

Introduction to Bayesian Estimation

How do Classical and Bayesian Analysis Differ?

Consider a simple model:

$$y_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t \quad \text{where} \quad t = 1, 2, \dots, T$$

$$\varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

Assume σ^2 is known \implies we want to estimate μ

$$\hat{\mu} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T y_t \qquad \hat{\mu} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{T}\right)$$

95% confidence interval: $\left[\hat{\mu} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{T}}, \hat{\mu} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{T}} \right]$

How do Classical and Bayesian Analysis Differ?

1. Classical analysis

- μ is a fixed, unknown quantity \Rightarrow “true value”
- The estimator $\hat{\mu}$ is a random variable and is evaluated via repeated sampling \Rightarrow the interval we constructed will contain the true value in 95% of cases if we estimate $\hat{\mu}$ for thousand different samples taken from a population with given μ and σ^2
- The estimator $\hat{\mu}$ is “best” in the sense of having the highest probability of being close to the true μ
 \Rightarrow Probability is objective and is the limit of the relative frequency of an event.

How do Classical and Bayesian Analysis Differ?

2. Bayesian analysis

- μ is treated as a **random variable** \implies it has a probability distribution
- The distribution summarizes our knowledge about the model parameter \implies 2 sources of information:
 - **Prior information** (before seeing the data): subjective belief about how likely different parameter values are
 - **Sample information**: leads researcher to revise/update his prior beliefs
- **Probabilities are subjective** and *not* necessarily related to the relative frequency of an event.
- Explicit use of probabilities to quantify uncertainty.

Key Ingredients for Bayesian Analysis

1. Probabilities

⇒ Review some probability rules to derive Bayes' rule

2. Initial information

⇒ What is the reason for using prior information?

⇒ How to specify a prior distribution for parameters?

3. How to combine data and non-data (prior) information?

⇒ Bayesian estimation in practice

Some Rules of Probability

Consider two random variables: A and B

The rules of probability imply: $p(A, B) = p(A | B) p(B)$

Where

- $p(A, B)$ is the *joint* probability of A and B
- $p(A | B)$ is the probability of A occurring *conditional* on B having occurred
- $p(B)$ is the *marginal* probability of B

Alternatively, we can reverse the roles of A and B so that:

$$p(A, B) = p(B | A) p(A)$$

Bayes' Rule

Equating the two expressions for the joint probability of A and B provides us with *Bayes' rule*:

$$p(B|A) = \frac{p(A|B)p(B)}{p(A)}$$

Let's map this rule into a simple regression model where we want to learn about a parameter θ given the data y :

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta)p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

A Closer Look at Each Component

Key object of interest: $p(\theta \mid \mathbf{y})$

- $p(\mathbf{y}) \implies$ **marginal data density**
Since we are interested in learning about θ , we can ignore $p(\mathbf{y})$ since it does not involve θ .
- $p(\theta) \implies$ **prior density**
It does not depend on the data \mathbf{y} ; instead, it contains non-data information about θ .
- $p(\mathbf{y} \mid \theta) \implies$ **likelihood function**
It is the density of the data conditional on the parameters.

The Posterior Distribution

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta)p(\theta)$$

“The posterior is proportional to the likelihood times the prior.”

- The posterior summarizes all we know about θ *after* seeing the data.
 - ⇒ The posterior combines both data and non-data information.
- The equation can be viewed as an **updating rule** where the data allow us to update our prior views about θ .

Skills for Bayesian Inference

Bayesian inference requires a good knowledge of:

- Probability distributions
 - to formulate prior distributions
 - to generate draws from them
 - to analyze posterior distributions
- Numerical simulation techniques
 - Gibbs sampling
 - Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

More on Priors

- Two decisions with regard to priors:
 1. Family of the prior distribution
 2. Hyperparameters of the prior distribution
- *In principle* any distribution can be combined with the likelihood to form the posterior.
- *Conjugate priors*

If a prior is conjugate, then the posterior has the same density as the prior. \implies Very convenient
- *Natural conjugate priors*

Additional property: they have the same functional form as the likelihood function. \implies The prior can be interpreted as arising from earlier data analysis.

