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A NOTE ON ESTIMATING THE IMPROVEMENT IN STEIN-TYPE
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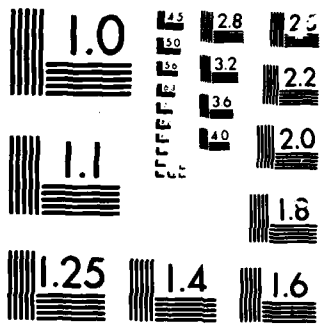
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A NOTE ON ESTIMATING THE IMPROVEMENT
IN STEIN-TYPE ESTIMATORS

BY

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1. INTRODUCTION

It is by now well-known that if $X_{p \times 1} \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2 I)$, $p \geq 3$, σ^2 known, X is an inadmissible estimator of θ under arbitrary positive definite quadratic loss. If σ^2 is unknown but an independent estimate of σ^2 is available, this conclusion still holds. An identity due to Stein (1973) has been instrumental in this development. A by-product of this identity is the fact that under a simple integrability condition a unique unbiased estimator of the risk of estimators of the form $X + f(X)$, $f_{p \times 1}$, can be provided. Efron and Morris (1976) discuss this issue in detail both with σ^2 known and unknown. They note that these risk estimators may be employed to select a best estimator from a class of estimators.

We address the following practical issue. If we select an estimator of θ known to improve upon X , how should we estimate this improvement? The above unbiased estimator need not be admissible under squared error loss; several attractive alternatives will be proposed.

2. ALTERNATIVE ESTIMATORS

Suppose $X \sim N(\theta, I)$. Let $Z = X^T X$ and consider the crude James-Stein estimator (pulled toward $\theta = 0$ w.l.o.g.),

$(1-(p-2)/Z)X$. Under loss $(\theta-a)^T(\theta-a)$, this estimator uniformly improves upon X with improvement

$$I = g(\lambda) = (p-2)^2 E_{\theta}(Z^{-1})$$

where $\lambda = \theta^T\theta/2$. Hence $\hat{I}_1 = (p-2)^2 Z^{-1}$ is immediately unique unbiased for $g(\lambda)$. Obviously $g(\lambda)$ decreases in λ from $g(0) = p-2$ (worthwhile improvement occurs when λ is small). Hence

$$\hat{I}_2 = \begin{cases} (p-2)^2 Z^{-1}, & Z \geq p-2 \\ (p-2) & , Z < p-2 \end{cases}$$

dominates \hat{I}_1 . In fact, it is clear that \hat{I}_1 can be significantly improved upon when λ is small since in this case $\text{var}(\hat{I}_1) \approx 2(p-4)^{-1}(p-2)^2$ (the value at $\lambda = 0$) which is more than twice I regardless of p . Alternatives to \hat{I}_2 will now be developed using the fact that Z has a noncentral chi-square distribution, i.e. $Z \sim X_p^2(\lambda)$. $g(\lambda)$ is then a function of the noncentrality parameter with the explicit form

$$g(\lambda) = (p-2)^2 \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{\ell} e^{-\lambda} (p-2+2\ell)^{-1} / \ell! \quad (2.1)$$

The UMVUE for λ is $(Z-p)/2$ suggesting the estimator

$$\hat{I}_3 = \begin{cases} g((Z-p)/2), & Z \geq p \\ p-2, & Z < p \end{cases}$$

The MLE for λ has been discussed by Meyer (1967). With a single multivariate normal distribution, it is clearly $Z/2$ whence $g(Z/2)$ is the MLE for $g(\lambda)$. $g(Z/2)$ is always less than \hat{I}_3 and when λ is small, regardless of p , this underestimation badly inflates mean square error relative to that of \hat{I}_3 .

Improvements under squared error loss to the UMVUE for λ are discussed in Perlman and Rasmussen (1975) and in Neff and Strawderman (1976). One such estimator is $\hat{\lambda}^* = [(Z-p)/2 + (p-4)/Z]^+$, $p \geq 5$, suggesting the estimator $\hat{I}_4 = g(\hat{\lambda}^*)$. However, $I_4 \leq I_3$ and simulation (to be described shortly) shows that for λ small the $(p-4)/Z$ term drastically inflates the bias and variance of \hat{I}_4 relative to \hat{I}_3 .

