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ABSTRACT

Stein's estimator for k normal means is known to
dominate the maximum likelihood estimator for $k \geq 3$ if the
loss is quadratic. In this paper we have derived certain
optimal properties of Stein's estimator for a more general
loss function. It is shown that the estimator is minimax
in an empirical Bayes sense for the generalized loss function.

Key words and phrases: Maximum Likelihood Estimator; Bayes
                          and Minimax Estimators; Loss Function.

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                          Secondary, 62,C15

1. <u>Introduction</u>. Let $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ be a vector of k independent observations from k normal populations, where $X_i \overset{d}{\sim} N(\theta_i, 1)$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$. We consider the problem of estimating the vector $\theta = (\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k)$. Let

$$\delta(X) = (\delta_1(X), \ldots, \delta_k(X))$$

where $\delta_i(X)$ is an estimate of θ_i. Let the loss be squared error, given by

$$(1.1) \qquad L(\theta, \delta) = \frac{1}{k} ||\delta - \theta||^2 = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\delta_i - \theta_i)^2.$$

The maximum likelihood estimator $\delta^0(X) = (X_1, \ldots, X_k)$ has risk equal to

$$R(\theta, \delta^0) = E_\theta L(\theta, \delta^0) = 1$$

for each θ. James and Stein (1961) showed that the estimator $\delta^*(X)$, given by

$$(1.2) \qquad \delta_i^*(X) = (1 - \frac{k-2}{S}) X_i$$

where $S = ||X||^2$, has risk $R(\theta, \delta^*) < 1$ for all values of θ, if $k \geq 3$. That is, $\delta^*(X)$ dominates $\delta^0(X)$. Therefore, the maximum likelihood estimator is inadmissible. Even though only X_i seems to be relevant to θ_i, it is interesting to note that the estimate $\delta_i^*(X)$ depends on the entire vector of observations X.

The surprising result of James and Stein has stimulated considerable research in the last two decades, on the problem

of estimating the mean of a multivariate normal distribution.
For reference to some recent work in this area, see Alam (1975)
and Berger and Bock (1976). Almost all the known results
assume a quadratic loss, chiefly for the reason that nonqua-
dratic loss is difficult to handle mathematically. In this
paper we have deviated from the general trend. We consider a
more general loss function, given by

$$(1.3) \qquad L(\theta,\delta) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\delta_i - \theta_i)^{2m}$$

where $m < \frac{k}{2}$ is a positive integer, and obtain the risk of
$\delta^*(X)$, using the generalized loss function. In the sequel we
shall denote by $R(\theta,\delta)$ the risk of an estimator $\delta(X)$ with
respect to the loss (1.3).

The maximum likelihood estimator has a constant risk,
given by

$$(1.4) \qquad R(\theta,\delta^0) = \frac{2^m}{\sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma(m+\frac{1}{2}) \quad .$$

On the other hand, $R(\theta,\delta^*)$ is a function of $||\theta||^2$ for $m = 1$.
For $m > 1$, let $R^*(\lambda,\delta^*)$ denote the average value of $R(\theta,\delta^*)$
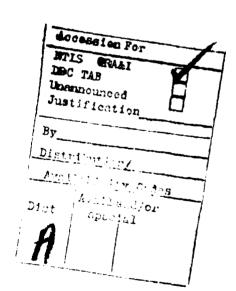with respect to the distribution of θ, uniform on the sphere

$$(1.5) \qquad ||\theta||^2 = \lambda$$

with center at the origin and radius equal to $\sqrt{\lambda}$. In the
following section it is shown that

$$(1.6) \qquad R^*(\lambda,\delta^*) < R(\theta,\delta^0)$$

for all values of λ, if k is sufficiently large.

The proof of (1.6) involves very difficult computation.
It is perhaps the strongest result we can show for Stein's
estimator, since δ^* is designed for a spherically symmetric
loss, whereas (1.3) is spherically non-symmetric. On the
other hand, if there exists an estimator which has smaller
risk than δ^* with respect to (1.3), its risk function is
likely to be mathematically intractable. Therefore, the
inequality (1.6), which is the main result of this paper,
is significant, even though we should look for a spherically
non-symmetric estimator.