The Linear Regression Model

- Consider the linear regression model with K fixed regressors:

$$\mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \quad \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \sigma^2 \mathbf{I}_T)$$

where \mathbf{Y} and $\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$ are $T \times 1$ vectors, \mathbf{X} is a $T \times K$ matrix of exogenous variables and deterministic terms.

- Likelihood:

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{T}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right]$$

Bayesian Analysis

- Idea 1: The parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta} = [\boldsymbol{\beta}' \ \sigma^2]'$ are random variables with a probability distribution.
- Idea 2: A Bayesian estimate of this distribution combines prior beliefs and information from the data.
 - Step 1: Form prior beliefs about parameters (based on past experience or other studies) and express in the form of a probability distribution: $p(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
 - Step 2: Information contained in the data is summarized by the likelihood function: $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y})$
 - Step 3: Bayes' Rule gives the posterior distribution of the parameters: $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y}) \propto L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y})p(\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Example 1: Inference of β when σ^2 known

Prior distribution of β

$$p(\beta|\sigma^2) \sim N(\beta_0, \Sigma_0)$$

$$\text{Prior density: } (2\pi)^{-\frac{K}{2}} |\Sigma_0|^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_0)' \Sigma_0^{-1} (\beta - \beta_0) \right\}$$

$$p(\beta|\sigma^2) \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\beta - \beta_0)' \Sigma_0^{-1} (\beta - \beta_0) \right\}$$

$$\text{Example: } \beta_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Likelihood

$$L(\beta|\sigma^2, \mathbf{Y}) \propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta) \right\}$$

Combining **prior density** and **likelihood**

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2, \mathbf{Y}) \propto p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2) L(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2, \mathbf{Y})$$

$$\propto \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0) - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right\}$$

Posterior distribution of $\boldsymbol{\beta}$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2, \mathbf{Y}) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1 &= (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}) \\ &= (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}) \text{ with } \mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y} \end{aligned}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_1 = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \sigma^{-2} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

Example 2: Inference of σ^2 when β known

- Recall: $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2) \implies W = \sum_{i=1}^v \varepsilon_i^2$
then $W \sim \Gamma(v, \delta)$

with the density for the Gamma distribution given by:

$$p(W) = [\Gamma(v/2)]^{-1} \left[\frac{\delta}{2} \right]^{v/2} W^{(v/2 - 1)} \exp\left[-\frac{\delta}{2} W\right]$$

