# Empirical Bayes, SURE and Sparse Normal Mean Models

Xianyang Zhang and Anirban Bhattacharya \*

Texas A&M University

This version: June 14, 2019

Abstract This paper studies the sparse normal mean models under the empirical Bayes framework. We focus on the mixture priors with an atom at zero and a density component centered at a data driven location determined by maximizing the marginal likelihood or minimizing the Stein Unbiased Risk Estimate. We study the properties of the corresponding posterior median and posterior mean. In particular, the posterior median is a thresholding rule and enjoys the multi-direction shrinkage property that shrinks the observation toward either the origin or the data-driven location. The idea is extended by considering a finite mixture prior, which is flexible to model the cluster structure of the unknown means. We further generalize the results to heteroscedastic normal mean models. Specifically, we propose a semiparametric estimator which can be calculated efficiently by combining the familiar EM algorithm with the Pool-Adjacent-Violators algorithm for isotonic regression. The effectiveness of our methods is demonstrated via extensive numerical studies.

**Keywords:** EM algorithm, Empirical Bayes, Heteroscedasticity, Isotonic regression, Mixture modeling, PAV algorithm, Sparse normal mean, SURE, Wavelet

# **1** Introduction

A canonical problem in statistical learning is the compound estimation of (sparse) normal means from a single observation. The observed vector  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \ldots, X_p) \in \mathbb{R}^p$  arises from the location model,

$$X_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon_i \sim^{i.i.d} N(0,1),$$

for  $1 \leq i \leq p$ , and the goal is estimating the unknown mean vector  $(\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_p)$  as well as recovering its support. This kind of problems arise in many different contexts such as adaptive nonparametric regression using wavelets, multiple testing, variable selection and many other areas in statistics. Location model also carries significant practical relevance in many statistical applications because the observed data are often understood, represented or summarized as the sum of a signal vector and Gaussian errors.

In this paper, we tackle the problem from the empirical Bayes perspective which has seen a revival in recent years, see e.g. Johnstone and Silverman (2004, JS hereafter), Brown and Greenshtein (2009); Jiang and Zhang (2009); Koenker and Mizera (2014); Martin and Walker (2014); Petrone et al. (2014), among others. Morris (1983) classified empirical Bayes into two types, namely parametric empirical Bayes and nonparametric empirical Bayes. In sparse models, the parametric (empirical) Bayes approach usually begins with a spike-and-slab prior on each  $\mu_i$  that separates signals from noise, which

<sup>\*</sup>Department of Statistics, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX 77843, USA. E-mail: zhangxi-any@stat.tamu.edu; anirbanb@stat.tamu.edu

includes the case when the spike component is a point mass at zero [see George and McCulloch (1993); Ishwaran and Rao (2005); Mitchell and Beauchamp (1988)]. In contrast, the nonparametric empirical Bayes approach assumes a fully nonparametric prior on the means which is estimated by general maximum likelihood, resulting in an estimate which is a discrete distribution with no more than p + 1support points. Our strategy is different from both the empirical Bayes with spike-and-slab priors and the general maximum likelihood empirical Bayes (GMLEB). To account for sparsity, we impose a mixture prior on the entries of the mean vector which admits a point mass at zero. The *signal* distribution, that is, the distribution of the non-zero means, is modeled as a finite mixture distribution whose component densities could have nonzero centers. Thus, the class of priors considered belong to an intermediate class between the spike-and-slab priors and the fully nonparametric priors. The finite mixture approach gives the flexibility of a nonparametric model while with the convenience of a parametric one, see e.g. Allison et al. (2002) and Muralidharan (2010).

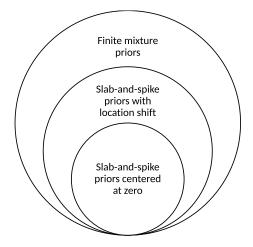


Figure 1: Relationship among priors.

One advantage of the proposed mixture prior is that it allows users to impose a point mass at zero, which implies sparsity in the posterior median or some other appropriate summary of the posterior (Raykar and Zhao, 2011). However, such a goal is not easily achieved for the GMLEB as its solution does not necessarily have a point mass at zero, and an additional thresholding step might be required to obtain a sparse solution. Another salient feature of the proposed prior is its added flexibility in modeling potential cluster structures in the nonzero entries. For example, the posterior mean and median associated with the proposed prior have a multi-direction shrinkage property that shrinks observation toward its nearest center (determined by data). By contrast, the posterior mean and median from usual spike-and-slab prior shrinks datum toward zero regardless its distance from the origin (although the amount of shrinkage may decrease as the observation gets farther away from zero). Focusing in particular on two-component mixture priors with a non-zero location parameter in the slab component, we provide an in-depth study of the properties of the posterior median, which is a thresholding rule and enjoys the two-directional shrinkage property. We show through numerical studies that inclusion of the location parameter (determined by the data) significantly improves the performance of the posterior median over JS (2004) when the nonzero entries exhibit certain cluster structure. It is also worth mentioning that the hyperparameters in the proposed prior can be estimated efficiently using the familiar EM-algorithm, which saves considerable computational cost in comparison with the GMLEB. A price we pay here is the selection of the number of components in the mixture prior, which can be overcome using classical model selection criterions such as the Bayesian information criterion (Fraley and Raftery, 2002).

We also study the risk properties of the posterior mean under the mixture prior. We propose to estimate the hyperparameters by minimizing the corresponding Stein Unbiased Risk Estimate (SURE). A uniform consistency result is proved to justify the theoretical validity of this procedure. As far as we are aware, the use of SURE to tune the hyperparameters in the current context has not been previously considered in the literature.

We further extend our results to sparse heteroscedastic normal mean models, where the noise can have different variances. Heteroscedastic normal mean models have been recently studied from the empirical Bayes perspective; see Tan (2015); Xie et al. (2012) and Weinstein et al. (2015). Our focus here is on the *sparse* case which has not been covered by the aforementioned works. The proposed approach is different from existing ones in terms of the prior as well as the way we tune the hyperparameters. Motivated by Xie et al. (2012), we propose a semiparametric approach to account for the ordering information contained in the variances in estimating the means. To obtain the marginal maximum likelihood estimator (MMLE), we develop a modified EM algorithm that invokes the pool-adjacent-violators (PAV) algorithm in M-step, see more details in Section 3.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. In Section 2.1, we begin with a formal introduction of the empirical Bayes procedure in the sparse normal mean models with two component mixture priors, where the density component has a (nonzero) location shift parameter. Section 2.2 studies the posterior median. Extensions to finite mixture priors on the means are considered in Section 2.3. Section 2.4 contains some results on the risk of the posterior mean and the uniform consistency for SURE. Section 3 concerns the heteroscedastic sparse normal mean models. Section 4 is devoted to numerical studies and empirical analysis of image data. The technical details are gathered in the appendix.

# 2 Sparse normal mean models

#### 2.1 Two component mixture priors and the MMLE

Throughout the paper, we assume that the mean vector  $(\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_p)$  is sparse in the sense that many or most of its components are zero. The notion of sparseness can be captured by independent prior distributions on each  $\mu_i$  given by the mixture,

$$f(\mu) = (1 - w)\delta_0(\mu) + wf_s(\mu), \quad w \in [0, 1],$$
(1)

where  $f_s$  is a density on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $\delta_0$  denotes a point mass at zero. While  $f_s$  is allowed to be completely unspecified in GMLEB, we aim to harness additional structure by modeling  $f_s$  in a semi-parametric way. To begin with, we model  $f_s$  via a location-scale family  $\gamma(., b, c)$  with scale parameter b and location parameter c, i.e.,  $\gamma(\mu; b, c) = b\gamma_0(b(\mu - c))$  with  $\gamma_0(\mu) = \gamma(\mu; 1, 0)$  and b > 0. Typical choices of  $\gamma$  include the double exponential or Laplace distribution,

$$\gamma(\mu; b, c) = \frac{1}{2}b\exp(-b|\mu - c|),$$
(2)

and the normal distribution

$$\gamma(\mu; b, c) = \frac{b}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\{-b^2(\mu - c)^2/2\},\tag{3}$$

for b > 0 and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Note that the location parameter c is equal to zero in the prior distribution suggested by JS (2004). Our numerical results in Section 4 suggest that location parameter, which captures cluster structure in signals, can play an important role in sparse normal mean estimation.

Let  $g(x; b, c) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \phi(x - \mu) \gamma(\mu; b, c) d\mu$  be the convolution of  $\phi(\cdot)$  and  $\gamma(\cdot; b, c)$ , where  $\phi(\cdot)$  denotes the standard normal density. Under (1), the marginal distribution for  $X_i$  is

$$m(x; w, b, c) = (1 - w)\phi(x) + wg(x; b, c),$$

and the corresponding posterior distribution for  $\mu_i$  is equal to

$$\pi(\mu | X_i = x, w, b, c) = (1 - \alpha(x))\delta_0(\mu) + \alpha(x)h(\mu | x, b, c),$$

where

$$\alpha(x) = \frac{wg(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} \quad \text{and} \quad h(\mu|x,b,c) = \frac{\phi(x-\mu)\gamma(\mu;b,c)}{g(x;b,c)}.$$

In the sequel, we proceed to estimate the parameters (w, b, c) by maximizing the marginal likelihood of **X**. Specifically, the MMLE  $(\hat{w}, \hat{b}, \hat{c})$  is defined as

$$(\hat{w}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}) = \arg\max\sum_{i=1}^{p} \log\{(1-w)\phi(X_i) + wg(X_i; b, c)\},\tag{4}$$

where the optimization is subject to the constraints that b > 0,  $-\max_{1 \le i \le p} |X_i| \le c \le \max_{1 \le i \le p} |X_i|$ , and  $0 \le w \le 1$ . The optimization problem (17) can be solved efficiently using the EM algorithm.

#### 2.2 The posterior median

In case of c = 0, JS (2004) noted that the median of the posterior distribution  $\pi(\mu_i|X_i = x, w, b, c)$ , denoted by  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$ , has the thresholding property, that is, the posterior median is exactly zero on a symmetric interval around the origin. The thresholding property continues to hold even when  $c \neq 0$ , whence there exist positive constants  $t_1(w, b, c)$  and  $t_2(w, b, c)$  such that  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = 0$  for any  $-t_2(w, b, c) \leq x \leq t_1(w, b, c)$ . For  $c \neq 0$ , the thresholding levels  $t_1(w, b, c)$  and  $t_2(w, b, c)$  are unequal, which results in an asymmetric thresholding rule, see Proposition 2.1. This is in sharp contrast with the case c = 0, where the posterior median is antisymmetric, i.e.,  $\delta(-x; w, b, 0) = -\delta(x; w, b, 0)$  [see Lemma 2 of JS (2004)]. Figures 2 plots the posterior median  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  as a function of x for various values of c. For  $c \neq 0$ , the posterior median enjoys the so-called two-direction shrinkage property i.e., when x is close to zero, it is being shrunk toward the origin; when x is close to c, it is being pulled toward c.

We present some properties regarding the posterior median below. For the sake of clarity, we set b = 1 and write  $\gamma(\mu; c) = \gamma(\mu; 1, c)$ ,  $\delta(x; w, c) = \delta(x; w, 1, c)$ , and g(x; w, c) = g(x; w, 1, c). The results can be extended to the general case by rescaling x and  $\mu$ .

**PROPOSITION 2.1.** Assume that there exit  $\Lambda, M > 0$  such that

$$\sup_{u>M} \left| \frac{d}{du} \log \gamma(u) \right| \le \Lambda.$$
(5)

The posterior median  $\delta(x; w, c)$  satisfies the following properties. (1)  $\delta(x; w, c)$  is a nondecreasing function of x;

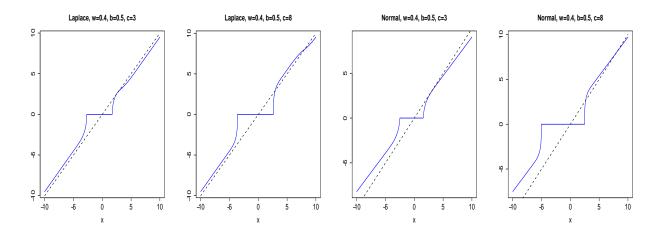


Figure 2: Posterior median function for w = 0.4, b = 0.5, and c = 3, 8, where the prior density component is double exponential or normal with the location parameter c.

(2) Suppose

$$\left|\int_{0}^{+\infty}\phi(\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu - \int_{-\infty}^{0}\phi(\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu\right| \le \frac{1-w}{\sqrt{2\pi}w}.$$
(6)

Then there exist  $t_1 := t_1(w, c) \ge 0$  and  $t_2 := t_2(w, c) \ge 0$  such that

$$\int_{0}^{+\infty} \phi(t_1 - \mu)\gamma(\mu; c)d\mu = (1 - w)\phi(t_1)/(2w) + g(t_1; c)/2,$$
(7)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{0} \phi(-t_2 - \mu)\gamma(\mu; c)d\mu = (1 - w)\phi(t_2)/(2w) + g(-t_2; c)/2,$$
(8)

and

$$\delta(x; w, c) \begin{cases} < 0, & if \quad x < -t_2, \\ = 0, & if \quad -t_2 \le x \le t_1, \\ > 0, & if \quad x > t_1. \end{cases}$$

(3)  $|\delta(x; w, c)| \le |x| \lor |c|$  for any  $0 \le w \le 1$  and c; (4) Under (6),  $|\delta(x; w, c) - x| \le t_1(w, c) \lor t_2(w, c) + c + c_0$  for some constant  $c_0 > 0$ .

REMARK 2.1. In the case of double exponential prior with b = 1 and c > 0, the threshold levels  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , and the weights and location parameter are related by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{w} + \beta(t_1; c) &= e^c \frac{\Phi(t_1 - 1 - c)}{\phi(t_1 - 1)} + e^{-c} \frac{\Phi(c - t_1 - 1) - \Phi(-t_1 - 1)}{\phi(t_1 + 1)},\\ \frac{1}{w} + \beta(-t_2; c) &= e^{-c} \frac{\Phi(c + t_2 - 1)}{\phi(t_2 - 1)}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\beta(t;c) = g(t;c)/\phi(t) - 1$ . See Figure 3.

The results in Proposition 2.1 are applicable to the double exponential prior with location shift.

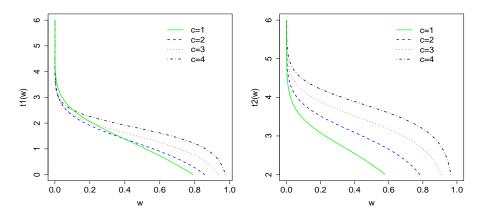


Figure 3: The threshold levels  $t_1(w; c)$  and  $t_2(w; c)$  as functions of non-zero prior mass w for the double exponential density with b = 1 and c = 1, 2, 3, 4.

However, Condition (5) requires the tails of  $\gamma$  to be exponential or heavier and thus rules out the Gaussian prior. In Section 5.1, we provide the closed-form representations for  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  when  $\gamma$  is double exponential or normal. Based on the explicit expressions, we obtain the following results for double exponential and Gaussian priors which reflect their different tail behaviors.