A more direct approach is to investigate Bayes estimators for $g(\lambda)$ under squared error loss. Suppose $\theta \sim N(0, \gamma I)$, i.e. $\lambda \sim \gamma/2 X_p^2$ whence $\lambda|Z \sim a/2 X_p^2(aZ/2)$ where $a = \gamma/(\gamma+1)$. We seek $E(g(\lambda)|Z)$. Using (2.1) we obtain

$$E(g(\lambda)|Z) = (p-2)^2 \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (p-2+2l)^{-1}/l! \int \lambda^l e^{-\lambda} \Gamma(\lambda|Z) d\lambda.$$

Letting $s = (p-2)/2$ and performing the integration, we obtain

$$E(g(\lambda)|Z) = \frac{(p-2)^2}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{aZ}{2}\right)^j \frac{e^{-aZ/2}}{j!} \\ \cdot \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (s+l)^{-1} \binom{s+l+j}{l} \left(\frac{a}{a+1}\right)^l \left(\frac{1}{a+1}\right)^{s+j+1}. \quad (2.2)$$

We may interpret (2.2) with J -Poisson($aZ/2$), $L|J$ - Negative Binomial $(\frac{a}{a+1}, s+J+1)$ (where s need not be an integer) and

$$E(g(\lambda)|Z) = \frac{(p-2)^2}{2} E(E((s+L)^{-1}|J)). \quad (2.3)$$

The identity

$$\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (s+l)^{-1} \binom{s+l+j}{l} \left(\frac{a}{a+1}\right)^{l+s} \\ = \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{j}{k} (k+s)^{-1} a^{k+s}$$

(derivable by considering the indefinite integral with respect to a of $a^{s-1}(a+1)^j$ directly or through its equivalent negative binomial expansion) leads to

$$E(g(\lambda)|Z) = (p-2)^2/2(a+1) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{k=0}^j \frac{e^{-aZ/2}}{j!} \left(\frac{aZ}{2(a+1)}\right)^j \binom{j}{k} (k+s)^{-1} a^k.$$

Interchanging order of summation and summing over j , we obtain the Bayes rule in simple form:

$$E(g(\lambda)|Z) = (a+1)^{-1} g(a^2 Z/2(a+1)). \quad (2.4)$$

Letting $\gamma \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. $a \rightarrow 1$, in (2.4) leads to $\hat{I}_5 = 1/2 g(Z/4)$. As noted in Perlman and Rasmussen, this resultant "noninformative" prior on θ yields a prior on λ which is nonuniform and, in fact, is biased against small λ . The fact that \hat{I}_5 is at most $(p-2)/2$ reflects this. A more appealing "empirical" Bayes estimator is obtained by estimating $(\gamma+1)^{-1}$ in (2.4) by pZ^{-1} (as in Perlman and Rasmussen) resulting in

$$\hat{I}_6 = \begin{cases} \frac{Z}{2Z-p} g\left(\frac{(Z-p)}{2} \cdot \frac{Z-p}{2Z-p}\right), & Z \geq p \\ p-2, & Z < p \end{cases}$$

From (2.1), $g(\lambda) = (p-2)^2 E(p-2+2L)^{-1}$ where $L \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$. Consider the following conditional estimation problem. Treating L as a parameter, estimate $\gamma(L) = (p-2)^2 (p-2+2L)^{-1}$. This idea is also suggested by (2.3) and such an approach

was discussed by Stein (1964) in conjunction with the estimation of the variance of a normal distribution with unknown mean. Given L , $Z \sim X_{p+2L}^2$ and we seek estimators based on Z of $\gamma(L)$. In this setting \hat{I}_1 is again the UMVUE and again the truncation in \hat{I}_2 is appropriate. Since $E(Z-2|L) = p-2+2L$, the estimator

$$\hat{I}_7 = \begin{cases} (p-2)^2(Z-2)^{-1}, & Z \geq p \\ p-2 & , Z < p \end{cases}$$

may be considered. $\hat{I}_7 \geq \hat{I}_2$. For small λ simulation reveals \hat{I}_7 to be less biased with smaller variance than \hat{I}_2 . For large λ , Z will likely be greater than p whence $\hat{I}_7 \approx (p-2)^2(Z-2)^{-1}$, $\hat{I}_2 \approx \hat{I}_1$. Now \hat{I}_2 is nearly unbiased and simulation reveals that \hat{I}_2 will have smaller variance than \hat{I}_7 .

