

Numerical Methods for Simulation of Structural Models

Macro Applications

Fernando Antônio de Barros Júnior

UFPR

fabarrosjr@gmail.com

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Overview

Value Function Iteration

Calibration of Macro models

Calibration Applied

Simulated Method of Moments

SMM Applied

Indirect Inference

Identification

Dynamics

- ▶ The most of the economic phenomenon can be represented in a static model
 - ▶ Sometimes it requires TWO periods
- ▶ Quantify an economic phenomenon requires a dynamic model the most of the time
- ▶ Solving a dynamic model can be tricky, but we have some tools...
- ▶ Today: Value Functions!
- ▶ Let's go to the board...

Value function iteration

- ▶ Well known, basic algorithm of dynamic programming
- ▶ Well suited for parallelization
- ▶ It will always work (perhaps quite slowly)
- ▶ Subject to the curse of dimensionality

An example

RBC model

$$V(k, z) = \underset{c, k'}{\text{Max}} u(c) + \beta EV(k', z)$$

$$\text{s.t. } c + k' \leq zf(k) + (1 - \delta)k$$

Iteration

- ▶ Start with an initial guess for the value function, V^0
- ▶ Maximize the right hand side and compute V^1
- ▶ Repeat procedure until $\|V^j - V^{j-1}\| < \varepsilon$, where ε is a small number

The simplest way

- ▶ Discretize everything!
- ▶ Create grids for the states and for the controls
- ▶ What are the relevant k and z ? $\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{Z}$
- ▶ How can V be represented on a computer? As an array
- ▶ How does one compute $E[z]$? Markov chain
- ▶ How does one compute the optimal c and k' ? Checking all k'

Questions

- ▶ What is an appropriate/optimal discretization of $\mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{Z}$?
- ▶ How does one discretize the AR1 into a Markov chain?
Tauchen, Rouwenhorst
- ▶ How does one assess the quality of the approximation?
- ▶ tips about \mathcal{K}
 - ▶ Upper and lower bounds: $[\underline{k}, \bar{k}] = [0.7k_{ss}, 1.3k_{ss}]$
 - ▶ Simulate and check if it binds!
 - ▶ Where should the points be? Linear spaced; Concentrated, usually around \underline{k} ; Stochastic
 - ▶ How many points should there be? Ideally, adding points wouldn't change your results. Check!

Brute Force Grid Search

Brute force grid search is checking **every** $k' \in \mathcal{K}$ value and taking the maximum. (Be careful with feasibility!)

Advantages

- ▶ **Always works** - can handle discontinuities, non-convex budget constraints, non-concave objective functions
- ▶ Some problems are naturally discrete choice
- ▶ Easy for compilers to optimize and easy to make parallel

Disadvantages

- ▶ Very slow relatively
- ▶ Suffers greatly from the “curse of dimensionality”
- ▶ Most problems allow faster algorithms

Exploiting Monotonicity

Very often, one has policy functions that are monotone, e.g.,

$$k'(k_2, z) \geq k'(k_1, z) \quad \forall k_2 > k_1 \text{ and } z$$

is monotone increasing in capital

This can be exploited when finding the optimal $k'(k, z)$:

1. Compute $k'(k_i, z)$ by checking all k_1, \dots, k_n . Set $i = 1$
2. Compute $k'(k_{i+1}, z)$ by checking all $k'(k_i, z), \dots, k_n$
3. If $i = n$, Stop. O/W increment i and go to 2.

Exploiting Monotonicity

Advantages

- ▶ Typically **much** faster than brute-force
- ▶ Applies to many models
- ▶ Can still parallelize easily, e.g., over the z values

Disadvantages

- ▶ **Dangerous** if not sure that monotonicity holds
- ▶ If it doesn't hold, then VFI may not converge or may converge to something wrong
- ▶ This danger can be greatly mitigated by either:
 - ▶ explore monotonicity every 9 out of 10 iterations
 - ▶ randomly check (say \approx every 1000th loop over states) that the policy found using monotonicity agrees with brute force.
- ▶ Note: if monotonicity almost holds, you can “relax” the monotonicity assumption: find $k'(k_{i+1}, z)$ by checking all $k'(k_{i-5}, z), \dots, k_n$ for example

Another Trick: Multigrid

Basic idea: solve first a problem in a coarser grid and use it as a guess for more refined solution

It works like such:

1. Let there be an initial grid \mathcal{K}_0 . Let $i = 0$
2. Compute the optimal value V on \mathcal{K}_i . If the grid \mathcal{K}_i is “fine enough”, stop
3. Define a finer grid \mathcal{K}_{i+1} and interpolate V from \mathcal{K}_i onto \mathcal{K}_{i+1}
4. Go to 2

Example: Non-stochastic growth model

```
while (dist>tol && it<itmax)
    it = it + 1;
    for i=1:N;
        C = Grid(i)^alpha+((1-delta)*Grid(i))-Grid;
        ind = find(C<0);
        C(ind) = eps;
        aux = C.^(1-theta)./(1-theta) + beta*V;
        [TV(i), pos] = max(aux);
        Pol(i) = Grid(pos);
    end
    dist = abs(max(TV-V));
    V = TV;
end
```

Comparison

$\underline{k} = 1$, $\bar{k} = 1000$ and $V^0 = \mathbf{0}$

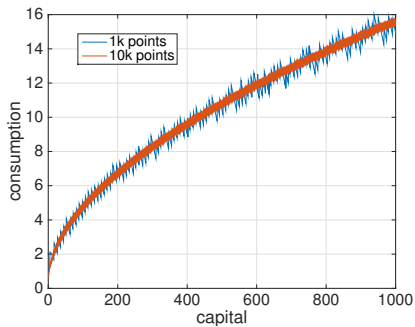
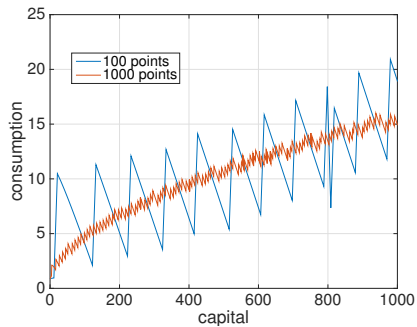
Multigrid

- ▶ \mathcal{K}_1 : 100 points; iterations: 461
- ▶ \mathcal{K}_2 : 1000 points; iterations: 375
- ▶ \mathcal{K}_3 : 10000 points; iterations: 82
- ▶ Total time: 143.85 seconds.

