# Lecture 3. Inadmissibility of Maximum Likelihood Estimate and James-Stein Estimator

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#### **Outline**

Recall: PCA in Noise

Maximum Likelihood Estimate

Example: Multivariate Normal Distribution

#### James-Stein Estimator

Risk and Bias-Variance Decomposition Inadmissability James-Stein Estimators Stein's Unbiased Risk Estimates (SURE) Proof of SURE Lemma

#### **PCA** in Noise

ightharpoonup Data:  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ 

 PCA looks for Eigen-Value Decomposition (EVD) of sample covariance matrix:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \hat{\mu}_n) (x_i - \hat{\mu}_n)^T$$

where

$$\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

- ▶ Geometric view as the best affine space approximation of data
- ▶ What about statistical view when  $x_i = \mu + \varepsilon_i$ ?

#### Recall: Phase Transitions of PCA

For rank-1 signal-noise model

$$X = \alpha u + \varepsilon, \qquad \alpha \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_X^2), \quad \varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_p)$$

PCA undergoes a phase transition if  $p/n \rightarrow \gamma$ :

▶ The primary eigenvalue of sample covariance matrix satisfies

$$\lambda_{\max}(\widehat{\Sigma}_n) \to \begin{cases} (1+\sqrt{\gamma})^2 = b, & \sigma_X^2 \le \sqrt{\gamma} \\ (1+\sigma_X^2)(1+\frac{\gamma}{\sigma_X^2}), & \sigma_X^2 > \sqrt{\gamma} \end{cases}$$
(1)

The primary eigenvector converges to

$$|\langle u, v_{\text{max}} \rangle|^2 \to \begin{cases} 0 & \sigma_X^2 \le \sqrt{\gamma} \\ \frac{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\sigma_X^4}}{1 + \frac{\gamma}{\sigma_X^2}}, & \sigma_X^2 > \sqrt{\gamma} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

#### Recall: Phase Transitions of PCA

▶ Here the threshold

$$\gamma = \lim_{n, p \to \infty} \frac{p}{n}$$

▶ The **law of large numbers** in traditional statistics assumes p fixed and  $n \to \infty$ :

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \to \infty} p/n = 0.$$

where PCA always works without phase transitions.

- ▶ In **high dimensional statistics**, we allow both p and n grow:  $p,n\to\infty$ , not law of large numbers.
- ▶ What might go wrong? Even the sample mean  $\hat{\mu}_n$ !

#### In this lecture

- Sample mean  $\hat{\mu}_n$  and covariance  $\hat{\Sigma}_n$  are both Maximum Likelihood Estimate (MLE) under Gaussian noise models
- ▶ In high dimensional scenarios (small n, large p), MLE  $\hat{\mu}_n$  is not optimal:
  - Inadmissability: MLE has worse prediction power than James-Stein Estimator (JSE) (Stein, 1956)
  - Many shrinkage estimates are better than MLE and James-Stein Estimator (JSE)
- Therefore, penalized likelihood or regularization is necessary in high dimensional statistics

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#### **Maximum Likelihood Estimate**

- ▶ Statistical model  $f(X|\theta)$  as a conditional probability function on  $\mathbb{R}^p$  with parameter space  $\theta \in \Theta$
- ▶ The likelihood function is defined as the probability of observing the given data  $x_i \sim f(X|\theta)$  as a function of  $\theta$ ,

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i | \theta)$$

A Maximum Likelihood Estimator is defined as

$$\hat{\theta}_{n}^{MLE} \in \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta) = \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_{i}|\theta)$$

$$= \arg \max_{\theta \in \Theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_{i}|\theta). \tag{3}$$

#### **Maximum Likelihood Estimate**

▶ For example, consider the normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ ,

$$f(X|\mu,\Sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^p|\Sigma|}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(X-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(X-\mu)\right],$$

where  $|\Sigma|$  is the determinant of covariance matrix  $\Sigma$ .

