

Stats 210A, Fall 2023

Homework 5

Due date: Wednesday, Oct. 4

You may disregard measure-theoretic niceties about conditioning on measure-zero sets, almost-sure equality vs. actual equality, “all functions” vs. “all measurable functions,” etc. (unless the problem is explicitly asking about such issues).

If you need to write code to answer a question, show your code. If you need to include a plot, make sure the plot is readable, with appropriate axis labels and a legend if necessary. Points will be deducted for very hard-to-read code or plots.

1. Admissibility and Bayes estimators

One of the frequentist motivations for Bayes estimators is their connection to admissibility.

- Suppose that the Bayes estimator δ_Λ for the prior Λ is unique up to \mathcal{P} -almost-sure equality. That is, for any other Bayes estimator $\tilde{\delta}_\Lambda$, we have $\delta_\Lambda(X) = \tilde{\delta}_\Lambda(X)$ almost surely, for every $P_\theta \in \mathcal{P}$. Show that δ_Λ is admissible.
- Now suppose that Θ is discrete (possibly countably infinite) and Λ is a probability distribution putting positive mass on every value $\theta \in \Theta$. Show that any Bayes estimator with finite Bayes risk is admissible.
- A *randomized estimator* is an estimator that is a random function of the data. We can formalize it generically as $\delta(X, W)$ where $X \sim P_\theta$ as usual and W is some auxiliary random variable generated by the analyst. For this part, “admissible” and “Bayes” are defined with respect to all estimators including randomized ones.

Now consider a model with a finite parameter space, $|\Theta| = n < \infty$ and assume we are estimating some real-valued $g(\theta)$ using a bounded non-negative loss $L : \Theta \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. Show that every admissible estimator is a (possibly randomized) Bayes estimator for some prior.

Hint: consider the set \mathcal{A} of all achievable risk functions, and the set \mathcal{D}_δ of all (possibly unachievable) risk functions that would dominate a given estimator δ . Recall the *hyperplane separation theorem*: for any two disjoint non-empty convex subsets $A, B \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ there exist $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and nonzero $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\lambda' a \geq c \geq \lambda' b$ for all $a \in A, b \in B$. It might help to draw pictures for $n = 2$.

Moral: Minimizing average-case risk is closely related to admissibility.

2. MCMC algorithms

This problem considers MCMC sampling from a generic posterior density $\lambda(\theta | x)$ where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

- The Metropolis–Hastings algorithm is a Markov chain using the following update rule: First, sample $\zeta \sim f(\cdot | \theta^{(t)})$ according to some “proposal distribution” $f(\zeta | \theta) : \Theta \times \Theta \rightarrow (0, \infty)$,

where $f(\cdot | \theta)$ is a probability density for each θ (assume λ and $f(\cdot | \theta)$ are densities w.r.t. the same dominating measure). Next, compute the “accept probability” as

$$a(\zeta | \theta) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\lambda(\zeta | X) f(\theta | \zeta)}{\lambda(\theta | X) f(\zeta | \theta)} \right\}.$$

Finally, let $\theta^{(t+1)} = \zeta$ with probability $a(\zeta | \theta^{(t)})$ and $\theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)}$ with probability $1 - a(\zeta | \theta^{(t)})$. Show that $\lambda(\theta | X)$ is stationary for the Metropolis–Hastings algorithm.

- (b) Consider the version of the Gibbs sampler that updates a *single* random index $J^{(t+1)} \sim \text{Unif}\{1, \dots, d\}$ at each step, so

$$\theta_j^{(t+1)} = \begin{cases} \zeta_j^{(t+1)} & \text{if } j = J^{(t+1)} \\ \theta_j^{(t)} & \text{if } j \neq J^{(t+1)} \end{cases},$$

with

$$\zeta_j^{(t+1)} | \theta^{(t)} \sim \lambda(\theta_j | \theta_{\setminus j} = \theta^{(t)}, X),$$

where λ above is the conditional density for the j th coordinate of θ given the others, and the data, in the full Bayes model. Show that this algorithm is a special case of the Metropolis–Hastings algorithm.

Note: The Metropolis-Hastings algorithm is computationally attractive because we can always implement it using only the unnormalized posterior $p_\theta(X)\lambda(\theta)$ (or any function $g(\theta)$ that is proportional to it), which is often much easier to compute than the normalized posterior.

3. Empirical Bayes for exponential families

Consider an s -parameter exponential family model in canonical form:

$$p_\theta(x) = e^{\theta' T(x) - A(\theta)} h(x)$$

where $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$. We will consider a Bayes prior for the random vector θ with density $\lambda_\gamma(\theta)$, which is itself parameterized by a hyperparameter $\gamma \in \Gamma$. We will consider an empirical Bayes model where γ is fixed and θ and X are both random. Let $\lambda_\gamma(\theta | x)$ and $q_\gamma(x)$ denote the posterior and marginal, respectively, for a given choice of γ , and \mathbb{E}_γ represent expectations (or conditional expectations) with respect to the joint distribution over θ and X .

Assume both Γ and the natural parameter space Ξ_1 are open subsets of \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{R}^s , respectively. Assume also that all relevant quantities are suitably differentiable and/or integrable, and that derivatives can always be taken inside the integral sign.