The MLE of L is not easily obtained, hence for γ as well. Under squared error loss, $(\gamma(L)-a)^2$, shrinkage of \hat{I}_1 is suggested, i.e. amongst estimators of the form $e\hat{I}_1$ the optimal e is $(p-2+2L)^{-1}(p-4+2L)$. Consider Bayes estimates of $\gamma(L)$ under this loss. Denoting the prior on L by π , the Bayes rule vs. π , $\delta_\pi(Z)$, becomes

$$\delta_{\pi}(Z) = \frac{(p-2)^2 \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (p-2+2\ell)^{-1} (Z/2)^{\ell} \pi(\ell) / \Gamma(\frac{p+2\ell}{2})}{\sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (Z/2)^{\ell} \pi(\ell) / \Gamma(\frac{p+2\ell}{2})}$$

If we define

$$h_{\pi}(Z) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} (p-2+2\ell)^{-1} (Z/2)^{(p-1+\ell)/2} \pi(\ell) / \Gamma(\frac{p+2\ell}{2}) \quad (2.5)$$

then straightforwardly,

$$\delta_{\pi}(Z) = (p-2)^2 h_{\pi}(Z) / 2Z h'_{\pi}(Z) \quad (2.6)$$

Clearly, \hat{I}_1 can't be Bayes vs. any prior, i.e. we would need $h_{\pi}(Z) = e^{Z/2}$, impossible by equating coefficients in (2.5). A shrinkage estimator arises if $h'_{\pi}/h_{\pi} > 1/2$.

Two priors yielding simple expressions for $\delta_{\pi}(Z)$ are:

(i) $\pi(\ell) = (\frac{p}{2} - 1 + \ell) \Gamma(\frac{p}{2} - 1 + \ell) / \ell!$ (mass on large ℓ) resulting in $\hat{I}_g = (p-2)^2 (p-2+Z)^{-1}$. \hat{I}_g underestimates $g(\lambda)$ and when λ is small simulation reveals this to critically

inflate mean squared error. (ii) $\pi(0) = (p-2)/p$, $\pi(1) = 2/p$ (mass on small ℓ) resulting in

$\hat{I}_g = (p-2)^2 (p^2(p-2) + 2pZ)^{-1} (p^2 + 2Z)$. With increasing λ the bias in I_g tends to $(p-2)^2/p$ again critically inflating mean squared error. A uniform prior on L does not

yield an estimator in closed form. However, for small λ , this estimator tends to shrink \hat{I}_1 ; for large λ , it tends to expand \hat{I}_1 .

A simulation based on 7000 replications at each λ and p was developed to examine the \hat{I}_j , $j = 1, \dots, 9$. Estimators involving g are most easily computed from (2.1) in recursive fashion with double precision, i.e. by writing $g(\cdot) = (p-2)^2 \exp(\cdot) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} b_{\ell}$ where $b_{\ell+1} = \frac{p-2+2\ell}{p+2\ell} \cdot \frac{(\cdot)}{\ell+1} b_{\ell}$ and $b_0 = (p-2)^{-1}$. Table 1 presents an abbreviated summary for the best performers, I_2 , I_3 , I_6 and I_7 .

3. EXTENSIONS

Extension to the case where $X \sim N(\theta, \sigma^2 I)$, σ^2 unknown, is immediate if an independent estimator $\hat{\sigma}^2$ of σ^2 is available based on a chi-square random variable with r degrees of freedom. The simple James-Stein estimator becomes $(1 - (p-2)r\hat{\sigma}^2/(r+2)Z)X$ which under squared error loss uniformly improves upon X with relative improvement

$$\frac{(p-2)^2}{p} \frac{r}{r+2} \sigma^2 E Z^{-1} = g(\lambda) \quad (3.1)$$

where $\lambda = \theta^T \theta / 2\sigma^2$. The independence of $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and Z enables straightforward development of estimators of $g(\lambda)$ paralleling