Brute Force

- ▶ \mathcal{K} : 10000 points; iterations: 454
- ▶ Total time: 782.60 seconds.

Grid choice



Other methods

- ▶ Exploiting concavity
- ▶ Endogenous grid method
- ▶ trick: accelerator

Calibration

- ▶ What it is
- ▶ Why we do it
- ▶ Pitfalls
- ▶ Why theorists do not like it

Calibration

- ▶ Most widespread view: Calibration is the process by which researchers choose the parameters (and functional forms) of their economic models from various sources. Most commonly, this is done by
 - ▶ the use of time series averages of the levels or ratios of economic variables
 - ▶ the estimation of single equations
 - ▶ reference to econometric studies based on either macro- or micro-data
 - ▶ setting the parameters so that the model replicates certain empirical facts such as conditional or unconditional moments of the data

Calibration: a Critique

- ▶ Lack of statistical formality associated with calibration exercises
- ▶ Judgments of “good” or “bad”, or as Kydland and Prescott (1996, p. 71) put it, judgments of whether “... the predictions of theory match the observations...”, are necessarily subjective
- ▶ How do we compare two theories using calibrated models?
- ▶ Micro to Macro (Aggregation problem)
 - ▶ Houthakker (1956) demonstrated that the aggregation of Leontief micro production technologies yields an aggregate Cobb-Douglas production function

Applying calibration

Barros and Gomes (2019): a decomposition of the welfare cost of economic fluctuations

- ▶ Consumers are risk averse
- ▶ If they can not smooth consumption (incomplete markets)
 - ▶ \Rightarrow welfare loss
- ▶ Shocks may hit the consumption
- ▶ Stabilization policies are always in place
 - ▶ How good they are?
 - ▶ Can they be improved?
- ▶ Can we **fully** smooth shocks?

The welfare cost of business cycles

- ▶ Lucas (1987): propose a measure to this cost
 - ▶ A constant λ that solves

$$\mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u([1 + \lambda] C_t) \right) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(\bar{C}_t) \quad (1)$$

- ▶ This calculation requires a model for consumption (and preferences)
- ▶ Lucas (1987):
 - ▶ representative consumer
 - ▶ CRRA preference
 - ▶ log-normal consumption: iid around a linear trend
 - ▶ the benefit of improving stabilization policies is 0.04% of *per capita* consumption

Some details of the welfare cost of cycles

- ▶ Let $\{C_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ be a risk consumption sequence
- ▶ and $\{\bar{C}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ represents the previous consumption sequence without volatility
- ▶ Following Lucas (1987), we can define the welfare cost of business cycles as a scalar λ that solves

$$\mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u([1 + \lambda] C_t) \right) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(\bar{C}_t), \quad (2)$$

where

$$u(C) = \begin{cases} \frac{C^{1-\gamma}}{1-\gamma}, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \\ \ln(C), & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \end{cases}.$$

The welfare cost of macro uncertainty for log-normal consumption

Assumption (1)

The consumption process can be expressed as $C_t = \bar{C}_t X_t$, where $X_t = e^{-0.5\sigma_t^2 + x_t}$, $x_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_t^2)$ and $\bar{C}_t = \alpha_0(1 + \alpha_1)^t$.

Assumption (2)

Suppose that $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (\beta(1 + \alpha_1)^{1-\gamma})^t e^{-0.5\gamma(1-\gamma)\sigma_t^2} < \infty$.

Proposition

Let $\Gamma \equiv \beta(1 + \alpha_1)^{1-\gamma}$. Suppose that $\Gamma < 1$. Under assumption 1 and 2

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\frac{1-\beta}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \sigma_t^2\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t}{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t e^{-0.5\gamma(1-\gamma)\sigma_t^2}} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases}.$$

A upper bound to stabilization policies

- ▶ Suppose that exist a constant $\theta \in [0, 1]$
- ▶ given θ , define an consumption series $\{C_t(\theta)\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$, where

$$C_t(\theta) = C_t^{1-\theta} \bar{C}_t^{\theta}, \quad \forall t. \quad (3)$$

- ▶ Under assumption 1,

$$C_t(\theta) = \bar{C}_t X_t^{1-\theta}. \quad (4)$$

- ▶ $C_t(\theta)$ is a counterfactual consumption for C_t

Compensating consumers for not improving economic policy

- ▶ How much are the consumers willing to pay for the best stabilization policy?
- ▶ Analogously to Lucas (1987), we can define a constant $\lambda^P(\theta)$, which solves

$$\mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u \left([1 + \lambda^P(\theta)] C_t \right) \right) = \mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u (C_t(\theta)) \right). \quad (5)$$

The partial welfare cost of macro uncertainty

Assumption (3)

Suppose that

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (\beta(1 + \alpha_1)^{1-\gamma})^t e^{-0.5(1-\theta)(1-\gamma)(\gamma+\theta-\gamma\theta)\sigma_t^2} < \infty.$$

Proposition

Suppose that $\Gamma < 1$. Under assumption 1 to 3,

$$\lambda^P(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\theta \frac{1-\beta}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \sigma_t^2\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t e^{-0.5(1-\theta)(1-\gamma)(\gamma+\theta-\gamma\theta)\sigma_t^2}}{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t e^{-0.5\gamma(1-\gamma)\sigma_t^2}} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

