayes estimator. Now, for extended Bayes estimator what you have to show, that for every epsilon there exists a prior, for every epsilon there exists a prior, let

us call it  $\pi_\epsilon$  such that this estimator  $\delta_\epsilon$  is  $\epsilon$  based with respect to  $\pi_\epsilon$ .

Now, in this, our problem, we already have taken a sequence of prior distributions with respect to which we showed actually, that  $x$  is a limit of Bayes rules. So, we will take the same sequence here and let us consider here. So, consider here, prior  $\pi_\tau$  as normal  $0$   $\tau^2$  and with respect to this infimum Bayes risk, overall estimator is nothing, but the Bayes risk of the Bayes estimator, which we have calculated as  $\tau^2$  by  $\tau^2$  plus  $1$ .

Let us also look at what is the Bayes risk of  $\delta_\tau$ , that is nothing, but expectation of  $r_\tau \theta_\tau$  with respect to  $\pi_\tau$ , but this quantity  $r_\tau \theta_\tau$  is nothing, but expectation of  $\theta - x$  square with respect to the distribution of  $x$ , but this is nothing, but the variance of  $x$ , that is  $1$ , so it is equal to  $1$ .

Now, if we consider for every  $\epsilon$  greater than  $0$ , we must find  $\tau$  such that  $r_\tau \delta_\tau$  is less than or equal to infimum of  $r_\tau \delta_\tau$  plus  $\epsilon$ , so let me use another notation here, say  $\delta^*$  for this. Let me put here this as  $\delta^*$ , this is  $\delta^*$ , this is  $\delta^*$  plus  $\epsilon$ . Now, this statement left hand side is  $1$ , so  $1$  less than or equal to  $\tau^2$  by  $1$  plus  $\tau^2$  plus  $\epsilon$  or  $\epsilon$  is greater than or equal to  $1$  by  $1$  plus  $\tau^2$ . Now, here we are taking limit as  $\tau$  tending to infinity, so this is possible, that for every  $\epsilon$  greater than  $0$  we can choose a  $\tau$  such that  $\epsilon$  is greater than or equal to  $1$  plus  $\tau^2$ . So,  $\delta^* x$  is equal to  $x$ , is an extended Bayes rule.

Now, one important observation, that we should make, we considered the sequence of prior distributions with respect to which we could obtain the Bayes estimators. The form of the Bayes estimators was  $\tau^2 x$  by  $\tau^2$  plus  $1$  here, which is actually a scalar multiple of, you can write it as say  $c x$  and here, this  $c x$  is always between  $0$  and  $1$  because  $\tau^2$  denotes the variance term. So, this will be strictly between  $0$  to  $1$ ; that means,  $c$  equal to  $1$  is not a possibility here.

When we, so the question is, is there any other sequence or any other prior with respect to which  $x$  could be Bayes? Actually, we have obtained  $x$  as a generalized Bayes estimator, so is there a proper prior also with respect to which  $x$  is Bayes? The answer is no. Now, this observation is an important observation and this can be extended to other distributions also or other problems also.

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We further show that  $\delta^*$  cannot be a Bayes rule with respect to a proper prior in this problem.

Assume the contrary, i.e. let  $\delta^*$  be Bayes w.r.t a prior  $\pi^*$

Then  $\delta^* = E^{\pi^*}(\theta | X=x)$

Now  $r(\pi^*, \delta^*) = E^{\pi^*} R(\theta, \delta^*) = E^{\pi^*} E^{X|\theta} (\theta - X)^2$   
 $= E^{\pi^*}(1) = 1. \dots (1)$