$\hat{I}_2 - \hat{I}_9$. The resulting estimators will depend on $\hat{\sigma}^2$ and Z only through $U = Z/\hat{\sigma}^2$. Details are omitted. In the context of estimation in a full rank linear model, let $Y = X\beta + \epsilon$, $X_{n \times p}$, $r(X) = p \geq 3$, $\epsilon \sim N(0, \sigma^2 I)$ and $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ be the ordinary least squares estimate of β . Then $T(\hat{\beta}_{OLS}) = (1-A)\hat{\beta}_{OLS} + A\beta^*$ where $A = c\hat{\sigma}^2/Q$, $\hat{\sigma}^2$ is the UMVUE of σ^2 , $Q = (\hat{\beta}_{OLS} - \beta^*)^T X^T X (\hat{\beta}_{OLS} - \beta^*)$, $c = (p-2)(n-p)/(n-p+2)$ and β^* is a fixed vector, uniformly improves upon $\hat{\beta}_{OLS}$ under loss proportional to $(\hat{\beta} - \beta)^T X^T X (\hat{\beta} - \beta)$ with relative improvement $\frac{p-2}{p} c\sigma^2 E(Q^{-1})$ analogous to (3.1). Estimators of this relative improvement will be expressible as functions of the "F-statistic," $(n-p)U/p$, or of $R^2(\beta^*)$, the sample multiple correlation coefficient resulting from fitting the adjusted regression model $Y - X\beta^* = X\beta + \epsilon$.

In extending these ideas to minimax estimators of θ , other than the above James-Stein estimator, orthogonally invariant estimators of the form $(1 - (p-2)r\tau(U)/(r+2)U)X$ have been shown to uniformly improve upon X under squared error loss if, for example, $0 \leq \tau(\cdot) \leq 2$ and $\tau(\cdot)$ nondecreasing (Baranchik (1970)). The relative improvement of such estimators is shown to be (Efron and Morris)

$$\frac{p-2}{p} E \left\{ \frac{(p-2)r}{(r+2)U} \tau(U)(2-\tau(U)) + 4\tau'(U) \left(1 + \frac{(p-2)}{r+2} \tau(U) \right) \right\} \\ = g(\lambda)$$

where λ again is $\theta^T \theta / 2\sigma^2$. Without specification of τ it is unclear as to whether the implicit unbiased estimator of $g(\lambda)$ is admissible. Nonetheless, ideas of the previous section may be used to suggest alternative estimators.

1. A Comparison of Improvement Estimators

λ	P	$E(\hat{I}_2)$	$MSE(\hat{I}_2)$	$E(\hat{I}_3)$	$MSE(\hat{I}_3)$	$E(\hat{I}_6)$	$MSE(\hat{I}_6)$	$E(\hat{I}_7)$	$MSE(\hat{I}_7)$	
0.02	6	3.97	2.90	2.15	3.46	.92	3.48	.82	3.37	1.18
0.02	10	7.97	6.41	5.09	7.08	2.60	7.09	2.45	6.96	3.11
0.02	20	17.96	15.66	12.68	16.41	7.75	16.43	7.47	16.32	8.65
0.08	6	3.90	2.88	2.06	3.42	.91	3.45	.80	3.32	1.15
0.08	10	7.87	6.37	4.98	7.02	2.58	7.05	2.41	6.92	3.08
0.08	20	17.86	15.60	12.55	16.37	7.71	16.39	7.39	16.28	8.54
0.50	6	3.41	2.62	1.70	3.22	.86	3.26	.79	3.14	1.09
0.50	10	7.26	6.08	4.33	6.78	2.47	6.80	2.32	6.68	2.92
0.50	20	17.14	15.25	11.84	16.07	7.48	16.08	7.16	15.96	8.31
2.00	6	2.27	2.00	1.09	2.58	1.28	2.65	1.21	2.43	1.32
2.00	10	5.62	5.07	3.56	5.85	3.28	5.92	3.09	5.68	3.53
2.00	20	14.96	13.92	11.28	14.87	9.03	14.93	8.68	14.71	9.75
8.00	6	.88	.87	.21	1.11	.49	1.20	.55	1.01	.39
8.00	10	2.83	2.81	1.39	3.28	2.28	3.39	2.32	3.12	2.04
8.00	20	9.80	9.75	8.51	10.55	10.27	10.68	10.16	10.31	10.07
24.50	6	.31	.31	.01	.34	.01	.36	.02	.33	.01
24.50	10	1.16	1.15	.10	1.24	.15	1.31	.18	1.20	.13
24.50	20	4.95	4.94	1.41	5.21	1.81	5.34	1.96	5.09	1.64

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