

Bayesian Inference for DSGE Models

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Outline

- State space-observer form.
 - convenient for model estimation and many other things.
- Preliminaries.
 - Probabilities.
 - Maximum Likelihood.
- Bayesian inference
 - Bayes' rule.
 - Bayesians versus Classicals.
 - Monte Carlo integration.
 - MCMC algorithm.
 - Laplace approximation.
 - Marginal Likelihood of the Data.

State Space/Observer Form

- Compact summary of the model, and of the mapping between the model and data used in the analysis.
- Typically, data are available in log form. So, the following is useful:
 - If x is steady state of x_t :

$$\hat{x}_t \equiv \frac{x_t - x}{x},$$

$$\implies \frac{x_t}{x} = 1 + \hat{x}_t$$

$$\implies \log\left(\frac{x_t}{x}\right) = \log(1 + \hat{x}_t) \approx \hat{x}_t$$

- Suppose we have a model solution in hand:¹

$$z_t = Az_{t-1} + Bs_t$$

$$s_t = Ps_{t-1} + \epsilon_t, E\epsilon_t\epsilon_t' = D.$$

¹Notation taken from solution lecture notes,
[http://faculty.wcas.northwestern.edu/~lchrist/course/Korea 2012/lecture on solving rev.pdf](http://faculty.wcas.northwestern.edu/~lchrist/course/Korea%202012/lecture%20on%20solving%20rev.pdf)

State Space/Observer Form

- Suppose we have a model in which the date t endogenous variables are capital, K_{t+1} , and labor, N_t :

$$z_t = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{K}_{t+1} \\ \hat{N}_t \end{pmatrix}, s_t = \hat{\varepsilon}_t, \varepsilon_t = e_t.$$

- Data may include variables in z_t and/or other variables.
 - for example, suppose available data are N_t and GDP , y_t and production function in model is:

$$y_t = \varepsilon_t K_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha},$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{y}_t &= \hat{\varepsilon}_t + \alpha \hat{K}_t + (1 - \alpha) \hat{N}_t \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix} z_t + \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & 0 \end{pmatrix} z_{t-1} + s_t \end{aligned}$$

- From the properties of \hat{y}_t and \hat{N}_t :

$$Y_t^{data} = \begin{pmatrix} \log y_t \\ \log N_t \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \log y \\ \log N \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \hat{y}_t \\ \hat{N}_t \end{pmatrix}$$

State Space/Observer Form

- Model prediction for data:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_t^{data} &= \begin{pmatrix} \log y \\ \log \hat{N}_t \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \hat{y}_t \\ \hat{N}_t \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} \log y \\ \log \hat{N} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 - \alpha \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} z_t + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} z_{t-1} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} s_t \\ &= a + H\tilde{\zeta}_t \end{aligned}$$

$$\tilde{\zeta}_t = \begin{pmatrix} z_t \\ z_{t-1} \\ \hat{\varepsilon}_t \end{pmatrix}, \quad a = \begin{bmatrix} \log y \\ \log \hat{N} \end{bmatrix}, \quad H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The *Observer Equation* may include measurement error, w_t :

$$Y_t^{data} = a + H\tilde{\zeta}_t + w_t, \quad Ew_t w_t' = R.$$

- Semantics: $\tilde{\zeta}_t$ is the *state* of the system (do not confuse with the economic state (K_t, ε_t) !).

State Space/Observer Form

- Law of motion of the state, $\tilde{\zeta}_t$ (state-space equation):

$$\tilde{\zeta}_t = F\tilde{\zeta}_{t-1} + u_t, \quad Eu_tu_t' = Q$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} z_{t+1} \\ z_t \\ s_{t+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 & BP \\ I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z_t \\ z_{t-1} \\ s_t \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} B \\ 0 \\ I \end{pmatrix} \epsilon_{t+1},$$

$$u_t = \begin{pmatrix} B \\ 0 \\ I \end{pmatrix} \epsilon_t, \quad Q = \begin{bmatrix} BDB' & 0 & BD \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ DB' & 0 & D \end{bmatrix}, \quad F = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 & BP \\ I & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & P \end{bmatrix}.$$