Also let us write

$$r(\pi^*, \delta^*) = E^{\theta} E^{X|\theta} (\theta - X)^2 = E^X E^{\theta|X} (\theta - X)^2$$

$$= E E (\theta^2 + X^2 - \theta X - \theta X)$$

$$= E E \theta^2 + E E X^2 - E^{\theta} E^{X|\theta} \theta X - E^X$$

$$= E E \theta^2 + E E X^2 - E^{\theta} (E^{X|\theta} \theta X) - E^X (X^2)$$

$$= E [\theta^2 + X^2 - \theta^2 - X^2] = 0 \dots (2)$$

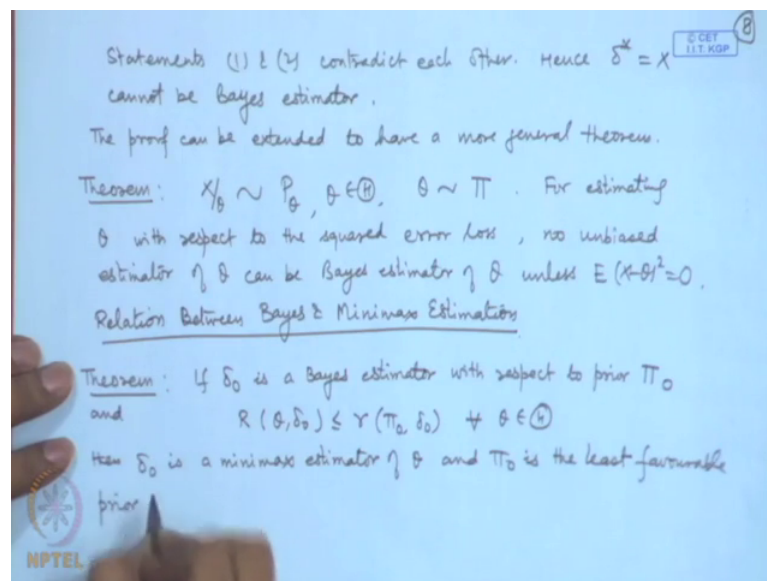
So, let me, firstly show this thing. We further show, that delta star cannot be a Bayes rule with respect to a proper prior in this problem. Let us take, say, assume the contrary, that is, let delta star be Bayes with respect to a prior, say pi star. If that is so, then in the squared error loss function you are getting delta x is equal to expectation of theta given x with respect to this particular prior.

So, let us write down r pi delta star. Of course, this is equal to expectation of r theta delta star with respect to pi star. Now, this is expectation of, expectation of theta minus x square, this is with respect to the conditional distribution of x given theta, that is, expectation pi star. This is nothing, but the variance of x, that is, 1.

Let us also consider r pi star delta star as expectation expectation theta minus x square, this you are writing as expectation of expectation. Now, when I write two expectations, then it can be in any order, like it can be x given theta, then with respect to theta, or it could be theta given x and then with respect to x, it can be in either form. Now, let us write this, so this is equal to expectation of expectation theta square plus x square minus theta x minus theta x. I am writing this term two times, so the first one is expectation of expectation theta square plus expectation of expectation x square. Once again I can take any order, when we, I take the repeated expectations minus expectation of expectation theta X. Now, here what I do? I firstly take with respect to x, then with respect to theta and in the 2nd case I reverse this process, I take x here and I take theta given x.

Now, if I look at this term here, this term expectation of  $x$  given  $\theta$ , this will give me  $\theta$ , so this will become  $\theta^2$ . And if I look at this one here, expectation of  $x$ , then expectation of  $\theta$  given  $x$  of  $\theta$ , that is  $x$ , so that is becoming  $x^2$ . Now, in this expression, you can consider this as simply expectation of  $\theta^2$  plus  $x^2$  minus  $\theta^2$  minus  $x^2$ . So, these terms vanish, that is equal to 0, so this 1 and 2 are, this 1 and 2 are in contradiction.

