1. (a) With a flat prior on θ , it is easy to check that the posterior distribution for θ is $N(\bar{X}, n^{-1})$. That is, $E(\theta \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) = \bar{X}$ and $V(\theta \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) = n^{-1}$. To prove that the posterior is consistent at θ^* under the iid $N(\theta^*, 1)$ model, follow the approach discussed in class. That is, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, we have

$$\Pi(|\theta - \theta^{\star}| > \varepsilon \mid X_{1}, \dots, X_{n})$$

$$\leq \varepsilon^{-2} \mathsf{E} \{ (\theta - \theta^{\star})^{2} \mid X_{1}, \dots, X_{n} \}$$

$$= \varepsilon^{-2} \big[\mathsf{V}(\theta \mid X_{1}, \dots, X_{n}) + \{ \mathsf{E}(\theta \mid X_{1}, \dots, X_{n}) - \theta^{\star} \}^{2} \big]$$

$$= \varepsilon^{-2} \big[n^{-1} + (\bar{X} - \theta^{\star})^{2} \big].$$

Clearly, $n^{-1} \to 0$ and, by the law of large numbers, $(\bar{X} - \theta^*)^2 \to 0$ in probability under the iid $N(\theta^*, 1)$ model. Therefore, the posterior probability above converges to zero in probability, so the posterior is consistent at θ^* .

- (b) R codes for my simulation are given in Figure 1, and the plot summarizing the results is shown in Figure 2. Observe that, for large enough n, all three quantiles of Q_n are close to 0, which means that the distribution of Q_n is concentrated at 0, hence $Q_n \to 0$ in probability.
- 2. Fix θ_i as the "true" parameter value, i.e., the parameter value that corresponds to the data X_1, \ldots, X_n in the frequentist iid model. The goal is to show that $\Pi(\theta = \theta_r \mid X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ converges in P_{θ_i} -probability to zero for each $r \neq i$. Since the parameter space is discrete, it suffices to prove that

$$q_n(r) := \Pi(\theta = \theta_r \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) / \Pi(\theta = \theta_i \mid X_1, \dots, X_n)$$

converges to zero in P_{θ_i} -probability. Since posterior is proportional to prior times likelihood, we can see that

$$q_n(r) = \frac{\pi_r \prod_{j=1}^n f_{\theta_r}(X_j)}{\pi_i \prod_{i=1}^n f_{\theta_i}(X_i)} = e^{\log(\pi_r/\pi_i) + nZ_{n,r}},$$

where

$$Z_{n,r} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \log \frac{f_{\theta_r}(X_j)}{f_{\theta_i}(X_j)}.$$

Under the iid f_{θ_i} model, the term $Z_{n,r}$ is an average of iid random variables, with expectation

$$\mathsf{E}_{\theta_i} \Big[\log \frac{f_{\theta_r}(X)}{f_{\theta_i}(X)} \Big] = \int \log \frac{f_{\theta_r}(x)}{f_{\theta_i}(x)} f_{\theta_i}(x) \, dx.$$

This integral is the minus Kullback-Leibler divergence of f_{θ_r} from f_{θ_i} . Since the Kullback-Leibler divergence is positive for $r \neq i$, the expectation above must be negative. Then, by the law of large numbers, $Z_{n,r}$ will be negative for large enough n. But $q_n(r)$ has a multiplier "n" on $Z_{n,r}$, so if $Z_{n,r}$ is eventually negative, $nZ_{n,r} \to -\infty$ in probability. Then, by continuous mapping theorem, $q_n(r) \to 0$ in probability, which is what we wanted to show. That is, $\Pi(\theta = \theta_r \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) \to 0$ in probability under the iid P_{θ_i} model.

```
N <- seq(1000, 150000, len=50)
eps <- 0.01
qtile <- matrix(0, nrow=length(N), ncol=3)
for(i in 1:length(N)) {
    s <- 1 / sqrt(N[i])
    xbar <- rnorm(3000, 0, s)
    pr <- function(x) 1 - (pnorm(eps, x, s) - pnorm(-eps, x, s))
    Q <- sapply(xbar, pr)
    qtile[i,] <- as.numeric(quantile(Q, c(0.5, 0.75, 0.95)))
}
plot(N, qtile[,3], ylim=c(0,1), type="l", xlab="n", ylab="50-75-95 Quantiles")
lines(N, qtile[,2])
lines(N, qtile[,1])</pre>
```

Figure 1: R code for the posterior consistency simulation in Problem 1b.

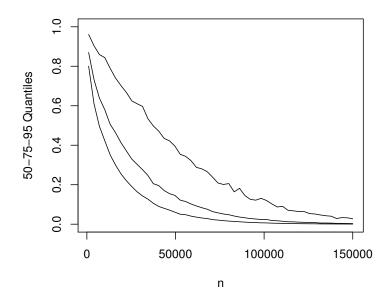


Figure 2: Plot of the 50th, 75th, and 95th quantiles of the distribution of Q_n as a function of n; here $\varepsilon = 0.01$, $\theta^* = 0$, and 3000 Monte Carlo samples are used for each n.