▶ Take independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) samples  $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$   $(i = 1, \dots, n)$ 

## Maximum Likelihood Estimate (continued)

lacksquare To get the MLE given  $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$   $(i=1,\ldots,n)$  , solve

$$\max_{\mu,\Sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i | \mu, \Sigma) = \max_{\mu,\Sigma} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi |\Sigma|}} \exp[-(X_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (X_i - \mu)]$$

Equivalently, consider the logarithmic likelihood

$$J(\mu, \Sigma) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i | \mu, \Sigma)$$
  
=  $-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (X_i - \mu) - \frac{n}{2} \log |\Sigma| + C(4)$ 

where C is a constant independent to parameters

## **MLE**: sample mean $\hat{\mu}_n$

▶ To solve  $\mu$ , the log-likelihood is a quadratic function of  $\mu$ ,

$$0 = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \mu} \Big|_{\mu = \mu^*} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \Sigma^{-1} (x_i - \mu^*)$$
$$\Rightarrow \mu^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \hat{\mu}_n$$

## MLE: sample covariance $\hat{\Sigma}_n$

▶ To solve  $\Sigma$ , the first term in (4)

$$-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbf{Tr}(x_{i}-\mu)^{T}\Sigma^{-1}(x_{i}-\mu)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\mathbf{Tr}[\Sigma^{-1}(x_{i}-\mu)(x_{i}-\mu)^{T}], \quad \mathbf{Tr}(ABC) = \mathbf{Tr}(BCA)$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2}(\mathbf{Tr}\Sigma^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_{n}), \quad \hat{\Sigma}_{n} := \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_{i}-\hat{\mu}_{n})(x_{i}-\hat{\mu}_{n})^{T},$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\mathbf{Tr}(\Sigma^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}\hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}})$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\mathbf{Tr}(\hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}\Sigma^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}), \quad \mathbf{Tr}(ABC) = \mathbf{Tr}(BCA)$$

$$= -\frac{n}{2}\mathbf{Tr}(S), \quad S := \hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}\Sigma^{-1}\hat{\Sigma}_{n}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

## MLE: sample covariance $\hat{\Sigma}_n$

Use S to represent  $\Sigma$ :

▶ Notice that

$$\Sigma = \hat{\Sigma}_n^{\frac{1}{2}} S^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_n^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{n}{2} \log |\Sigma| = \frac{n}{2} \log |S| + \frac{n}{2} \log |\hat{\Sigma}_n| = f(\hat{\Sigma}_n)$$

where we use for determinant of squared matrices of equal size,  $\det(AB) = |AB| = \det(A)\det(B) = |A| \cdot |B|$ .

► Therefore,

$$\max_{\Sigma} J(\Sigma) \Leftrightarrow \min_{S} \frac{n}{2} \operatorname{\mathbf{Tr}}(S) - \frac{n}{2} \log |S| + Const(\hat{\Sigma}_{n}, 1)$$

## MLE: sample covariance $\hat{\Sigma}_n$

▶ Since  $S = \hat{\Sigma}_n^{\frac{1}{2}} \Sigma^{-1} \hat{\Sigma}_n^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is symmetric and positive semidefinite, let  $S = U \Lambda U^T$  be its eigenvalue decomposition,  $\Lambda = \mathbf{diag}(\lambda_i)$  with  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \geq \lambda_p \geq 0$ . Then we have

$$J(\lambda_i) = \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p \lambda_i - \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^p \log(\lambda_i) + Const$$
$$\Rightarrow 0 = \left. \frac{\partial J}{\partial \lambda_i} \right|_{\lambda_i^*} = \frac{n}{2} - \frac{n}{2} \frac{1}{\lambda_i^*} \Rightarrow \lambda_i^* = 1$$
$$\Rightarrow S^* = I_p$$

▶ Hence the MLE solution

$$\Sigma^* = \hat{\Sigma}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\mu}_n) (X_i - \hat{\mu}_n)^T,$$

#### Note

▶ In statistics, it is often defined

$$\hat{\Sigma}_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \hat{\mu}_n) (X_i - \hat{\mu}_n)^T,$$

where the denominator is (n-1) instead of n. This is because that for sample covariance matrix, a single sample n=1 leads to no variance at all.