Let m = 1. Consider a Bayesian approach. Suppose that
the θ_i's are independently normally distributed with mean
zero and variance A. A Bayes estimator of θ with respect to
the given prior is $\hat{\delta}(X)$ where

$$(1.7) \qquad \hat{\delta}_i(X) = (1-B)X_i , \quad i=1, \ldots, k$$
$$B = 1/(1+A).$$

The Bayes risk is equal to 1-B.

If B is not known then S is a sufficient statistic for
B, and BS is marginally distributed as χ_k^2 , chi-squared with
k degrees of freedom. Let $\bar{B}(S)$ be an estimator of B.
Substituting $\bar{B}(S)$ for B in (1.7) we get an empirical Bayes
estimator $\tilde{\delta}(X)$, given by

$$(1.8) \qquad \tilde{\delta}_i(X) = (1-\bar{B}(S))X_i , \quad i=1, \ldots, k.$$

Let $\rho(B,\tilde{\delta})$ denote the Bayes risk of $\tilde{\delta}$. The difference between
$\rho(B,\tilde{\delta}^0)$ and the Bayes risk is equal to B, and

$$(1.9) \qquad \frac{\rho(B,\tilde{\delta}) - \rho(B,\hat{\delta})}{B} = E\left(\frac{\bar{B}(T)-B}{B} \right)^2$$

where $BT \stackrel{d}{=} \chi_{k+2}^2$.

For $\bar{B}(S) = \frac{k-2}{S}$ we have $\tilde{\delta}(X) = \delta^{JS}(X)$, and the left side of
(1.9) is equal to $\frac{2}{k}$. Efron and Morris (1973) have shown that

the minimax value of the right side of (1.9) is equal to $\frac{2}{k}$. Thus Stein's estimator is minimax in an empirical Bayes sense, considering the problem of estimating B with loss function, given by

$$L(B,\tilde{B}) = (\frac{\tilde{B}-B}{B})^2 .$$

A similar result on the minimax property of Stein's estimator is obtained for the generalized loss (1.3).

2. **Main results.** First we compute a Bayes risk of the estimator $\tilde{\delta}(X)$ given by (1.8), using the loss function (1.3). We make the Bayesian assumption $\theta_i \overset{d}{\sim} N(0,A)$ as a convenient mathematical tool. Then marginally, $X_i \overset{d}{\sim} N(0, 1+A)$ and $BS \overset{d}{\sim} \chi_k^2$.

Let r be a non-negative integer, and let

$$(2.1) \qquad d_r = \frac{2^r}{\sqrt{\pi}} \Gamma(r+\tfrac{1}{2})$$

$$(2.2) \qquad c_r = \frac{1}{k} E^*((\sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i^{2r})/S^r)$$

$$= \frac{1}{k} (E^*(\sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i^{2r})/(E^* S^r))$$

$$= \frac{2^{-r}\Gamma(\tfrac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\tfrac{k}{2}+r)} d_r$$

where E^* denotes expectation with respect to the marginal distribution of the X_i's. The second line in (2.2) follows

from the fact that the distribution of $(\sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i^{2r})/S^r$ does

not depend on A, that S is a complete and sufficient statistic

for A, and hence S and $(\sum_{i=1}^{k} X_i^{2r})/S^r$ are independently distri-

buted. Note that $E^* X_i^{2r} = d_r$.

Conditionally, given X_i

$$(2.3) \qquad \theta_i \mid X_i \overset{d}{\sim} N((1-B)X_i, 1 - B) .$$

Using (2.3) we obtain after simplification, the Bayes risk of $\tilde{\delta}(X)$, given by

$$(2.4) \quad \rho(B,\tilde{\delta}) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} c_{m-r} \, d_r \, \binom{2m}{2r} (1-B)^r E^* (S^{m-r} (\tilde{B}(S) - B)^{2m-2r})$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} c_{m-r} \, d_r \, \binom{2m}{2r} \frac{2^{m-r} \Gamma(\frac{k}{2}+m-n)}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})} B^{m-r} (1-B)^r$$

$$E \left\{ \frac{\tilde{B}(\chi_{k+2m-2r}^2 /B)}{B} - 1 \right\}^{2m-2r}$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r \, B^{m-r} (1-B)^r \, E \left\{ \frac{\tilde{B}(\chi_{k+2m-2r}^2 /B)}{B} - 1 \right\}^{2m-2r}$$

where

$$a_r = c_{m-r} \, d_r \, \binom{2m}{2r} \, 2^{m-r} \Gamma(\frac{k}{2}+m-r) / \Gamma(\frac{k}{2})$$