LEMMA 2.1. When  $\gamma$  is double exponential, the posterior median  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  has the following properties:

(1)  $\delta(c; w, b, c) - c \to 0 \text{ as } c \to +\infty.$ (2)  $\delta(x; w, b, c) - (x - b) \to 0 \text{ as } x - c \to +\infty \text{ and } x \to +\infty.$ (3)  $\delta(x; w, b, c) - (x + b) \to 0 \text{ as } x - c \to -\infty \text{ and } x \to -\infty.$ 

Property (1) shows that there is no shrinkage effect for the posterior median when x = c; Properties (2)-(3) suggest that the posterior median becomes a shrinkage rule as  $|x| \to +\infty$ . In other words, the effect of the atom at zero and the impact of c are both negligible as  $|x| \to +\infty$ .

LEMMA 2.2. When  $\gamma$  is normal, we have

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) - \frac{x/b^2 + c}{1/b^2 + 1} \rightarrow 0, \quad as \quad |x| \rightarrow +\infty.$$

We note that  $(x/b^2 + c)(1/b^2 + 1)$  is the posterior mean when w = 1. Intuitively, when c is close to the center of the nonzero components,  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  enjoys the property by shrinking x toward c, which may lead to further risk reduction as compared to the thresholding rules considered in JS (2004).

We would like to point out that the posterior median resulting from the prior with location-shift density component defines a new class of thresholding rules i.e.,  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$ . By (2) of Proposition 2.1, there exist two positive numbers  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  such that  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = 0$  if and only if  $-t_2 \le x \le t_1$ . Also  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  is strictly increasing for  $x > t_1$  and  $x < -t_2$ . Thus, the inverse function  $\delta^{-1}(t; w, b, c)$ is defined for any  $t \ne 0$ . Define the penalty function,

$$\mathcal{P}(\theta; w, b, c) = \begin{cases} \int_0^\theta (\delta^{-1}(t; w, b, c) - t) dt & \text{if } \theta \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } \theta = 0. \end{cases}$$
(9)

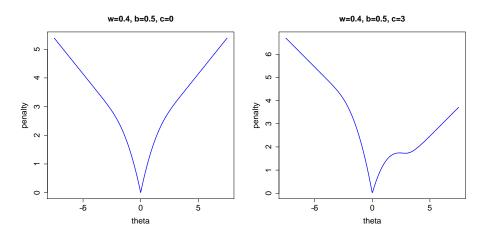


Figure 4: Penalty function for w = 0.4, b = 0.5 and c = 0, 3, where the prior density component is double exponential.

Consider the optimization problem

$$\hat{\theta} = \hat{\theta}(x; w, b, c) := \arg\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{2} (x - \theta)^2 + \mathcal{P}(\theta; w, b, c).$$
(10)

In the appendix, we prove that the solution to (10) is  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$ .

LEMMA **2.3**.  $\hat{\theta}(x; w, b, c) = \delta(x; w, b, c)$ .

Figure 4 plots the penalty function  $\mathcal{P}(\theta; w, b, c)$ , where  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  is the posterior median associated with the double exponential prior with w = 0.4, b = 0.5 and c = 0, 3. Compared to commonly used penalties, the penalty function here is nonstandard in the sense that it is asymmetric about zero, and is non-monotonic over  $[0, +\infty)$ . It is of interest to study the penalized regression problem based on the new penalty function  $\mathcal{P}(\theta; w, b, c)$ , and employ the empirical Bayes method to select the tuning parameters (w, b, c). We leave this topic to future research.

REMARK 2.2. We remark that the relationship between penalty function and its solution in location model as described in (10) holds for commonly used penalty functions such as Lasso, SCAD (Fan and Li, 2001) and MCP (Zhang, 2010).

REMARK 2.3. Besides the posterior median, a general class of Bayes thresholding rule which combines the soft and hard thresholding rules can be obtained by minimizing a mixture loss combining the  $l_p$ loss (for p > 0) and the  $l_0$  loss for the posterior distribution. See more details in Raykar and Zhao (2011).

## 2.3 Finite mixture priors

A natural extension to pursue here is to replace the density component  $\gamma$  by a finite mixture distribution, which can be used to model the cluster structure of the nonzero means [see Muralidharan (2010)]. Specifically, one can model  $f_s$  in (1) as a finite mixture distribution and consider the prior of the form

$$f(\mu,\theta) = w_0 \delta_0(\mu) + \sum_{j=1}^d w_j \gamma(\mu; b_j, c_j),$$

with  $w_j \ge 0$  and  $\sum_{j=0}^{d} w_j = 1$ , and  $\theta = (w_0, w_1, b_1, c_1, \dots, w_d, b_d, c_d)$ . Let

$$L(d,\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \log \left\{ w_0 \phi(X_i) + \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_j g(X_i; b_j, c_j) \right\}$$

be the log-marginal likelihood. In this case, the MMLE is defined as

$$\hat{\theta} := (\hat{w}_0, \hat{w}_1, \hat{b}_1, \hat{c}_1, \dots, \hat{w}_d, \hat{b}_d, \hat{c}_d) = \arg\max_{\theta} L(d; \theta),$$
(11)

subject to the constraints that  $0 \leq w_j \leq 1$ ,  $\sum_{j=0}^d w_j = 1$ ,  $b_j \geq 0$ , and  $-\max_{1\leq i\leq p} |X_i| \leq c_j \leq \max_{1\leq i\leq p} |X_i|$  for  $1 \leq j \leq d$ . As before, the solution to (11) can be obtained using the familiar EM algorithm. A sparse estimator for  $\mu_i$  is given by the posterior median  $\delta(X_i, \hat{\theta})$ , which is again a thresholding rule and has the multi-direction shrinkage property in the sense that it pulls  $X_j$  toward one of the data driven locations  $\hat{c}_j$  when  $X_j$  is away from zero, see Figure 5.

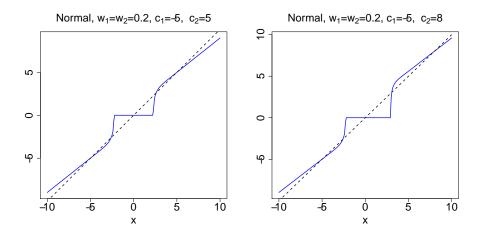


Figure 5: Posterior median function for d = 2, where the prior density component is normal mixture with the location parameters  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ .

In practice, the number of mixture components is often unknown. In the sparse regime, d is typically chosen as a relatively small number to model the cluster structure of the nonzero entries. For example, with d = 2 and the constraint that  $c_1 < 0 < c_2$ , the two density components are designed to model the negative and positive signals separately. Alternatively one can choose the number of clusters using the Bayesian information criterion [see e.g. Fraley and Raftery (2002)]. Specially, the choice of  $\hat{d}$  for d maximizes

$$L(d;\hat{\theta}) - 3\log(p)d/2,\tag{12}$$

over  $1 \le d \le M_0$ , where  $M_0$  is a pre-chosen upper bound. Leroux (1992) proved that model selection based on a comparison of BIC values does not underestimate the number of components; Keribin (1998) and Gassiat and Van Handel (2013) showed that BIC is consistent for selecting the number of components.

In the end of this subsection, we explain why the two/multi-direction shrinkage property would be a desirable feature through two examples.

1. Multiple testing: Consider multiple testing of p hypothesis, with the *i*th hypothesis  $H_{0,i}: \mu_i =$ 

0 versus the one-sided alternative  $H_{a,i}: \mu_i > 0$ , based on z-statistic  $z_i$  which is assumed to follow  $N(\mu_i, 1)$ . In this case, the location parameter c of the prior distribution is designed to capture the center of the nonzero  $\mu_i$ s. The null values are shrunk towards zero, while the non-zero values away from zero are shrunk towards the common center. If multiple clusters are expected among the non-zero  $\mu_i$ s, a location mixture naturally extends the above idea to capture the cluster centers. In fact, it is common in the literature to use gaussian location mixture models to model z-statistics (or p-values after the probit transform) under alternatives, see e.g. Effort (2004).

2. Homogeneity in regression analysis: Homogeneity in regression analysis is a low-dimensional structure which assumes that subject specific regression coefficients share only a few common clusters of values. As an illustration, consider the linear model:

$$y_i = x'_i \beta_i + \epsilon_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, p,$$

where  $y_i$  is the response variable for the *i*th subject,  $x_i$  is a set of covariates,  $\epsilon_i$  is the error term, and  $\beta_i$  is a regression parameter specific to subject *i*. To capture the heterogeneity, one can assume that the *p* subjects can be partitioned into *d* groups and the regression coefficients  $\beta_i$  are the same for subjects within the same group. In the literature, it is common to employ a fused lasso type penalty to encourage group structure by penalizing the pairwise differences between the coefficients of two subjects. Our proposed penalty  $\mathcal{P}$  provides an alternative way to encourage such cluster/group structure through its multi-directional shrinkage property. Our method is potentially useful in several concrete applications. For example, in gene network analysis, it is assumed that genes cluster into groups which play similar functions in molecular processes. It can be modeled as a linear regression problem with groups of homogeneous coefficients. In spatialtemporal studies, it is not unreasonable to assume the dynamics of neighboring geographical regions are similar, namely, their regression coefficients are clustered. See e.g. MacLehose and Dunson (2010) and Ke et al. (2015).

#### 2.4 The posterior mean and SURE

We have so far focused on the posterior median which is a thresholding rule. In this subsection, we turn to the posterior mean which is no longer a thresholding rule but enjoys the same multidirection shrinkage property as the posterior median does. We shall follow the setup in Section 2.3. Write  $g_j(x) = g(x; b_j, c_j)$  for  $0 \le j \le d$  with  $g_0(x) = \phi(x)$ . Let  $m(x) = \sum_{j=0}^d w_j g_j(x)$  and  $\rho_j(x) = w_j g_j(x)/m(x)$  for  $0 \le j \le d$ . By Tweedie's formula, the posterior mean can be written as

$$\zeta(x,\theta) = x + \nabla \log m(x),$$

where  $\nabla = \partial / \partial x$ .

Below we briefly discuss Stein's unbiased risk estimator (SURE; Stein (1981)) for the posterior mean. A function is said to be almost differentiable if it can be represented by well-defined integral of its almost-everywhere derivative. The following result was obtained by George (1986) based on Stein's lemma.

THEOREM 2.1. Suppose  $g_j$  and  $\nabla g_j$  are both almost differentiable. If

$$\mathbb{E}|\nabla^2 g_j(X_i)/g_j(X_i)| < \infty, \quad \mathbb{E}(\nabla \log g_j(X_i))^2 < \infty, \tag{13}$$

for  $0 \leq j \leq d$  and  $1 \leq i \leq p$ . Then the squared error risk can be expressed as

$$R(\theta) := \mathbb{E}\sum_{i=1}^{p} (\mu_i - \zeta(X_i, \theta))^2 = p - \mathbb{E}\sum_{i=1}^{p} D(X_i),$$

where  $D(X_i) = \sum_{j=0}^d \rho_j(X_i) D_j(X_i) - \sum_{0 \le j < k \le d} \rho_j(X_i) \rho_k(X_i) (\zeta_j(X_i) - \zeta_k(X_i))^2$  with  $D_j(X_i) = (\nabla \log g_j(X_i))^2 - 2\nabla^2 g_j(X_i) / g_j(X_i)$  and  $\zeta_j(X_i) = X_i + \nabla \log m_j(X_i)$ .

Clearly,  $\hat{R}(\theta) = p - \sum_{i=1}^{p} D(X_i)$  is an unbiased estimator of the risk  $R(\theta)$ , which we shall refer to as SURE henceforth. Note that  $\sum_{i=1}^{p} D(X_i)$  is an unbiased estimator of the amount of risk reduction offered by the posterior mean over the MLE **X**. When the prior is a normal mixture, the posterior mean has the form of

$$\zeta(X_i, \theta) = \sum_{j=0}^d \rho_j(X_i)\zeta_j(X_i, \theta), \quad \zeta_j(X_i, \theta) = \frac{X_i/b_j^2 + c_j}{1/b_j^2 + 1},$$

and

$$D_j(X_i, \theta) = \frac{2}{1/b_j^2 + 1} - \frac{(X_i - c_j)^2}{(1/b_j^2 + 1)^2},$$

where  $c_0 = 0$  and  $b_0 = \infty$ . Recall that  $\rho_j(X_i)$  is the posterior probability that  $X_i$  is from the *j*th component of the mixture model. When  $\rho_j(X_j) \gg \rho_k(X_i)$  for  $k \neq j$ ,  $\zeta_j(X_i, \theta)$  dominates in  $\zeta(X_i, \theta)$  and thus  $X_i$  is shrunk toward  $c_j$ .

As a consequence of Theorem 2.1, we obtain an explicit expression for  $D(X_i, \theta)$ .

COROLLARY 2.1. When the prior follows a normal mixture distribution, the unbiased estimator for the risk reduction is given by

$$D(X_i, \theta) = \sum_{j=0}^d \rho_j(X_i) \left\{ \frac{2}{1/b_j^2 + 1} - \frac{(X_i - c_j)^2}{(1/b_j^2 + 1)^2} \right\}$$
$$- \sum_{0 \le j < k \le d} \rho_j(X_i) \rho_k(X_i) \left( \frac{X_i/b_j^2 + c_j}{1/b_j^2 + 1} - \frac{X_i/b_k^2 + c_k}{1/b_k^2 + 1} \right)^2.$$

The first term in  $D(X_i, \theta)$  measures the goodness of fit of the mixture model to the data, while the second term penalizes the pairwise distance between any two posterior means (with respect to the prior  $\gamma_j$ ) weighted by the corresponding posterior probabilities  $\rho_j$  and  $\rho_k$ . In fact, maximizing the objective function  $\sum_{i=1}^{p} D(X_i, \theta)$  results in an estimate for the hyperparameters  $\theta$ , i.e.,

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{p} D(X_i, \theta).$$
(14)

In our simulations, we use the constrained version of the quasi-Newton BFGS (Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb and Shanno) method with multiple initial points to solve (14).

To study the properties of  $\theta$ , we shall focus on the case of two component mixture, i.e., d = 1. Let  $w = 1 - w_0$ ,  $b = b_1$  and  $c = c_1$ . To simplify the arguments, we set b = 1, and write g(x; c) = g(x, 1, c) and  $m(x; \theta) = m(x; w, 1, c) = m(x; w, c)$ . Given  $\theta = (w, c)$ , let  $\zeta(X_i; \theta) = X_i + \nabla \log m(X_i; \theta)$ . We state

our main result below. For  $a_1, a_2, a_3 > 0$ , denote by  $\Theta := \Theta(a_1, a_2, a_3) = \{(w, c) : w \in [1/(a_1 p^{a_2}), 1]$ and  $|c| \le a_3 \log(p)\}$ .