The nonsmoothable welfare cost of macro uncertainty

Again, we can compensate consumer for the inability of economic policy in smoothing shocks

$$\mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u \left([1 + \lambda^{NS}(\theta)] C_t(\theta) \right) \right) = \mathbb{E}_0 \left(\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u (\bar{C}_t) \right). \quad (6)$$

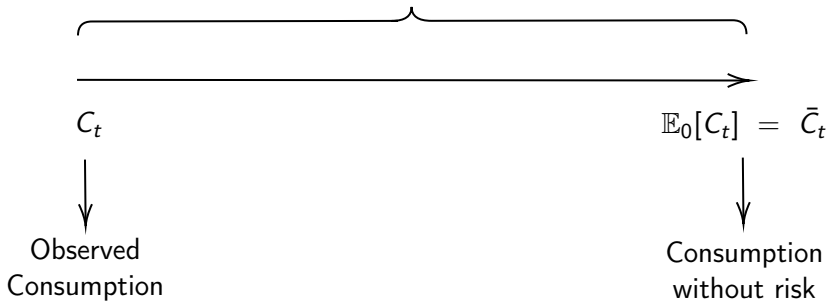
Proposition

Suppose that $\Gamma < 1$. Under assumption 1 and 3,

$$\lambda^{NS}(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp \left((1 - \theta) \frac{1 - \beta}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t \sigma_t^2 \right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t}{\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Gamma^t e^{-0.5(1-\theta)(1-\gamma)(\gamma+\theta-\gamma\theta)\sigma_t^2}} \right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

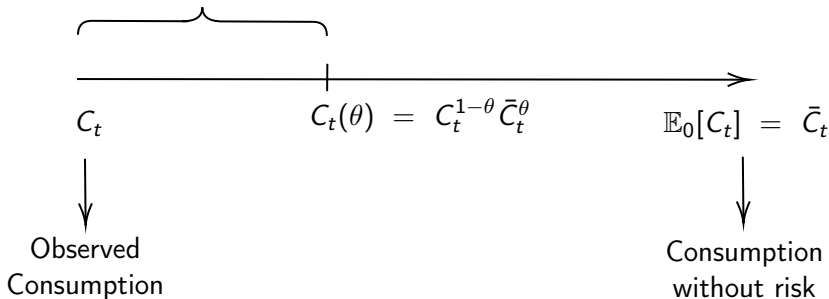
Welfare Cost of Macro Uncertainty

$$U(\{(1 + \lambda)C_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}) = U(\{\bar{C}_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty})$$



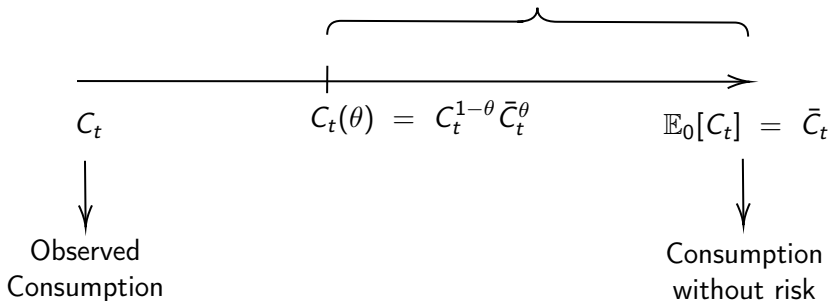
Partial Welfare Cost of Macro Uncertainty

$$U(\{(1 + \lambda^P) C_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}) = U(\{C_t(\theta)\}_{t=0}^{\infty})$$



Non-smoothable Cost of Macro Uncertainty

$$U\left(\left\{(1+\lambda^N)C_t(\theta)\right\}_{t=0}^{\infty}\right) = U\left(\left\{\bar{C}_t\right\}_{t=0}^{\infty}\right)$$



A decomposition of the welfare cost of business cycles

- From the previous results, we can show that

Proposition

Suppose that $\Gamma < 1$. Under assumption 1 to 3, the welfare cost of business cycles can be decomposed as

$$(1 + \lambda) = (1 + \lambda^G(\theta))(1 + \lambda^{NS}(\theta)). \quad (8)$$

Corollary

Follows from the previous proposition that

$$\lambda \approx \lambda^G(\theta) + \lambda^{NS}(\theta). \quad (9)$$

Decomposition of Lucas's welfare cost

- $C_t = \alpha_0(1 + \alpha_1)^t e^{-0.5\sigma_\mu^2 + x_t^L}$, where $x_t^L \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\mu^2)$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \exp\left(\frac{\gamma\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

$$\lambda^P(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\theta\frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \exp\left(\frac{\gamma\sigma_\mu^2}{2} - \frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma + \theta - \gamma\theta)\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

$$\lambda^N(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp\left((1-\theta)\frac{\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \exp\left(\frac{(1-\theta)(\gamma + \theta - \gamma\theta)\sigma_\mu^2}{2}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

Decomposition of Obstfeld's welfare cost

- $C_t = \alpha_0(1 + \alpha_1)^t e^{-0.5\sigma_\mu^2 + x_t^O}$, where
 $x_t^O = \sum_{i=1}^t \varepsilon_i$, $\varepsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\frac{\beta\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{2(1-\beta)}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{1 - \Gamma e^{-0.5\gamma(1-\gamma)\sigma_\varepsilon^2}}{1 - \Gamma}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

$$\lambda^P(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp\left(\theta \frac{\beta\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{2(1-\beta)}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{1 - \Gamma e^{-0.5\gamma(1-\gamma)\sigma_\varepsilon^2}}{1 - \Gamma e^{-0.5(1-\theta)(1-\gamma)(\gamma+\theta-\gamma\theta)\sigma_\varepsilon^2}}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

$$\lambda^N(\theta) = \begin{cases} \exp\left((1-\theta) \frac{\beta\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{2(1-\beta)}\right) - 1, & \text{if } \gamma = 1 \\ \left[\frac{1 - \Gamma e^{-0.5(1-\theta)(1-\gamma)(\gamma+\theta-\gamma\theta)\sigma_\varepsilon^2}}{1 - \Gamma}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\gamma}} - 1, & \text{if } \gamma > 0, \gamma \neq 1 \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