where $E(W) = \frac{v}{\delta}$ and $Var(W) = \frac{v}{\delta^2}$

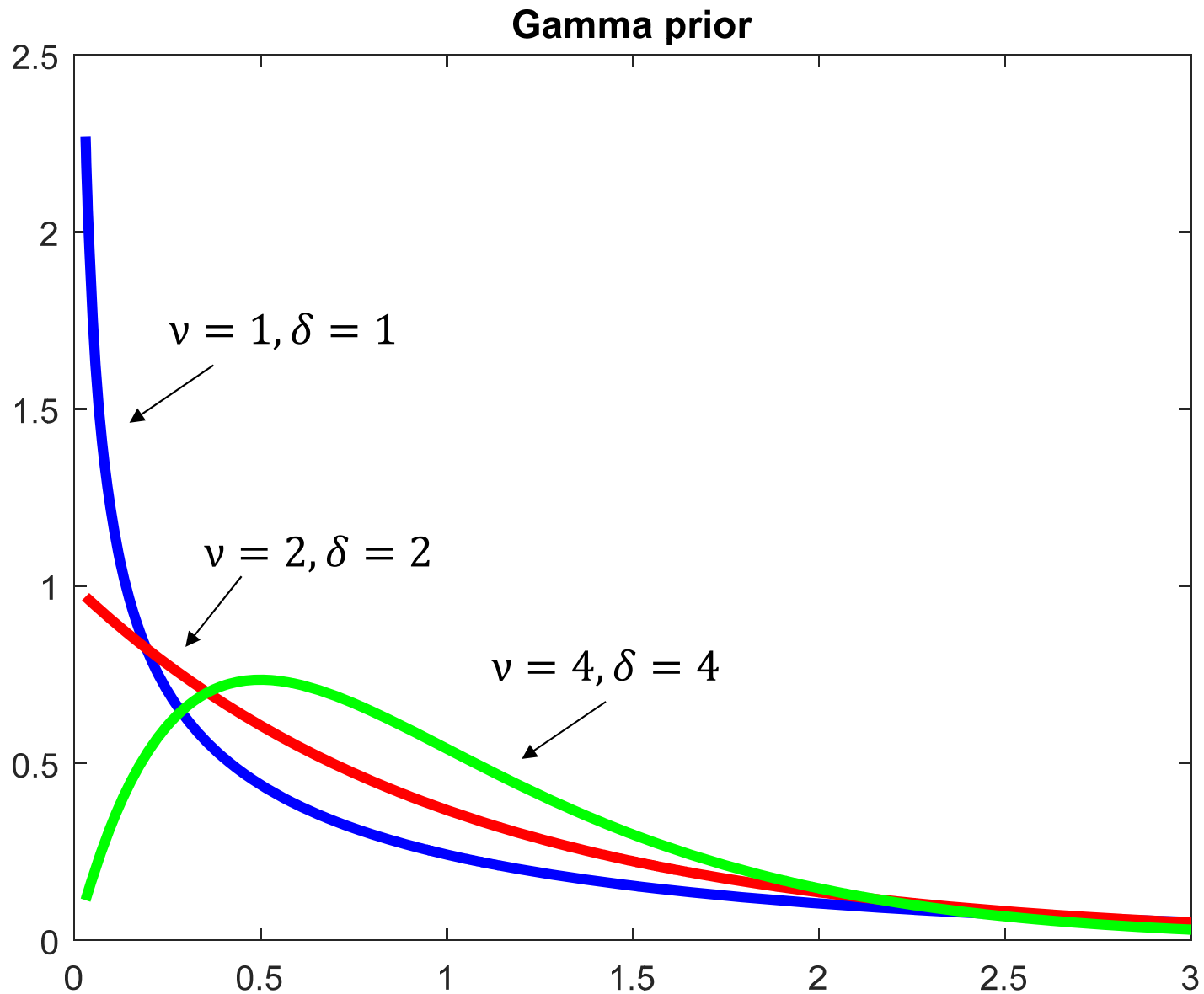
- Use this as a prior for the inverse of the variance σ^2 (also called the “precision”):

$$p(1/\sigma^2) \sim \Gamma(v_0, \delta_0)$$

Why Use this Prior?

- 1) $p(\sigma^2) = 0$ for $\sigma^2 < 0$
- 2) flexible family (different shapes)

Gamma Distributions with Mean Unity



Why Use this Prior?

- 3) It is the “natural conjugate prior” given the likelihood, meaning that if the prior is $p(1/\sigma^2) \sim \Gamma(v_0, \delta_0)$, then the posterior turns out to be $p(1/\sigma^2 | \mathbf{Y}) \sim \Gamma(v_1, \delta_1)$
- If prior were derived from earlier data analysis, it would have this form
 - ⇒ it is equivalent to having v_0 observations with sum of squared residuals δ_0
 - This prior makes analytical treatment of the problem tractable

Example 2: Inference of σ^2 when β known

Prior distribution of $1/\sigma^2$

$$p(1/\sigma^2|\beta) \sim \Gamma(\nu_0, \delta_0)$$

$$\text{Prior density: } p(1/\sigma^2|\beta) \propto \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)^{\frac{\nu_0}{2}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{\delta_0}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

Likelihood

$$L(1/\sigma^2|\beta, \mathbf{Y}) \propto \frac{1}{(\sigma^2)^{\frac{T}{2}}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\beta)\right\}$$

Combining **prior density** and **likelihood**

$$\begin{aligned} p(1/\sigma^2|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Y}) &\propto p(1/\sigma^2|\boldsymbol{\beta}) L(\sigma^2|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Y}) \\ &\propto \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)^{\frac{\nu_0}{2}-1} \exp\left\{-\frac{\delta_0}{2\sigma^2}\right\} \frac{1}{(\sigma^2)^{\frac{T}{2}}} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right\} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2}\right)^{\frac{\nu_0}{2} + \frac{T}{2} - 1} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} [\delta_0 + (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})]\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Posterior distribution of $1/\sigma^2$

$$p(1/\sigma^2|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Y}) \sim \Gamma(\nu_1, \delta_1)$$

where

$$\nu_1 = \nu_0 + T$$

$$\delta_1 = \delta_0 + (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})$$

What If All Parameters Are Unknown?

