Alternative way of thinking about estimation.

Allows the econometrician to take into account other information than what is in the data.

Bring extra information through a *prior* assumption about the parameters.

Difference Bayesian analysis and *classical*, or *frequentist* analysis partly philosophical

Classical estimation.

assume existence of *true* parameters θ . Inference: Use data to get a *best estimate* (according to optimization criterion) Example: estimate the mean of set of normal *iid* $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ observations

 $\blacktriangleright \mu$

• σ

viewed as fixed, unknown numbers. The estimator $\hat{\theta}$ is a random variable Find the best estimator based on

- Consistency/Unbiasedness. $\widehat{\theta} \rightarrow \theta$
- Mean squared error $E[(\hat{\theta} \theta)(\hat{\theta} \theta)]$

Maximum likelihood estimation of normally distributed variables. Suppose a variable x_i has a normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

- 1. Determine the maximum likelihood estimator of $\boldsymbol{\mu}.$
- 2. Determine the maximum likelihood estimator of σ^2 .

Maximum likelihood estimation of normally distributed variables. First recall the probability distribution for a normally distributed varible x_i

$$f(x; \mu, \sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2}}$$

The likelihood function is

$$L(x;\mu,\sigma^{2}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(x_{i}-\mu)^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}}$$

We will instead of the likelihood function maximize the log-likelihood function:

$$\ell(y;\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{\sigma^2}(x_i - \mu)^2$$

Rewrite the log-likelihood function as

$$\ell(y;\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{2} \ln (2\pi) - \ln(\sigma) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sigma^2} (x_i - \mu)^2$$

We find the estimator from the first order conditions, first estimating $\boldsymbol{\mu}$

$$\frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \mu} = \sum_{i} 2 \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} (y_i - \mu) = 0$$
$$\rightarrow \sum_{i} (y_i - \mu) = 0$$
$$\rightarrow \sum_{i} y_i = n\mu$$
$$\hat{\mu}^{ml} = \frac{\sum_{i} y_i}{n}$$

and then estimating σ^2 .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \sigma} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{\sigma} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{0 - (x_i - \mu)^2 2\sigma}{\sigma^4} \right) \\ 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{\sigma} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2(x_i - \mu)^2 \sigma}{\sigma^4} \right) \\ 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\frac{1}{\sigma} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^3} \right) \\ 0 &= -\sum_{i=1}^{n} 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \\ 0 &= -n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\frac{(x_i - \mu)^2}{\sigma^2} \right) \\ n &= \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2 \\ \hat{\sigma}_{ml}^2 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Bayesian Estimation

Bayesian analysis treats everything in terms of probability distributions.

Even θ itself is viewed as a random variable.

Goal of Bayesian analysis:

Describe the analysts' uncertainty about $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ in terms of a probability distribution.

Inference to a Bayesian analyst is to make probability statements. Before observing the data, the analyst will summarize his knowledge in the *prior* distribution

$f(\theta)$

The *joint* probability density $f(y, \theta)$ describes the probability for observing both the data y and the parameter θ

 $f(y,\theta) = f(y|\theta) \cdot f(\theta)$

The goal of Bayesian analysis is to find a posterior density

 $f(\theta|y),$

The probability distribution of $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ postulated after having observed the data.

Use the definition of conditional probability

$$f(\theta|y) = \frac{f(y,\theta)}{f(y)}$$
$$f(\theta|y) = \frac{f(y,\theta)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y,\theta) d\theta}$$

Using

$$egin{aligned} f(y| heta) &= rac{f(y, heta)}{f(heta)} \ & o & f(y, heta) = f(y| heta)f(heta) \end{aligned}$$

Bayes formula:

$$f(\theta|y) = rac{f(y|\theta)f(\theta)}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(y,\theta)d\theta}$$

Example: Bayesian estimation of mean of normal

$$y \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

A Bayesian summarizes prior assumptions about the distribution into the parameters m and ν .

$$f(\mu|\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2/\nu}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{(\mu-m)^2}{\sigma^2/\nu}}$$

The parameter m is the best guess on the mean based on prior knowledge, and the parameter ν describing the belief about *precision* of the prior knowledge.

The sample distribution

$$f(y|\mu,\sigma) = \prod_{t=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{\sigma^2}(y_t-\mu)^2}\right) \\ = \left(2\pi\sigma^2\right)^{-\frac{T}{2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{\sigma^2}(y-\mu\mathbf{1})(y-\mu\mathbf{1})^2}$$

The goal is to produce the *posterior* distribution

$$f(\mu|y;\sigma)$$

The Bayesian estimator:

$$\widehat{\mu} = \left(\frac{\nu}{\nu + T}\right) m + \left(\frac{T}{\nu + T}\right) \frac{\sum_{t} y_{t}}{T}$$

- weighted average of
 - ▶ prior *m*
 - sample mean $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{\bar{T}} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t$.

The lower the precision ν , the more weight is put on the data, and the less on the prior.

Note that the limit when u
ightarrow 0 is the classical (sample average) estimate.

 \rightarrow *improper* or *diffuse* prior.

Strength of Bayesian analysis: ability to account for *prior* information.

However: Reliance on prior leads to a *subjective* part – What is the source of the prior?

This subjectivity deterrent to the acceptance of Bayesian results.

However: classical analysis also using prior knowledge: The chosen probability model.

Bayesian statisticans – The Jehovas Witnesses of Statistics.

Bayesian analysis: discussion

Still routes for Bayesian results to get published.

For example, ?, a way to ask if predictability matter.

Suppose an asset allocator is a Bayesian.

The predictability of monthly stock returns is small, by the usual (classical) inference (i.e. not statistically significant.)

However, one can argue that the predictability is important if it is *used* by the asset allocator.

Show that no matter what the prior, the historical data will still lead to the posterior distribution changing.

 \rightarrow the historical data $\it matters$ for the asset allocator.

Shmuel Kandel and Robert F Stambaugh. On the predictability of stock returns: An asset allocation perspective. *Journal of Finance*, 51(2):385–424, June 1996.