State Space/Observer Form

$$\tilde{\zeta}_t = F\tilde{\zeta}_{t-1} + u_t, \quad Eu_t u_t' = Q,$$

$$Y_t^{data} = a + H\tilde{\zeta}_t + w_t, \quad Ew_t w_t' = R.$$

- Can be constructed from model parameters

$$\theta = (\beta, \delta, \dots)$$

so

$$F = F(\theta), \quad Q = Q(\theta), \quad a = a(\theta), \quad H = H(\theta), \quad R = R(\theta).$$

Uses of State Space/Observer Form

- Estimation of θ and forecasting $\tilde{\zeta}_t$ and Y_t^{data}
- Can take into account situations in which data represent a mixture of quarterly, monthly, daily observations.
- 'Data Rich' estimation. Could include several data measures (e.g., employment based on surveys of establishments and surveys of households) on a single model concept.
- Useful for solving the following forecasting problems:
 - Filtering (mainly of technical interest in computing likelihood function):

$$P \left[\tilde{\zeta}_t | Y_{t-1}^{data}, Y_{t-2}^{data}, \dots, Y_1^{data} \right], t = 1, 2, \dots, T.$$

- Smoothing:

$$P \left[\tilde{\zeta}_t | Y_T^{data}, \dots, Y_1^{data} \right], t = 1, 2, \dots, T.$$

- Example: 'real rate of interest' and 'output gap' can be recovered from $\tilde{\zeta}_t$ using simple New Keynesian model.
- Useful for deriving a model's implications vector autoregressions

Quick Review of Probability Theory

- Two random variables, $x \in (x_1, x_2)$ and $y \in (y_1, y_2)$.
- *Joint distribution*: $p(x, y)$

$$\begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline p_{11} & p_{12} \\ \hline p_{21} & p_{22} \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline 0.05 & 0.40 \\ \hline 0.35 & 0.20 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

where

$$p_{ij} = \text{probability } (x = x_i, y = y_j) .$$

- *Restriction*:

$$\int_{x,y} p(x, y) dx dy = 1.$$

Quick Review of Probability Theory

- *Joint distribution*: $p(x, y)$

$$\begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline p_{11} & p_{12} \\ \hline p_{21} & p_{22} \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline 0.05 & 0.40 \\ \hline 0.35 & 0.20 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- *Marginal distribution of x* : $p(x)$

Probabilities of various values of x without reference to the value of y :

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} p_{11} + p_{21} = 0.40 & x = x_1 \\ p_{12} + p_{22} = 0.60 & x = x_2 \end{cases} .$$

or,

$$p(x) = \int_y p(x, y) dy$$

Quick Review of Probability Theory

- *Joint distribution: $p(x, y)$*

$$y_1 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline p_{11} & p_{12} \\ \hline \end{array} = y_1 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline 0.05 & 0.40 \\ \hline \end{array}$$
$$y_2 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline p_{21} & p_{22} \\ \hline \end{array} = y_2 \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline x_1 & x_2 \\ \hline 0.35 & 0.20 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

- *Conditional distribution of x given y : $p(x|y)$*
 - Probability of x given that the value of y is known

$$p(x|y_1) = \begin{cases} p(x_1|y_1) & \frac{p_{11}}{p_{11}+p_{12}} = \frac{p_{11}}{p(y_1)} = \frac{0.05}{0.45} = 0.11 \\ p(x_2|y_1) & \frac{p_{12}}{p_{11}+p_{12}} = \frac{p_{12}}{p(y_1)} = \frac{0.40}{0.45} = 0.89 \end{cases}$$

or,

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{p(y)}.$$

Quick Review of Probability Theory

- Joint distribution: $p(x, y)$

	x_1	x_2	
y_1	0.05	0.40	$p(y_1) = 0.45$
y_2	0.35	0.20	$p(y_2) = 0.55$
	$p(x_1) = 0.40$	$p(x_2) = 0.60$	

- Mode

- Mode of joint distribution (in the example):

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{x,y} p(x, y) = (x_2, y_1)$$