$$= \frac{2^m}{\pi} \binom{2m}{2r} \Gamma(r+\tfrac{1}{2}) \; \Gamma(m-r+\tfrac{1}{2})$$

$$= \binom{m}{r} d_m \; .$$

The Bayes risk of Stein's estimator is obtained by putting $B(S) = \frac{k-2}{S}$ in (2.4). Then

$$(2.5) \quad \rho(B, \delta^*) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r \; B^{m-r}(1-B)^r \; E\left\{\frac{k-2}{\chi^2_{k+2m-2r}} - 1\right\}^{2m-2r}$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r B^{m-r}(1-B)^r \; \overline{\Phi}(-2m+2r, \; -\frac{k-2}{2} -m+r; -\frac{k-2}{2})$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r \; b_r \; B^{m-r}(1-B)^r$$

where

$$\overline{\Phi}(a,b;x) = 1 + \frac{a}{b} \; x + \frac{a(a+1)}{b(b+1)} \; \frac{x^2}{2!} + \ldots$$

denotes the confluent hypergeometric function, and

$$(2.6) \qquad b_r = \overline{\Phi}(-2m+2r, \; -\frac{k-2}{2}- m+r; \; -\frac{k-2}{2}) \; .$$

Remark 1: We have that $b_m = 1$ and $b_r \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$ for $r < m$. The confluent hypergeometric function $\overline{\Phi}(a,b;x)$ satisfies the equation

$$x \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + (b-x) \frac{dy}{dx} - ay = 0$$

The above equation shows that for $a < 0$, $y > 0$ and $b \leq x < 0$, y is a convex function of x when $\frac{dy}{dx} \geq 0$. Therefore, if $y = 0$ for $x = -\infty$ then $\frac{dy}{dx} \leq 0$ for all $x < 0$. Hence, b_r is decreasing in k for $r < m$, and therefore there is a minimum value of $k = k_m$, say, depending on m, such that $b_r \leq 1$ for $r = 0,1,\ldots,m$ and all $k \geq k_m$. Numerical computation shows that k_m is the minimum value of k for which $b_0 \leq 1$. Since

$$\rho(B,\delta^0) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r B^{m-r}(1-B)^r = d_m.$$

we have from (2.5) that

(2.7) $$\rho(B,\delta^*) \leq \rho(B,\delta^0).$$

for $k \geq k_m$ and all values of B.

Let $V \overset{d}{\sim} \chi_k^2(\lambda)$, a non-central chi-squared with k degrees of freedom and non-centrality parameter $\lambda = ||\theta||^2$. The following lemma gives a formula for $R^*(\lambda,\delta^*)$, the average value of $R(\theta,\delta^*)$ on the sphere $||\theta||^2 = \lambda$.

Lemma 2.1.

(2.8) $$R^*(\lambda,\delta^*) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m)} \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r E(\Phi(-r,\frac{k}{2}-m;\frac{V}{2})(\frac{V}{2})^{-m})$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t} \Phi(m-t,\frac{k}{2};-\frac{\lambda}{2}).$$

Proof: Let $U \overset{d}{=} \chi_k^2/B$. Apriori, $\theta_i \overset{d}{=} N(0,A)$. Therefore $||\theta||^2 \overset{d}{=} A \chi_k^2$. The right side of (2.8) is a function of $||\theta||^2$ equal to $g(||\theta||^2)$, say. Taking expectation with respect to the distribution of $||\theta||^2$, we get

(2.9)

$$E\ g(||\theta||^2) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m)} \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r\ E((\overline{\phi}(-r,\frac{k}{2}-m;\ \frac{U}{2})(\frac{U}{2})^{-m})$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{m} a_r b_r B^{m-r}(1-B)^r$$

$$= \rho(B,\delta^*) \text{ from (2.5)}.$$

Since $\theta_i \overset{d}{=} N(0,A)$, the conditional distribution of θ given $||\theta||^2 = \lambda$ is uniform on the sphere $||\theta||^2 = \lambda$. Therefore

(2.10)
$$\rho(B,\delta^*) = E\ R^*(||\theta||^2,\delta^*)$$

where the expectation on the right side of (2.10) is with respect to the distribution of $||\theta||^2$. Since the distribution of $||\theta||^2$ is complete for B, from (2.9) and (2.10) we have

(2.11)
$$R^*(||\theta||^2,\delta^*) = g(||\theta||^2)$$

for all values of $||\theta||$. From (2.11) we get the first equality in (2.8). The second line in (2.8) is obtained from the first line, using the following formula.