3. Following the hint provided, and using the fact that $Q_n \leq 1$, the posterior probability Q_n can be bounded by $Q_n \cdot I_{A_n} + I_{A_n^c}$. By definition of A_n , it follows from consistency of the MLE $\hat{\theta}_n$ that $I_{A_n^c} \to 0$ in probability under the iid P_{θ^*} model. So, it remains to show that $Q_n \cdot I_{A_n^c}$ converges to zero. For a data sequence in A_n , we know that $\hat{\theta}_n$ and θ^* are within $\varepsilon/2$ units from one another. So, for such a data sequence, if θ is more than ε units from θ^* , then θ must be more than $\varepsilon/2$ units from $\hat{\theta}_n$. Technically, this requires a triangle inequality type argument, but it's easy to check by drawing a picture. Therefore,

$$\Pi(|\theta - \theta^*| > \varepsilon \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) I_{A_n} \le \Pi(|\theta - \hat{\theta}_n| > \varepsilon/2 \mid X_1, \dots, X_n).$$

Since we assume the posterior normality result holds, the right-hand side above can be approximated by a normal probability, i.e.,

$$\Pi(|\theta - \hat{\theta}_n| > \varepsilon/2 \mid X_1, \dots, X_n) \approx \int_{x:|x| > \sqrt{nI(\theta^*)}\varepsilon/2} \mathsf{N}(x \mid 0, 1) \, dx.$$

Since the range of integration is approaching \varnothing as $n \to \infty$ (and since the normal density is integrable), the integral itself must be converging to zero (in probability under the P_{θ^*} model). Since both terms in the decomposition of Q_n are vanishing, we conclude that the posterior normality implies posterior consistency.

There is an alternative argument I didn't think of till after I posted the hint. Let $\pi_n(\theta)$ and $\tilde{\pi}_n(\theta)$ denote the actual posterior and the $N(\hat{\theta}_n, [nI(\theta^*)]^{-1})$ approximation, respectively. Then, for the same Q_n as above, we can write

$$Q_{n} = \int_{\theta: |\theta - \theta^{\star}| > \varepsilon} \pi_{n}(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \int_{\theta: |\theta - \theta^{\star}| > \varepsilon} [\pi_{n}(\theta) - \tilde{\pi}_{n}(\theta) + \tilde{\pi}_{n}(\theta)] d\theta$$

$$\leq \int |\pi_{n}(\theta) - \tilde{\pi}_{n}(\theta)| d\theta + \int_{\theta: |\theta - \theta^{\star}| > \varepsilon} \tilde{\pi}_{n}(\theta) d\theta.$$

The first term in the upper bound above goes to zero in probability by Theorem 4.2 in [GDS]; to see this, just standardize θ as $Z = [nI(\theta^*)]^{1/2}(\theta - \hat{\theta}_n)$. For the second term, do the same standardizing to get

$$\int_{z:|\hat{\theta}_n - \theta^* + z[nI(\theta^*)]^{-1/2}| > \varepsilon} \mathsf{N}(z \mid 0, 1) \, dz.$$

Since $\hat{\theta}_n \to \theta^*$ in probability, it is clear that the range of the above integration collapses to \varnothing . It follows that the integral also converges to zero in probability and, therefore, so does Q_n , as was to be shown.

4. From the definition of " $L_n(\theta)$ " in [GDS], we have

$$\frac{L_n(\theta) - L_n(\theta^*)}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{f_{\theta}(X_i)}{f_{\theta^*}(X_i)} = (\bar{X} - \theta^*)(\theta - \theta^*) - \frac{(\theta - \theta^*)^2}{2}.$$

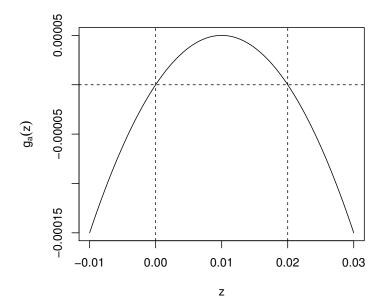


Figure 3: Plot of the $g_a(z)$ function for a = 0.01 in Problem 4.

For a constant $a \in \mathbb{R}$, define a function $g_a(z) = az - z^2/2$. Using the quadratic formula, the only zeros of $g_a(z)$ are z = 0 and z = 2a; in particular, by looking at the derivative of g_a , you can see that if |z| > 2|a|, then $g_a(z) < 0$; a plot of this function for a = 0.01 is given in Figure 3. Given an arbitrary $\delta > 0$, the law of large numbers says that, with probability 1, there exists N such that, if $n \geq N$, then $|\bar{X} - \theta^*| < \delta/2$. Therefore, if $n \geq N$ and $|\theta - \theta^*| > \delta$, then

$$\sup_{\theta: |\theta - \theta^{\star}| > \delta} \left[\frac{L_n(\theta) - L_n(\theta^{\star})}{n} \right] = g_{\delta/2}(\delta) < 0.$$

This verifies Condition (A4) in [GDS] for the normal case.

5. The posterior normality result says that θ , given X, is approximately (4-dimensional) normal with mean $\hat{\theta}_n = X/n$ and covariance matrix proportional to the inverse Fisher information. All these quantities were computed in Homework #1. Since κ is a smooth function of θ , the posterior distribution of κ , given X, is also normal by the Delta Theorem. For the given data, the normal approximation for the posterior distribution of κ is exactly the same as the approximate sampling distribution of the MLE $\hat{\kappa}$. So, since n=100 is relatively large, it is not surprising that the bootstrap, the MLE normal approximation, and the posterior normality approximation are all essentially the same.