- Setting the prior: *joint* density for $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ and $1/\sigma^2$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, 1/\sigma^2) = p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2) p(1/\sigma^2)$$

$$\text{where } p(\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^2) \sim N(\boldsymbol{\beta}_0, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0)$$

$$p(1/\sigma^2) \sim \Gamma(\nu_0, \delta_0)$$

- Setting up the likelihood function

$$p(\mathbf{Y}|\boldsymbol{\beta}, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{\frac{T}{2}}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})\right]$$

What If All Parameters Are Unknown?

- Calculating the *joint* posterior distribution

$$p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, 1/\sigma^2 | \mathbf{Y}) \propto p(\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, 1/\sigma^2)$$

$$\propto \frac{1}{(\sigma^2)^{\frac{T}{2}}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta})' (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}) \right\}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right)^{\frac{\nu_0}{2} - 1} \exp \left\{ -\frac{\delta_0}{2\sigma^2} \right\}$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \right)^{K/2} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0)' \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\beta} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0) \right\}$$

Posterior for $\sigma^{-2}|\mathbf{Y}$

$$1/\sigma^2|\mathbf{Y} \sim \Gamma(\nu^*, \delta^*)$$

$$\nu^* = \nu_0 + T$$

$$\delta^* = \delta_0 + (\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b})'(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}) + (\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0)' \widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}(\mathbf{b} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_0)$$

$$\mathbf{b} = (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$$

$$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$$

Posterior for $\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y}$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^*, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^*)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

- Diffuse prior: $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0 \rightarrow \infty \cdot \mathbf{I}_K$
 $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* \rightarrow (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$
 $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}^* \rightarrow (\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y}$

= usual OLS formulas

Posterior for $\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y}$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^*, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^*)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

- Dogmatic prior: $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0 \rightarrow 0 \cdot \mathbf{I}_K$
 $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$
 $\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}^* \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}_0$

posterior = prior

Posterior for $\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y}$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}|\sigma^{-2}, \mathbf{Y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\beta}^*, \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^*)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{Y})$$

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} + \mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X})^{-1}$$

- In general: $\boldsymbol{\beta}^*$ is a matrix-weighted average of $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$, where weights depend on confidence in prior ($\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0$) and strength of evidence from data ($\mathbf{X}'\mathbf{X}$)

Another Way to Interpret the Prior

- Suppose I had observed an earlier sample of \tilde{T} observations:

$$\{\tilde{Y}_t, \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t\}_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}}$$

which were independent of the current observed sample:

$$\{Y_t, \mathbf{X}_t\}_{t=1}^T$$

Another Way to Interpret the Prior

- Then my OLS estimate based on all information would be:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} = \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{Y}_t + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_t \right)$$

with variance (given σ^2) of:

$$Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2 \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1}$$

Another Way to Interpret the Prior

- Let $\boldsymbol{\beta}_0$ be the OLS estimate based on the prior sample *alone*:

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_0 = \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_t \right)$$

and let $\sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0$ denote its variance:

$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0 = \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1}$$

Another Way to Interpret the Prior

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} &= \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1} \\ &\quad \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{Y}_t + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{Y}}_t \right) \\ &= \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \right)^{-1} \\ &\quad \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{Y}_t + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 \right)\end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow identical to formula for posterior mean $\boldsymbol{\beta}^*$

Another Way to Interpret the Prior

$$Var(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}) = \sigma^2 \left(\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t' \right)^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^2 (\sum_{t=1}^T \mathbf{X}_t \mathbf{X}_t' + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1})^{-1}$$

$$= \sigma^2 \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^*$$

\Rightarrow for $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^*$ the posterior variance defined earlier