(2.12)
$$E(\frac{V}{2})^{-m+t} = e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} (\frac{\lambda}{2})^r\ \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t+r)}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}+r)}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda/2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t)}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})} \bar{\Phi}(\frac{k}{2}-m+t, \frac{k}{2}; \frac{\lambda}{2})$$

$$= \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t)}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})} \bar{\Phi}(m-t, \frac{k}{2}; -\frac{\lambda}{2}) .$$

The lemma is proved.   Q.E.D.

Remark 2:   The formula (2.8) can be written as

(2.13)

$$R^*(\lambda,\delta^*) = \sum_{r=0}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t)} E(\frac{V}{2})^{-m+t}$$

$$= \sum_{t=0}^{m} e_t E(\frac{V}{2})^{-m+t}$$

where

(2.14) $$e_t = \sum_{r=t}^{m} (-1)^{r+t} a_r b_r \binom{r}{t} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t)} .$$

The values of e_t for $t = m$ and $m - 1$ are computed easily.
We have $e_m = d_m$ and

$$e_{m-1} = - \frac{(k-2)^2}{2k} m d_m .$$

Note that the risk of the maximum likelihood estimator is
equal to d_m and that for $m = 1$, that is for squared error loss,
we have

(2.15) $$R(\theta,\delta^*) = R^*(||\theta||^2,\delta^*)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{(k-2)^2}{k} E \frac{1}{V}$$

$$< 1$$

$$= R(\theta,\delta^0) .$$

We shall now obtain the main result.   Let $m > 1$.
From the integral representation of the confluent hyper-
geometric function, given by

$$\overline{\Phi}(a,b,;x) = \frac{\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(a)\,\Gamma(b-a)} \int_0^1 e^{xu}\, u^{a-1}(1-u)^{b-a-1} du \qquad b > a > 0$$

we find that the value of $\overline{\Phi}(m-t,\frac{k}{2};-\frac{\lambda}{2})$ lies between 0 and 1,
and that it tends to 1 as $k \to \infty$.   Since $b_m = 1$ and $b_r \to 0$ as
$k \to \infty$ for $r < m$, from (2.8) we have that

$$(2.16) \qquad\qquad R^*(\lambda,\delta^*) \to 0 \quad \text{as } k \to \infty .$$

On the other hand, as $\lambda \to \infty$ the summation in the second line
on the right side of (2.13) is dominated by the sum of two
terms, equal to

$$(2.17) \qquad e_m + e_{m-1}\, E(\tfrac{V}{2})^{-1} = d_m \Big(1 - \frac{(k-2)^2}{k}\, E\frac{m}{V}\Big) .$$

$$< d_m \Big(1 - \frac{m(k-2)^2}{k(k+)}\Big) .$$

Hence

$$(2.18) \qquad\qquad R^*(\lambda,\delta^*) \quad d_m$$

for sufficiently large values of λ.

Next we consider the case in which both k and λ are large.
Expanding b_r, given by (2.6), in negative powers of k we find
that $b_m = 1$, $b_{m-1} = \frac{2}{k}$ and $b_r = 0(k^{-2})$ for $r < m-1$.   Therefore,
for large k, the summation on the right side of (2.8) is
dominated by the sum of two terms, equal to D, say where

$$(2.19) \quad D = \sum_{r=m-1}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t}\overline{\Phi}(m-t,\tfrac{k}{2};-\tfrac{\lambda}{2})$$

$$= e^{-\lambda/2} \sum_{r=m-1}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t} \overline{\phi}(\frac{k}{2}-m+t, \frac{k}{2}; \frac{\lambda}{2})$$

$$= E \sum_{r=m-1}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t+T) \; \Gamma(\frac{k}{2})}{\Gamma(\frac{k}{2}+T) \; \Gamma(\frac{k}{2}-m+t)}$$

$$= E \sum_{r=m-1}^{m} (-1)^r a_r b_r \sum_{t=0}^{r} (-1)^t \binom{r}{t} (\frac{k/2}{T+k/2})^{m-t} (1 - \frac{2T}{(T+k/2)k} c_t$$

$$+ \; O(k^{-2}))$$

where T is a random variable distributed according to the
Poisson distribution with mean equal to $\lambda/2$ and $c_t = (m-t)(m-t+1)/2$. After simplification we get