THEOREM 2.2. Suppose  $\gamma_0$  is unimodal and

$$\sup_{u} \left| \nabla^{j} \log \gamma_{0}(u) \right| \leq \Lambda \quad a.e., \tag{15}$$

for j = 1, 2. Moreover, assume that

$$|\nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(u) - \nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(u')| \le C|u - u'| \quad a.e.,$$
(16)

for some constant C > 0. Then we have uniformly for  $(\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_p) \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,

$$\max_{(w,c)\in\Theta} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w,c) - \mathbb{E}\hat{R}(w,c)| = O_p\left(\frac{(\log(p))^{3/2}}{\sqrt{p}}\right)$$

The same conclusion holds when  $\gamma_0$  is double exponential.

REMARK 2.4. A similar result as in Theorem 2.2 can be obtained for the Gaussian prior, whose proof involves the use of Gaussian concentration inequality for lipschitz functions. An additional assumption on the  $\ell_2$  norm of the mean vector is needed in this case. In our simulations, SURE based on the Gaussian prior performs as well as the one based on the double exponential prior.

REMARK 2.5. Let  $(\hat{w}, \hat{c}) = \arg \min_{(w,c) \in \Theta} \hat{R}(w,c)$  and  $(\tilde{w}, \tilde{c}) = \arg \min_{(w,c) \in \Theta} R(w,c)$  with  $R(w,c) = \mathbb{E}[\hat{R}(w,c)]$ . As a consequence of Theorem 2.2, we have

$$p^{-1}\{\hat{R}(\hat{w},\hat{c}) - R(\tilde{w},\tilde{c})\} = p^{-1}\{\hat{R}(\hat{w},\hat{c}) - \hat{R}(\tilde{w},\tilde{c}) + \hat{R}(\tilde{w},\tilde{c}) - R(\tilde{w},\tilde{c})\} \le p^{-1}\{\hat{R}(\tilde{w},\tilde{c}) - R(\tilde{w},\tilde{c})\} \le \sup_{(w,c)\in\Theta} p^{-1}|\hat{R}(w,c) - R(w,c)| = O_p\left(\frac{(\log(p))^{3/2}}{\sqrt{p}}\right),$$

which implies that  $p^{-1}\hat{R}(\hat{w},\hat{c}) \leq p^{-1}R(\tilde{w},\tilde{c}) + O_p\left(\frac{(\log(p))^{3/2}}{\sqrt{p}}\right)$ .

# 3 Heteroscedastic models

In this section, we extend our results to the heteroscedastic case (i.e., the unequal variance case). A heteroscedastic model is conceptually more appealing for real world applications as the assumption of equal variance for the different  $X_i$ s may be restrictive and often not satisfied. For example, Brown (2008) analyzed the batting records for all the Major League Baseball players in the season of 2005 by performing a variance stabilizing transformation to proportion of hits for each player. It can be shown that the variance of the transformed variable for each player depends on the number of times at bat, and hence different across players. Other examples include mixture modeling for wavelet coefficients where the variance of wavelet coefficient depends on the level of transformation [Silverman (1999)], and multiple testing where the variance of z-statistic relies on the number of samples.

Motivated by the above and many other applications, we consider the model,

$$X_i = \mu_i + \epsilon_i, \quad \epsilon_i \sim^{i.i.d} N(0, \sigma_i^2)$$

for  $1 \leq i \leq p$ . As before, we impose the mixture prior distribution on  $\mu_i$  i.e.,  $f(\mu) = (1 - w)\delta_0(\mu) + w\gamma(\mu; b, c)$ , where the nonzero component of the prior,  $\gamma$ , belongs to a location-scale family. Recall that g(x; b, c) denotes the convolution between  $\phi(\cdot)$  and  $\gamma(\cdot; b, c)$ . Direct calculation shows that  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (1/\sigma_i)\phi((x-\mu)/\sigma_i)\gamma(\mu; b, c)d\mu = (1/\sigma_i)g(x/\sigma_i, b\sigma_i, c/\sigma_i)$ . The MMLE  $(\hat{w}, \hat{b}, \hat{c})$  is then defined as,

$$(\hat{w}, \hat{b}, \hat{c}) = \arg\max\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log\{(1-w)\phi(Y_i) + wg(Y_i; b\sigma_i, c/\sigma_i)\}, \quad Y_i := X_i/\sigma_i,$$
(17)

subject to the constraints that b > 0 and  $0 \le w \le 1$ .

We propose an alternative method below that takes into account the order information in the variances, which is useful in estimating the means [see Xie et al. (2012)]. From (17), we see that  $b_i := b\sigma_i$  is a monotonic increasing function of  $\sigma_i$ . In other words, we have  $b_i \ge b_j$  if  $\sigma_i \ge \sigma_j \ge 0$ . This observation suggests us to consider the optimization problem,

$$(\hat{w}, \hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_p, \hat{c}) = \arg\max\sum_{i=1}^n \log\{(1-w)\phi(Y_i) + wg(Y_i; b_i, c/\sigma_i)\},$$
 (18)

subject to the ordering constraint

$$b_i \ge b_j > 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j.$$
 (19)

Here we impose a monotone constraint on  $\{b_i\}$  according to the ordering of the variances. We shall call the resulting estimator semi-parametric MMLE. As seen in Section 4, the performance of the normal density component and double exponential density component are generally close in the homogeneous case. Therefore, we shall focus on the case of normal prior, and develop an efficient algorithm to solve (18). Our algorithm is a modification of the EM algorithm which invokes the PAV algorithm in its M-step. The PAV algorithm is a classical and efficient algorithm for solving regression problems under monotone constraint [see Section 1.2 of Robertson et al. (1988)]. If skillfully implemented, PAVA has a computational complexity of O(p) with p being the sample size. Although the PAV algorithm has been well studied in the literature [Robertson et al. (1988) and Barlow (1972)], its use with the EM algorithm appears to be new at least in our context. The details are summarized in Algorithm 1 below.

Define

$$l(w,\tau_1,\ldots,\tau_p,c) = \sum_{i=1}^p Q_{1i} \left\{ \log(1-w) - \log(Q_{1i}) - \frac{Y_i^2}{2} \right\} + \sum_{i=1}^p Q_{2i} \left\{ \log(w) - \log(Q_{2i}) - \frac{1}{2} \log(1+\tau_i) - \frac{(Y_i - c/\sigma_i)^2}{2+2\tau_i} \right\}.$$

Consider the optimization problem,

$$\max_{w,\tau_1,\dots,\tau_p,c} l(w,\tau_1,\dots,\tau_p,c) \quad \text{subject to} \quad 0 \le \tau_i \le \tau_j \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j.$$
(22)

For fixed c, maximizing  $l(w, \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_p, c)$  with respect to  $(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_p)$  is equivalent to solving (20). On the other hand, for fixed  $(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_p)$ , the maximizers of  $l(w, \tau_1, \ldots, \tau_p, c)$  with respect to w and c are given in (21). Therefore, the iteration between (20) and (21) is essentially a coordinate descent algorithm for solving (22).

### Algorithm 1

- 0. Input the initial values  $(w^{(0)}, c^{(0)}, b_1^{(0)}, \dots, b_p^{(0)})$ .
- 1. **E-step:** Given  $(w, c, b_1, ..., b_p)$ , let

$$Q_{1i} = \frac{(1-w)\phi(Y_i)}{(1-w)\phi(Y_i) + wg(Y_i; \tau_i^{-1/2}, c/\sigma_i)} \quad \text{and} \quad Q_{2i} = 1 - Q_{1i},$$

where  $\tau_i = 1/b_i^2$  for  $1 \le i \le p$ . 2. **M-step:** For fixed c, solve the optimization problem

$$(\hat{\tau}_1, \dots, \hat{\tau}_p) = \arg\min\sum_{i=1}^p Q_{2i} \left\{ \log(1+\tau_i) + \frac{(Y_i - c/\sigma_i)^2}{1+\tau_i} \right\} \quad \text{subject to} \quad 0 \le \tau_i \le \tau_j \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j,$$
(20)

For fixed  $(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_p)$ , let

$$\hat{c} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{2i} Y_i / \{\sigma_i(1+\tau_i)\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{2i} / \{\sigma_i^2(1+\tau_i)\}} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{w} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{2i}.$$
(21)

Iterate between (20) and (21) until convergence. 3. Repeat the above E-step and M-step until the algorithm converges.

The order constraint optimization problem (20) can be solved effectively using the PAV algorithm for isotonic regression. Notice that

$$(Y_i - c/\sigma_i)^2 - 1 = \arg\min_{\tau_i} \{\log(1 + \tau_i) + (Y_i - c/\sigma_i)^2/(1 + \tau_i)\}.$$

Consider the weighted isotonic regression,

$$(\tilde{\tau}_1, \dots, \tilde{\tau}_p) = \arg\min\sum_{i=1}^p Q_{2i} \left\{ (Y_i - c/\sigma_i)^2 - 1 - \tau_i \right\}^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad 0 \le \tau_i \le \tau_j \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j.$$
(23)

Let  $\hat{\tau}_i = \max{\{\tilde{\tau}_i, 0\}}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq p$ . By Chapter 1 of Robertson et al. (1988), we have the following result.

PROPOSITION **3.1**. The solution to (20) is  $(\hat{\tau}_1, \ldots, \hat{\tau}_p)'$ .

REMARK **3.1**. Notice that  $c/\sigma_i$  is a monotonic increasing function of  $\sigma_i$  if c < 0 while it is monotonic decreasing when c > 0. However, as the sign of c is generally unknown, it seems less convenient to use the monotonic constraint on location parameters.

To end this subsection, we remark that the method can also be extended to the mixture models described in Section 2.3. In particular, one can consider the following MMLE,

$$(\hat{w}_0, \hat{w}_k, \hat{b}_{ki}, \hat{c}_k)_{k=1,2,\dots,d} = \arg\max\sum_{i=1}^n \log\left\{ (1-w_0)\phi(Y_i) + \sum_{k=1}^d w_k g(Y_i; b_{ki}, c_k/\sigma_i) \right\},$$

subject to the ordering constraint

$$b_{ki} \ge b_{kj} > 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j,$$

$$(24)$$

and  $\sum_{k=0}^{d} w_k = 1$  for  $w_k \ge 0$ . The EM + PAV algorithm can again be employed to solve the optimization problem. The details of the algorithm are presented in Section 5.4.

# 4 Numerical studies

#### 4.1 Two component mixture priors

We conduct simulation studies to compare and contrast the method in Section 2.1 with JS (2004) as well as the general maximum likelihood empirical Bayes (denoted by GMLEB and S-GMLEB) in Jiang and Zhang (2009), shape constrained rule (SCR) in Koenker and Mizera (2014) and the nonparametric empirical Bayes method (NEB) in Brown and Greenshtein (2009). We consider two prior density components namely the double exponential and normal densities. Following the well-established design of JS (2004), we generate a single observation  $\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mu_0, I_p)$  with p = 1000. Here  $\mu_0$  contains k = 5,50 or 500 nonzero entries with the same value v = 3, 4, 5 or 7.

The simulation results are summarized in Table 1. Because the non-null observations are being shrunk toward the data-driven location, the proposed method outperforms JS (2004) and the nonparametric competitors in all cases as the nonzero entries are all equal. The posterior median has slightly higher squared errors comparing to the posterior mean. However, it produces an exact sparse solution, which is desirable if the goal is to recover the support of signals or do feature selection. We also note that the two density components perform similarly despite their different tail behaviors.

Table 2 reports the MMLE for w as well as the false positive numbers (FP) and false negative numbers (FN) for the posterior median. The FP for our method is consistently lower than that of JS (2004). As the underlying model is indeed a two-component normal mixture,  $\hat{w}$  in our method provides a reasonable estimation of the nonzero proportion when the signal strength is relatively strong or the signal is not too sparse. However, when the location parameter c is set to be zero in JS (2004),  $\hat{w}$ provides a less meaningful estimation of the nonzero proportion. Furthermore, Table 3 summarizes the average of total  $\ell_1$  loss for the proposed method, JS (2004)'s approach as well as the posterior mean and posterior median based on Kiefer and Wolfowitz (1956)'s nonparametric maximum likelihood estimator (NPMLE). We implement Kiefer and Wolfowitz's procedure using the R package REBayes; see Koenker and Gu (2016). It is clear that the proposed method outperforms other approaches in this case. Although the Bayes rule (posterior mean) based on NPMLE has superior performance in terms of  $l_2$  loss, its  $l_1$  loss is considerably higher which is likely due to the non-sparseness of its solution.

In Table 4, we further report some simulation results following the setting in Table 4 of Jiang and Zhang (2009), where p = 1000 and  $\mu_j \sim^{i.i.d} N(\tilde{\mu}, \sigma^2)$ . For such design, James-Stein estimator is the best performer. It is interesting to see that our method performs as well as the James-Stein estimator when normal density is employed. Note that in this setup, the performance of the posterior median in JS (2004) considerably worsens and the improvement by including a location parameter is significant.

We also note that the posterior mean based on SURE performs competitively with the empirical Bayes counterpart. Overall, our method has reasonably good finite sample performance at the expense of low computational overhead compared to nonparametric empirical Bayes and having the advantage of no tuning as compared to the nonparametric approaches.

#### 4.2 Finite mixture priors

To evaluate the performance of the method proposed in Section 2.3, we modify the setting in JS (2004) by considering the models with  $\mu_i = v$  for  $1 \le i \le k$  and  $\mu_i = -v$  for  $k + 1 \le i \le 2k$ , where v = 3, 4, 5, 7 and k = 5, 50, 250. To conserve space, we only present the results with normal density

Table 1: Average of total squared error of estimation of various methods on a mixed signal of length 1000. The numbers for GMLEB, S-GMLEB, SCR and NEB are adapted from Jiang and Zhang (2009), Koenker and Mizera (2014), and Brown and Greenshtein (2009) respectively. The results for SCR and NEB are based on 1000 and 50 simulation runs, while the results for other methods are based on 100 simulation runs. Boldface entries denote the best performer.

		<i>k</i> =	= 5			k =	50			k =	500	
v	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
L-Exp (median)	34	26	16	4	178	117	53	7	551	341	141	9
L-Exp (mean)	<b>32</b>	<b>25</b>	15	4	<b>148</b>	97	46	8	445	<b>277</b>	119	13
L-Normal (median)	35	28	17	3	184	123	53	<b>5</b>	584	366	160	14
L-Normal (mean)	34	27	15	3	155	102	<b>45</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>443</b>	279	124	12
L-Exp-S (mean)	35	28	16	5	153	102	46	$\overline{7}$	447	283	129	19
L-Normal-S (mean)	35	28	15	5	153	102	46	$\overline{7}$	444	280	126	16
Exp	36	30	18	9	211	151	101	72	852	870	780	656
GMLEB	39	34	23	11	157	105	58	14	459	285	139	18
S-GMLEB	<b>32</b>	28	17	6	150	99	54	10	454	282	136	15
SCR	37	34	21	11	173	121	63	16	488	310	145	22
NEB	53	49	42	27	179	136	81	40	484	302	158	48

Note: L-Exp/L-Normal (L-Exp-S/L-Normal-S) denote the proposed empirical Bayes (Stein's) method, where the density component of the prior is double exponential or normal with location shift.

components. As seen from Table 5, when  $m \ge 2$ , the posterior mean and median based on the finite mixture models perform as well as their NPMLE counterparts. For k = 50 and k = 250, we see a significant improvement by including additional mixing component(s). The total square errors are not sensitive to the choice of m as long as  $m \ge 2$ . Table 6 summarizes the false positive/negative numbers (FP/FN) for the posterior median. The mixture models with  $m \ge 2$  greatly reduce the FP numbers for k = 50, 250. However, the over-fitted models may deliver higher false positive numbers for dense and weak signals as compared to the correctly specified model. To select the number of components, we implement the BIC criterion described in (12) with the upper bound  $M_0 = 6$ . It is seen that the BIC criterion generally selects the true number of clusters and the corresponding estimators perform reasonably well when the signals are not too weak or sparse.