## Consistency of MLE

Under some regularity conditions, the maximum likelihood estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n^{MLE}$  has the following nice *limit* properties for fixed p and  $n \to \infty$ :

- A. (Consistency)  $\hat{ heta}_n^{MLE} o heta_0$ , in probability and almost surely.
- B. (Asymptotic Normality)  $\sqrt{n}(\hat{\theta}_n^{MLE}-\theta_0) \to \mathcal{N}(0,I_0^{-1})$  in distribution, where  $I_0$  is the Fisher Information matrix

$$I(\theta_0) := \mathbf{E}[(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log f(X|\theta_0))^2] = -\mathbf{E}[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \log f(X|\theta_0)].$$

C. (Asymptotic Efficiency)  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \operatorname{cov}(\hat{\theta}_n^{MLE}) = I^{-1}(\theta_0)$ . Hence  $\hat{\theta}_n^{MLE}$  is the **Uniformly Minimum-Variance Unbiased Estimator**, i.e. the estimator with the least variance among the class of unbiased estimators, for any unbiased estimator  $\hat{\theta}_n$ ,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \operatorname{var}(\hat{\theta}_n^{MLE}) \leq \lim_{n \to \infty} \operatorname{var}(\hat{\theta}_n)$ .

## However, large p small n?

- ► The asymptotic results all hold under the assumption by fixing p and taking  $n \to \infty$ , where MLE satisfies  $\hat{\mu}_n \to \mu$  and  $\hat{\Sigma}_n \to \Sigma$ .
- ▶ However, when p becomes large compared to finite n,  $\hat{\mu}_n$  is not the best estimator for *prediction* measured by expected mean squared error from the truth, to to shown below.

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#### **Prediction Error and Risk**

▶ To measure the *prediction* performance of an estimator  $\hat{\mu}_n$ , it is natural to consider the expected squared loss in regression, i.e. given a response  $y = \mu + \epsilon$  with zero mean noise  $\mathbf{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ ,

$$\mathbf{E} \|y - \hat{\mu}_n\|^2 = \mathbf{E} \|\mu - \hat{\mu} + \epsilon\|^2 = \mathbf{E} \|\mu - \hat{\mu}\|^2 + \mathbf{Var}(\epsilon), \quad \mathbf{Var}(\epsilon) = \mathbf{E}(\epsilon^T \epsilon).$$

▶ Since  $Var(\epsilon)$  is a constant for all estimators  $\hat{\mu}$ , one may simply look at the first part which is often called as *risk* in literature,

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = \mathbf{E} \|\mu - \hat{\mu}\|^2$$

It is the *mean square error* (MSE) between  $\mu$  and its estimator  $\hat{\mu}$ , that measures the expected prediction error.

## **Bias-Variance Decomposition**

► The risk or MSE enjoy the following important *bias-variance* decomposition, as a result of the Pythagorean theorem.

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_n, \mu) = \mathbf{E} \|\hat{\mu}_n - \mathbf{E}[\hat{\mu}_n] + \mathbf{E}[\hat{\mu}_n] - \mu\|^2$$

$$= \mathbf{E} \|\hat{\mu}_n - \mathbf{E}[\hat{\mu}_n]\|^2 + \|\mathbf{E}[\hat{\mu}_n] - \mu\|^2$$

$$=: \mathbf{Var}(\hat{\mu}_n) + \mathbf{Bias}(\hat{\mu}_n)^2$$

Consider multivariate Gaussian model,  $x_1,\ldots,x_n\sim\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2I_p)$   $(i=1,\ldots,n)$ , and the maximum likelihood estimators (MLE) of the parameters  $(\mu$  and  $\Sigma=\sigma^2I_p)$ 