Identification of consumption process parameters

Lucas (1987)

- ▶ We can the following model

$$\log(C_t) = \pi_0 + \pi_1 t + u_t,$$

- ▶ Then, $\hat{\sigma}_\mu^2 = \text{Var}(\hat{u}_t)$ and $\hat{\alpha}_1 = \exp(\hat{\pi}_1) - 1$

Obstfeld (1994)

- ▶ We can the following model

$$\Delta \log(C_t) = \delta_0 + z_t,$$

- ▶ Then, $\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2 = \text{Var}(\hat{z}_t)$ and $\hat{\alpha}_1 = \exp(\hat{\delta}_0 - 0.5\hat{\sigma}_\varepsilon^2) - 1$

Estimation and calibration

Estimation

- ▶ USA data: 1947Q1 - 2017Q3

	Lucas (1987)	Obstfeld (1994)
$\hat{\alpha}_1$	0.0052	0.0047
$\hat{\sigma}_{\mu}^2$	0.0026	
$\hat{\sigma}_{\varepsilon}^2$		0.000025

Calibration

- ▶ $\beta \in \{0.97, 0.98, 0.99\}$
- ▶ $\gamma \in \{1, 2.5, 5, 10, 20\}$
- ▶ $\theta \in \{0.25, 0.50, 0.75\}$

Lucas's consumption process

γ	1	2.5	5	10	20
λ	0.12	0.32	0.64	1.27	1.95
$\theta = 0.25$					
$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.03	0.12	0.26	0.54	0.82
$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.09	0.20	0.38	0.75	1.11
$\theta = 0.50$					
$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.06	0.21	0.45	0.94	1.42
$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.06	0.11	0.19	0.35	0.51
$\theta = 0.75$					
$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.09	0.28	0.58	1.19	1.80
$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.10	0.15

Obstfeld consumption process $\theta = 0.25$

γ		1	2.5	5	10	20
$\beta = 0.97$	λ	0.04	0.08	0.12	0.17	0.19
	$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.08
	$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.03	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.11
$\beta = 0.98$	λ	0.06	0.11	0.16	0.20	0.21
	$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.02	0.04	0.06	0.08	0.09
	$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.05	0.07	0.10	0.11	0.12
$\beta = 0.99$	λ	0.12	0.18	0.22	0.24	0.24
	$\lambda^P(\theta)$	0.03	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.10
	$\lambda^N(\theta)$	0.09	0.12	0.13	0.14	0.14

Estimation

- ▶ Several approaches:
 - ▶ Maximum likelihood estimation - either classical or using Bayesian methods
 - ▶ Generalized Method of Moments (GMM)
 - ▶ **Simulation-based methods:** SMM, EMM, Indirect Inference

Why shall we use simulation-based methods?

▶ ML

- ▶ Requires the (closed-form) representation of the likelihood function
- ▶ Often, models are too complex \Rightarrow ML is intractable
- ▶ *Can use Simulated Maximum Likelihood instead*

▶ GMM

- ▶ Performs poorly in small sample (*post-war quarterly data is considered small sample!*)
- ▶ Can not deal with unobserved variables
- ▶ Often problems with identification and choice of orthogonality conditions

Simulation-Based Estimators

- ▶ **Main idea:** We choose the parameters of the model to minimize the distance between functions of actual and simulated data
- ▶ Those functions can be:
 - ▶ Moments such as variances, covariances, autocorrelations \Rightarrow SMM
 - ▶ VAR coefficients, impulse response functions \Rightarrow Indirect inference

Simulated Method of Moments

- ▶ Developed by McFadden (1989), Lee and Ingram (1991) ...
- ▶ Let θ denote the $K \times 1$ vector of structural parameters associated with our economic model
- ▶ In the DSGE case that would be $\theta = (\beta, \alpha, \rho, \delta, \dots)$
- ▶ Let $\{y_t(\theta_0)\}_{t=1}^T$ be a sequence of **observed data** and let $\{\tilde{y}_t(\theta)\}_{t=1}^T$ be a set of **simulated data**
- ▶ θ_0 denotes the “true” but unobserved set of parameters
- ▶ The simulations are done by fixing θ and by using T draws of the stochastic element

Simulated Method of Moments

- ▶ Denote by $\mu[y_T]$ a $J \times 1$ vector of functions of the **observed data**
- ▶ ... and denote by $\mu[\tilde{y}_T]$ the same $J \times 1$ vector of functions computed using the **simulated time series** $\{\tilde{y}_t(\theta)\}$
- ▶ The SMM estimator is defined as

$$\hat{\theta}_T^S(W) = \arg \min_{\theta} \left[\mu[y_T] - \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu[y(\tilde{\theta})_T] \right]' W_T \left[\mu[y_T] - \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu[y(\tilde{\theta})_T] \right]$$

where W_T is a $J \times J$ symmetric and positive definite weighting matrix and S is the number of simulations

Properties of SMM

- ▶ Difference to GMM: Instead of calculating the theoretical moments $\mu[y_T]$ we approximate them with simulations
- ▶ Conditions needed:
- ▶ y_t e $\tilde{y}_t(\theta)$ are stationary, ergodic and independent
- ▶ Consistency: $\mu[y_T] \rightarrow^p \mu_y$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$ and $\mu[\tilde{y}_T^S(\theta)] \rightarrow^p \mu_{\tilde{y}}(\theta)$ as $S \rightarrow \infty$
- ▶ Identifiability: Under the null hypothesis that the model is 'true', there exists a θ^* such that $\mu_y = \mu_{\tilde{y}}(\theta^*)$
- ▶ Then $\sqrt{T}[\hat{\theta}_T^S(W) - \theta_0] \rightarrow \mathcal{N}(0, Q_S(W))$
- ▶ If $W_T = I$, $\hat{\theta}$ is consistent but inefficient