- Mode of the marginal distribution:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_x p(x) = x_2, \operatorname{argmax}_y p(y) = y_2$$

- Note: mode of the marginal and of joint distribution conceptually different.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- State space-observer system:

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\zeta}_{t+1} &= F\tilde{\zeta}_t + u_{t+1}, \quad Eu_t u_t' = Q, \\ Y_t^{data} &= a_0 + H\tilde{\zeta}_t + w_t, \quad Ew_t w_t' = R\end{aligned}$$

- Reduced form parameters, (F, Q, a_0, H, R) , functions of θ .
- Choose θ to maximize likelihood, $p(Y^{data}|\theta)$:

$$\begin{aligned}p(Y^{data}|\theta) &= p(Y_1^{data}, \dots, Y_T^{data}|\theta) \\ &= p(Y_1^{data}|\theta) \times p(Y_2^{data}|Y_1^{data}, \theta) \\ &\quad \underbrace{\times \dots \times p(Y_t^{data}|Y_{t-1}^{data}, \dots, Y_1^{data}, \theta)}_{\text{computed using Kalman Filter}} \\ &\quad \times \dots \times p(Y_T^{data}|Y_{T-1}^{data}, \dots, Y_1^{data}, \theta)\end{aligned}$$

- Kalman filter straightforward (see, e.g., Hamilton's textbook).

Bayesian Inference

- Bayesian inference is about describing the mapping from prior beliefs about θ , summarized in $p(\theta)$, to new posterior beliefs in the light of observing the data, Y^{data} .
- General property of probabilities:

$$p(Y^{data}, \theta) = \begin{cases} p(Y^{data}|\theta) \times p(\theta) \\ p(\theta|Y^{data}) \times p(Y^{data}) \end{cases},$$

which implies Bayes' rule:

$$p(\theta|Y^{data}) = \frac{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)}{p(Y^{data})},$$

mapping from prior to posterior induced by Y^{data} .

Bayesians versus Classicals

- Maximum likelihood estimator and measure of model fit:

$$\hat{\theta}_T = \arg \max_{\theta} p(Y|\theta)$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{L}}_T = \log p(Y|\hat{\theta}_T)$$

- Bayesian 'estimate' ('maximum likelihood estimation with a penalty function') and measure of model fit:

$$\theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} p(Y|\theta) p(\theta)$$

$$\log p(Y) = \log \left[\int_{\theta} p(Y|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta \right]$$

Bayesians versus Classicals: Example

- Suppose $\theta \in \{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$ and

$$\begin{aligned}p(Y|\theta_1) &= 1, & p(Y|\theta_2) &= 0.2, \\p(\theta_1) &= 0.1, & p(\theta_2) &= 0.9.\end{aligned}$$

- Classicals' estimate and fit:

$$\text{'estimate': } \hat{\theta}_T = \theta_1, \quad \text{'fit': } \hat{\mathcal{L}}_T = \log 1 = 0$$

- Bayesians' estimate and fit:

$$\theta^* = \theta_2 = \arg \max_{\{\theta_1, \theta_2\}} \left\{ \overbrace{p(Y|\theta_1) p(\theta_1)}^{0.1}, \overbrace{p(Y|\theta_2) p(\theta_2)}^{0.18} \right\}$$

$$\log p(Y) = \log [1 \times 0.1 + 0.2 \times 0.9] = -1.27 \lll \hat{\mathcal{L}}_T.$$

Bayesians versus Classicals

- Numerical example:

$$\begin{aligned}p(Y|\theta_1) &= 1, p(Y|\theta_2) = 0.2, \\p(\theta_1) &= 0.1, p(\theta_2) = 0.9.\end{aligned}$$

- Classical chooses $\theta = \theta_1$, to get best possible fit.
 - For Bayesian, fit implied by $\theta = \theta_1$ of little interest because it requires a completely implausible value of θ .
-
- Example (see Christiano-Eichenbaum-Trabandt ECTA2016).
 - Diamond-Mortensen-Pissarides (DMP) model.
 - $\theta_1 (\simeq 0.3)$, $\theta_2 (\simeq 0.95)$ low and high values for wage replacement ratio, θ , respectively.
 - Classical: Hagedorn-Manovskii (AER2008), conclude DMP model is good because it fits aggregate data well with $\theta = \theta_2$.
 - Bayesian: Shimer (AER2005), concludes DMP model bad on grounds that $\theta = \theta_2$ is highly implausible.