## **Example: Bias-Variance Decomposition of MLE**

- Consider multivariate Gaussian model,  $Y_1,\ldots,Y_n\sim\mathcal{N}(\mu,\sigma^2I_p)$   $(i=1,\ldots,n)$ , and the maximum likelihood estimators (MLE) of the parameters  $(\mu$  and  $\Sigma=\sigma^2I_p)$
- The MLE estimator satisfies

$$\mathbf{Bias}(\hat{\mu}_n^{MLE}) = 0$$

and

$$\mathbf{Var}(\hat{\mu}_n^{MLE}) = \frac{p}{n}\sigma^2$$

In particular for n=1,  $\mathbf{Var}(\hat{\mu}^{MLE})=\sigma^2 p$  for  $\hat{\mu}^{MLE}=Y$ .

## Example: Bias-Variance Decomposition of Linear Estimators

- ▶ Consider  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2 I_p)$  and linear estimator  $\hat{\mu}_C = CY$
- ► Then we have

$$\mathbf{Bias}(\hat{\mu}_C) = \|(I - C)\mu\|^2$$

and

$$\mathbf{Var}(\hat{\mu}_C) = \mathbf{E}[(CY - C\mu)^T (CY - C\mu)]$$
  
= 
$$\mathbf{E}[\operatorname{tr}((Y - \mu)^T C^T C(Y - \mu))]$$
  
= 
$$\sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(C^T C).$$

Linear estimator includes an important case, the *Ridge regression* (a.k.a. Tikhonov regularization) with  $C = X(X^TX + \lambda I)^{-1}X^T$ ,

$$\min_{\mu} \frac{1}{2} ||Y - X\beta||^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\beta||^2, \quad \lambda > 0.$$

## Example: Bias-Variance Decomposition of Diagonal Estimators

For simplicity, one may restrict our discussions on the diagonal linear estimators  $C = \mathbf{diag}(c_i)$  (up to an change of orthonormal basis for Ridge regression), whose risk is

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p (1 - c_i)^2 \mu_i^2.$$

▶ For hyper-rectangular model class  $|\mu_i| \le \tau_i$ , the minimax risk is

$$\inf_{c_i} \sup_{|\mu_i| \le \tau_i} \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^p \frac{\sigma^2 \tau_i^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_i^2}.$$

For sparse models such that  $\#\{i: \tau_i = O(\sigma)\} = k \ll p$ , it is possible to trade bias with variance toward a **smaller risk using linear estimators than MLE!** 

#### Note

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p (1 - c_i)^2 \mu_i^2.$$

▶ For the supreme over  $|\mu_i| \le \tau_i$ ,

$$\Rightarrow \sup_{|\mu_i| \le \tau_i} \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \sigma^2 \sum_{i=1}^p c_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p (1 - c_i)^2 \tau_i^2 =: J(c).$$

▶ To see the infimum over  $c_i$ ,

$$0 = \frac{\partial J(c)}{\partial c_i} = 2\sigma^2 c_i - 2\tau_i^2 (1 - c_i) \Rightarrow c_i = \frac{\tau_i^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_i^2}$$

► The minimax risk is thus

$$\inf_{c_i} \sup_{|\mu_i| \le \tau_i} \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \sum_{i=1}^p \frac{\sigma^2 \tau_i^2}{\sigma^2 + \tau_i^2}.$$

## Formality: Inadmissibility

## Definition (Inadmissible, Charles Stein (1956))

An estimator  $\hat{\mu}_n$  of the parameter  $\mu$  is called **inadmissible** on  $\mathbb{R}^p$  with respect to the squared risk if there exists another estimator  $\mu_n^*$  such that

$$\mathbf{E} \|\mu_n^* - \mu\|^2 \le \mathbf{E} \|\hat{\mu}_n - \mu\|^2 \quad \text{for all } \mu \in \mathbb{R}^p,$$

and there exist  $\mu_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$  such that

$$\mathbf{E} \|\mu_n^* - \mu_0\|^2 < \mathbf{E} \|\hat{\mu}_n - \mu_0\|^2.$$

In this case, we also call that  $\mu_n^*$  dominates  $\hat{\mu}_n$ . Otherwise, the estimator  $\hat{\mu}_n$  is called **admissible**.

