

## I. Bayesian econometrics

- A. Introduction
- B. Bayesian inference in the univariate regression model
- C. Statistical decision theory
- D. Large sample results
- E. Diffuse priors
- F. Numerical Bayesian methods
  - 1. Importance sampling

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Generic Bayesian problem:

$p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)$  = likelihood (known)

$p(\theta)$  = prior (known)

goal: calculate

$$p(\theta|\mathbf{Y}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta)}{G}$$

for  $G = \int p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta)d\theta$

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Analytical approach: choose  $p(\theta)$  from a family such that  $G$  can be found with clever algebra.

Numerical approach: satisfied to be able to generate draws

$$\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \dots, \theta^{(D)}$$

from the distribution  $p(\theta|\mathbf{Y})$  without ever knowing the distribution (i.e., without calculating  $G$ )

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Importance sampling:

Step (1): Generate  $\theta^{(j)}$  from an (essentially arbitrary) "importance density"  $g(\theta)$ .

Step (2): Calculate

$$\omega^{(j)} = \frac{p[\mathbf{Y}|\theta^{(j)}]p[\theta^{(j)}]}{g[\theta^{(j)}]}.$$

Step (3): Weight the draw  $\theta^{(j)}$  by  $\omega^{(j)}$  to simulate distribution of  $p(\theta|\mathbf{Y})$ .

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Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\theta|\mathbf{Y}) &= \int \theta p(\theta|\mathbf{Y}) d\theta \\ &\simeq \frac{\sum_{j=1}^D \theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}} \\ &\equiv \theta^* \end{aligned}$$

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$$\text{Var}(\theta|\mathbf{Y}) \simeq \frac{\sum_{j=1}^D (\theta^{(j)} - \theta^*)(\theta^{(j)} - \theta^*)' \omega^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}}$$

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$$\text{Prob}(\theta_2 < 0) \simeq \frac{\sum_{j=1}^D \delta_{[\theta_2^{(j)} < 0]} \omega^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}}$$

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How does this work?

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^D \theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}} = \frac{D^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^D \theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)}}{D^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}}$$

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Numerator:

$$\begin{aligned} D^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^D \theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)} &\stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} E[\theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)}] \\ &= \int \theta \omega(\theta) g(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int \theta \frac{p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta)}{g(\theta)} g(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int \theta p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

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Denominator:

$$\begin{aligned} D^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)} &\stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} E[\omega^{(j)}] \\ &= \int \omega(\theta) g(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta)}{g(\theta)} g(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta \\ &= p(\mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$$

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Conclusion:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sum_{j=1}^D \theta^{(j)} \omega^{(j)}}{\sum_{j=1}^D \omega^{(j)}} &\stackrel{p}{\rightarrow} \frac{\int \theta p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta) d\theta}{p(\mathbf{Y})} \\ &= \int \theta p(\theta|\mathbf{Y}) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

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What's required of  $g(\cdot)$ ?

$\omega^{(j)} = \frac{p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta^{(j)})p(\theta^{(j)})}{g(\theta^{(j)})}$  should satisfy

law of large numbers.

$\omega^{(j)}$  needs finite variance—  $g(\cdot)$  must have fatter tails than  $p(\mathbf{Y}|\theta)p(\theta)$ .

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Caveat:

Always produces an answer, needs to be checked.

(1) Try special cases where result is known analytically.

(2) Try different  $g(\cdot)$  to see if get the same result.

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(3) Use analytic results for components of  $\theta$  in order to keep dimension that must be importance-sampled small.

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## I. Bayesian econometrics

F. Numerical Bayesian methods

1. Importance sampling
2. The Gibbs sampler

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Suppose the parameter vector  $\theta$  can be partitioned as  $\theta' = (\theta_1', \theta_2', \theta_3')$  with the property that  $p(\theta|\mathbf{Y})$  is of unknown form but

$$p(\theta_1|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_2, \theta_3)$$

$$p(\theta_2|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1, \theta_3)$$

$$p(\theta_3|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1, \theta_2)$$

are of known form (same idea works for 2, 4, or  $n$  blocks)

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(1) Start with arbitrary initial guesses

$\theta_1^{(j)}, \theta_2^{(j)}, \theta_3^{(j)}$  for  $j = 1$ .

(2) Generate:

$\theta_1^{(j+1)}$  from  $p(\theta_1|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_2^{(j)}, \theta_3^{(j)})$

$\theta_2^{(j+1)}$  from  $p(\theta_2|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1^{(j+1)}, \theta_3^{(j)})$

$\theta_3^{(j+1)}$  from  $p(\theta_3|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1^{(j+1)}, \theta_2^{(j+1)})$

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(3) Repeat step (2) for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, D$

Notice the sequence  $\{\theta^{(j)}\}_{j=1}^D$  is a

Markov chain with transition kernel

$$\pi(\theta^{(j+1)}|\theta^{(j)}) = p(\theta_3^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1^{(j+1)}, \theta_2^{(j+1)})$$

$$p(\theta_2^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_1^{(j+1)}, \theta_3^{(j)})$$

$$p(\theta_1^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta_2^{(j)}, \theta_3^{(j)})$$