#### 4.3 Heteroscedastic models

In this subsection, we present some numerical results to demonstrate the finite sample performance of the semi-parametric MMLE for heteroscedastic models. To this end, we generate a single observation  $\mathbf{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \Sigma)$ , where  $\mu_0 = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_p)$  and  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1^2, \dots, \sigma_p^2)$ . Consider the following models, where v = 3, 5, 4, 7, and K = 5, 50, 500.

- (A)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_2 \leq \cdots \leq \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j = v$  for  $1 \leq j \leq K$  and zero otherwise.
- (B)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j = v$  for  $1 \le j \le K$  and zero otherwise.
- (C)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_2 \leq \cdots \leq \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j \sim N(v, 1)$  for  $1 \leq j \leq K$  and zero otherwise.

			k/p =	0.005			k/p =	= 0.05			k/p	= 0.5	
v		3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
L-Exp	$\hat{w}$	0.086	0.022	0.010	0.005	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.51	0.50	0.50	0.50
-	$\mathbf{FP}$	15.8	2.0	0.7	0.1	6.5	3.2	0.9	0.0	36.2	12.2	3.3	0.1
	$_{\rm FN}$	2.7	0.9	0.3	0.0	14.5	4.6	1.3	0.0	30.6	10.6	2.8	0.1
L-Normal	$\hat{w}$	0.051	0.017	0.008	0.006	0.08	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50
	$\mathbf{FP}$	1.2	0.9	0.5	0.1	8.1	3.6	1.0	0.1	35.1	12.0	3.1	0.2
	$_{\rm FN}$	3.2	1.2	0.3	0.0	14.5	4.7	1.2	0.0	31.6	11.3	3.4	0.1
Exp	$\hat{w}$	0.137	0.056	0.029	0.014	0.23	0.18	0.14	0.10	1.00	1.00	0.89	0.74
-	$\mathbf{FP}$	33.2	11.0	0.9	0.5	15.3	10.8	7.4	3.8	500	500	310.0	97.3
	$_{\rm FN}$	3.2	1.2	0.3	0.0	14.5	3.5	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 2: MMLE for w, and the false positive numbers (FP) and false negative numbers (FN) for the posterior medians of the proposed method and JS (2004)'s method.

Note: L-Exp/L-Normal denote the proposed empirical Bayes method, where the density component of the prior is double exponential or normal with location shift.

- (D)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j \sim N(v, 1)$  for  $1 \le j \le K$  and zero otherwise.
- (E)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_2 \leq \cdots \leq \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j = v$  for  $\lfloor (p-K)/2 \rfloor \leq j \leq \lfloor (p+K)/2 \rfloor 1$  and zero otherwise.
- (F)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \leq \sigma_2 \leq \cdots \leq \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j \sim N(v, 1)$  for  $\lfloor (p K)/2 \rfloor \leq j \leq \lfloor (p + K)/2 \rfloor 1$  and zero otherwise.
- (G)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j = v$  for  $\lfloor (p-K)/2 \rfloor \le j \le \lfloor (p+K)/2 \rfloor 1$  and zero otherwise.
- (H)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.5)$ . Sort  $\{\sigma_i\}$  so that  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_p$ . Let  $\mu_j \sim N(v, 1)$  for  $\lfloor (p-K)/2 \rfloor \le j \le \lfloor (p+K)/2 \rfloor 1$  and zero otherwise.
- (I)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.01)$ . Let  $\mu_j = v$  for  $1 \leq j \leq K$  and zero otherwise.
- (J)  $\sigma_i \sim^{i.i.d} \text{Unif}(1, 1.01)$ . Let  $\mu_j \sim N(v, 1)$  for  $1 \leq j \leq K$  and zero otherwise.

We compare the performance of the posterior mean and median delivered by the MMLE in (17) and (18). The simulation results are reported in Table 7. In models (A)-(D), the semi-parametric estimator generally outperforms the estimator which dose not take into account the order structure. We observe improvement regardless of the direction of the order. In models (E)-(H) where the signals correspond to moderate variances, the semiparametric approach delivers better results in most cases when v = 3, 4, 5. In models (I)-(J) which contain no order information, the semiparametric procedure is very comparable with the parametric procedure without using the order structure. Overall, the performance of the semi-parametric approach is quite robust and its computational cost is moderate due to the efficiency of the PAV algorithm.

Table 3: Average of total  $\ell_1$  loss of estimation of various methods on a mixed signal of length 1000. The results are based on 100 simulation runs. Boldface entries denote the best performer.

		<i>k</i> =	- 5			k =	50			k =	500	
		κ -	- 0			$\kappa =$	50			$\kappa =$	500	
v	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
L-Exp (median)	13	9	6	3	69	38	18	8	229	119	56	27
L-Exp (mean)	38	22	11	3	107	57	25	9	327	173	83	38
L-Normal (median)	21	10	6	3	72	39	<b>18</b>	8	<b>225</b>	116	<b>52</b>	<b>23</b>
L-Normal (mean)	39	23	12	4	115	58	25	8	310	157	68	24
L-Exp-S (mean)	32	19	8	4	113	60	26	9	329	177	90	44
L-Normal-S (mean)	33	19	8	4	114	59	25	8	312	158	70	24
Exp	14	11	8	6	96	73	58	49	708	720	620	501
NPMLE (median)	66	65	64	64	125	93	79	71	274	164	99	72
NPMLE (mean)	52	47	41	37	134	88	59	43	329	181	95	51

Note: L-Exp/L-Normal (L-Exp-S/L-Normal-S) denote the proposed empirical Bayes (Stein's) method, where the density component of the prior is double exponential or normal with location shift.

### 4.4 Application to wavelet approximation

We apply the method in Section 3 to wavelet coefficient estimation. Suppose we have observations

$$X_i = h(t_i) + \epsilon_i$$

of a function  $h(\cdot)$  at  $N = 2^J$  regularly spaced points  $t_i$  with  $\epsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma_i^2)$ , where N and J are positive integers. Let  $d_{jk}$  be the elements of the discrete wavelet transformation (DWT) of the sequence  $h(t_i)$ . Similarly write  $d_{jk}^*$  the DWT of the observed data  $X_i$ . At the *j*th level, we set up a model:

$$d_{jk}^* = d_{jk} + \tilde{\sigma}_{jk}\varepsilon_{jk}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, N_j, \tag{25}$$

where  $\varepsilon_{jk} \sim N(0,1)$ . At level j, we estimate  $d_{jk}$  by the posterior median

$$\hat{d}_{jk} = \delta^H(d^*_{jk}; \hat{w}, \hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_p, \hat{c}),$$

and the posterior mean,

$$\check{d}_{jk} = \zeta^H(d_{jk}^*; \hat{w}, \hat{b}_1, \dots, \hat{b}_p, \hat{c}),$$

where  $(\hat{w}, \hat{b}_1, \ldots, \hat{b}_p, \hat{c})$  is the solution to (18) based on  $\{d_{jk}^*\}_{k=1}^{N_j}$ . In practice, the noise  $\tilde{\sigma}_{jk}$  are unknown and need to be replaced by estimate  $\hat{\sigma}_{jk}$ . Finally, we apply the inverse DWT to  $\hat{d}_{jk}$  (or  $\check{d}_{jk}$ ) to get the wavelet approximation for  $X_i$ .

As an illustration, we employ the proposed method to process the wavelet transform of a twodimensional image. We consider the image of Ingrid Daubechies contained in the waveslim package in R. After loading the image, we reverse its sign, in order to obtain an image that comes out in positive rather than negative when using the image with the option col=gray(1:100/100) in R. We then construct a noisy image by adding heteroscedastic normal noise to each pixel. In particular, the standard deviation of the noise we add to the (i, j)th pixels is  $(i + j)/a_0$  for  $a_0 = 10, 15, 20$ . Following Silverman and Johnstone (2005), we construct the two-dimensional wavelet transform using

Table 4: Average of total squared error of estimation of various methods on a mixed signal of length 1000. The numbers for James-Stein, GMLEB, and S-GMLEB are adapted from Jiang and Zhang (2009). Boldface entries denote the best two performers.

		$\sigma^2 =$	= 0.1			$\sigma^2=2$			$\sigma^2 = 40$	)
$ ilde{\mu}$	3	4	5	7	3	5	7	3	5	7
L-Exp (median)	94	94	93	92	722	704	704	989	1007	1014
L-Exp (mean)	93	93	93	93	692	689	689	986	990	994
L-Normal (median)	94	95	94	93	667	666	666	978	977	977
L-Normal (mean)	94	94	93	93	666	665	666	977	977	977
L-Exp-S (mean)	<b>92</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>92</b>	<b>92</b>	685	684	684	982	982	982
L-Normal-S (mean)	94	93	93	93	665	<b>664</b>	<b>664</b>	<b>974</b>	<b>974</b>	<b>974</b>
Exp	1086	1066	1044	1022	1020	1037	1022	990	994	999
GMLEB	94	94	95	95	675	678	673	1001	1015	1009
S-GMLEB	97	98	99	98	678	681	675	1002	1015	1009
James-Stein	92	92	92	93	665	670	665	970	982	975

Note: L-Exp/L-Normal (L-Exp-S/L-Normal-S) denote the proposed empirical Bayes (Stein's) method, where the density component of the prior is double exponential or normal with location shift.

the routine dwt.2d and the Daubechies d6 wavelet. As pointed out in Silverman and Johnstone (2005), it may be appropriate to use dictionaries other than the standard two-dimensional wavelet transform. Here we mainly use this example to illustrate how our method can be used in a broader context. To estimate the standard deviation of the noise, we partition the wavelet coefficients at the finest scale into  $m \times m$  blocks over space, and use median-absolute deviation to estimate the standard deviation of noise at each of the  $m^2$  blocks. In our analysis, we set m = 8 and 16, which deliver very similar results. At each level, the wavelet coefficients in the same block are assumed to have the same standard deviation. Figure 6 shows the original and noisy images. We apply the method in Section 3, Johnstone and Silverman (2005)'s procedure with the double exponential density component and the NPMLE method (implemented in the R package REBayes) to the wavelet coefficients at each level, and then invert the transform using the R function idwt.2d to find the final estimate. To implement Johnstone and Silverman (2005)'s approach, we let  $d_{ij} = \hat{\sigma}_{ij}\delta(d_{ij}/\hat{\sigma}_{ij}; \hat{w}, \hat{b})$  with  $\hat{\sigma}_{ij}$  being the above blockwise estimate of the standard deviation. Here  $\delta(\cdot; \hat{w}, \hat{b})$  denotes the posterior median, and  $(\hat{w}, \hat{b})$  are the MMLEs with the location parameter being zero.

To quantify the performance of different methods, we consider  $MSE = \sum_{i,j=1}^{256} (h(t_{ij}) - \hat{h}(t_{ij}))^2$ , where  $h(t_{ij})$  and  $\hat{h}(t_{ij})$  denote the (i, j)th pixel values for the original image and the reconstructed image respectively. Table 8 summarizes the ratios of the MSE of the proposed method and NPMLE procedure to that of Johnstone and Silverman (2005). Both the semiparametric estimator and the NPMLE based estimators provide an improvement over Johnstone and Silverman (2005). Our semiparametric approach is slightly better than the NPMLE in a few cases, and the posterior mean delivers better results as compared to the posterior median.

			2k =	= 10			2k =	= 100			2k =	= 500	
	m	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
L-Normal (mean)	1	61	51	32	18	320	264	198	150	821	821	748	663
L-Normal (median)	1	65	53	28	16	334	240	168	133	821	779	693	618
L-Normal (mean)	2	62	53	33	18	300	203	94	10	628	391	168	14
L-Normal (median)	2	65	54	28	14	370	246	114	12	803	505	213	17
L-Normal (mean)	3	63	53	33	19	301	204	97	14	630	394	172	19
L-Normal (median)	3	65	53	28	15	370	244	112	13	792	499	209	18
L-Normal (mean)	4	63	53	34	19	301	204	97	14	631	395	173	19
L-Normal (median)	4	65	53	28	15	371	244	11	14	790	498	211	19
L-Normal (mean)	5	63	53	34	19	301	205	97	15	631	396	173	20
L-Normal (median)	5	65	53	28	15	371	244	111	14	793	498	210	19
L-Normal (mean)	BIC	61	51	32	18	318	205	94	10	628	391	168	14
L-Normal (median)	BIC	65	53	28	16	338	245	114	12	803	505	213	17
Exp (median)	NA	64	52	28	16	335	251	180	140	860	875	786	659
NPMLE (mean)	NA	63	53	30	10	302	206	99	16	633	397	174	22
NPMLE (median)	NA	74	63	39	17	383	255	120	27	830	516	221	34

Table 5: Average of total squared error of estimation of various methods on a mixed signal of length 1000. The results are based on 100 simulation runs.



Figure 6: Original image (left), noisy image (middle) and reconstructed image based on the posterior mean from the proposed method (right) of Ingrid Daubechies, where  $a_0 = 15$ .