#### Stein's Phenomenon

▶ (Charles Stein (1956)) For  $p \ge 3$ , there exists  $\hat{\mu}$  such that  $\forall \mu \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu},\mu) < \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}^{\mathsf{MLE}},\mu)$$

which makes MLE inadmissible.

▶ What are such estimators?

#### James-Stein Estimator

## Example (James-Stein Estimator)

$$\hat{\mu}^{JS} = \left(1 - \frac{\sigma^2(p-2)}{\|\hat{\mu}^{MLE}\|}\right) \hat{\mu}^{MLE}.$$
 (5)

Such an estimator shrinks each component of  $\hat{\mu}^{MLE}$  toward 0.

- ► Charles Stein shows in 1956 that MLE is inadmissible, while the following original form of James-Stein estimator is demonstrated by his student Willard James in 1961.
- Bradley Efron summarizes the history and gives a simple derivation of these estimators from an Empirical Bayes point of view.

## James-Stein Estimator with Shrinkage toward Mean

▶ A varied form of James-Stein estimator can shrink MLE toward other points such as the component mean of  $\hat{\mu}^{MLE}$ :

$$\hat{\mu}_i^{JS_1} = \bar{z} + \left(1 - \frac{\sigma^2(p-3)}{S(\hat{\mu}^{MLE})}\right) \hat{\mu}_i^{MLE},$$
 (6)

where  $ar{z} = \sum_{i=1}^p z_i/p$  and  $S(z) := \sum_i (z_i - ar{z})^2$ ,

▶ It dominates the MLE if  $p \ge 4$ .

#### **E**xample

- Let's look at an example of James-Stein Estimator
  - R: https://github.com/yuany-pku/2017\_CSIC5011/blob/master/slides/JSE.R

#### Illustration that JSE dominates MLE

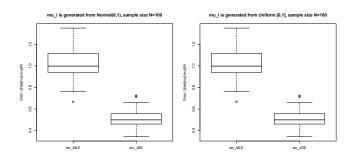


Figure: Comparison of risks between Maximum Likelihood Estimators and James-Stein Estimators with  $X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_p)$  (left) and  $X_{ij} \sim \mathcal{U}[0, 1]$  (right) for  $i=1,\ldots,N$  and  $j=1,\ldots,p$  where p=N=100.

## **Efron's Batting Example in 1970**

Table: Efron's Batting example.  $\hat{\mu}^{MLE}$  is obtained from the mean hits in these early games, while  $\mu$  is obtained by averages over the remainder of the season.

Players	hits/AB	$\hat{\mu}_{i}^{(MLE)}$	$\mu_i$	$\hat{\mu}_{i}^{(JS)}$	$\hat{\mu}_i^{(JS_1)}$
Clemente	18/45	0.4	0.346	0.378	0.294
F.Robinson	17/45	0.378	0.298	0.357	0.289
F.Howard	16/45	0.356	0.276	0.336	0.285
Johnstone	15/45	0.333	0.222	0.315	0.28
Berry	14/45	0.311	0.273	0.294	0.275
Spencer	14/45	0.311	0.27	0.294	0.275
Kessinger	13/45	0.289	0.263	0.273	0.27
L.Alvarado	12/45	0.267	0.21	0.252	0.266
Santo	11/45	0.244	0.269	0.231	0.261
Swoboda	11/45	0.244	0.23	0.231	0.261
Unser	10/45	0.222	0.264	0.21	0.256
Williams	10/45	0.222	0.256	0.21	0.256
Scott	10/45	0.222	0.303	0.21	0.256
Petrocelli	10/45	0.222	0.264	0.21	0.256
E.Rodriguez	10/45	0.222	0.226	0.21	0.256
Campaneris	9/45	0.2	0.286	0.189	0.252
Munson	8/45	0.178	0.316	0.168	0.247
Alvis	7/45	0.156	0.2	0.147	0.242
Mean Square Error	-	0.075545	-	0.072055	0.021387