$$D = d_m E \left(\frac{T}{T+k/2}\right)^{m-1} \left[\frac{T+2m}{T+k/2} - \frac{m(m+1)k/2}{2(T+k/2)^2} \right] + O(k^{-2}).$$

$$= d_m E \left(\frac{T}{T+k/2}\right)^{m-1} g_k(T) \; + \; O(k^{-2})$$

where $g_k(T) < 1$ for $k > 4m$. Now

$$E \left(\frac{T}{T+k/2}\right)^{m-1} \leq E \left(\frac{T}{T+k/2}\right)$$

$$\leq 1 - \frac{k/2}{ET+k/2}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{k}{\lambda+k}$$

$$\leq 1 - \frac{1}{1+k} \quad \text{for } \lambda \leq k^2$$

Therefore

$$R^*(\lambda, \delta^*) < d_m$$

for sufficiently large k and $\lambda \leq k^2$. On the other hand, from (2.13) and (2.17) it follows that the above inequality holds also for fficiently large k and $\lambda \geq k^2$. Therefore, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1. Let $\lambda = ||\theta||^2$. Given a positive integer m, there exists a value of $k = k_m^*$, say, depending on m, such that, $R^*(\lambda, \delta^*) < d_m = R(\theta, \delta^0)$ for all θ and $k \geq k_m^*$.

Next we show that Stein's estimator is minimax in an empirical Bayes sense. From (2.4) we have

$$(2.20) \quad \rho(B, \tilde{\delta}) = d_m \sum_{r=0}^{m} \binom{m}{r} B^r (1-B)^{m-r} E\left\{ \frac{\tilde{B}(W_r)}{B} - 1 \right\}^{2r}$$

where $W_r \overset{d}{\simeq} \chi_{k+2r}^2 / B$. In deriving the above result we have assumed that $\theta_i \overset{d}{\simeq} N(0, A)$. We can stop short of full Bayesian-hood by assuming that A or equivalently B, is unknown and must be estimated. That is, we become empirical Bayesian, considering $\tilde{B}(W_r)$ as an estimate of B.

Consider a beta prior distribution on B with density function

$$g(B) = B^{\xi-1}(1-B)^{\eta-1} \frac{\Gamma(\xi+\eta)}{\Gamma(\xi)\Gamma(\eta)} \quad , \qquad \xi > 0, \ \eta > 0.$$

Let

$$\Omega(B, \tilde{\delta}) = (\rho(B, \tilde{\delta}) - (1-B)^m d_m)/B \quad .$$

From (2.20) we have

(2.21)

$$\int_0^1 \Omega(B, \tilde{\delta}) g(B) dB \geq \sum_{r=1}^m d_m \int_0^1 \binom{m}{r} B^{r-1} (1-B)^{m-r} \left(\frac{\hat{B}(W_r)}{B} - 1 \right)^{2r} g(B) dB$$

where

$$\hat{B}(W_r) = \frac{\int_0^1 B^{\frac{k}{2}+\xi-1} (1-B)^{m-r+\eta-1} e^{-BW_r/2} dB}{\int_0^1 B^{\frac{k}{2}+\xi-2} (1-B)^{m-r+\eta-1} e^{-BW_r/2} dB}.$$

$$= \frac{(\frac{k}{2}+\xi-1) \bar{\underline{\phi}}(\frac{k}{2}+\xi, \frac{k}{2}+m-r+\xi+\eta; -W_r/2)}{(\frac{k}{2}+m-r+\xi+\eta-1) \bar{\underline{\phi}}(\frac{k}{2}+\xi-1, \frac{k}{2}+m-r+\xi+\eta-1; -W_r/2)}.$$

From the asymptotic property of the confluent hypergeometric function (see e.g. Erdelyi (1953) § 6.13.1) it is seen that

$$(2.22) \qquad \nu(W_r) = \frac{W_r \hat{B}(W_r)}{k-2} \to \frac{k+2\xi-2}{k-2} \quad \text{as} \quad W_r \to \infty.$$

Let $\xi \to 0$. Then B converges in distribution to zero and W_r converges in distribution to ∞. Therefore, $\nu(W_r)$ converges in distribution to 1, and from (2.21) we have