# 5 Appendix

# 5.1 Closed-form representations for posterior median

**Double exponential**: We provide the closed-form representation for  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  when the prior density component is double exponential with location shift. We derive the result under the normal model  $X|\mu \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Let  $g_+(x; b, c) = (1/\sigma) \int_c^{+\infty} \phi((x - \mu)/\sigma)\gamma(\mu; b, c)d\mu = (b/2) \exp(-bx + b^2\sigma^2/2 + cb)\Phi((x - c)/\sigma - b\sigma)$  and  $\tilde{g}_+(x; b, c) = (b/2) \exp(-bx + b^2\sigma^2/2 + cb)\Phi(x/\sigma - b\sigma)$ . Here we

			2k/p =	= 0.01			2k/p =	= 0.10			2k/p :	= 0.5	
	m	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
FP	1	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.8	28.5	20.5	13.7	7.1	495.6	307.6	153.2	61.5
FN	1	6.0	2.3	0.4	0.0	20.6	4.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
$\mathbf{FP}$	2	2.3	2.1	1.6	0.9	15.0	7.0	2.3	0.2	45.8	16.7	4.6	0.2
FN	2	5.9	2.1	0.3	0.0	28.7	9.3	2.5	0.0	48.2	16.1	4.1	0.1
$\mathbf{FP}$	3	2.9	2.7	2.0	1.1	16.1	7.8	2.9	0.5	98.5	21.6	5.8	0.6
$_{\rm FN}$	3	5.8	2.0	0.3	0.0	28.0	8.8	2.2	0.0	31.2	13.6	3.6	0.0
$\mathbf{FP}$	4	4.0	3.7	2.7	1.4	16.7	8.0	3.0	0.6	203.9	23.0	6.0	0.7
FN	4	5.4	1.8	0.2	0.0	27.6	8.7	2.1	0.0	23.8	13.0	3.4	0.0
$\mathbf{FP}$	5	7.7	6.8	4.5	2.2	17.2	8.1	3.0	0.6	280.6	23.8	6.1	0.7
$_{\rm FN}$	5	4.9	1.7	0.2	0.0	27.4	8.6	2.1	0.0	19.5	12.8	3.4	0.0
$\mathbf{FP}$	BIC	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.8	27.5	7.7	2.3	0.2	45.8	16.6	4.6	0.2
$_{\rm FN}$	BIC	6.0	2.3	0.4	0.0	21.4	9.1	2.5	0.1	48.2	16.1	4.1	0.1
FP (Exp)	NA	2.7	1.7	1.4	0.8	51.9	28.9	18.0	8.9	500.0	500.0	317.5	98.6
FN (Exp)	NA	5.8	2.1	0.3	0.0	14.3	3.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Table 6: The false positive numbers (FP) and false negative numbers (FN) for the posterior median based on the finite mixture models.

suppress the dependence on  $\sigma$ . Note that,

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{a}^{+\infty} \phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \gamma(\mu; b, c) d\mu = (b/2) \exp(-bx + b^2 \sigma^2/2 + cb) \Phi\left(\frac{x-a}{\sigma} - b\sigma\right),$$

for a > c, and

$$\frac{1}{\sigma} \int_{a}^{c} \phi\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right) \gamma(\mu; b, c) d\mu = (b/2) \exp(bx + b^{2}\sigma^{2}/2 - cb) \left\{ \Phi\left(\frac{c-x}{\sigma} - b\sigma\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{a-x}{\sigma} - b\sigma\right) \right\},$$

for  $a \leq c$ . Then we have  $g(x; b, c) = g_+(x; b, c) + g_+(-x; b, -c)$ , where g denotes the convolution between  $\phi_{\mu,\sigma^2}(\cdot)$  and  $\gamma(\cdot; b, c)$ . Recall that  $m(x; w, b, c) = (1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x) + wg(x; b, c)$ . Assuming x > 0, straightforward but tedious calculation shows that: Case 1: if c > 0 and  $2wg_+(x; b, c) \geq m(x; w, b, c)$ ,

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) = x - b\sigma^2 + \sigma \Phi^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{m(x; w, b, c)\Phi((x - c)/\sigma - b\sigma)}{2wg_+(x; b, c)} \right).$$

Case 2: if c > 0 and

$$1 - \frac{2wg_{+}(-x,b,-c)\{\Phi((c-x)/\sigma - b\sigma) - \Phi(-x/\sigma - b\sigma)\}}{m(x;w,b,c)\Phi((c-x)/\sigma - b\sigma)} \le \frac{2wg_{+}(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} < 1,$$

then

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) = x + b\sigma^2 + \sigma\Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{\Phi((c-x)/\sigma - b\sigma)}{g_+(-x, b, -c)}\left\{g(x; b, c) - \frac{m(x; w, b, c)}{2w}\right\}\right).$$

Case 3: if c > 0 and

$$\frac{2wg_{+}(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} < 1 - \frac{2wg_{+}(-x,b,-c)\{\Phi((c-x)/\sigma - b\sigma) - \Phi(-x/\sigma - b\sigma)\}}{m(x;w,b,c)\Phi((c-x)/\sigma - b\sigma)},$$

then  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = 0$ . Case 4: if  $c \leq 0$  and

$$\frac{2w\tilde{g}_+(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} \ge 1,$$

then

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) = x - b\sigma^2 + \sigma \Phi^{-1} \left( 1 - \frac{m(x; w, b, c)\Phi((x-c)/\sigma - b\sigma)}{2wg_+(x; b, c)} \right).$$

Case 5: if  $c \leq 0$  and

$$1 - \frac{2(1-w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)}{m(x;w,b,c)} \le \frac{2w\tilde{g}_+(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} < 1,$$

then  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = 0$ . Case 6: if  $c \leq 0$  and

$$\frac{2w\tilde{g}_{+}(x;b,c)}{m(x;w,b,c)} < 1 - \frac{2(1-w)\phi_{0,\sigma^{2}}(x)}{m(x;w,b,c)},$$

then

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) = x - b\sigma^2 + \sigma \Phi^{-1} \left( \Phi(b\sigma - x/\sigma) - \left( \frac{m(x; w, b, c)}{2w} - \frac{w\tilde{g}_+(x; b, 0) + (1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)}{w} \right) \frac{\Phi((x - c)/\sigma - b\sigma)}{g_+(x; b, c)} \right)$$

Finally for x < 0, we define  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = -\delta(-x; w, b, -c)$ , i.e.,

$$\delta(x;w,b,c) = \operatorname{sign}(x)\delta(|x|;w,b,\operatorname{sign}(x)c), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof of Lemma 2.1. We prove the results when the noise level is  $\sigma^2$ . Write  $\tau = 1/(b^2\sigma^2)$ . To show (1), first note that  $g(c, b, c) = 2g_+(c, b, c) = b \exp(b^2\sigma^2/2)$  which is independent of c, and  $m(c; w, b, c) \rightarrow wg(c, b, c)$  as  $c \rightarrow +\infty$ . Thus we have

$$\Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{\Phi(-b\sigma)}{g_+(c,b,c)}\left\{g(c;b,c)-\frac{m(c;w,b,c)}{2w}\right\}\right) \to -b\sigma.$$

By the closed-formed representation in Case 2, it is straightforward to verify that  $\delta(c; w, b, c) - c \to 0$  as  $c \to +\infty$ .

Next we prove (2). As  $x - c \to +\infty$  and  $x \to +\infty$ , we have

$$\frac{\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)}{\exp(-bx + b^2\sigma^2/2 + cb)} \to 0, \quad \frac{g_+(-x;b,-c)}{\exp(-bx + b^2\sigma^2/2 + cb)} \to 0$$

It thus implies that

$$\frac{m(x;w,b,c)\Phi((x-c)/\sigma - b\sigma)}{2wg_+(x;b,c)} = \frac{(1-w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x) + wg_+(x;b,c) + wg_+(-x;b,-c)}{wb\exp(-bx + b^2\sigma^2/2 + cb)} \to 1/2.$$

When c > 0, by Case 1, we have  $\delta(x; w, b, c) - (x - b\sigma^2) \to 0$ . When c < 0, we have  $g_+(x; b, c)/\tilde{g}_+(x; b, c) \to 1$ . By Case 4, we have  $\delta(x; w, b, c) - (x - b\sigma^2) \to 0$ .

Finally, (3) follows from similar argument and the fact that  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = -\delta(-x; w, b, -c)$  for x < 0.

**Normal**: Next we provide the closed-form representation for  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  when the prior density component is normal with location shift. The prior distribution for  $\mu$  is  $(1 - w)\delta_0 + wN(c, 1/b^2)$ . Let  $\tau = 1/(b^2\sigma^2)$ . Direct calculation shows that

$$\begin{split} h(x;a,b,c) &= \int_{a}^{+\infty} \phi_{\mu,\sigma^{2}}(x)\gamma(\mu;b,c)d\mu = \phi_{c,1/b^{2}+\sigma^{2}}(x) \left\{ 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{a - (\tau x + c)/(\tau + 1)}{\sqrt{\sigma^{2}\tau/(1 + \tau)}}\right) \right\},\\ m(x;w,b,c) &= (1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^{2}}(x) + w\phi_{c,1/b^{2}+\sigma^{2}}(x). \end{split}$$

We have the following three cases:

Case 1: If  $2wh(x; 0, b, c) \ge m(x; w, b, c)$ , then

$$\delta(x;w,b,c) = \frac{\tau x + c}{\tau + 1} + \sigma \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{1 + \tau}} \Phi^{-1} \left( \frac{w\phi_{c,1/b^2 + \sigma^2}(x) - (1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)}{2w\phi_{c,1/b^2 + \sigma^2}(x)} \right)$$

Case 2: If  $m(x; w, b, c) - 2(1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x) \le 2wh(x; 0, b, c) \le m(x; w, b, c)$ , then  $\delta(x; w, b, c) = 0$ . Case 3: If  $2wh(x; 0, b, c) \le m(x; w, b, c) - 2(1 - w)\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)$ , then

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) = \frac{\tau x + c}{\tau + 1} + \sigma \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{1 + \tau}} \Phi^{-1} \left( \frac{w \phi_{c, 1/b^2 + \sigma^2}(x) + (1 - w) \phi_{0, \sigma^2}(x)}{2w \phi_{c, 1/b^2 + \sigma^2}(x)} \right)$$

Proof of Lemma 2.2. Using the explicit expression for  $\delta(x; w, b, c)$  and the fact that  $\phi_{0,\sigma^2}(x)/\phi_{c,1/b^2+\sigma^2}(x) \to 0$  as  $|x| \to +\infty$ , we have

$$\delta(x; w, b, c) - \frac{\tau x + c}{\tau + 1} \to 0,$$

as  $|x| \to +\infty$ .

#### 5.2 Properties of the posterior median

We present the following lemma which will be useful in the proof of Proposition 2.1.

LEMMA 5.1. For any  $c \ge 0$ ,  $g(x; c)/\phi(x)$  is monotonic increasing for x > c.

Proof of Lemma 5.1. Let  $h(x,\mu;c) = \{\phi(x-\mu) + \phi(x+\mu-2c)\}/\phi(x)$ . Then we have  $g(x;c)/\phi(x) = \int_{c}^{+\infty} h(x,\mu;c)\gamma_0(\mu-c)d\mu$ . For x > c and any  $\mu$ , we have

$$\frac{\partial h(x,\mu;c)}{\partial x} = \mu \exp\{x\mu - \mu^2/2\} + (2c-\mu)\exp\{(2c-\mu)(2x+\mu-2c)/2\}.$$

When  $\mu > 2c$ , we have  $\mu > (\mu - 2c) \exp\{2(\mu - c)(c - x)\}$  which implies that  $\frac{\partial h(x,\mu;c)}{\partial x} > 0$ . When  $\mu \le 2c$ , it is clear that  $\frac{\partial h(x,\mu;c)}{\partial x} > 0$ . Therefore  $g(x;c)/\phi(x)$  is monotonic increasing for  $x > c \ge 0$ .

 $\diamond$ 

Proof of Proposition 2.1. Without loss of generality, we assume that c > 0. Claim (1) follows from the argument in the proof of Lemma 2 in JS (2004).

Under Condition (6), it is straightforward to verify that  $\delta(0; w, c) = 0$ . By the monotonicity of  $\delta$ , there exist  $t_1, t_2 \ge 0$  such that

$$\delta(x; w, c) \begin{cases} < 0, & \text{if } x < -t_2, \\ = 0, & \text{if } -t_2 \le x \le t_1, \\ > 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Because  $P(\mu > 0|X = x) = w \int_0^{+\infty} \phi(x-\mu)\gamma(\mu,c)d\mu/\{(1-w)\phi(x) + wg(x;c)\}$  and  $P(\mu < 0|X = x) = w \int_{-\infty}^0 \phi(-x+\mu)\gamma(\mu,c)d\mu/\{(1-w)\phi(x) + wg(x;c)\}, t_1 \text{ and } t_2 \text{ must satisfy (7) and (8)}.$ To show (3), first assume that c > 0. We note that  $\gamma(\mu;c)$  is symmetric about c and is unimodal.

To show (3), first assume that c > 0. We note that  $\gamma(\mu; c)$  is symmetric about c and is unimodal. For x > c > 0, we have  $\gamma(x - v; c) \ge \gamma(x + v; c)$  for any  $v \ge 0$ . Thus we get

$$\gamma(x-v;c)\phi(v)/g(x;c) \ge \gamma(x+v;c)\phi(v)/g(x;c).$$

Integrating over  $v \ge 0$ , we obtain

$$P(\mu \le x | X = x, \mu \ne 0) \ge P(\mu > x | X = x, \mu \ne 0).$$

Because  $P(\mu > x | X = x) = P(\mu > x | X = x, \mu \neq 0) P(\mu \neq 0 | X = x) \leq P(\mu > x | X = x, \mu \neq 0) \leq 0.5$ , we know that  $\delta(x; w, c) \leq x$ . Similar argument shows that  $\delta(x; w, c) \geq x$  for x < 0. Next we consider the region where  $x \leq c$ . Using the fact that  $\phi(x - c - \mu) \leq \phi(x - c + \mu)$  for x < c and any  $\mu > 0$ , we deduce that

$$\begin{split} P(\mu > c | X = x, \mu \neq 0) &= \int_{c}^{+\infty} \phi(x - \mu) \gamma_{0}(\mu - c) / g(x; c) d\mu = \int_{0}^{+\infty} \phi(x - c - \mu) \gamma_{0}(\mu) / g(x; c) d\mu \\ &\leq \int_{0}^{+\infty} \phi(x - c + \mu) \gamma_{0}(\mu) / g(x; c) d\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{c} \phi(x - \mu) \gamma(\mu; c) / g(x; c) d\mu \\ &= P(\mu \leq c | X = x, \mu \neq 0), \end{split}$$

which implies that  $P(\mu \ge c | X = x) \le P(\mu > c | X = x, \mu \ne 0) \le 0.5$  and thus  $\delta(x; c) \le c$ . Therefore for c > 0,  $|\delta(x; w, c)| \le |x| \lor c$ . Claim (3) follows by noticing that  $\delta(x; w, c) = -\delta(-x; w - c)$ .

Finally we prove (4). The proof is presented in four steps below.