#### James-Stein Estimator Dominates MLE

## Theorem (James-Stein (1956, 1961))

Suppose  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\mu, I)$ . Then  $\hat{\mu}^{\text{MLE}} = Y$ .  $\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = \mathbf{E}_{\mu} \|\hat{\mu} - \mu\|^2$ , and define

$$\hat{\mu}^{JS} = \left(1 - \frac{p-2}{\|Y\|^2}\right) Y$$

Then if  $p \geq 3$  and for all  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^p$ 

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}^{JS}, \mu) < \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}^{\mathsf{MLE}}, \mu)$$

#### More Estimators Dominates MLE

• Stein estimator.  $a = 0, b = \varepsilon^2 p$ ,

$$\tilde{\mu}_S := \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon^2 p}{\|y\|^2}\right) y$$

▶ James-Stein estimator:  $c \in (0, 2(p-2))$ 

$$\tilde{\mu}_{JS}^c := \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon^2 c}{\|y\|^2}\right) y$$

Positive part James-Stein estimator:

$$\tilde{\mu}_{JS+} := \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon^2(p-2)}{\|y\|^2}\right)_+ y, \quad (x)_+ := \min(0, x)$$

Positive part Stein estimator:

$$\tilde{\mu}_{S+} := \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon^2 p}{\|y\|^2}\right)_+ y$$

$$\mathcal{R}(\tilde{\mu}_{JS+}) < \mathcal{R}(\tilde{\mu}_{JS}) < \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_n), \qquad \mathcal{R}(\tilde{\mu}_{S+}) < \mathcal{R}(\tilde{\mu}_S) < \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_n)$$

#### Stein's Unbiased Risk Estimates

## Lemma (Stein's Unbiased Risk Estimates (SURE))

Suppose  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}_p(\mu, I)$  and  $\hat{\mu} = Y + g(Y)$ . If g satisfies

- 1. g is weakly differentiable.
- 2.  $\sum_{i=1}^{p} \int |\partial_i g_i(x)| dx < \infty$

Denote

$$U(Y) := p + 2\nabla^T g(Y) + ||g(Y)||^2$$
(7)

Then

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = \mathbf{E} U(Y) = \mathbf{E}(p + 2\nabla^T g(Y) + ||g(Y)||^2)$$
 (8)

where  $abla^T g(Y) := \sum_{i=1}^p \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} g_i(Y).$ 

## Examples of weakly differentiable g

▶ For linear estimator  $\hat{\mu} = CY$ ,

$$g(x) = (C - I)Y$$

► For James-Stein estimator

$$g(x) = -\frac{p-2}{\|Y\|^2}Y$$

## **Soft-Threshholding**

▶ Soft-Thresholding solves LASSO ( $\ell_1$ -regularized MLE)

$$\hat{\mu} = \arg\min_{\mu} J_1(\mu) = \arg\min_{\mu} \frac{1}{2} ||Y - \mu||^2 + \lambda ||\mu||_1$$

Subgradients of objective function leads to

$$0 \in \partial_{\mu_j} J_1(\mu) = (\mu_j - y_j) + \lambda \operatorname{sign}(\mu_j)$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \hat{\mu}_j(y_j) = \operatorname{sign}(y_j)(|y_j| - \lambda)_+$$

where the set-valued map  $\mathbf{sign}(x) = 1$  if x > 0,  $\mathbf{sign}(x) = -1$  if x < 0, and  $\mathbf{sign}(x) = [-1, 1]$  if x = 0, is the subgradient of absolute function |x|.