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Under quite general conditions, the realizations from a Markov chain for  $D \rightarrow \infty$  converge to draws from the ergodic distribution of the chain

$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta})$  satisfying

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j+1)}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j+1)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})d\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)}$$

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Claim: the ergodic distribution of this chain corresponds to the posterior distribution:

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y})$$

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Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j+1)}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)})d\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} \left\{ p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j+1)}) \right. \\ & \quad p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j)}) \\ & \quad \left. p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j)}) \right\} \\ & \quad p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)}|\mathbf{Y})d\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^k} p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} | \mathbf{Y}) d\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)} \\ &= p(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j+1)} | \mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$$

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Implication: if we throw out the first  $D_0$  draws (for  $D_0$  large), then  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(D_0+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(D_0+2)}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(D)}$  represent draws from the posterior distribution  $p(\boldsymbol{\theta} | \mathbf{Y})$ .

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Checks:  
(1) Change  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)}$   $\Rightarrow$  same answer?  
(2) Change  $D_0, D \Rightarrow$  same answer?  
(3) Plot  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(j)}$  as function of  $j$ .

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## I. Bayesian econometrics

### F. Numerical Bayesian methods

1. Importance sampling
2. The Gibbs sampler
3. Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

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Suppose  $\{s_t\}_{t=1}^T$  is an ergodic  
 $K$ -state Markov chain,

$$s_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$$

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with transition probabilities

$$p_{ij} = \Pr[s_t = j | s_{t-1} = i]$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^K p_{ij} = 1 \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, K$$

$$p_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \text{for } i, j = 1, \dots, K$$

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The ergodic or unconditional probabilities satisfy

$$\Pr[s_t = j] = \sum_{i=1}^K \Pr[s_t = j, s_{t-1} = i]$$

$$\pi_j = \sum_{i=1}^K p_{ij} \pi_i$$

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Proposition: Suppose we can find a set of numbers  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_K$  such that

$$f_j \geq 0 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, K$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^K f_j = 1$$

$$f_i p_{ij} = f_j p_{ji}$$

Then  $f_j = \pi_j$

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Proof: We're given that

$$f_i p_{ij} = f_j p_{ji}$$

sum over  $i$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^K f_i p_{ij} = f_j \sum_{i=1}^K p_{ji} = f_j$$

which satisfy definitions of  $\pi_i$ ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^K \pi_i p_{ij} = \pi_j$$

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Works also for continuous-valued Markov chains.

If  $\mathbf{x}_t \in \mathfrak{R}^k$  is Markov with transition kernel  $p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  (meaning that):

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathbf{x}_t \in A | \mathbf{x}_{t-1} = \mathbf{x}] \\ = \int_A p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

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then the ergodic density  $\pi(\mathbf{y})$ , which signifies that

$$\Pr[\mathbf{x}_t \in A] = \int_A \pi(\mathbf{y}) d\mathbf{y},$$

satisfies

$$\pi(\mathbf{y}) = \int_{\mathfrak{R}^k} p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \pi(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

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Proposition: if

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}$$

$$\int_{\mathfrak{R}^k} f(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = 1$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{y}) p(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$

then

$$\pi(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$$

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Goal in Metropolis-Hastings:

We know how to calculate  $h\pi(\mathbf{x})$   
(where  $h$  may be an unknown constant)  
and want to sample from it.

Solution: generate a sample  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}$   
from a Markov chain whose ergodic  
density is  $\pi(\mathbf{x})$

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How MH works:

We previously generated  $\mathbf{x}_{i-1} = \mathbf{x}$

We now generate a candidate  
 $\mathbf{y}$  from some known density  $q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$

We'll then set  $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{y}$  if  $\pi(\mathbf{y})/\pi(\mathbf{x})$   
is big and otherwise keep  $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}$

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Let  $\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  be probability we set  
 $\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{y}$

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If  $\pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) > 0$ , then

$$\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \min \left[ \frac{\pi(\mathbf{y})q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{\pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}, 1 \right]$$

otherwise

$$\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = 1$$

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When  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ , the transition kernel of this chain is  $q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$ . To show that  $\pi(\mathbf{y})$  is the ergodic density of this chain, we must show that

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$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\mathbf{x})\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \\ = \pi(\mathbf{y})\alpha(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

But

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\mathbf{x})\alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \\ = \pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \min \left[ \frac{\pi(\mathbf{y})q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}{\pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})}, 1 \right] \\ = \min[\pi(\mathbf{y})q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}), \pi(\mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})] \\ = \pi(\mathbf{y})\alpha(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) \end{aligned}$$

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Options for candidate density:

(1) independent  $q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{y})$

e.g.,  $\mathbf{y} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\Lambda})$  where  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$  is our guess of mean of  $\pi(\mathbf{y})$

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Options for candidate density:

(2) random walk

$q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$

e.g.,

$q(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} |\boldsymbol{\Lambda}|^{-1/2}$   
 $\times \exp[(-1/2)(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})' \boldsymbol{\Lambda}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})]$

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