Step 1: Our arguments in Steps 1-3 are basically modifications of those in JS (2004). We present the details for completeness. Assume that c > 0. Following the proof of Lemma 2 in JS (2004), we aim to find a constant a such that for large enough x,

$$P(\mu > x - a | X = x) = P(\mu > x - a | X = x, \mu \neq 0) P(\mu \neq 0 | X = x) > 1/2.$$
(26)

Let  $B = \sup_{|u| \le M} \gamma_0(u) e^{\Lambda u} / \{\gamma_0(M) e^{\Lambda M}\}$ . Under (5),  $\gamma_0(u) e^{\Lambda u}$  is increasing for  $u \le 0$  or  $u \ge M$ . Thus

for any  $a_1 > M + c$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Odd}(\mu > a_1 | X = x, \mu \neq 0) &:= \frac{P(\mu > a_1 | X = x, \mu \neq 0)}{1 - P((\mu > a_1 | X = x, \mu \neq 0))} = \frac{\int_{a_1}^{+\infty} \gamma_0(\mu - c)\phi(x - \mu)d\mu}{\int_{-\infty}^{a_1} \gamma_0(\mu - c)\phi(x - \mu)d\mu} \\ &\geq \frac{\int_{a_1}^{+\infty} e^{-\Lambda\mu}\phi(x - \mu)d\mu}{B\int_{-\infty}^{a_1} e^{-\Lambda\mu}\phi(x - \mu)d\mu}. \end{aligned}$$

Because  $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\Lambda\mu} \phi(\mu) d\mu < \infty$ , there exists a large enough  $a_2 > 0$  such that  $\int_{-a_2}^{+\infty} e^{-\Lambda\mu} \phi(\mu) d\mu > 3B \int_{-\infty}^{-a_2} e^{-\Lambda\mu} \phi(\mu) d\mu$ . Thus for  $x > a_1 + a_2 + M$ , we have

$$Odd(\mu > x - a_1 | X = x, \mu \neq 0) \ge \frac{\int_{x-a_1}^{+\infty} e^{-\Lambda \mu} \phi(x-\mu) d\mu}{B \int_{-\infty}^{x-a_1} e^{-\Lambda \mu} \phi(x-\mu) d\mu} = \frac{\int_{-a_1}^{+\infty} e^{-\Lambda \mu} \phi(\mu) d\mu}{B \int_{-\infty}^{-a_1} e^{-\Lambda \mu} \phi(\mu) d\mu} > 3$$

which implies that  $P(\mu > x - a_1 | X = x, \mu \neq 0) > 3/4$ . Step 2: The posterior odds  $Odd(\mu \neq 0 | X = x)$  is equal to

$$O(x; w, c) := \text{Odd}(\mu \neq 0 | X = x) = \frac{P(\mu \neq 0 | X = x)}{1 - P(\mu \neq 0 | X = x)} = \frac{w}{1 - w} \frac{g(x; c)}{\phi(x)}$$

Let  $w_c = \{\phi(c)/g(c;c)\}/[1 + \{\phi(c)/g(c;c)\}]$  so that  $O(c;w_c,c) = 1$ . For fixed  $w_c$ , by Lemma 5.1,  $O(x;w_c,c)$  is an increasing function from 1 to  $+\infty$  when  $x \ge c$ . For  $w < w_c$ , there exists a e(w) > c such that O(e(w);w,c) = 1. Also note that

$$O(x; w, c) = O(x_0; w, c) \exp\left\{\int_{x_0}^x (\log(g(\mu; c))' - \log(\phi(\mu))') d\mu\right\}$$

Step 3: Let  $\epsilon = (\rho - \Lambda)/2$ . Note that  $g(x;c) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \gamma(\mu - c)\phi(x - \mu)d\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \gamma(\mu)\phi(x - c - \mu)d\mu$ . For large enough  $a_3 > M + c$ , we have for  $|\mu| \ge a_3$ ,

$$(\log g(\mu; c))' \ge -\Lambda - \epsilon, \quad (\log \phi(\mu))' \le -\rho,$$

where we have used (31) in JS (2004). Choose  $w_3$  so that  $O(a_3; w_3, c) = 1$ . For  $w < w_3$ ,  $e(w) > a_3$ . For  $x > e(w) + a_4$  with  $a_4 = 2(\rho - \Lambda)^{-1} \log(2)$ , we have

$$O(x; w, c) \ge O(e(w); w, c) \exp\{(\rho - \Lambda)a_4/2\} \ge 2.$$

If  $w \ge w_c$ , then  $O(x; w, c) \ge O(x; w_c, c) \ge 2$  provided that  $x > c + a_4$ . In either cases, it follows that  $P(\mu \ne 0 | X = x) \ge 2/3$ . Therefore when  $x > \max\{c + a_4, e(w) + a_4, a_1 + a_2 + M\}$ , (29) holds with  $a = a_1$ . If  $0 \le x < \max\{c + a_4, e(w) + a_4, a_1 + a_2 + M\}$ , we have  $0 \le \delta(x; w, c) < x \lor c$  by Claim (3). We also note that  $e(w) \le t_1$ . Simple algebra shows that O(e(w), w, c) = 1 implies

$$\frac{w\int_0^{+\infty}\gamma_0(e(w)-\mu)\phi(\mu)d\mu}{(1-w)\phi(e(w))+g(e(w);c)} \le 0.5.$$

Thus we have  $\delta(e(w); w, c) \leq \delta(t_1; w, c) = 0$  which suggests that  $e(w) \leq t_1$  as  $\delta(\cdot; w, c)$  is a monotonic

increasing function. Combining the arguments we get

$$-c \le x - \delta(x; w, c) \le t_1 + c + c_0,$$

for some constant  $c_0$ .

Step 4: For c > 0 and x < 0, we want to find a positive constant a such that

$$P(\mu > x + a | X = x) < 1/2.$$
(27)

It thus implies that  $0 \le \delta(x; w, c) - x \le a$ . First note that for x < -a, (30) is equivalent to

$$(1-w)\phi(x) + w \int_{x+a}^{+\infty} \phi(x-\mu)\gamma_0(\mu-c)d\mu \le \frac{1}{2}m(x;w,c).$$
 (28)

Rearranging (31), we have

$$\frac{(1-w)\phi(x)}{wg(x;c)} + \frac{2\int_{x+a}^{+\infty}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_0(\mu-c)d\mu}{g(x;c)} \le 1.$$
(29)

Using the fact that  $g(x;c) \ge c_0 \gamma(x-c)$  [see (28) of JS (2004)], for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists x < -c such that,

$$\frac{(1-w)\phi(x)}{wg(x;c)} \leq \frac{(1-w)\phi(x)}{c_0w\gamma(x-c)} \leq \epsilon$$

The second term on the LHS in (32) is a monotonic increasing function of

$$\frac{\int_{x+a}^{+\infty} \phi(x-\mu)\gamma_0(\mu-c)d\mu}{\int_{-\infty}^{x+a} \phi(x-\mu)\gamma_0(\mu-c)d\mu}.$$
(30)

When x < -a - M, (33) can be bounded by

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\int_{-M+c}^{+\infty}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu+\int_{x+a}^{-M+c}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu}{\int_{-\infty}^{x+a}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu} \\ &\leq &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)+\int_{x+a}^{-M+c}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu}{\int_{-\infty}^{x+a}\phi(x-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu-c)d\mu} \\ &= &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)+\int_{x_{0}+a}^{-M}\phi(x_{0}-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu}{\int_{-\infty}^{x_{0}+a}\phi(x_{0}-\mu)\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu} \\ &= &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)+\int_{M}^{y_{0}-a}\phi(\mu-y_{0})\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu}{\int_{y_{0}-a}^{+\infty}\phi(\mu-y_{0})\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu}, \end{split}$$

where  $x_0 = x - c$  and  $y_0 = -x_0 = c - x$ . For  $M < \mu \le y_0 - a$ ,  $\gamma_0(\mu)e^{\Lambda\mu} \le \gamma_0(y_0 - a)e^{\Lambda(y_0 - a)}$ . For

 $\mu > y_0 - a, \ \gamma_0(\mu) e^{\Lambda \mu} \ge \gamma_0(y_0 - a) e^{\Lambda(y_0 - a)}$ . Thus we have

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)+\int_{M}^{y_{0}-a}\phi(\mu-y_{0})\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu}{\int_{y_{0}-a}^{+\infty}\phi(\mu-y_{0})\gamma_{0}(\mu)d\mu} \\ &\leq &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)e^{-\Lambda(y_{0}-a)}/\gamma_{0}(y_{0}-a)+\int_{M}^{y_{0}-a}\phi(\mu-y_{0})e^{-\Lambda\mu}d\mu}{\int_{y_{0}-a}^{+\infty}\phi(\mu-y_{0})e^{-\Lambda\mu}d\mu} \\ &\leq &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)e^{-\Lambda(y_{0}-a)}/\gamma_{0}(y_{0}-a)+(\Phi(\Lambda-a)-\Phi(\Lambda+M-y_{0}))e^{-y_{0}\Lambda+\Lambda^{2}/2}}{(1-\Phi(\Lambda-a))e^{-y_{0}\Lambda+\Lambda^{2}/2}} \\ &\leq &\frac{\phi(x+M-c)e^{\Lambda a-\Lambda^{2}/2}/\gamma_{0}(y_{0}-a)+\{\Phi(\Lambda-a)-\Phi(\Lambda+M-y_{0})\}}{\{1-\Phi(\Lambda-a)\}}. \end{split}$$

Note that as  $x \to -\infty$ ,  $\phi(x - M)e^{y_0\Lambda - \Lambda^2/2} \to 0$  and  $\Phi(\Lambda + M - y_0) \to 0$ . Also we can make  $\Phi(\Lambda - a)$  small by picking a large enough a. Combining the above derivations, there exists a  $c_2 > 0$  such that for  $x < -c - c_2$ , (30) holds and thus  $0 \le \delta(x; w, c) - x \le a$ . When  $-c - c_2 \le x < -t_2$ ,  $0 \le \delta(x; w, c) - x \le c + c_2$ . When  $-t_2 \le x \le 0$ ,  $\delta(x; w, c) - x = -x \le t_2$ . The proof is completed by noticing  $\delta(x; w, c) = \operatorname{sign}(x)\delta(|x|; w, \operatorname{sign}(x)c)$ .

Proof of Lemma 2.3. By the definition of  $\delta^{-1}$ , we have  $\lim_{t\to 0^+} \delta^{-1}(t; w, b, c) = t_1$  and  $\lim_{t\to 0^-} \delta^{-1}(t; w, b, c) = -t_2$ , which implies that  $\lim_{\theta\to 0^+} \mathcal{P}'(\theta; w, b, c) = t_1$  and  $\lim_{\theta\to 0^-} \mathcal{P}'(\theta; w, b, c) = -t_2$  with  $\mathcal{P}' = \partial \mathcal{P}/\partial \theta$ . We first argue that the solution to (10) is a thresholding rule. Note the first derivative of (10) with respect to  $\theta$  is  $l'(\theta, x) := \operatorname{sign}(\theta)\{|\theta| + \operatorname{sign}(\theta)\mathcal{P}'(\theta; w, b, c)\} - x$ . Therefore for  $-t_2 < x < t_1$ ,  $l'(\theta, x) > 0$  for small enough positive  $\theta$ , and  $l'(\theta, x) < 0$  for large enough negative  $\theta$ . Hence,  $\hat{\theta}(x; w, b, c) = 0$  for  $-t_2 < x < t_1$ . For  $x > t_1$  or  $x < -t_2$ , the unique solution to the equation  $l'(\theta, x) = 0$  satisfies

$$\theta + \mathcal{P}'(\theta; w, b, c) = \theta + \{\delta^{-1}(\theta; w, b, c) - \theta\} = x,$$

which implies that  $\hat{\theta} = \delta(x; w, b, c)$ .

#### 5.3 Proof of Theorem 2.2

By Stein's Lemma, SURE can also be written as

$$\hat{R}(w,c) = \hat{R}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} (\zeta(X_i;\theta) - X_i)^2 + 2\sum_{i=1}^{p} \nabla \zeta(X_i;\theta) - p,$$

which is more convenient for our theoretical analysis. Consider

$$\frac{1}{p}\left\{\hat{R}(w,c) - \mathbb{E}\hat{R}(w,c)\right\} = \frac{1}{p}\sum_{i=1}^{p}\left\{\left(\zeta(X_i;\theta) - X_i\right)^2 - \mathbb{E}(\zeta(X_i;\theta) - X_i)^2\right\} \\ + \frac{2}{p}\sum_{i=1}^{p}\left(\nabla\zeta(X_i;\theta) - \mathbb{E}\nabla\zeta(X_i;\theta)\right) = \frac{1}{p}\sum_{i=1}^{p}W_i$$

where  $W_i = (\zeta(X_i; \theta) - X_i)^2 - \mathbb{E}(\zeta(X_i; \theta) - X_i)^2 + 2\{\nabla \zeta(X_i; \theta) - \mathbb{E}\nabla \zeta(X_i; \theta)\}.$ 

We first state the following lemma, which shows the bounded shrinkage property for the posterior

 $\diamond$ 

mean. Recall that  $\gamma_0(u) = \gamma(u, 1, 0)$ . Write  $a \leq b$  if  $a \leq Cb$  for some constant C which is independent of p.

LEMMA 5.2. Assume that  $\gamma_0$  is unimodal with

$$\sup_{u} |\nabla \log \gamma_0(u)| \le \Lambda \quad a.e., \tag{31}$$

for  $\Lambda > 0$ . Then we have for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$|\zeta(x;\theta) - x| \lesssim 1 + \sqrt{|c| + \log(1/w)}$$

Proof of Lemma 5.2. Note that  $\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial x = -\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial u$ . Then we have

$$\nabla m(x;\theta) = -(1-w)x\phi(x) - w\int \gamma(u;c)(\partial\phi(x-u)/\partial u)du$$
$$= -(1-w)x\phi(x) + w\int \phi(x-u)\nabla\gamma(u;c)du$$
$$= -(1-w)x\phi(x) + w\int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)\nabla\log\gamma(u;c)du.$$

As  $|\nabla \log \gamma(u; c)| \leq \Lambda$ , it is not hard to see that

$$\left|\frac{w\int\phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)\nabla\log\gamma(u;c)du}{m(x;\theta)}\right| \le \frac{\Lambda wg(x;c)}{m(x;\theta)} \le \Lambda.$$
(32)

In view of the proof of Lemma 1 in JS (2004), there exists  $C_1 > 0$  such that for any x, u > 0,

$$\gamma_0(x+u) \ge C_1 e^{-\Lambda u} \gamma_0(x).$$

Let  $x^* = x - c$ . We have for  $x^* > 0$ ,

$$g(x;c) = \int \phi(x^* - u)\gamma_0(u)du \ge \int_0^\infty \phi(u)\gamma_0(x^* + u)du \ge C_1 \int_0^\infty \phi(u)\gamma_0(x^*)e^{-\Lambda u}du,$$

and for  $x^* < 0$ ,

$$g(x;c) = \int \phi(x^* - u)\gamma_0(u)du \ge \int_0^\infty \phi(u)\gamma_0(u - x^*)du \ge C_1 \int_0^\infty \phi(u)\gamma_0(x^*)e^{-\Lambda u}du.$$

Under (44), there exists a constant  $C_2$  such that  $C_2 e^{-\Lambda |x|} \leq \gamma_0(x)$  for any x. Together with (35), we have

$$\begin{aligned} |\zeta(x;\theta) - x| &\leq \left| \frac{(1-w)x\phi(x)}{m(x;\theta)} \right| + \Lambda \leq \frac{(1-w)|x|}{(1-w) + wC_3 e^{x^2/2 - \Lambda|x-c|}} + \Lambda \\ &\leq \frac{(1-w)|x|}{(1-w) + C_3 e^{x^2/2 - \Lambda|x| - \Lambda|c| - \log(1/w)}} + \Lambda \\ &\leq \frac{(1-w)(|x| - \Lambda| + \Lambda)}{(1-w) + C_3 e^{(|x| - \Lambda|^2/2 - \Lambda|c| - \log(1/w)}} + \Lambda, \end{aligned}$$
(33)

where  $C_3 > 0$  is a constant which could be different from line to line. When  $(|X| - \Lambda)^2 \leq 4\Lambda |c| + 1$ 

 $4\log(1/w), \text{ the first term in (36) is bounded by } \Lambda + 2\sqrt{\Lambda|c| + \log(1/w)}. \text{ When } (|X| - \Lambda)^2 > 4\Lambda|c| + 4\log(1/w), \text{ the first term in (36) is bounded by } (|x| - \Lambda| + \Lambda)/\{C_3 e^{(|x| - \Lambda)^2/4}\} \le C_4 \text{ for some } C_4 > 0. \text{ Therefore, we have } |\zeta(x;\theta) - x| \lesssim 1 + \sqrt{|c| + \log(1/w)}.$ 

LEMMA 5.3. Suppose the assumptions in Lemma 5.2 hold. Further assume that

$$\sup_{u} |\nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(u)| \le \Lambda', \quad a.e., \tag{34}$$

for some  $\Lambda' > 0$ . Then we have for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$|\nabla \zeta(x;\theta)| \lesssim 1 + |c| + \log(1/w). \tag{35}$$

The same conclusion holds when  $\gamma$  is double exponential.