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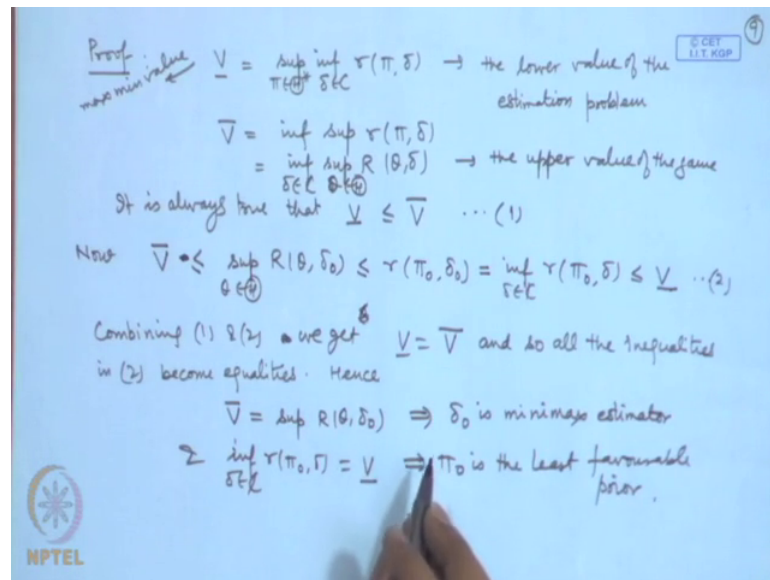
Statements 1 and 2 contradict each other, hence  $\delta^*$  is equal to  $x$  cannot be Bayes. Now, what is the property that we have used in arriving at a contradiction? The property that we have used in arriving this contradiction is that  $x$  is unbiased for  $\theta$  and the loss function is squared error. Therefore, the Bayes estimator is the mean of the posterior distribution. Now, whenever this property is true, this becomes a general result.

So, we state the following general result can be extended to have a more general theorem. So,  $x$  given  $\theta$ , that follows  $p_\theta$ ,  $\theta$  has a prior distribution. Then, for estimating, say  $\theta$  with respect to the squared error loss, no unbiased estimator of  $\theta$  can be Bayes estimator of  $\theta$ , unless of course, expectation of  $x$  minus  $\theta$  square is 0, which is of course, impossible.

Next, we establish a connection between Bayesian and minimax estimators. In fact, the Bayes estimators are used to prove the minimaxity of certain estimators, so Bayesian approach is the approach that is being used here.

We have the following theorem here, if  $\delta_0$  is a Bayes estimator with respect to, say, prior  $\pi_0$  and  $r(\theta, \delta_0) \leq r(\pi, \delta_0)$  for all  $\theta$ , then  $\delta_0$  is a minimax estimator of  $\theta$  and  $\pi_0$  is the least favorable prior.

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Let us look at the proof of this statement. So, you remember, that in the previous lecture I introduced the minimax value or the upper value of the game and maxmin value, that is, the lower value of the game. The way we had defined the lower value and the upper value, the lower value was defined as supremum infimum  $r(\pi, \delta)$ , where infimum is over all the estimators and supremum is over all the prior distributions, that was the lower value of the estimation problem.

This comes from the game theory, so generally we use the terminology lower value of the game. However, since we are dealing with the estimation here, I will write it as the lower value of the estimation problem. And similarly, the and this is also called the maxmin value and similarly, we have the upper value of the game, that is, infimum supremum  $r(\pi, \delta)$ , it is also equal to infimum supremum  $r(\theta, \delta)$ , where the supremum is over all the  $\theta$  and infimum is over all the estimators here. This is called the upper value of the game and it is always true, that  $\underline{V}$  is less than or equal to  $\bar{V}$ . Now, we consider here, say  $\bar{V}$ , so  $\bar{V}$  will be certainly less than or equal to supremum of  $r(\theta, \delta_0)$  because this is the minimax value.

So, this is for a particular estimator  $\delta_{\pi}$ , so this is going to be more than or equal to  $V$  upper bar.

Now, we have assumed here, that  $r(\theta, \delta_{\pi})$  is always less than or equal to  $r(\pi, \delta_{\pi})$ , so the supremum is also going to be less than or equal to that, that it is less than or equal to  $r(\pi, \delta_{\pi})$ . Now, here  $\delta_{\pi}$  is a Bayes estimator with respect to  $\pi$ , so this is equal to infimum of  $r(\pi, \delta)$  over all the estimators. Now, this is less than or equal to the lower value of the game and therefore, what we get here?  $V$  upper bar is less than or equal to  $v$  lower bar.