Bayesian Inference

- Report features of the posterior distribution, $p(\theta|Y^{data})$.
 - The value of θ that maximizes $p(\theta|Y^{data})$, 'mode' of posterior distribution.
 - Compare marginal prior, $p(\theta_i)$, with marginal posterior of individual elements of θ , $g(\theta_i|Y^{data})$:

$$g(\theta_i|Y^{data}) = \int_{\theta_{j \neq i}} p(\theta|Y^{data}) d\theta_{j \neq i} \text{ (multiple integration!!)}$$

- Probability intervals about the mode of θ ('Bayesian confidence intervals'), need $g(\theta_i|Y^{data})$.
- Marginal likelihood for assessing model 'fit':

$$p(Y^{data}) = \int_{\theta} p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta \text{ (multiple integration)}$$

Monte Carlo Integration: Simple Example

- Much of Bayesian inference is about multiple integration.
- Numerical methods for multiple integration:
 - Quadrature integration (example: approximating the integral as the sum of the areas of triangles beneath the integrand).
 - Monte Carlo Integration: uses random number generator.
- Example of Monte Carlo Integration:
 - suppose you want to evaluate

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad -\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty.$$

- select a density function, $g(x)$ for $x \in [a, b]$ and note:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} g(x) dx = E \frac{f(x)}{g(x)},$$

where E is the expectation operator, given $g(x)$.

Monte Carlo Integration: Simple Example

- Previous result: can express an integral as an expectation relative to a (arbitrary, subject to obvious regularity conditions) density function.
- Use the law of large numbers (LLN) to approximate the expectation.
 - step 1: draw x_i independently from density, g , for $i = 1, \dots, M$.
 - step 2: evaluate $f(x_i) / g(x_i)$ and compute:

$$\mu_M \equiv \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)} \xrightarrow{M \rightarrow \infty} E \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}.$$

- Exercise.
 - Consider an integral where you have an analytic solution available, e.g., $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$.
 - Evaluate the accuracy of the Monte Carlo method using various distributions on $[0, 1]$ like uniform or Beta.

Monte Carlo Integration: Simple Example

- Standard classical sampling theory applies.
- Independence of $f(x_i) / g(x_i)$ over i implies:

$$\text{var} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)} \right) = \frac{v_M}{M},$$

$$v_M \equiv \text{var} \left(\frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)} \right) \simeq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \left[\frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)} - \mu_M \right]^2.$$

- Central Limit Theorem

- Estimate of $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is a realization from a Normal distribution with mean estimated by μ_M and variance, v_M/M .
- With 95% probability,

$$\mu_M - 1.96 \times \sqrt{\frac{v_M}{M}} \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \mu_M + 1.96 \times \sqrt{\frac{v_M}{M}}$$

- Pick g to minimize variance in $f(x_i) / g(x_i)$ and M to minimize (subject to computing cost) v_M/M .

Markov Chain, Monte Carlo (MCMC) Algorithms

- Among the top 10 algorithms "with the greatest influence on the development and practice of science and engineering in the 20th century".
 - Reference: January/February 2000 issue of Computing in Science & Engineering, a joint publication of the American Institute of Physics and the IEEE Computer Society.'
- Developed in 1946 by John von Neumann, Stan Ulam, and Nick Metropolis (see <http://www.siam.org/pdf/news/637.pdf>)

MCMC Algorithm: Overview

- compute a sequence, $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \dots, \theta^{(M)}$, of values of the $N \times 1$ vector of model parameters in such a way that

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \text{Frequency} \left[\theta^{(i)} \text{ close to } \theta \right] = p \left(\theta | Y^{data} \right).$$