SMM Algorithm

1. Take the relevant data series and compute $\mu[y_T]$
2. Compute S histories of shocks
3. Guess θ^0 and solve the model for its equilibrium
4. Simulate the model S times and produce $\tilde{y}_t(\theta^0)$ and compute $\mu[\tilde{y}_T^S]$
5. Evaluate the objective function and get θ^1 using grid-search or gradient methods
6. Repeat the previous two steps until

$$\left[\mu[y_T] - \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu[y(\tilde{\theta}^i)_T] \right]' W_T \left[\mu[y_T] - \frac{1}{S} \sum_{s=1}^S \mu[y(\tilde{\theta}^i)_T] \right] < \varepsilon$$

$$\text{or } \|\theta^i - \theta^{i-1}\| < \varepsilon$$

Some Issues

- ▶ In step 4 we need to choose a sequence of shocks for the model
- ▶ IMPORTANT: Must use the same sequence of shocks during the iterations otherwise don't know if objective function changes because parameters change or shocks change
- ▶ How to get standard errors for $\hat{\theta}_T^S(W)$ Two alternatives:
 - ▶ Hessian of the objective function
 - ▶ Monte Carlo approach: Repeat algorithm for different sequences of the shocks, plot the histogram of the resulting θ and compute standard errors from this distribution

Example: Estimation of the New Keynesian Phillips curve

$$\pi_t = \beta \mathbb{E}_t \pi_{t+1} + \frac{(1-\eta)(1-\beta\eta)}{\eta} mc_t$$

- ▶ Em que mc_t are the marginal costs, η is tr probability of not changing the prices, β is the discount factor and π_t is the inflation rate
- ▶ Let's write the equation as

$$\pi_{t+1} = \frac{1}{\beta} \pi_t - \frac{(1-\eta)(1-\beta\eta)}{\beta\eta} mc_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}$$

- ▶ where ε is an expectation error and $\mathbb{E}_t(\varepsilon_{t+1}) = 0$

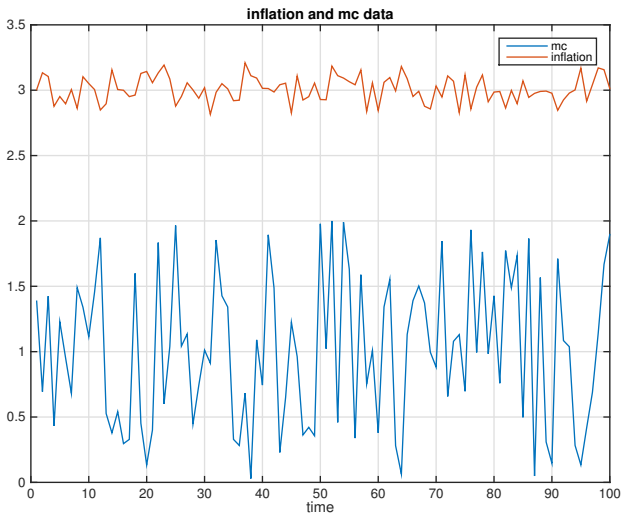
Example: Estimation of the New Keynesian Phillips curve

- ▶ Let's consider the following (data) moments in the estimation:

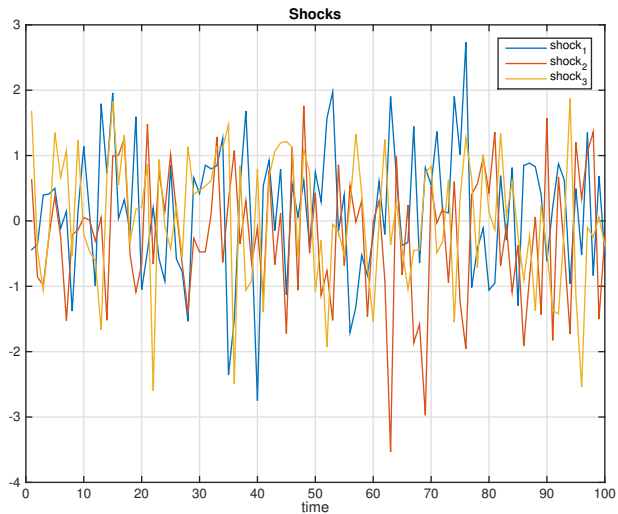
$$\mu[y_T] = \left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_t (\pi_{t+1} \pi_t), \quad \frac{1}{T} \sum_t (\pi_{t+2} \pi_t), \quad \frac{1}{T} \sum_t (\pi_{t+3} \pi_t) \right]'$$

- ▶ Compute S series of $\varepsilon_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ with T periods
- ▶ Simulate $\tilde{y}_S^T(\theta)$ and compute $\mu[\tilde{y}_T^S(\theta)]$
- ▶ ...
- ▶ Matlab

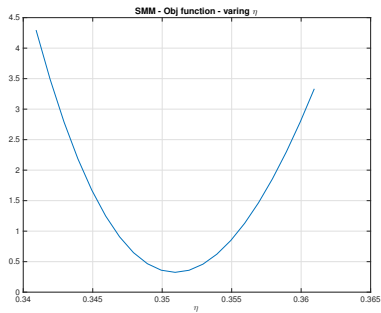
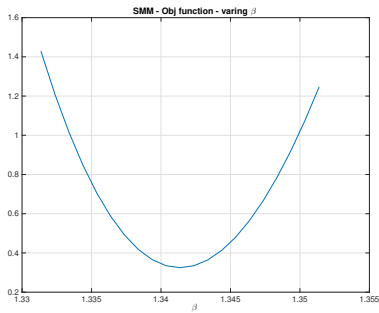
Data