So, combining 1 and 2, we get  $v$  lower bar is equal to  $V$  upper bar, but that would mean all the inequalities, all the inequalities in 2 becomes equalities. Hence, now if you put  $V$  upper bar, that is equal to supremum of  $r(\theta, \delta)$ , this implies  $\delta$  is minimax estimator. And similarly, you will get infimum of  $r(\pi, \delta)$  is equal to  $v$  lower bar, which means that  $\pi$  is the least favorable prior.

Let me explain this theorem with respect to one example here. So, what we need in order to apply the theorem here, that we need a prior and we have a Bayes estimator with respect to that and then, we have the risk relationship between the risk of  $\delta$  with the Bayes risk here. So, if we have that, then the estimator becomes minimax and the corresponding prior will become the least favorable prior.

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Example:  $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, \theta), 0 \leq \theta \leq 1$

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

Let us consider the prior dist<sup>n</sup> for  $\theta$  to be  $U[0, 1]$

$$g(\theta) = \begin{cases} 1, & 0 \leq \theta \leq 1 \\ 0, & \text{ew} \end{cases}$$

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

The joint dist<sup>n</sup> of  $X \& \theta$  is given by

$$f^*(x, \theta) = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}, \quad x=0, 1, \dots, n, \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq 1$$

The marginal dist<sup>n</sup> of  $X$  is obtained as

$$h(x) = \int_0^1 f^*(x, \theta) d\theta = \binom{n}{x} \int_0^1 \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} d\theta$$

$$= \binom{n}{x} B(x+1, n-x+1), \quad x=0, 1, \dots, n$$

So, let me explain it through one example here. Let us take, say  $x$  follows binomial  $n$  theta, here the parameter space is the interval 0 to 1 and we take the loss function to be theta minus a square divided by theta into 1 minus theta. Now, let us consider the prior distribution for theta to be uniform 0 1, uniform distribution on the interval 0 to 1, that is,  $g(\theta)$  is equal to 1 for 0 less than or equal to theta less than or equal to 1 and it is 0 otherwise.

Now, here the distribution of  $x$ , that is,  $\binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}$ , where  $x$  can take values 0, 1 to  $n$  and theta is any value between 0 and 1. So, now in this case you notice, here the distribution of  $x$  is discrete and the distribution of theta is continuous. So, here it is probability mass function and this is probability density function.

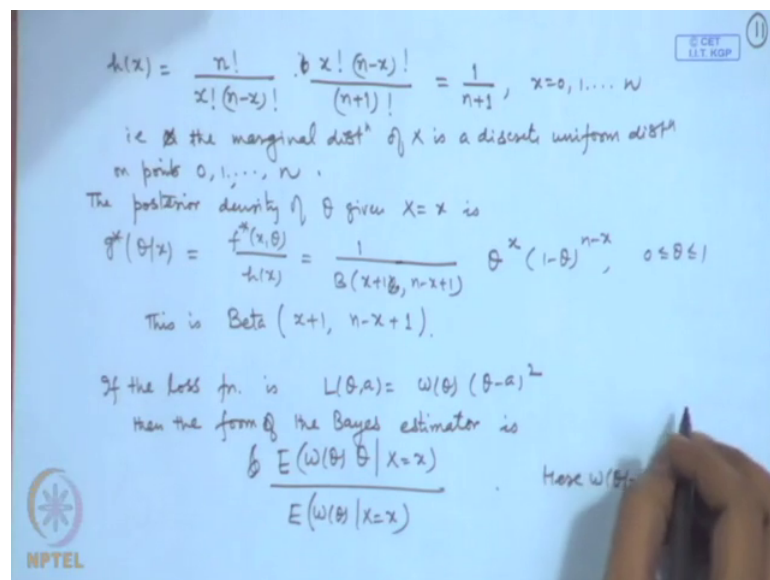
Nevertheless, we write in the same way, the joint distribution of  $x$  and theta is given by, so I will not call it a density function because this part is not a density function,  $f^*(x, \theta)$ , that is equal to  $\binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}$  for  $x$  is equal to 0, 1 to  $n$  and 0 less than or equal to theta less than or equal to 1.