- (a) Show that for $i = 1, \dots, n$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_\gamma \left[\sum_{j=1}^s \theta_j \frac{\partial T_j(x)}{\partial x_i} \mid X = x \right] = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \log q_\gamma(x) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \log h(x),$$

- (b) Now assume we have $n = s$ with $T(x) = x$:

$$p_\theta(x) = e^{\theta' x - A(\theta)} h(x).$$

Let $\hat{\gamma}(X)$ denote the maximum likelihood estimator (MLE) of γ based on the observed data:

$$\hat{\gamma}(X) = \arg \max_{\gamma \in \Gamma} q_{\gamma}(X),$$

which we assume always exists and is unique.

Show that the empirical posterior mean of θ , using $\hat{\gamma}$ to estimate γ , is

$$\mathbb{E}_{\hat{\gamma}}[\theta | X = x] = \nabla_x (\log q_{\hat{\gamma}(x)}(x) - \log h(x))$$

Note: You should interpret $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{\gamma}}[\cdot]$ as $\mathbb{E}_{\gamma}[\cdot]_{\gamma=\hat{\gamma}}$, and $q_{\hat{\gamma}(x)}(x)$ as $q_{\gamma}(x)_{\gamma=\hat{\gamma}(x)}$. Note that the second expression depends on x in two places.

Moral: This gives easy-to-evaluate rules for calculating empirical Bayes estimators in simple exponential family models.

4. Gamma-Poisson empirical Bayes

Consider the Bayes model with

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_i &\stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(k, \sigma), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ X_{ij} | \theta_i &\stackrel{\text{ind.}}{\sim} \text{Pois}(\theta_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

Assume $k > 0$ (shape parameter) is known and $\sigma > 0$ (scale parameter) is unknown and estimated via the MLE. In addition, assume $\sum_{ij} X_{ij} > 0$ (though the formulae below would be basically correct in a limiting sense if the sum were zero, too).

(a) If $m = 1$, show that the empirical Bayes posterior mean for θ_i is

$$\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{X} + k} (k + X_{i1}), \quad \text{where } \bar{X} = n^{-1} \sum_i X_{i1}.$$

You may use without proof the fact that the marginal distribution of X_i is negative binomial.

(b) For general m , show that the empirical Bayes posterior mean for θ_i is

$$\frac{\bar{X}}{\bar{X} + k/m} (k/m + \bar{X}_i), \quad \text{where } \bar{X}_i = m^{-1} \sum_j X_{ij} \quad \text{and } \bar{X} = (nm)^{-1} \sum_{ij} X_{ij}.$$

Hint: Make a sufficiency reduction and remember that σ is a scale parameter.

5. Gibbs Sampler for Gamma-Poisson model

Consider a hierarchical Bayes model instead, where

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma^{-1} &\sim \text{Exp}(1) \\ \theta_i | \sigma &\stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(k, \sigma), \quad i = 1, \dots, n \\ X_{ij} | \sigma, \theta_i &\stackrel{\text{ind.}}{\sim} \text{Pois}(\theta_i), \quad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

where σ is a scale parameter, and k, n, m , are fixed and known.

Note: For parts (b) and (c) below, be sure to read the instructions on coding problems at the top of this problem set.

- (a) Give an explicit algorithm for one full iteration of the Gibbs sampler. It may be helpful to look up the inverse gamma distribution on Wikipedia.
- (b) Implement the Gibbs sampler in a programming language of your choice (R is recommended since it is easy to draw random draws from standard distributions; Python or Matlab will probably also work fine). For $k = m = 3$ and $n = 100$, download the matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, in `hw5.csv` from the course website and implement the Gibbs sampler (the standard version where you update all variables in every round; use 100 rounds of burn-in and take the next 10,000 rounds of sampling, without thinning). Make a trace plot of your draws from σ and θ_1 and include them in your homework submission. Report the following three estimators of θ_1 , to three significant digits:
 - (i) the hierarchical Bayes estimator (for squared error loss),
 - (ii) the empirical Bayes estimator from Problem 4, and
 - (iii) the UMVU estimator (in the model where θ is fixed and unknown).
- (c) Next, carry out a Monte Carlo simulation to estimate the Bayes risk conditional on σ , for four estimators: (i–iii) from part (b), plus the “oracle Bayes” estimator where the value of σ is known. That is, for each estimator $\delta_1^{(\ell)}(X)$ of θ_1 , approximately evaluate:

$$R^{(\ell)}(\sigma) = \mathbb{E}[(\delta_1^{(\ell)}(X) - \theta_1)^2 \mid \sigma] = \mathbb{E} \left[n^{-1} \sum_i (\delta_i^{(\ell)}(X) - \theta_i)^2 \mid \sigma \right],$$

where the expectation is taken over θ and X (but *not* σ , since we are conditioning on that). The second equality follows from the exchangeability over different values of i (you do not need to prove it yourself, but you should use it to save yourself computation). **Note:** for the hierarchical Bayes estimator, this does *not* mean you should hold σ fixed in your MCMC chain: you should compute it just as you did in part (b). Use the values $\sigma = 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10$ and include a 4×7 table of risk values, each reported to at least 3 significant figures, in your answer.

For each of the three non-oracle estimators, plot the relative excess risk

$$\frac{R^{(\ell)}(\sigma)}{R^{(\text{oracle})}(\sigma)} - 1$$

against σ for the values above. Make an analogous plot for $m = 30, n = 100$ and another for $m = 3, n = 10$. I recommend using a log scale for the horizontal and vertical axis but it is not required.

Note: This exercise should not take you an absurd amount of computer time; using 100 MC runs per value of σ and the 7 values of σ above, takes my three-year-old laptop computer less than three minutes to produce each of the three plots requested above. If it is taking your computer much much longer you are probably doing something very inefficiently.

- (d) **Optional:** Why do your three plots look the way they do? What’s the moral of the story?