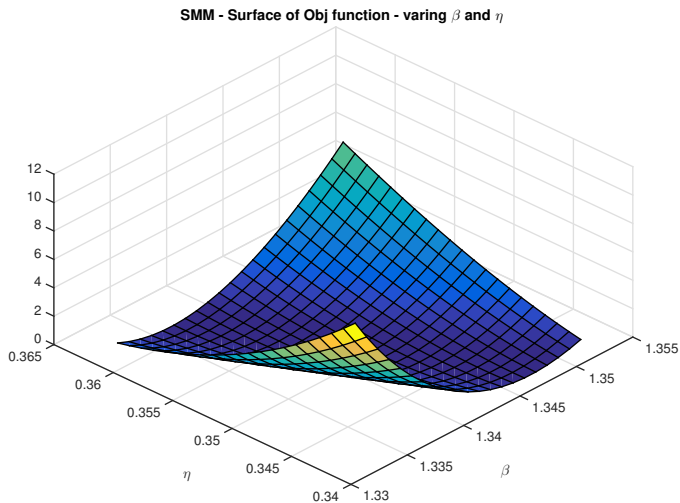
Sample Shocks for Simulations



Objective Function - β and η



Objective Function - Surface



Cheating - Monte Carlo Simulation

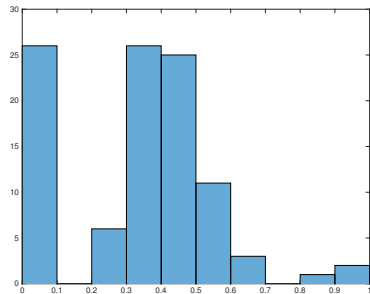
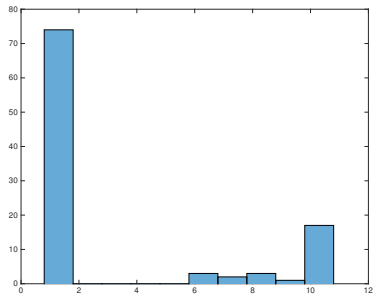


Figure: distribution of β and η

Monte Carlo Simulation - Cheating a lot

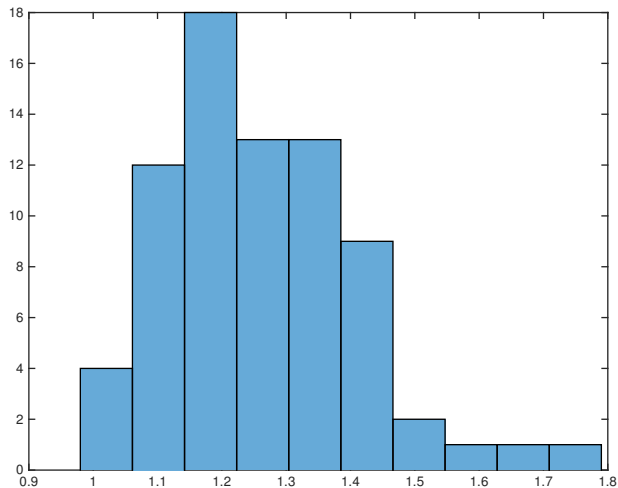


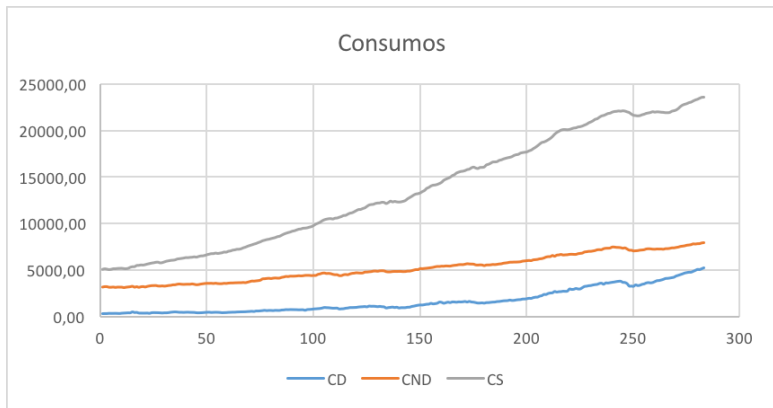
Figure: distribution of β

SMM applied to my research

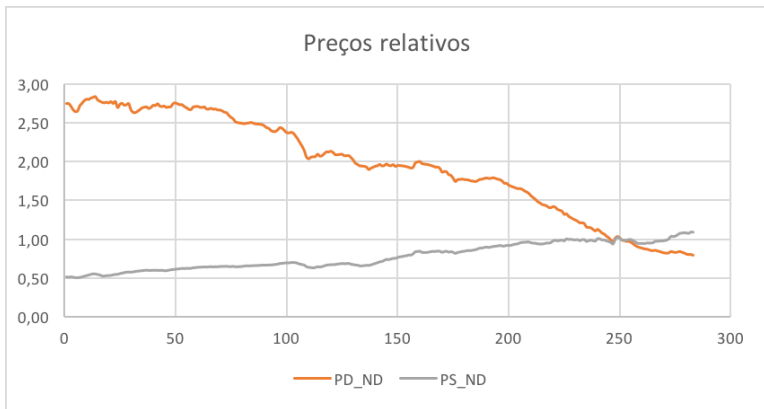
Barros and Gomes (2019): A study on the components of aggregate consumption

- ▶ Hall (1988): Inter and intratemporal elasticities influence the quantitative implications of various economic policy decisions
- ▶ Intratemporal substitution *indirectly* affects the measure of the intertemporal substitution
 - ▶ only for nonhomothetic preferences
- ▶ Ogaki and Reinhart (1998): nonhomotheticity is essential to obtain unbiased estimates of the intra and intertemporal substitutions.
- ▶ Implications for asset pricing
- ▶ The literature focuses on nondurables (+ services) and durables