(2.23)

$$\sup_B \tilde{\Omega}(B, \tilde{\delta}) \geq \lim_{\xi \to 0} \int_0^1 \tilde{\Omega}(B, \tilde{\delta}) g(B) dB$$

$$\geq \lim_{\xi \to 0} d_m \int_0^1 (\sum_{r=1}^m \binom{m}{r} B^{r-1} (1-B)^{m-r} E(\frac{k-2}{BW_r} \nu(W_r) - 1)^{2r} g(B) dB$$

$$= \lim_{\xi \to 0} d_m \int_0^1 (\sum_{r=1}^m \binom{m}{r} B^{r-1}(1-B)^{m-r} E(\frac{k-2}{BW_r} - 1)^{2r} g(B) dB$$

$$= \lim_{\xi \to 0} \int_0^1 \Re(B, \delta^*) g(B) dB$$

$$= a_{m-1} \, b_{m-1}$$

$$= \frac{2m}{k} d_m$$

$$= \sup_B \Re(B, \delta^*) \quad \text{for } k \geq k_m^{**}, \text{ say.}$$

The last equality in (2.23) follows from the fact that $b_r = 0(k^{-2})$ for $r < m - 1$. Thus we have obtained the following result from the empirical Bayes approach, considered above.

Theorem 2.2. The minimax value of the Bayes risk $\Re(B, \tilde{\delta})$ is equal to $\frac{2m}{k} d_m = \sup_B \Re(B, \delta^*)$ for $k > k_m^{**}$.

Remark 3: Clearly, the results given above are applicable to the case in which the loss is a polynomial function of the squared error with non-negative coefficients. It might be possible to extend the given results to the case in which the loss is a monotone increasing convex function of the squared error.

Table I below gives values of k_m^* and k_m^{**} for $m = 1(1)10$. For the given values of m it is found that $k_m^* = k_m$ where k_m is the smallest value of k for which (2.7) holds. Table II below gives values of $R^*(\cdot, \delta^*)/d_m$ for $m = 1(1)10$ and λ and $k = k_m^*$.

Note that $R(\theta, \delta^0) = d_m$. The asymptotic formula for large negative values of the argument of the confluent hypergeometric function, given by

$$\bar{\Phi}(a, b; -x) = \frac{\Gamma(b)}{\Gamma(b-a)} x^{-a} (1 + 0(x^{-1}))$$

was used in the computation of $R^*(\lambda, \delta^*)$ for $\lambda = 100, 1000$.

TABLE I - Values of k_m^* and k_m^{**}

m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
k_m^*	3	5	7	10	12	15	17	20	22	25
k_m^{**}	3	5	8	10	13	15	18	21	24	27

TABLE II - Values of $R^*(\lambda,\delta^*)/d_m$ for $k = k_m^*$

λ \ m	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	.6666	.5714	.8581	.5301	.8640	.5758	.9178	.6247	.9779	.6724
1	.7584	.5294	.6444	.4004	.6176	.4202	.6532	.4522	.6959	.4851
2	.8206	.5239	.5137	.3140	.4513	.3119	.4709	.3311	.5000	.3531
3	.8634	.5379	.4377	.2573	.3385	.2360	.3444	.2455	.3631	.2594
4	.8933	.5615	.3976	.2212	.2620	.1826	.2560	.1845	.2666	.1925
5	.9145	.5889	.3808	.1997	.2101	.1447	.1937	.1407	.1981	.1444
6	.9299	.6170	.3790	.1886	.1753	.1179	.1494	.1089	.1491	.1095
7	.9412	.6440	.3866	.1849	.1525	.0989	.1178	.0858	.1138	.0841
10	.9614	.7132	.4357	.2008	.1264	.0703	.0669	.0468	.0554	.0410
15	.9757	.7899	.5302	.2640	.1454	.0672	.0442	.0257	.0236	.0165
20	.9823	.8361	.6066	.3346	.1899	.0863	.0477	.0231	.0161	.0097
25	.9860	.8661	.6642	.3995	.2405	.1152	.0618	.0278	.0160	.0082
100	.9966	.9642	.8958	.7640	.6397	.4744	.3515	.2207	.1410	.0720
1000	.9996	.9964	.9893	.9746	.9589	.9340	.9105	.8769	.8468	.8061

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Stein's estimator for k normal means is known to dominate the maximum likelihood estimator for $k \geq 3$ and quadratic loss function. In this paper are given certain optimal properties of Stein's estimator for a generalized loss function.