sargent

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1 RTM4

1.1 Chapter 2

1.1.1 Markov Chains

Definitions

- The Markov Property is that the conditional probability $P(x_t|x_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, ...) = P(x_t|x_{t-1})$
- A matrix is **stochastic** if two things hold: 1. $P_{ij} >= 0 \forall i, j$ and 2. $\sum_{j} P_{ij} = 1 \forall i$
- A Markov Chain is made up of 3 things: 1. the standard basis vectors
 e_i, 2. transition matrix P, where P_{ij} that defines the probability of
 moving from state i to state j.
- The probability of moving from state i to state j in k periods is $P_{ij}^{(k)}$. Note that the parenthesis are there to disambiguate what object the power k is operating on. I mean it to say the ij element of the matrix P raised to the k power, not the ij element of P raised to the k power.
- An unconditional probability is a (1xn) vector where element i is the probability that $x_t = x_i$. It is indexed over time and evolves by multiplying on the right by P. $(\pi_t = \pi_{t-1}P)$
- A distribution is **stationary** if $\pi_{t+1} = \pi_t$, or in other words $\pi' = \pi' P \to (I P')\pi = 0$. This makes π an eigenvector of P' corresponding to a unit eigenvalue. (Normally we have $(I\lambda P')$, but in this case $\lambda = 1$). For all stochastic matrices P, there exists at least one stationary distribution. This distribution is unique iff there is only one unit eigenvalue.
- An **absorbing state** is a state in a stationary distribution that has a probability of 1. This means there can only be one absorbing state in every stationary distribution. An **absorbing subset** is a subset of the entire state that takes up the entire probability. Again, there can only be one absorbing subset, but this subset can contain many items.

- A process is **asymptotically stationary** if, in the limit as $t \to \infty$ the unconditional distribution $\pi_t \to \pi_\infty$. If this π_∞ is the same regardless of the starting value π_0 , then the process is said to be asymptotically stationary with a unique invariant distribution.
- The law of iterated expectations is illustrated in the fact that when $y_{t+1} = \bar{y}'P'x_t + \bar{y}'v_{t+1}$ (x is state, y is a function of the state, P is transition matrix, v is random shock with E[v] = 0) we have that $E[E[Y_{t+1}|x_{t+1}]|x_t] = E[y_{t+1}|x_t]$. More formally, this law says that for any random variable z and two information sets J, I with $j \in I$, E[E[z|I]|J] = E[z|J]
 - Example:

$$Ey_1 = \sum_j \pi_{1,j} \bar{y}_j = \pi'_1 \bar{y} - (\pi'_0 P) \bar{y} = \pi'_0 (P \bar{y}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_i \pi_{0,i} \sum_j P_{ij} \bar{y}_j = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = \sum_j (\pi_{0,i} P_{ij}) E[E(y_1 | x_0 = e_i)] = E[E(y_1 | x_$$

- A random variable is said to be **invariant** if it $y_t = y_0, t \ge 0$, for all realizations of $x_t, t \ge 0$ that occur with positive probability under (P, π) . In other words, the random variable y_t remains constant at y_0 , even while the underlying state x_t moves through the state space X.
- Any stochastic process y_t that follows the rule $E[y_{t+1}|x_t] = y_t$ is said to be a **martingale**.
- A stationary Markov chain is said to be **ergodic** if the only invariant functions \bar{y} are constant with probability 1 under the stationary unconditional probability distribution π , i.e. $\bar{y}_i = \bar{y}_j \forall i, j$ with $\pi_i > 0$ and $\pi_j > 0$. Another definition I keep seeing online is that a Markov chain is ergodib or irreducible if it is possible to eventually get from every state to every other state with positive probability.
- The **likelihood** for a stochastic matrix following the Markov property can be written as follows

$$L = \pi_{0,i_0} \prod_i \prod_j P_{i,j}^{n_{ij}}$$

where n_{ij} is the number of times a one period transition from state i to state j occurs. This function is classified as a multinomial distribution.

Algorithms and Applications

- Finding P from one step ahead conditional expectations If the transition matrix P is unknown, but you can determine conditional expectations of n independent functions (i.e., n linearly independent vectors h_1, \ldots, h_n), you will have uniquely identified P.
- Eigenvalues and left/right eigenvectors of stochastic matrices The unit eigenvalues of P have left-eigenvectors that are the stationary distributions of the chain $[(I-P')\pi=0]$ and right eigenvectors that are invariant functions of the chain $[(P-I)\bar{y}=0]$

The left eigenvectors of a matrix A are found by solving (I - A')x = 0 for x. They are the exact same as the right eigenvectors of A' (right eigenvectors are what I have been finding my whole life)

- Finding stationary distributions

 To find the stationary distributions of a Markov chain P, simply find the left-eigenvectors (right eigenvectors of P') and normalize so that is sums to 1 (find it in terms of simple whole numbers and divide the vector by its sum). To find the invariant functions just find the right eigenvectors of P and then you can multiply out front by any scalar because they don't have to be normalized to 1.
- Markov chain parameter estimation Estimation for free parameters θ of a Markov process: Let the transition matrix P and the initial distribution π_0 be functions $P(\theta), \pi_0(\theta)$ of a vector of free parameters θ . Given a sample $\{x_t\}_{t=0}^T$, regard the likelihood function as a function of the parameters θ . As the estimator of θ , choose the value that maximizes the likelihood function L (just a very verbose way of saying to MLE).