- Use $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \dots, \theta^{(M)}$ to obtain an approximation for
 - $E\theta, \text{Var}(\theta)$ under posterior distribution, $p(\theta | Y^{data})$
 - $g(\theta^i | Y^{data}) = \int_{\theta_{i \neq j}} p(\theta | Y^{data}) d\theta d\theta$
 - $p(Y^{data}) = \int_{\theta} p(Y^{data} | \theta) p(\theta) d\theta$
 - posterior distribution of any function of $\theta, f(\theta)$ (e.g., impulse responses functions, second moments).
- MCMC also useful for computing posterior mode, $\arg \max_{\theta} p(\theta | Y^{data})$.

MCMC Algorithm: setting up

- Let $G(\theta)$ denote the log of the posterior distribution (excluding an additive constant):

$$G(\theta) = \log p(Y^{data}|\theta) + \log p(\theta);$$

- Compute posterior mode:

$$\theta^* = \arg \max_{\theta} G(\theta).$$

- Compute the positive definite matrix, V :

$$V \equiv \left[-\frac{\partial^2 G(\theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \right]_{\theta=\theta^*}^{-1}$$

- Later, we will see that V is a rough estimate of the variance-covariance matrix of θ under the posterior distribution.

MCMC Algorithm: Metropolis-Hastings

- $\theta^{(1)} = \theta^*$
- to compute $\theta^{(r)}$, for $r > 1$
 - step 1: select candidate $\theta^{(r)}$, x ,

draw $\underbrace{x}_{N \times 1}$ from $\theta^{(r-1)} + \overbrace{k \times N}^{\text{'jump' distribution}} \left(\underbrace{0}_{N \times 1}, V \right)$, k is a scalar

- step 2: compute scalar, λ :

$$\lambda = \frac{p(Y^{data}|x) p(x)}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(r-1)}) p(\theta^{(r-1)})}$$

- step 3: compute $\theta^{(r)}$:

$$\theta^{(r)} = \begin{cases} \theta^{(r-1)} & \text{if } u > \lambda \\ x & \text{if } u < \lambda \end{cases}, \quad u \text{ is a realization from uniform } [0, 1]$$

Practical issues

- What is a sensible value for k ?
 - set k so that you accept (i.e., $\theta^{(r)} = x$) in step 3 of MCMC algorithm are roughly 23 percent of time
- What value of M should you set?
 - want ‘convergence’, in the sense that if M is increased further, the econometric results do not change substantially
 - in practice, $M = 10,000$ (a small value) up to $M = 1,000,000$.
 - large M is time-consuming.
 - could use Laplace approximation (after checking its accuracy) in initial phases of research project.
 - more on Laplace below.
- Burn-in: in practice, some initial $\theta^{(i)}$'s are discarded to minimize the impact of initial conditions on the results.
- Multiple chains: may promote efficiency.
 - increase independence among $\theta^{(i)}$'s.
 - can do MCMC utilizing parallel computing (Dynare can do this).

MCMC Algorithm: Why Does it Work?

- Proposition that MCMC works may be surprising.
 - Whether or not it works does *not* depend on the details, i.e., precisely how you choose the jump distribution (of course, you had better use $k > 0$ and V positive definite).
 - Proof: see, e.g., Robert, C. P. (2001), *The Bayesian Choice*, Second Edition, New York: Springer-Verlag.
 - The details may matter by improving the efficiency of the MCMC algorithm, i.e., by influencing what value of M you need.
- Some Intuition
 - the sequence, $\theta^{(1)}, \theta^{(2)}, \dots, \theta^{(M)}$, is relatively heavily populated by θ 's that have high probability and relatively lightly populated by low probability θ 's.
 - Additional intuition can be obtained by positing a simple scalar distribution and using MATLAB to verify that MCMC approximates it well (see, e.g., question in assignment related to this lecture).