*Proof.* Notice that

$$|\nabla \zeta(x;\theta)| \le 1 + \left|\frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta)}\right| + (\nabla \log m(x;\theta))^2$$

Consider

$$\nabla^2 m(x;\theta) = -(1-w)\{\phi(x) - x^2\phi(x)\} - w \int \{\partial\phi(x-u)/\partial u\}\gamma(u;c)\nabla\log\gamma(u;c)du$$
$$= -(1-w)\{\phi(x) - x^2\phi(x)\} + w \int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)(\nabla\log\gamma(u;c))^2du$$
$$+ w \int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)\nabla^2\log\gamma(u;c)du.$$
(36)

Under the assumption that  $\sup_u |\nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(u)| \leq \Lambda'$ , we see that

$$\left|\frac{w\int\phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)\nabla^2\log\gamma(u;c)du}{m(x;\theta)}\right| \le \frac{\Lambda'wg(x;c)}{m(x;\theta)} \le \Lambda'.$$
(37)

The rest of the proof is similar to those for Lemma 5.2. we skip the details here to conserve space.

The argument in (40) is not applicable to double exponential distribution but the conclusion remains true. When  $\gamma_0(u) = \Lambda \exp(-\Lambda |u|)/2$ , we have  $\nabla \log \gamma_0(u) = -\Lambda \operatorname{sign}(u)$  and  $\nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(u) = -2\Lambda \delta(u)$ , where  $\delta(u)$  is the Dirac Delta function. Then (39) becomes

$$-2\Lambda w \int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c)\delta(u-c)du = -2\Lambda w\phi(x-c)\gamma_0(0),$$

which is bounded uniformly over x, c and w, when divided by  $m(x; \theta)$ .

By Lemmas 5.2-5.3, we have

$$|W_i| \le c_1 + c_2\{|c| + \log(1/w)\},\$$

for some positive constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$ . Applying the Hoeffding's inequality to  $p^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{p} W_i$ , we have

 $\diamond$ 

for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,

$$P\left(\frac{1}{p}|\hat{R}(w,c) - E\hat{R}(w,c)| > \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{p}}\right) \le 2\exp\left[-\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\{c_1 + c_2(|c| + \log(1/w))\}^2}\right].$$
(38)

For distinct  $\theta' = (w', c')$  and  $\theta = (w, c)$ , we aim to bound  $|\hat{R}(w, c) - \hat{R}(w', c')|$ . We assume that  $w, w' \in [1/\lambda_0, 1]$  and  $c, c' \in [-c_0, c_0]$  for  $\lambda_0, c_0 > 0$ , where  $\lambda_0$  and  $c_0$  are allowed to grow with p. The following equations are useful in the subsequent calculations,

$$\nabla m(x;\theta) - \nabla m(x;\theta') = (w - w')x\phi(x) + (w' - w)\int \gamma(u;c')(\partial\phi(x - u)/\partial u)du + w\int (\gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c))(\partial\phi(x - u)/\partial u)du,$$
(39)

and

$$\nabla^{2}m(x;\theta) - \nabla^{2}m(x;\theta')$$

$$= (w - w')\{\phi(x) - x^{2}\phi(x)\} + (w' - w)\int\{\partial\phi(x - u)/\partial u\}\gamma(u;c')\nabla\log\gamma(u;c')du$$

$$+ w\int\{\partial\phi(x - u)/\partial u\}\{\gamma(u;c')\nabla\log\gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c)\nabla\log\gamma(u;c)\}du.$$
(40)

#### **5.3.1** Case 1: c = 0

To gain some insight, we focus on a simpler case where c = 0. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} |\nabla \log m(x;\theta) - \nabla \log m(x;\theta')| \\ &= \left| \frac{\nabla m(x;\theta) - \nabla m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')} + \frac{\nabla \log m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta')} (m(x;\theta') - m(x;\theta)) \right| \\ &\lesssim |w - w'| / (ww') \le \lambda_0^2 |w - w'|, \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the fact that  $|\nabla \log m(x;\theta)| \leq 1/w$ ,  $|m(x;\theta) - m(x;\theta')|/m(x;\theta') \leq |w - w'|/w$ , and  $|\nabla m(x;\theta) - \nabla m(x;\theta')|/m(x;\theta') \leq |w - w'|/w'$ . Similarly, we can deduce that

$$\begin{aligned} |\nabla^2 \log m(x;\theta) - \nabla^2 \log m(x;\theta')| \\ &= \left| \frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta)} - \frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')} \right| + |(\nabla \log m(x;\theta))^2 - (\nabla \log m(x;\theta'))^2| \\ &\lesssim \left| \frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta)m(x;\theta')} (m(x;\theta') - m(x;\theta)) + \frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta) - \nabla^2 m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')} \right| + \lambda_0^3 |w - w'| \\ &\lesssim \lambda_0^3 |w - w'|. \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have

$$p^{-1}|\{\hat{R}(w,0) - E\hat{R}(w,0)\} - \{\hat{R}(w',0) - E\hat{R}(w',0)\}| \lesssim \lambda_0^3 |w - w'|.$$

Now set  $w_j = \delta j$  for j = 1, 2, ... such that  $w_j \in [1/\lambda_0, 1]$ . Choose  $\delta$  so that  $\delta \lambda_0^3 = o(1/\sqrt{p})$ . Then we have

$$A = \left\{ \max_{w \in [1/\lambda_0, 1]} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w, 0) - E\hat{R}(w, 0)| \ge 2\epsilon/\sqrt{p} \right\} \subseteq D,$$

where

$$D = \left\{ \max_{j} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w_{j}, 0) - E\hat{R}(w_{j}, 0)| \ge \epsilon / \sqrt{p} \right\}.$$

Using the union bound and the Hoeffding's inequality in (41) with c = 0, we have for large enough p,

$$P(A) \le P(D) \le \frac{4(\lambda_0 - 1)}{\lambda_0 \delta} \exp\left[-\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\{c_1 + c_2 \log(\lambda_0)\}^2}\right].$$
(41)

Choosing  $\epsilon^2 = s^2 \log(p)(c_1 + c_2 \log(\lambda_0))^2/2$ , we obtain

$$P(A) \le \frac{4(\lambda_0 - 1)}{\lambda_0 \delta} p^{-s^2}.$$

This says that

$$P\left(\max_{w\in[1/\lambda_0,1]}\frac{1}{\sqrt{p\log(p)}(c_1+c_2\log(\lambda_0))}|\hat{R}(w,0)-E\hat{R}(w,0)| \ge \sqrt{2}s\right) \le \frac{4(\lambda_0-1)}{\lambda_0\delta}p^{-s^2}.$$

For example, with  $\lambda_0 = a_1 p^{a_2}$ , one can pick  $\delta = 1/p^{3a_2+1/2+\varepsilon}$  and large enough s, where  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then  $\delta \lambda_0^3 = o(1/\sqrt{p})$  and

$$\max_{w \in [1/\lambda_0, 1]} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w, 0) - E\hat{R}(w, 0)| = O_p \left( \frac{(\log(p))^{3/2}}{\sqrt{p}} \right).$$

### **5.3.2** Case 2: general c

Now we consider the general case:  $c \in [-c_0, c_0]$ , where  $c_0$  is allowed to grow slowly with p. In view of the proof of Case 1, we need to bound the following quantities:

$$\frac{m(x;\theta') - m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta')},\tag{42}$$

$$\frac{\nabla m(x;\theta) - \nabla m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')},\tag{43}$$

$$\frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta) - \nabla^2 m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')}.$$
(44)

For clarity, we present the proof in the following 5 steps.

Step 1: We deal with the first quantity. By the triangle inequality,

$$|m(x;\theta) - m(x;\theta')| \le |w - w'| \{\phi(x) + g(x;c')\} + w|g(x;c) - g(x;c')|.$$

Notice that

$$\left|\log \gamma_0(u-c) - \log \gamma_0(u-c')\right| = \left|\int_{u-c}^{u-c'} \nabla \log \gamma_0(s) ds\right| \le \Lambda |c-c'|.$$

and  $|e^x - 1| \le |x|e^{|x|}$  for any x. Using these facts, we get

$$\begin{aligned} |g(x;c) - g(x;c')| &\leq \int \phi(x-u)\gamma_0(u-c')|\gamma_0(u-c)/\gamma_0(u-c') - 1|du \\ &= \int \phi(x-u)\gamma_0(u-c')|e^{\log\gamma_0(u-c) - \log\gamma_0(u-c')} - 1|du \\ &\leq g(u;c')\Lambda|c-c'|e^{\Lambda|c-c'|}. \end{aligned}$$

Combining these results, we have

$$\left|\frac{m(x;\theta') - m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta')}\right| \lesssim |w - w'|e^{\Lambda|c'|}/w' + |c - c'|e^{\Lambda|c-c'|}/w',\tag{45}$$

where we use the bound  $\phi(x)/m(x;\theta') \lesssim e^{\Lambda |c'|}/w'$  uniformly over x.<sup>1</sup> Step 2: To deal with the second quantity, we note that

$$\begin{split} & \left| \int (\gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c)) (\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial u) du \right| \\ \leq & \int |\nabla \gamma(u;c) - \nabla \gamma(u;c')| \phi(x-u) du \\ = & \int \left| \nabla \log \gamma(u;c) \left( \frac{\gamma(u;c)}{\gamma(u;c')} - 1 \right) + \nabla \log \gamma(u;c) - \nabla \log \gamma(u;c') \right| \gamma(u;c') \phi(x-u) du. \end{split}$$

Then by (42) and similar argument as above, we obtain,

$$\left|\frac{\nabla m(x;\theta) - \nabla m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')}\right| \lesssim |w - w'|e^{\Lambda|c'|}/w' + |c - c'|e^{\Lambda|c-c'|}/w',$$

where we have used the fact that  $|\nabla \log \gamma(u;c) - \nabla \log \gamma(u;c')| = |\int_{u-c'}^{u-c} \nabla^2 \log \gamma_0(s) ds| \lesssim |c-c'|.$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This bound can be improved if we are willing to assume an upper bound on w, i.e.,  $w \leq \tilde{c} < 1$ . In this case,  $c_0$  is allowed to grow at a faster rate.

REMARK 5.1. For double exponential distribution distribution, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{\int |\nabla \log \gamma(u;c) - \nabla \log \gamma(u;c')| \, \gamma(u;c')\phi(x-u)du}{m(x;\theta')} \\ = & \frac{2\Lambda \left| \int_{c}^{c'} \gamma(u;c')\phi(x-u)du \right|}{m(x;\theta')} \lesssim \frac{|c-c'|\phi(x-c^{*})}{w'g(x;c')} \\ \lesssim & \frac{|c-c'|e^{-(x-c^{*})^{2}/2 + \Lambda|x-c'|}}{w'} \\ \leq & \frac{|c-c'|e^{-(x-c')^{2}/4 + (c-c')^{2}/2 + \Lambda|x-c'|}}{w'} \\ \lesssim & |c-c'|e^{(c-c')^{2}/2}/w', \end{split}$$

where  $c^*$  is between c and c'. So we have

$$\left|\frac{\nabla m(x;\theta') - \nabla m(x;\theta)}{m(x;\theta')}\right| \lesssim |w - w'|e^{\Lambda|c'|}/w' + |c - c'|e^{\Lambda|c - c'| + (c - c')^2/2}/w'.$$
(46)

Step 3: Next we analyze the third quantity. In view of (43), we consider

$$\begin{split} &\int \{\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial u\}\{\gamma(u;c')\nabla \log \gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c)\nabla \log \gamma(u;c)\}du \\ &= \int \{\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial u\}\gamma(u;c')\{\nabla \log \gamma(u;c') - \nabla \log \gamma(u;c)\}du \\ &+ \int \{\partial \phi(x-u)/\partial u\}\nabla \log \gamma(u;c)\{\gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c)\}du \\ &= I_1 + I_2 \quad \text{say.} \end{split}$$

For  $I_1$ , using integration by parts, we have

$$\begin{split} I_1 &= -\int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c')\nabla \log \gamma(u;c') \{\nabla \log \gamma(u;c') - \nabla \log \gamma(u;c)\} du \\ &- \int \phi(x-u)\gamma(u;c') \{\nabla^2 \log \gamma(u;c') - \nabla^2 \log \gamma(u;c)\} du \\ &= I_{11} + I_{12} \quad \text{say.} \end{split}$$

Here  $I_{11}$  can be bounded in a similar way as in Step 2. Under (16), it is straightforward to see that  $|I_{12}/m(x;\theta')| \leq |c-c'|/w'$ . Notice that in the case of double exponential distribution, we have

$$|I_{12}| \lesssim |\phi(x-c')\gamma_0(0) - \phi(x-c)\gamma_0(c-c')| \\ \lesssim \phi(x-c')|\gamma_0(c-c') - \gamma_0(0)| + \gamma_0(c-c')|\phi(x-c) - \phi(x-c')|,$$

which implies that  $|I_{12}/m(x;\theta')| \leq |c-c'|e^{\Lambda|c-c'|}/w'$ .