Dummy Observations

- Augment original dataset with artificial observations that correspond to the prior

$$\mathbf{y}^*_{(T+k) \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_T \\ \mathbf{P}^{-1} \boldsymbol{\beta}_0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{X}^*_{(T+k) \times k} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}'_0 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}'_{T-1} \\ \mathbf{P}^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where \mathbf{P}^{-1} is the Cholesky factor of $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_0^{-1} (= \mathbf{P}^{-1} \mathbf{P}^{-1'})$

$$\Rightarrow \boldsymbol{\beta}^* = \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T+k} \mathbf{x}^*_{t-1} \mathbf{x}^{*'}_{t-1} \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T+k} \mathbf{x}^*_{t-1} y^*_t \right)$$

Sources of Prior Information

- Observations of another dataset
 - Earlier time period
 - Different country
 - Question: How representative of sample/country we want to analyze?

Sources of Prior Information

- Solution: downweight these observations by κ

$$\text{Use } \nu = \kappa \tilde{T}, \delta = \kappa \sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} (y_{\tilde{t}} - \hat{\beta}'_i \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1})^2$$

$$\beta_0 = \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1} \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1}' \right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1} y_{\tilde{t}} \right)$$

$$\Sigma_0 = \kappa^{-1} \left(\sum_{\tilde{t}=1}^{\tilde{T}} \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1} \mathbf{x}_{\tilde{t}-1}' \right)^{-1}$$

$\kappa = 1 \Rightarrow$ earlier data just as good as current

$\kappa = 0.5 \Rightarrow$ earlier gets half the weight of current

$\kappa = 0 \Rightarrow$ earlier data completely ignored

\Rightarrow κ summarizes how much you trust the other dataset
(how many observations the prior is counted as)₃₅

Sources of Prior Information

- Typical time-series properties
 - Most variables are hard to forecast
 - most elements of β_0 are zero
 - To the extent that variables do help, most recent values are likely to be more useful
- ⇒ Minnesota prior
(we will study in relation to VARs)

What About the Marginal Posterior for β ?

- To make inference on β , we need to know the *marginal* posterior:

$$p(\beta|\mathbf{Y}) = \int_0^\infty p(\beta, \frac{1}{\sigma^2} | \mathbf{Y}) d \frac{1}{\sigma^2}$$

- For this simple model under the natural conjugate prior analytical results can be obtained:

$\beta|\mathbf{Y} \sim$ **multivariate Student t** with $\nu_0 + T$ degrees of freedom, mean β^* , and scale matrix $(\delta^*/\nu^*) \Sigma^*$ as defined before

- BUT
 - » integration is hard
 - » with other prior distributions analytical derivation of joint and marginal posterior is not possible

Solution: Gibbs Sampling

- Suppose the parameter vector $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ can be partitioned as $\boldsymbol{\theta}' = (\boldsymbol{\theta}'_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_2, \boldsymbol{\theta}'_3)$ with the property that $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y})$ is of unknown form but

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3)$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3)$$

$$p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_3|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2)$$

are of known form and we can easily sample from these *conditional* distributions (same idea works for 2, 4, or n blocks)

Gibbs Sampling: Theory

- What does that buy us?
 - Theory suggests that if we obtain many samples $\theta_1^{(j)}, j \rightarrow \infty$ from $p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{Y}, \theta_2, \theta_3)$, then these will also be samples from the **joint posterior** $p(\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3 | \mathbf{Y})$ (see Geman and Geman, 1984; Casella and George, 1992)
 - The **marginal posterior** distribution $p(\theta_1 | \mathbf{Y})$ can be approximated by the *empirical* distribution of θ_1
 \Rightarrow for example: estimate of mean for $\theta_{1,i}$ is the sample mean of retained draws $\frac{1}{(D-D_0)} \sum_{j=D_0+1}^D \theta_{1,i}$

Gibbs Sampling: Implementation

(1) Start with arbitrary initial guesses

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j)} \text{ for } j = 1.$$

(2) Generate: $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}$ from $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j)})$

$\boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j+1)}$ from $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j)})$