► Then

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} -\lambda & x_i > \lambda \\ -x_i & |x_i| \le \lambda \\ \lambda & x_i < -\lambda \end{cases}$$

which is weakly differentiable

## Hard-Thresholding, a Counter Example

▶ Hard-Thresholding solves the  $\ell_0$ -regularized MLE where  $||x||_0 := \#\{x_i \neq 0\}$ 

$$\hat{\mu} = \arg\min_{\mu} J_0(\mu) = \arg\min_{\mu} \frac{1}{2} ||Y - \mu||^2 + \lambda ||\mu||_0$$

that is NP-hard

► Closed-form solution

$$\hat{\mu}_i(y_i) = \begin{cases} y_i & y_i > \lambda \\ 0 & |y_i| \le \lambda \\ y_i & y_i < -\lambda \end{cases}$$

► Then

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & |x_i| > \lambda \\ -x_i & |x_i| \le \lambda \end{cases}$$

which is **NOT** weakly differentiable!

## **Sketchy Proof of SURE Lemma**

#### Proof.

Assume that  $\sigma=1.$  Let  $\phi(y)$  be the density function of Gaussian distribution  $\mathcal{N}_p(0,I).$ 

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}, \mu) = \mathbf{E}_{\mu} \|Y + g(Y) - \mu\|^{2}$$
$$= \mathbf{E} \left( p + 2(Y - \mu)^{T} g(Y) + \|g(Y)\|^{2} \right)$$

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}(Y-\mu)^T g(Y) &= \sum_{i=1}^p \int_{-\infty}^\infty (y_i - \mu_i) g_i(Y) \phi(Y-\mu) \mathrm{d}Y \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \int_{-\infty}^\infty -g_i(Y) \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} \phi(Y-\mu) \mathrm{d}Y, \quad \text{derivative of } \phi \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} g_i(Y) \phi(Y-\mu) \mathrm{d}Y, \quad \text{Integration by parts} \\ &= \mathbf{E} \, \nabla^T g(Y) \end{split}$$

James-Stein Estimator

#### **Risk of Linear Estimator**

Suppose 
$$Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, I_p)$$
 
$$\hat{\mu}_C(Y) = Cy$$
 
$$\Rightarrow g(Y) = (C - I)Y$$
 
$$\Rightarrow \nabla^T g(Y) = -\sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} \left( (C - I)Y \right) = \operatorname{tr}(C) - p$$
 
$$\Rightarrow U(Y) = p + 2\nabla^T g(Y) + \|g(Y)\|^2$$
 
$$= p + 2(\operatorname{tr}(C) - p) + \|(I - C)Y\|^2$$
 
$$= -p + 2\operatorname{tr}(C) + \|(I - C)Y\|^2$$

Moreover, if  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2 I)$ ,

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_C, \mu) = \|(I - C(\lambda))Y\|^2 - p\sigma^2 + 2\sigma^2 \operatorname{tr}(C(\lambda)).$$

#### When Linear Estimator is Admissible?

## Theorem (Lemma 2.8 in Johnstone's book (GE))

 $Y \sim N(\mu, I)$ ,  $\forall \hat{\mu} = CY$ ,  $\hat{\mu}$  is admissible iff

- 1. C is symmetric.
- 2.  $0 \le \rho_i(C) \le 1$  (eigenvalue).
- 3.  $\rho_i(C) = 1$  for at most two i.

#### **Risk of James-Stein Estimator**

▶ Suppose  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, I_p)$  and for  $p \geq 3$ ,

$$\hat{\mu}^{JS} = \left(1 - \frac{p-2}{\|Y\|^2}\right)Y \Rightarrow g(Y) = -\frac{p-2}{\|Y\|^2}Y$$

Now

$$\begin{split} U(Y) &= p + 2 \nabla^T g(Y) + \|g(Y)\|^2 \\ &\|g(Y)\|^2 = \frac{(p-2)^2}{\|Y\|^2} \\ &\nabla^T g(Y) = - \sum_i \frac{\partial}{\partial y_i} \left(\frac{p-2}{\|Y\|^2} Y\right) = -\frac{(p-2)^2}{\|Y\|^2} \end{split}$$

Finally

$$\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}^{\mathsf{JS}}, \mu) = \mathbf{E} U(Y) = p - \mathbf{E} \frac{(p-2)^2}{\|Y\|^2}$$