Aggregate Consumption



Relative Prices



An Euler Equation

Hall's problem

$$E_t \left[\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \beta^j u(c_{t+j}) \right],$$

s.t. a I.B.C. where

$$u(c) = \frac{c^{1-\frac{1}{\sigma}}}{1-\frac{1}{\sigma}}$$

We have the following Euler Equation

$$E_t \left[\beta \left(\frac{c_{t+1}}{c_t} \right)^{-\frac{1}{\sigma}} (1 + r_{t+1}) \right] = 1.$$

Nonhomothetic preferences

Our approach

$$u(C_t, S_t, K_t) = \frac{1}{1 - 1/\sigma} v(C_t, S_t, K_t)^{1 - 1/\sigma}$$
$$v(C_t, S_t, K_t) = \left[C_t^{1 - \frac{1}{\theta}} + \alpha_s S_t^{1 - \frac{\eta}{\theta}} + \alpha_k K_t^{1 - \frac{\zeta}{\theta}} \right]^{\frac{\theta}{\theta - 1}},$$

Thus, the Euler Equation can be represented as

$$\beta E_t \left[\left(\frac{\hat{f}(C_{t+1}, S_{t+1}, K_{t+1})}{\hat{f}(C_t, S_t, K_t)} \right)^{\frac{\theta}{\theta - 1} \frac{\sigma - 1}{\sigma} - 1} \left(\frac{C_{t+1}}{C_t} \right)^{-\frac{1}{\theta}} (1 + r_{t+1}) \right] = 1,$$

where

$$\hat{f}(C_t, S_t, K_t) = C_t^{1 - \frac{1}{\theta}} + \alpha_s S_t^{1 - \frac{\eta}{\theta}} + \alpha_k K_t^{1 - \frac{\zeta}{\theta}}.$$

Estimation

- ▶ GMM? Maybe not.
- ▶ SMM
 - ▶ 7 parameters
 - ▶ 7 or more target statistics (growth rates, ratios, etc...)
 - ▶ Partial equilibrium (use actual data for prices)
 - ▶ Income process: $AR(1)$ [additional parameters]
- ▶ In progress...

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- ▶ Prometo que o paper vai sair

Indirect Inference

- ▶ Developed by Gourioux et al. (1993) and Smith (1993)
- ▶ Indirect inference is a generalization of SMM where μ consists of generic continuous functions of the data
- ▶ It is particularly convenient when the model is complex \Rightarrow likelihood is intractable
- ▶ The key feature of I.Inf is that it uses a simple auxiliary model to “measure the distance between the model and the data”

YO DAWG I HEARD YOU LIKE MODELS

**SO I PUT A MODEL IN YOUR MODEL SO YO CAN
ESTIMATE A MODEL WHILE YOU ESTIMATE A MODEL**

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- ▶ Main idea:
 - ▶ Auxiliary model is estimated both on the actual and on simulated data
 - ▶ Inf chooses the structural parameters so that the auxiliary parameters from the simulated data are as close as possible to those obtained on actual data.
- ▶ Choice of the auxiliary model is key! It has to be good!! More specifically:
 1. Has to provide a good statistical representation of the data
 2. Has to represent well the economic processes captured by the structural model
 3. Easy and quickly to compute

- ▶ Points (1)-(2) relate to the proper identification of structural parameters
- ▶ If (1)-(2) are not satisfied \Rightarrow Objective function will not be responsive to variation in structural parameters
- ▶ Examples for auxiliary models:
 - ▶ Structural impulse response functions (DSGE literature)
 - ▶ Wage regressions and hazard rate models (Applied labor)
 - ▶ Discrete choice models (IO)

- ▶ Suppose $\Theta(y_t, \beta)$ is the auxiliary model at hand, where β is a vector of auxiliary parameters and y_t is the actual data
- ▶ Let $\hat{\beta}_T$ be estimator of β computed from the observed data
- ▶ The way $\hat{\beta}_T$ is computed, clearly depends on the structure of the auxiliary model: Impulse responses: SVAR estimation / Hazard model: ML estimation / etc.

- ▶ Notice that the null hypotheses underlying the estimation is that the observed data are generated by the model at the 'true' value of the parameter θ_0
- ▶ Given a set of structural parameters q we solve and simulate the model to get artificial data $\tilde{y}_T(\theta)$
- ▶ The auxiliary model is then estimated out of the simulated data. The associated estimator of the auxiliary parameters is $\hat{\beta}(\tilde{y}_T(\theta))$

- ▶ For the same θ we repeat the last step S times and compute

$$\hat{\beta}_S(\theta) = \frac{1}{S} \sum_s \hat{\beta}(\tilde{y}_T(\theta))$$

- ▶ The averaging is done to minimize the error due to changing draws
- ▶ The indirect inference estimator of the model's structural parameters is

$$\hat{\theta}_T^S(W) = \arg \min_{\theta} \left[\hat{\beta}_T - \hat{\beta}_S(\theta) \right]' \times W \times \left[\hat{\beta}_T - \hat{\beta}_S(\theta) \right]$$

Some issues

- ▶ How can we check whether our auxiliary model is a good one?
- ▶ Gouriéroux et al. (1993) propose a global specification test based on the value of the objective function
- ▶ The test statistic is given by

$$\zeta_T = \frac{TS}{1+S} \min_{\theta} \left[\hat{\beta}_T - \hat{\beta}_S(\theta) \right]' \times W \times \left[\hat{\beta}_T - \hat{\beta}_S(\theta) \right]$$