$\boldsymbol{\theta}_3^{(j+1)}$ from $p(\boldsymbol{\theta}_3 | \mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1^{(j+1)}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2^{(j+1)})$

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

(4) Throw out first D_0 draws (for D_0 large) and use remaining $(D - D_0)$ draws for inference

Back to our Regression Model

- Idea: By sampling repeatedly from the conditional distributions $p(\boldsymbol{\beta} | \frac{1}{\sigma^2}, \mathbf{Y})$ and $p(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} | \boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{Y})$, we can approximate the joint and marginal distributions of our parameters of interest
- Steps:
 1. Set priors and initial guess for σ^2
 2. Sample $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ conditional on $\frac{1}{\sigma^2}$
 3. Sample $\frac{1}{\sigma^2}$ conditional on $\boldsymbol{\beta}$
 4. Cycle through steps (2) and (3) a large number of times and keep only the last $(D - D_0)$ draws

Application 1

- Linear regression model with one exogenous variable:

$$y_t = x_t \beta + \varepsilon_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon_t \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

- Gibbs sampling algorithm:

(1) a. Set priors: $\beta \sim N(b_0, P_0)$ and $\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sim \Gamma(t_0, R_0)$

Prior hyperparameters:

$$b_0 = 0.5, P_0 = 10, t_0 = 0, R_0 = 0$$

b. Set starting value for first iteration

$$\sigma^{2,(0)} = 1$$

Application 1

(2) At iteration j , conditional on draw $\sigma^{2,(j-1)}$, draw

$$\boldsymbol{\beta}^j | \sigma^{2,(j-1)}, \mathbf{y} \sim N(\mathbf{b}_1^{j-1}, \mathbf{P}_1^{j-1})$$

where

$$\mathbf{P}_1^{j-1} = (\mathbf{P}_0^{-1} + \sigma^{2,(j-1)} \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{x})^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{b}_1^{j-1} = \mathbf{P}_1^{j-1} (\mathbf{P}_0^{-1} \mathbf{b}_0 + \sigma^{2,(j-1)} \mathbf{x}'\mathbf{y})$$

(3) Conditional on draw $\boldsymbol{\beta}^j$, draw

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^{2,(j)}} | \boldsymbol{\beta}^j, \mathbf{y} \sim \Gamma(t_1, R_1^j)$$

where

$$t_1 = t_0 + T$$

$$R_1^j = R_0 + (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta}^j)'(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\boldsymbol{\beta}^j)'$$

How to Take Draws

- Normal distribution

To sample a $k \times 1$ vector \mathbf{z} from $N(\mathbf{m}, \mathbf{V})$, generate $k \times 1$ draws \mathbf{z}^0 from the standard normal distribution (`randn` in Matlab) and then apply the following transformation

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{m} + \left[(\mathbf{z}^0)' \cdot \mathbf{V}^{1/2} \right]' = \mathbf{m} + [\text{randn}(1, k) \cdot \text{chol}(\mathbf{V})]'$$

➤ \mathbf{A} is said to be a square root of \mathbf{V} if the matrix product

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}$$

➤ For positive-definite matrices, one way to obtain the square root is the *Choleski decomposition* (`chol` in Matlab): $\mathbf{C} = \text{chol}(\mathbf{V})' \Rightarrow \mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}' = \mathbf{V}$

How to Take Draws

- Inverse gamma distribution

$$\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sim \Gamma\left(\nu, \frac{1}{\delta}\right)$$
$$\sigma^2 \sim \Gamma^{-1}(\nu, \delta)$$

To sample a scalar s from an inverse gamma with degrees of freedom ν and scale parameter δ , there are 2 options:

- generate T numbers from $\mathbf{s}^0 \sim N(0, 1)$ and apply the following transformation

$$s = \frac{\delta}{(\mathbf{s}^0)' \mathbf{s}^0}$$

- generate a draw \bar{s} from a gamma with degrees of freedom ν and scale parameter $\frac{1}{\delta}$ (**gamrnd** in Matlab) and compute

$$s = \frac{1}{\bar{s}}$$

Posterior Distribution