Theorems

• Let \bar{y} define a random variable as a function of an underlying state x, where x is governed by a stationary Markov chian (P, π) . Then

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t \to E[y_{\infty} | x_0]$$

with probability 1.

• Let (P,π) be a stationary Markov chain. If

$$E[y_{t+1}|X+t] = y_t$$

then the random variable $y_t = \bar{y}'x_t$ is invariant.

• Let \bar{y} define a random variable on a stationary and ergodic Markov chain (P, π) . Then

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t \to E[y_0]$$

with probability 1. In other words, the time series average converges t the population mean of the stationary distribution.

1.1.2 Continuous-state Markov chain

Definitions

• **State transitions** are defined the by the cumulative distribution function (cdf)

$$\Pi(s'|s) = Prob(s_{t+1} \ge s'|s_t = s)$$

The initial state s_0 is given by the cdf

$$\Pi_0(s) = Prob(s_0 \leq s)$$

• The transition density is

$$\pi(s'|s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s'} \Pi(s'|s)$$

and the initial density is

$$\pi_0(s) = \frac{\partial}{\partial s} \Pi_0(s)$$

- A **history** is given the notation $s^t = [s_t, s_{t-1}, \dots, s_0]$ and is just a vector of the value of a variable over time.
- A Markov chain is **stationary** if π_0 satisfies $(\forall s \in S)$

$$\pi_0(s') = \int_s \pi(s'|s)\pi_0(s)ds$$

• A function ϕ of a Markov chain is invariant if

$$\int \phi(s')\pi(s'|s)ds' = \phi(s)$$

Theorems

• Let y(s) be a random variable, a measurable function of s, and let $(\pi(s'|s), \pi_0(s))$ be a stationary and ergodic continuous-state Markov process. Assume that $E|y| < +\infty$. Then

$$\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T} y_t = Ey = \int y(s)\pi_0(s)ds$$

with probability 1 with respect to the distribution π_0 .

1.1.3 Stochastic linear difference equations

Definitions

- A martingale difference sequence adapted to J_t is a sequence z_{t+1} that satisfies the equation $E[z_{t+1}|J_t] = z_t$
- The first order stochastic linear difference equation is of the following form $x_{t+1} = A_0x_t + Cw_{t+1}$. w_{t+1} must satisfy one of 3 assumptions (in order of decreasing strictness. Note that if a higher one is satisfied, all lower ones are too. i.e. if A1 then A2 and A3, if A2 then A3):
 - Distributed i.i.d $N \sim (0, I)$
 - $-Ew_{t+1}|J_t = 0$ and $Ew_{t+1}w'_{t+1}|J_t = I$, where J_t is all the information at time t and the $E[\cdot|J_t]$ denotes a conditional expectation.
 - $-Ew_{t+1} = 0$ and $Ew_{t+1}w'_{t-j} = I$ when j = 0 and $Ew_{t+1}w'_{t-j} = 0$ when $j \neq 0$ (this is white noise)
- A stochastic process is a sequence of random vectors
- A stochastic process {x_t} is said to be covariance stationary if it satisfies the following two properties: (a) the mean is independent of time (Ex_t = Ex₀∀t) and (b) the sequence of autocovariance matrices E(x_{t+j} Ex_{t+j})(x_t Ex_t)' depends on the separation between dates j, but not on t.
- A square real valued matrix A_0 is said to be stable if all of its eigenvalues in modulus are strictly less than unity.

Algorithms and Applications

• Linear Stochastic Difference equation form To put a stochastic process in the form of a first order linear stochastic difference equation, come up with matrices A_0 , C and (optionally) Gthat satisfy

$$x_{t+1} = A_0 x_t + C w_{t+1}$$
$$y_t = G x_t$$

• Covariance stationary stochastic processes

Whether or not a stochastic process is covariance stationary often depends on the form in which the process is presented and some initial conditions. We will be working with the form: $x_{1,t+1}$

 $\mathbf{x}_{2,t+1} = [1\&00\&A][x_{1,t}]$

 $\mathbf{x}_{2t} + \left[0\tilde{\{}C\}\right]w_{t+1}$ \$. In this form we assume that \tilde{A} is a stable matrix (so that 1 cannot be an eigenvalue of \tilde{A})

To find the covariance stationary initial conditions for the mean and covariance of a stochastic process, you must follow these steps:

- 1. Set your system up in the form described above.
- 2. Solve for the stationary mean by taking expected values of both sides of the stochastic linear difference equation and ending up with this equation: $(I A_i)\mu = 0$. You then need to solve for the eigenvector that corresponds to the single unit eigenvalue of A_0 . This vector is the stationary mean vector, or μ .
- 3. Solve for the stationary variance by solving the matrix quadratic: $C_x(0) = A_0C_x(0)A'_0 + CC'$. The autocovariance process through time can be found via the relation: $C_x(j) = A_0^j C_x(0)$

To solve for impulse response functions,

Re-write the stochastic linear difference equation using the lag operator $Lx_{t+1} = x_t$ to get $(I - A_oL)x_{t+1} = Cw_{t+1}$. Iterating forward from time t = 0 leads to the following expressions for x_t and y_t :

$$x_t = A_0^t x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{t-1} A_0^j C W_{j-t}$$

$$y_t = GA_0^t x_0 + G\sum_{j=0}^{t-1} A_o^j Cw_{t-j}$$

The impulse response function for x is $h_j = A_0^j C$ and the impulse response function for y is $\tilde{h}_j = GA_0^j C$

Forecasting the conditional covariance matrix

Using the impulse response functions from above we can forecast the expected t period ahead conditional covariance matrix $E(y_t - EY_t|x_0)(y_t - Ey_t|x_0)' = G\left[\sum_{h=0}^{t-1} A_0^h CC' A_0^{h'}\right] G'$

How to apply the Howard improvement algorithm to the evaluation of dynamic criterion.

We will be working with the following equations:

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + Bu_t + Cw_{t+1}$$
$$u_t = -F_0x_t$$
$$v(x_0) = -E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \left[x_t' Rx_t + u_t' Qu_t \right]$$

- 1. Start with some given policy rule F_0 and use it to find $P_0 = R + F_0'QF_0 + \beta(A BF_0)'P_0(A BF_0)$
- 2. Use this P_0 to find a $F_1 = \beta (Q + \beta B' P_0 B)^{-1} B' P_0 A$
- 3. Repeat this sequence using the expressions $P_j = R + F_j'QF_j + \beta(A BF_j)'P_j(A BF_j)$ and $F_{j+1} = \beta(Q + \beta B' P_j B)^{-1}B'P_j$

1.1.4 Population

Algorithms and Applications

• Parameter estimation

This is simple least squares. If Y is governed by a state-space system and somehow X comes from Y. you can do least squares on them to get a vector β that minimizes the sum of squared errors for the regression. We get that

$$\beta = (EYX')[E(XX')]^{-1}$$

• Multiple Regressors

If instead of being a scalar Y is a vector of random variables, then you will do multiple regressions. In this case β becomes a matrix and the error term is a vector. The equation for beta is found in the same way.

1.1.5 Estimation of Model Parameters

Algorithms and Applications

• Likelihood function

The Likelihood function is defined as the joint probability distribution of all the state variables $f(x_t, x_{t-1}, \dots x_0)$. This distribution can be factored by multiplying successive conditional joint probability distributions

$$f(x_t, x_{t-1}, \dots, x_0) = f(x_t | x_{t-1}, \dots, x_0) f(x_{t-1} | x_{t-2}, \dots, x_0) \dots f(x_1 | x_0) f(x_0)$$

Note that for a Markov system the equation becomes $f(x_t|x_{t-1},...,x_0) = f(x_t|x_{t-1})$ because of the Markov property. This means that the likelihood function becomes

$$f(x_t, x_{t-1}, \dots, x_0) = f(x_t | x_{t-1}) f(x_{t-1} | x_{t-2}) \dots f(x_1 | x_0) f(x_0)$$

Special log-likelihood function

If the w's underlying the stochastic process for Y are Gaussian, then we know what the conditional distribution $f(x_{t+1}|x_t)$ is Gaussian with mean A_0x_t and covariance matrix CC'. Taking the log of the conditional density of the n dimensional vector x_t becomes

$$\log f(x_{t+1}|x_t) = -0.5n\log(2\pi) - 0.5\log\det(CC') - 0.5(x_{t+1} - A_0x_t)'(CC')^{-1}(x_{t+1} - A_0x_t)$$

1.1.6 The Kalman filter

Definitions

Algorithms and Applications

Theorems

2 TODO Marching Orders, number 1 [0/4]

Clock summary at 2013-07-10 Wed 01:25

Headline	Time	
Total time	20:50	
TODO [#A] Marching Orders, number 1	20:50	
TODO $[\#A]$ Read Chapter 2 of RMT4		15:17
TODO [#A] Work exercises $2.1-2.5$		5:33

DEADLINE: 2013-07-14 Sun

2.1 TODO Read Chapter 2 of RMT4

I should probably look over section 2.4.5.2 again. It was a bit complicated and I couldn't replicate its results on my own.

- 2.2 TODO Read the two techincal appendixes
- 2.3 TODO Work exercises 2.1-2.5
- 2.4 TODO Think of python examples :TOM:

Re-create ${\tt markov.m}$ and other Matlab programs