Why a Low Acceptance Rate is Desirable



MCMC Algorithm: using the Results

- To approximate marginal posterior distribution, $g(\theta_i | Y^{data})$, of θ_i ,
 - compute and display the histogram of $\theta_i^{(1)}, \theta_i^{(2)}, \dots, \theta_i^{(M)}$, $i = 1, \dots, M$.
- Other objects of interest:
 - mean and variance of posterior distribution θ :

$$E\theta \simeq \bar{\theta} \equiv \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \theta^{(j)}, \quad \text{Var}(\theta) \simeq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M [\theta^{(j)} - \bar{\theta}] [\theta^{(j)} - \bar{\theta}]'$$

MCMC Algorithm: using the Results

- More complicated objects of interest:
 - impulse response functions,
 - model second moments,
 - forecasts,
 - Kalman smoothed estimates of real rate, natural rate, etc.
- All these things can be represented as non-linear functions of the model parameters, i.e., $f(\theta)$.
 - can approximate the distribution of $f(\theta)$ using

$$f(\theta^{(1)}), \dots, f(\theta^{(M)})$$

$$\rightarrow Ef(\theta) \simeq \bar{f} \equiv \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M f(\theta^{(i)}),$$

$$Var(f(\theta)) \simeq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M [f(\theta^{(i)}) - \bar{f}] [f(\theta^{(i)}) - \bar{f}]'$$

MCMC: Remaining Issues

- In addition to the first and second moments already discussed, would also like to have the marginal likelihood of the data.
- Marginal likelihood is a Bayesian measure of model fit.

MCMC Algorithm: the Marginal Likelihood

- Consider the following sample average:

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{h(\theta^{(j)})}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})},$$

where $h(\theta)$ is an arbitrary density function over the N -dimensional variable, θ .

By the law of large numbers,

$$\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{h(\theta^{(j)})}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})} \xrightarrow{M \rightarrow \infty} E \left(\frac{h(\theta)}{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)} \right)$$

MCMC Algorithm: the Marginal Likelihood

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{h(\theta^{(j)})}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})} &\xrightarrow{M \rightarrow \infty} E \left(\frac{h(\theta)}{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)} \right) \\ &= \int_{\theta} \left(\frac{h(\theta)}{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)} \right) \frac{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)}{p(Y^{data})} d\theta = \frac{1}{p(Y^{data})}. \end{aligned}$$

- When $h(\theta) = p(\theta)$, *harmonic mean estimator of the marginal likelihood*.
- Ideally, want an h such that the variance of

$$\frac{h(\theta^{(j)})}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})}$$

is small (recall the earlier discussion of Monte Carlo integration). More on this below.

Laplace Approximation to Posterior Distribution

- In practice, MCMC algorithm very time intensive.
- Laplace approximation is easy to compute and in many cases it provides a 'quick and dirty' approximation that is quite good.

Let $\theta \in R^N$ denote the N -dimensional vector of parameters and, as before,

$$G(\theta) \equiv \log p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)$$

$$p(Y^{data}|\theta) \sim \text{likelihood of data}$$

$$p(\theta) \sim \text{prior on parameters}$$

$$\theta^* \sim \text{maximum of } G(\theta) \text{ (i.e., mode)}$$

Laplace Approximation

Second order Taylor series expansion of
 $G(\theta) \equiv \log [p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)]$ about $\theta = \theta^*$:

$$G(\theta) \approx G(\theta^*) + G_{\theta}(\theta^*)(\theta - \theta^*) - \frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta^*)' G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)(\theta - \theta^*),$$

where

$$G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*) = - \frac{\partial^2 \log p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)}{\partial\theta\partial\theta'} \Big|_{\theta=\theta^*}$$

Interior optimality of θ^* implies:

$$G_{\theta}(\theta^*) = 0, \quad G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*) \text{ positive definite}$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} & p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta) \\ \simeq & p(Y^{data}|\theta^*) p(\theta^*) \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta^*)' G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)(\theta - \theta^*) \right\}. \end{aligned}$$