On the other hand, we have

$$I_{2} = -\int \phi(x-u)\nabla^{2}\log\gamma(u;c)\{\gamma(u;c') - \gamma(u;c)\}du$$
$$-\int \phi(x-u)\nabla\log\gamma(u;c)\{\nabla\gamma(u;c') - \nabla\gamma(u;c)\}du,$$

which can be handled in a similar way as in Step 2. Combining the arguments, we can show that

$$\frac{\nabla^2 m(x;\theta) - \nabla^2 m(x;\theta')}{m(x;\theta')} \bigg| \lesssim |w - w'|e^{\Lambda|c'|}/w' + |c - c'|e^{\Lambda|c-c'|}/w'.$$

Step 4: Combining Steps 1-3 and using the arguments in Case 1, we can show that

$$p^{-1}|\{\hat{R}(w,c) - E\hat{R}(w,c)\} - \{\hat{R}(w',c') - E\hat{R}(w',c')\}| \\ \lesssim \max(\lambda_0^2, c_0)\lambda_0 \left(|w - w'|e^{\Lambda c_0} + |c - c'|\right).$$

Step 5: The rest of the proof is similar to those in Case 1. Set  $w_j = \delta j$  and  $c_i = \delta' i$  for  $w_j \in [1/\lambda_0, 1]$ and  $c_i \in [-c_0, c_0]$ . Choose  $\max(\lambda_0^2, c_0)\lambda_0 \left(\delta e^{\Lambda c_0} + \delta'\right) = o(1/\sqrt{p})$ . Then we have

$$\tilde{A} = \left\{ \max_{w \in [1/\lambda_0, 1], |c| \le c_0} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w, c) - E\hat{R}(w, c)| \ge 2\epsilon/\sqrt{p} \right\} \subseteq \tilde{D},$$

where

$$\tilde{D} = \left\{ \max_{i,j} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w_j, c_i) - E\hat{R}(w_j, c_i)| \ge \epsilon / \sqrt{p} \right\}.$$

Again using the union bound and the Hoeffding's inequality, we have

$$P(\tilde{A}) \leq \frac{16(\lambda_0 - 1)c_0}{\lambda_0 \delta \delta'} \exp\left[-\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\{c_1 + c_2(|c| + \log(\lambda_0))\}^2}\right]$$

Picking  $\epsilon^2 = s^2 \log(p) \{ c_1 + c_2(|c| + \log(\lambda_0)) \}^2 / 2$ , we get

$$P\left(\max_{w\in[1/\lambda_0,1],|c|\leq c_0}\frac{1}{\sqrt{p\log(p)}\{c_1+c_2(|c|+\log(\lambda_0))\}}|\hat{R}(w,c)-E\hat{R}(w,c)|\geq\sqrt{2}s\right)\leq\frac{16(\lambda_0-1)c_0}{\lambda_0\delta\delta'}p^{-s^2}.$$

For  $\lambda_0 = a_1 p^{a_2}$ ,  $c_0 = a_3 \log(p)$ ,  $\delta = p^{-a_3 \Lambda - 1/2 - 3a_2 - \varepsilon}$ ,  $\delta' = p^{-1/2 - 3a_2 - \varepsilon}$  and large enough s where  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have  $\max(\lambda_0^2, c_0) \lambda_0 \left(\delta e^{\Lambda c_0} + \delta'\right) = o(1/\sqrt{p})$  and

$$\max_{w \in [1/\lambda_0, 1], |c| \le c_0} p^{-1} |\hat{R}(w, c) - E\hat{R}(w, c)| = O_p\left(\frac{(\log(p))^{3/2}}{\sqrt{p}}\right)$$

#### 5.4EM+PAV algorithm for MMLE

#### Algorithm 2

 $\overline{\begin{array}{l}
0. \text{ Input } d \text{ and the initial values } (w_0^{(0)}, w_1^{(0)}, c_1^{(0)}, \dots, w_d^{(0)}, c_d^{(0)}) \text{ and } (b_{1i}^{(0)}, \dots, b_{di}^{(0)}) \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq p. \\
1. \text{ E-step: Given } (w_0, w_1, c_1, \dots, w_d, c_d) \text{ and } (b_{1i}, \dots, b_{di}) \text{ for } 1 \leq i \leq p, \text{ let}
\end{array}}$ 

$$Q_{0i} = \frac{(1 - w_0)\phi(Y_i)}{(1 - w_0)\phi(Y_i) + \sum_{j=1}^d w_j g(X_i; \tau_{ji}^{-1/2}, c_j/\sigma_i)}$$

and

$$Q_{ki} = \frac{w_k g(Y_i; \tau_{ki}^{-1/2}, c_k)}{(1 - w_0)\phi(X_i) + \sum_{j=1}^d w_j g(Y_i; \tau_{ji}^{-1/2}, c_j/\sigma_i)},$$

for  $1 \leq k \leq d$ , where  $\tau_{ki} = 1/(\sigma_i^2 b_k^2)$ .

2. M-step: For fixed  $(c_1, \ldots, c_d)$ , solve the weighted isotonic regression,

$$(\tilde{\tau}_{k1},\ldots,\tilde{\tau}_{kp}) = \arg\min\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{ki} \left\{ (Y_i - c_k/\sigma_i)^2 - 1 - \tau_{ki} \right\}^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad 0 \le \tau_{ki} \le \tau_{kj} \quad \text{if} \quad \sigma_i \ge \sigma_j.$$
(47)

Let  $\hat{\tau}_{ki} = \max{\{\tilde{\tau}_{ki}, 0\}}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq p$ . For fixed  $(\tau_{k1}, \ldots, \tau_{kp})$ , let

$$\hat{c}_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{ki} Y_{i} / \{\sigma_{i}(1+\tau_{ki})\}}{\sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{ki} / \{\sigma_{i}^{2}(1+\tau_{ki})\}} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{w}_{k} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} Q_{ki},$$
(48)

with  $1 \leq k \leq d$ . Iterate between (50) and (51) until convergence. 3. Repeat the above E-step and M-step until the algorithm converges.

# References

- Allison, D. B., Gadbury, G. L., Heo, M., Fernández, J. R., Lee, C.-K., Prolla, T. A., and Weindruch, R. (2002). A mixture model approach for the analysis of microarray gene expression data. Computational Statistics & Data Analysis, 39(1):1–20.
- Barlow, R. (1972). Statistical inference under order restrictions; the theory and application of isotonic regression. Technical report.
- Brown, L. D. (2008). In-season prediction of batting averages: A field test of empirical bayes and bayes methodologies. The Annals of Applied Statistics, pages 113–152.
- Brown, L. D. and Greenshtein, E. (2009). Nonparametric empirical Bayes and compound decision approaches to estimation of a high-dimensional vector of normal means. The Annals of Statistics, 37(4):1685-1704.
- Efron, B. (2004). Large-scale simultaneous hypothesis testing: the choice of a null hypothesis. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 99(465):96–104.
- Fan, J. and Li, R. (2001). Variable selection via nonconcave penalized likelihood and its oracle properties. Journal of the American statistical Association, 96(456):1348–1360.
- Fraley, C. and Raftery, A. E. (2002). Model-based clustering, discriminant analysis, and density estimation. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 97(458):611–631.

- Gassiat, E. and Van Handel, R. (2013). Consistent order estimation and minimal penalties. IEEE Transactions on Information Theory, 59(2):1115–1128.
- George, E. I. (1986). Minimax multiple shrinkage estimation. The Annals of Statistics, 14(1):188–205.
- George, E. I. and McCulloch, R. E. (1993). Variable selection via Gibbs sampling. *Journal of the* American Statistical Association, 88(423):881–889.
- Ishwaran, H. and Rao, J. S. (2005). Spike and slab variable selection: frequentist and Bayesian strategies. Annals of Statistics, 33(2):730–773.
- Jiang, W. and Zhang, C.-H. (2009). General maximum likelihood empirical Bayes estimation of normal means. The Annals of Statistics, 37(4):1647–1684.
- Johnstone, I. M. and Silverman, B. W. (2004). Needles and straw in haystacks: empirical Bayes estimates of possibly sparse sequences. *The Annals of Statistics*, 32(4):1594–1649.
- Johnstone, I. M. and Silverman, B. W. (2005). Empirical Bayes selection of wavelet thresholds. Annals of Statistics, 33(4):1700–1752.
- Ke, Z. T., Fan, J., and Wu, Y. (2015). Homogeneity pursuit. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 110(509):175–194.
- Keribin, C. (1998). Consistent estimate of the order of mixture models. Comptes Rendus de l'Academie des Sciences Series I Mathematics, 326(2):243–248.
- Kiefer, J. and Wolfowitz, J. (1956). Consistency of the maximum likelihood estimator in the presence of infinitely many incidental parameters. The Annals of Mathematical Statistics, 27(4):887–906.
- Koenker, R. and Gu, J. (2016). Rebayes: An R package for empirical Bayes mixture methods. Preprint.
- Koenker, R. and Mizera, I. (2014). Convex optimization, shape constraints, compound decisions, and empirical Bayes rules. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 109(506):674–685.
- Leroux, B. G. (1992). Consistent estimation of a mixing distribution. *The Annals of Statistics*, 20(3):1350–1360.
- MacLehose, R. F. and Dunson, D. B. (2010). Bayesian semiparametric multiple shrinkage. *Biometrics*, 66(2):455–462.
- Martin, R. and Walker, S. G. (2014). Asymptotically minimax empirical Bayes estimation of a sparse normal mean vector. *Electronic Journal of Statistics*, 8(2):2188–2206.
- Mitchell, T. J. and Beauchamp, J. J. (1988). Bayesian variable selection in linear regression. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 83(404):1023–1032.
- Morris, C. N. (1983). Parametric empirical Bayes inference: theory and applications. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 78(381):47–55.
- Muralidharan, O. (2010). An empirical Bayes mixture method for effect size and false discovery rate estimation. *The Annals of Applied Statistics*, 4(1):422–438.

- Petrone, S., Rousseau, J., Scricciolo, C., et al. (2014). Bayes and empirical Bayes: do they merge? *Biometrika*, 101(2):285–302.
- Raykar, V. C. and Zhao, L. H. (2011). Empirical Bayesian thresholding for sparse signals using mixture loss functions. *Statistica Sinica*, 21(2011):449–474.

Robertson, T., Wright, F., and Dykstra, R. (1988). Order restricted statistical inference.

- Silverman, B. W. (1999). Wavelets in statistics: beyond the standard assumptions. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences, 357(1760):2459-2473.
- Silverman, B. W. and Johnstone, I. (2005). Ebayesthresh: R programs for empirical Bayes thresholding. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 12(08).
- Stein, C. M. (1981). Estimation of the mean of a multivariate normal distribution. The Annals of Statistics, 9(6):1135–1151.
- Tan, Z. (2015). Improved minimax estimation of a multivariate normal mean under heteroscedasticity. Bernoulli, 21(1):574–603.
- Weinstein, A., Ma, Z., Brown, L. D., and Zhang, C.-H. (2015). Group-linear empirical Bayes estimates for a heteroscedastic normal mean. arXiv preprint arXiv:1503.08503.
- Xie, X., Kou, S., and Brown, L. D. (2012). SURE estimates for a heteroscedastic hierarchical model. Journal of the American Statistical Association, 107(500):1465–1479.
- Zhang, C.-H. (2010). Nearly unbiased variable selection under minimax concave penalty. *The Annals of Statistics*, 38(2):894–942.

			<i>k</i> =	= 5			<i>k</i> =	= 50			k = 5	500	
		3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7	3	4	5	7
(A)	L-Normal (median)	33	28	21	10	188	166	116	30	1027	901	619	164
	L-Normal (mean)	33	29	21	9	174	148	98	26	788	690	480	130
	Semi (median)	12	11	11	11	56	57	57	58	947	836	598	169
	Semi (mean)	12	12	12	12	56	57	57	58	773	689	484	134
(B)	L-Normal (median)	49	76	83	39	375	428	364	123	1020	908	613	192
	L-Normal (mean)	48	72	75	34	303	334	276	99	772	668	460	135
	Semi (median)	48	71	69	39	356	409	334	109	678	580	445	209
	Semi (mean)	49	69	66	37	295	345	289	99	542	505	412	220
(C)	L-Normal (median)	26	27	24	12	170	154	128	59	949	965	833	492
	L-Normal (mean)	27	27	23	11	164	154	121	58	883	884	766	465
	Semi (median)	11	11	11	10	56	57	58	58	875	889	787	497
	Semi (mean)	12	12	11	11	56	57	58	58	855	864	761	479
(D)	L-Normal (median)	50	72	74	51	359	407	358	187	1117	1122	964	581
	L-Normal (mean)	49	68	70	43	289	316	282	150	900	906	796	518
	Semi (median)	47	65	68	47	340	383	332	171	1075	1023	877	603
	Semi (mean)	49	63	65	44	287	323	276	147	773	808	762	592
(E)	L-Normal (median)	46	58	41	21	286	275	196	54	980	859	590	174
	L-Normal (mean)	45	53	39	17	236	225	160	44	748	653	452	132
	Semi (median)	43	51	37	20	251	230	179	126	895	799	587	200
	Semi (mean)	43	50	41	25	223	233	205	152	677	630	473	181
(F)	L-Normal (median)	43	48	42	22	255	260	208	97	1006	1025	886	527
	L-Normal (mean)	42	45	40	21	214	216	177	86	868	880	773	489
	Semi (median)	39	43	38	24	223	220	186	127	1033	1000	864	555
	Semi (mean)	40	44	40	27	204	219	203	155	838	860	778	531
(G)	L-Normal (median)	46	53	40	16	286	276	193	53	979	858	591	175
	L-Normal (mean)	45	49	36	15	236	224	158	44	747	653	452	133
	Semi (median)	42	47	34	20	250	229	178	126	891	798	587	200
	Semi (mean)	43	46	38	24	223	233	204	152	676	629	473	182
(H)	L-Normal (median)	41	47	41	22	254	253	209	96	1004	1010	887	530
	L-Normal (mean)	40	44	38	20	214	215	175	88	868	878	772	490
	Semi (median)	37	42	37	22	224	221	183	129	1032	989	868	557
	Semi (mean)	39	42	39	26	205	218	202	156	839	859	778	533
(I)	L-Normal (median)	35	26	17	4	183	124	54	5	588	357	152	12
	L-Normal (mean)	33	26	16	4	152	102	45	5	448	276	116	9
	Semi (median)	35	26	17	7	179	124	56	8	584	355	153	16
( = )	Semi (mean)	35	30	21	9	160	109	49	8	452	281	121	13
(J)	L-Normal (median)	29	26	21	7	166	144	97	43	670	598	476	296
	L-Normal (mean)	27	24	20	7	141	122	86	40	593	537	433	288
	Semi (median)	27	24	20	9	165	145	100	44	681	603	480	301
	Semi (mean)	29	27	22	11	145	126	88	42	598	542	438	293

Table 7: Average of total squared error of estimation of various methods on a mixed signal of length 1000. The results are based on 100 simulation runs.

			$a_0$	
m	method	10	15	20
8	Semi (mean)	0.820	0.840	0.850
8	Semi (median)	0.864	0.909	0.943
8	NPMLE (mean)	0.843	0.863	0.865
8	NPMLE (median)	0.909	0.937	0.939
16	Semi (mean)	0.814	0.845	0.857
16	Semi (median)	0.856	0.911	0.951
16	NPMLE (mean)	0.825	0.859	0.861
16	NPMLE(median)	0.895	0.931	0.941

Table 8: Ratio of the MSE of the proposed method and NPMLE to that of Johnstone and Silverman (2005).