## Further Analysis of the Risk of James-Stein Estimator

▶ To find an upper bound of the risk of James-Stein estimator, notice that  $\|Y\|^2 \sim \chi^2(\|\mu\|^2,p)$  and  $^1$ 

$$\chi^2(\|\mu\|^2, p) \stackrel{d}{=} \chi^2(0, p+2N), \quad N \sim \operatorname{Poisson}\left(\frac{\|\mu\|^2}{2}\right)$$

we have

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E} \left( \frac{1}{\|Y\|^2} \right) &= \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E} \mathbf{E} \left[ \frac{1}{\|Y\|^2} \middle| N \right] \\ &= \mathbf{E} \frac{1}{p + 2N - 2} \\ &\geq \frac{1}{p + 2\mathbf{E} N - 2} \text{ (Jensen's Inequality)} \\ &= \frac{1}{p + \|\mu\|^2 - 2} \end{split}$$

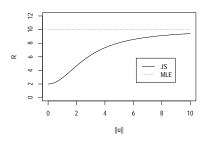
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is a homework.

## **Upper Bound for JSE**

## Proposition (Upper bound of MSE for JSE)

Let  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, I_p)$  for  $p \geq 3$ ,

$$\mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}^{\mathsf{JS}}, \mu) \le p - \frac{(p-2)^2}{p-2 + \|\mu\|^2} = 2 + \frac{(p-2)\|\mu\|^2}{p-2 + \|\mu\|^2}$$



## Risk of Soft-Thresholding

Recall

$$g_i(x) = \begin{cases} -\lambda & x_i > \lambda \\ -x_i & |x_i| \le \lambda \\ \lambda & x_i < -\lambda \end{cases} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial i} g_i(x) = -I(|x_i| \le \lambda)$$

► Then

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{R}(\hat{\mu}_{\lambda}, \mu) &= & \mathbf{E}(p + 2\nabla^T g(Y) + \|g(Y)\|^2) \\ &= & \mathbf{E}\left(p - 2\sum_{i=1}^p I(|y_i| \leq \lambda) + \sum_{i=1}^p y_i^2 \wedge \lambda^2\right) \\ &\leq & 1 + (2\log p + 1)\sum_{i=1}^p \mu_i^2 \wedge 1 \quad \text{if we take } \lambda = \sqrt{2\log p} \end{split}$$

## Risk of Soft-Thresholding (continued)

Using the inequality

$$\frac{1}{2}a \wedge b \le \frac{ab}{a+b} \le a \wedge b$$

the upper bound of James-Stein estimator can be converted to RHS below and compared with Soft-Thresholding

$$1 + (2\log p + 1)\sum_{i=1}^{p}(\mu_i^2 \wedge 1) \quad \leqslant \quad 2 + c\left(\left(\sum_{i=1}^{p}\mu_i^2\right) \wedge p\right) \quad c \in (1/2, 1)$$

▶ The risk of soft-thresholding for each  $\mu_i$  is bounded by 1: so if  $\mu$  is sparse  $(s = \#\{i : \mu_i \neq 0\})$  but large in magnitudes (s.t.  $\|\mu\|_2^2 \geq p$ ), we may expect LHS  $= O(s \log p) < O(p) =$ RHS  $^2$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>for details cf. p43 of Gaussian Estimation, by I. Johnstone. James-Stein Estimator

## **Summary**

The following results are about mean estimation under noise:

- ▶ Sample mean as the maximum likelihood estimator is consistent as  $n \to \infty$  with fixed  $p < \infty$ , and the minimum variance unbiased estimator.
- ► For high dimensional statistics, there are many estimators (shrinkage) that dominate MLE in terms of prediction power, e.g.
  - Linear estimator may dominate MLE for sparse targets
  - James-Stein estimator uniformly dominates MLE if  $p \geq 3$
  - Soft-thresholding (Lasso) estimator may dominate MLE and even JSE for sparse targets
- ► Therefore, regularization lies in the core of high dimensional statistics against the noise