Note here, that if I sum with respect to  $x$ , then I will get it as 1 and then, if I integrate this respect to theta, I will get 1. So, this is the proper probability distribution, but this is

known as a mixture kind of thing because here  $x$  is a discrete variable,  $\theta$  is a continuous variable. So, the marginal distribution of  $X$ , now since it is continuous in  $\theta$  we will integrate it with respect to  $\theta$ , so it is integral of  $f^*(x, \theta) d\theta$  from 0 to 1.

Now, in the integration you see, here  $n C x$  will come out, you get integral from 0 to 1  $\theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x} d\theta$ , but this is nothing, but a beta function. So, we get the value as  $n C x \text{Beta}(x+1, n-x+1)$  for  $x$  is equal to 0, 1 to  $n$ . Actually, it is a proper probability mass function, if you want to see we can actually simplify this and check it.

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$h(x)$ , if you simplify,  $n C x$  is  $n$  factorial divided by  $x$  factorial  $n$  minus  $x$  factorial. Then, beta term, it is  $\text{gamma}(x+1)$ , that is  $x$  factorial, then  $\text{gamma}(n-x+1)$ , that is,  $n$  minus  $x$  factorial divided by  $\text{gamma}(n+2)$ , that is,  $(n+1)$  factorial. So, this after simplification becomes simply  $1$  by  $(n+1)$   $x$  is equal to 0, 1 to  $n$ , that is, actually you are getting  $x$ . The marginal distribution of  $x$  is a discrete uniform distribution on points 0, 1 to  $n$ , that is, each one is having equal probability  $1$  by  $(n+1)$ .

Now, we utilize this to calculate the posterior distribution of  $\theta$  given  $X$ . Now, once again notice, here in  $\theta$  the random variable is continuous, therefore the posterior distribution will be actually a continuous distribution. So, we will have a density function, the posterior density of  $\theta$  given  $x$ , then that is obtained as  $g^*$  of  $\theta$



given  $x$ , that is equal to  $f^* x \theta$  divided by  $h x$ , that is equal to simply  $1$  by  $\theta$  of  $x$  plus  $1$   $n$  minus  $x$  plus  $1$   $\theta$  to the power  $x$  into  $1$  minus  $\theta$  to the power  $n$  minus  $x$ .

Actually, this is nothing, but a beta distribution, this is beta distribution with parameters  $x$  plus  $1$  and  $n$  minus  $x$  plus  $1$ . Now, the loss function, we have considered a weighted squared error loss function, if you remember, in the previous lecture I have given the formula, if the loss function is say  $w \theta$  into  $\theta$  minus a square, then the form of the Bayes estimator is expectation of  $w \theta \theta$  given  $x$  divided by expectation of  $w \theta$  given  $x$  is equal to  $x$ .

Now, in this case  $w \theta$  is, in this particular case  $w \theta$  is  $1$  by  $\theta$  into  $1$  minus  $\theta$   $1$  by  $\theta$  into  $1$  minus  $\theta$ .

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So the Bayes estimator is

$$\delta_B = \frac{E\left(\frac{\theta}{\theta(1-\theta)} \mid X=x\right)}{E\left(\frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)} \mid X=x\right)} = \frac{\frac{n+1}{n-x}}{\frac{(n+1)n}{x(n-x)}} = x$$

$$E\left(\frac{1}{1-\theta} \mid X=x\right) = \frac{1}{B(x+1, n-x+1)} \int_0^1 \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x-1} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{B(x+1, n-x)}{B(x+1, n-x+1)} = \frac{\Gamma(x+1) \Gamma(n-x)}{\Gamma(n+1) \Gamma(x)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)} \mid X=x = \frac{B(x, n-x)}{B(x+1, n-x+1)} = \frac{\Gamma(x) \Gamma(n-x)}{\Gamma(n) \Gamma(x)}$$

So, if we calculate, now so the Bayes estimator, let me call it  $\delta_B$ , that is equal to expectation of  $\theta$  divided by  $\theta$  into  $1$  minus  $\theta$  given  $x$  divided by expectation of  $1$  by  $\theta$  into  $1$  minus  $\theta$  given  $x$  is equal to  $x$ , that is expectation of  $1$  by  $1$  minus  $\theta$ .