Laplace Approximation to Posterior Distribution

Property of Normal distribution:

$$\int_{\theta} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{N}{2}}} |G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)|^{\frac{1}{2}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta^*)' G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*) (\theta - \theta^*) \right\} d\theta = 1$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta) d\theta &\simeq \int p(Y^{data}|\theta^*) p(\theta^*) \\ &\quad \times \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} (\theta - \theta^*)' G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*) (\theta - \theta^*) \right\} d\theta \\ &= \frac{p(Y^{data}|\theta^*) p(\theta^*)}{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{N}{2}}} |G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)|^{\frac{1}{2}}}. \end{aligned}$$

Laplace Approximation

- Conclude:

$$p(Y^{data}) \simeq \frac{p(Y^{data}|\theta^*) p(\theta^*)}{\frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{N}{2}}} |G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)|^{\frac{1}{2}}}.$$

- Laplace approximation to posterior distribution:

$$\frac{p(Y^{data}|\theta) p(\theta)}{p(Y^{data})} \simeq \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{N}{2}}} |G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)|^{\frac{1}{2}} \times \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \theta^*)' G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*) (\theta - \theta^*)\right\}$$

- So, posterior of θ_i (i.e., $g(\theta_i|Y^{data})$) is approximately

$$\theta_i \sim N\left(\theta_i^*, \left[G_{\theta\theta}(\theta^*)^{-1}\right]_{ii}\right).$$

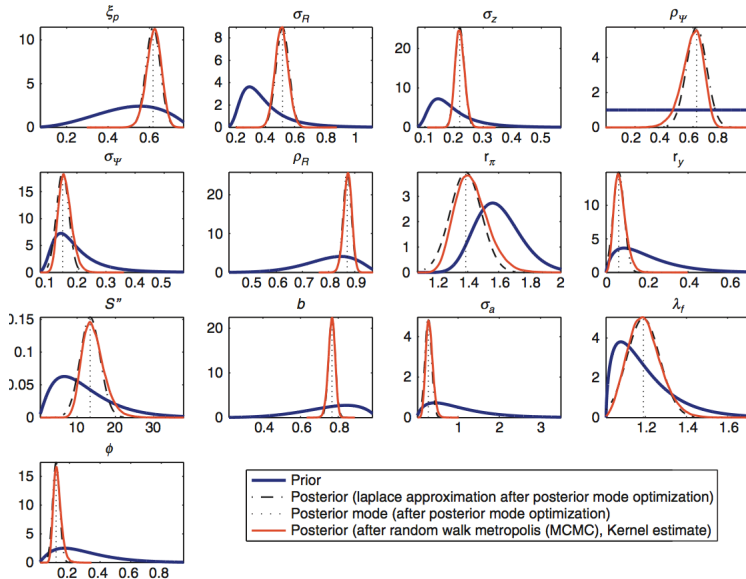


Figure 16 Priors and posteriors of estimated parameters of the medium-sized DSGE model.

Modified Harmonic Mean Estimator of Marginal Likelihood

- Harmonic mean estimator of the marginal likelihood, $p(Y^{data})$:

$$\left[\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M \frac{h(\theta^{(j)})}{p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})} \right]^{-1},$$

with $h(\theta)$ set to $p(\theta)$.

- In this case, the marginal likelihood is the harmonic mean of the likelihood, evaluated at the values of θ generated by the MCMC algorithm.
- Problem: the variance of the object being averaged is likely to be high, requiring high M for accuracy.
- When $h(\theta)$ is instead equated to Laplace approximation of posterior distribution, then $h(\theta)$ is approximately proportional to $p(Y^{data}|\theta^{(j)}) p(\theta^{(j)})$ so that the variance of the variable being averaged in the last expression is low.

The Marginal Likelihood and Model Comparison

- Suppose we have two models, *Model 1* and *Model 2*.
 - compute $p(Y^{data} | \text{Model 1})$ and $p(Y^{data} | \text{Model 2})$
- Suppose $p(Y^{data} | \text{Model 1}) > p(Y^{data} | \text{Model 2})$. Then, posterior odds on Model 1 higher than Model 2.
 - ‘Model 1 fits better than Model 2’
- Can use this to compare across two different models, or to evaluate contribution to fit of various model features: habit persistence, adjustment costs, etc.
 - For an application of this and the other methods in these notes, see Smets and Wouters, AER 2007.