- ▶ which is asymptotically χ^2 with $\dim(\beta) - \dim(\theta)$ degrees of freedom
- ▶ Hypotheses tests can be carried out in the standard fashion using Wald or Lagrange multiplier tests (see Gouriéroux et al. (1993))
- ▶ Auxiliary parameters are conditional moments of the data are (often) of interest as well. Especially in wage regressions and duration models

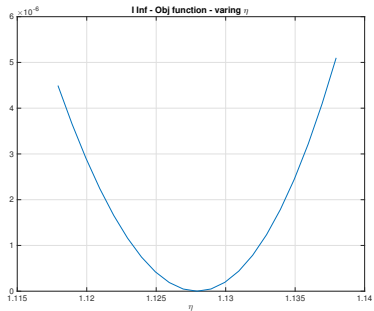
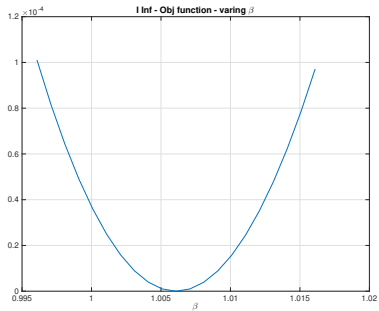
Example: NK Phillips curve continued

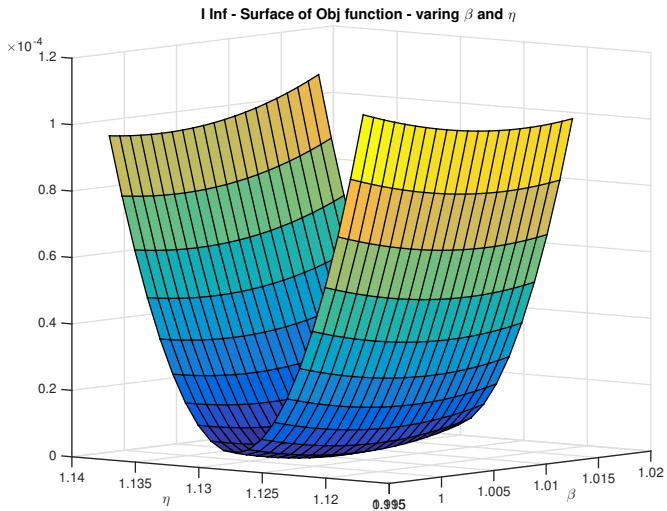
- ▶ Let's consider our previous example. How to estimate (β, η) by l.lnf?
- ▶ Step 1: Choose an auxiliary model. We take a reduced form equation

$$\pi_{t+1} = a_1 \pi_t + a_2 mc_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}$$

- ▶ and estimate a_1 and a_2 using actual data
- ▶ Step 2: Simulate structural model to obtain artificial data $\tilde{\pi}_t$ and \tilde{mc}_t
- ▶ Step 3: Estimate the auxiliary model using $\tilde{\pi}_t$ and \tilde{mc}_t and get $\tilde{a}_1(\beta, \eta)$ and $\tilde{a}_2(\beta, \eta)$
- ▶ Estimate (β, η) by minimizing

$$[a_1 - \tilde{a}_1(\beta, \eta)]' W [a_1 - \tilde{a}_1(\beta, \eta)]$$





Summary

```
*****
Results

      OLS      SMM      IF
*****
beta  1.0061   1.3414   1.0061
eta   0.8812   0.3509   1.1279
*****
```

Identification

- ▶ Let $g(\theta)$ be the distance function that we seek to minimize, i.e.

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \min_{\theta} g(\theta)$$

- ▶ **Identification:** Under what conditions can we recover the structural parameters θ ?
- ▶ Only if the mapping from the distance function to the parameters is well behaved
- ▶ Need:
 - ▶ $g(\theta)$ has a unique minimum at $\theta = \theta_0$
 - ▶ Hessian is positive definite and has full rank
 - ▶ Curvature of $g(\theta)$ is “sufficient”

Identification

- ▶ Different objective functions may have different “identification power”
- ▶ With complex models (the ones we typically work with), the distance function is a non-linear function of the parameters \Rightarrow too complicated to be worked out analytically
- ▶ \Rightarrow Identifiability of θ is problematic Important cases:
 - ▶ Observational equivalence: $g(y, T, m_1, \theta_1^*) = g(y, T, m_2, \theta_2^*)$
 - ▶ Under-identification: $g(y, T, m, \theta) = \text{constant} \forall \theta$
 - ▶ Weak identification: $g(y, T, m, \theta^*) = 0$ and $g(y, T, m, \theta) < \varepsilon, \forall \theta$
- ▶ m_1 and θ_1 respectively denote model specification i and the associated optimal estimator

Identification

- ▶ Under-identification: Certain parameter(s) disappear(s) from the solution) distance function is not responsive to changes in that parameter(s)
- ▶ Note (DSGE): Different shocks identify different parameters
- ▶ Weak and partial under-identification. Consequences:
 - ▶ Algorithm remains stuck at initial conditions
 - ▶ Estimates could be random
 - ▶ Parameter estimates are inconsistent, asymptotic distribution is non-normal and the standard tests are incorrect!

Identification

- ▶ What causes the problems?
- ▶ Example DGSE: Law of motion of capital stock is almost invariant to variations of α (capital share) and ρ (AR coefficient)
- ▶ Can we reduce problems by
 - ▶ Change T - long horizon may have little information
 - ▶ DSGE: Match VAR coefficients
 - ▶ Alter the objective function
 - ▶ Choose different estimation approaches

How to detect identification problems ?

- ▶ Ex-post diagnostics
 - ▶ Erratic parameter estimates as T increases
 - ▶ Large or non-computable standard errors
 - ▶ Crazy t-statistics
- ▶ General diagnostics:
 - ▶ Plot objective function (around estimated values)
 - ▶ Condition number of the Hessian (ratio of the largest to the smallest eigenvalue)
- ▶ Testing rank of Hessian. Check Cragg and Donald (1997)