Now, these quantities we can evaluate the posterior distribution is obtained like this. So, from here if we calculate expectation of  $1$  by  $1$  minus  $\theta$ , that is equal to  $1$  by  $\theta$   $x$  plus  $1$   $n$  minus  $x$  plus  $1$  integral  $\theta$  to the power  $x$   $1$  minus  $\theta$  to the power  $n$  minus  $x$  minus  $1$   $d \theta$  from  $0$  to  $1$ . This is conditional expectation with respect to  $X$ . Now,

this is nothing, but a beta function, so get beta x plus 1 n minus x divided by beta x plus 1 n minus x plus 1.

So, this can be simplified, gamma x plus 1 gamma n minus x divided by gamma n plus 1 and in the denominator you will get gamma x plus 1 gamma n minus x plus 1 and gamma n plus 2. So, these terms get cancelled out and we get here n plus 1 divided by n minus x. In a similar way, if we calculate expectation of 1 by theta into 1 minus theta given x is equal to x, then that will be equal to 1 by beta x plus 1 n minus x plus 1 and the numerator will get beta X n minus x.

So, after simplification this will become equal to gamma x gamma n minus x by gamma n, then gamma x plus 1 gamma n minus x plus 1 gamma n plus 2. Once again, if you simplify these terms we get n plus 1 into n divided by x and n minus x. So, if we substitute these quantities here, we get n plus 1 by n minus x divided by n plus 1 into n divided by x into n minus x that is equal to x by n.

So, our minimum variance and biased estimator or the maximum likelihood estimator is actually the Bayes estimator with respect to the uniform prior, if the loss function is taken to be theta minus a square by theta into 1 minus theta.

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So  $\delta_B = \frac{X}{n}$ .

$$R(\theta, \delta_B) = \frac{E\left(\frac{X}{n} - \theta\right)^2}{\theta(1-\theta)} = \frac{V\left(\frac{X}{n}\right)}{\theta(1-\theta)} = \frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n\theta(1-\theta)} = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$r(\pi, \delta_B) = E^\pi R(\theta, \delta_B) = \frac{1}{n}$$

So an application of the preceding theorem proves that  $\frac{X}{n}$  is a minimax estimator &  $U[0,1]$  is the least favourable prior.

So, so the Bayes estimator is actually x by n. Now, let us look at the risk of this, so risk of the Bayes estimator, that is, expectation of x by n minus theta square, that is nothing,

but variance of  $\bar{x}$  by  $n$ , that is equal to  $\theta(1-\theta)/n$ . And here, we have to divide by  $\theta(1-\theta)$  divided by  $\theta(1-\theta)$ . So, this turns out to be simply  $1/n$ .

So, if I look at  $r$   $\pi$  that prior, which we are using uniform  $0, 1$ , I am using a notation  $\pi$  say  $\delta b$ , that will be equal to expectation of  $r\theta$   $\delta b$  with respect to  $\pi$ . So, it is again equal to  $1/n$ .

So, if we look at the theorem, that I gave here in this result, we are having  $r\theta$   $\delta b$   $\delta b$  here equal to  $1/n$   $r\pi$   $\delta b$   $\delta b$  is also equal to  $1/n$ . So, this proves that. So, an application of the preceding theorem proves that  $\bar{x}$  by  $n$  is a minimax estimator and uniform  $0, 1$  is the least favorable prior.

In the next lectures I will be discussing further applications of the Bayesian estimation, in fact, how to use a sequence to prove the minimaxity. In this case we could use only one prior and we could prove the minimaxity. In the next one we will also introduce an equalizer estimator, etcetera and how to use that to prove the minimaxity of estimators, so that I will be taking up in the next class.