ECON-GA 1025 Macroeconomic Theory I Lecture 6

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Today's Lecture

- Markov chains continued
- deterministic linear dynamics
- vector autoregressions

Markov Chains: Probabilistic Properties

Let Π be a stochastic kernel on X and let x, y be states

We say that y is **accessible** from x if x = y or

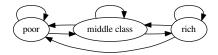
$$\exists k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \Pi^k(x,y) > 0$$

Equivalent: Accessible in the induced directed graph

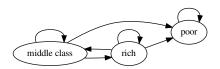
A stochastic kernel Π on X is called **irreducible** if every state is accessible from any other

Equivalent: The induced directed graph is strongly connected

Irreducible:



Not irreducible:



Aperiodicity

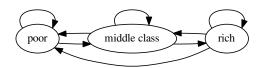
Let Π be a stochastic kernel on X

State $x \in X$ is called **aperiodic** under Π if

$$\exists i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } k \geqslant i \implies \Pi^k(x, x) > 0$$

A stochastic kernel Π on X is called **aperiodic** if every state in X is aperiodic under Π

Aperiodic?

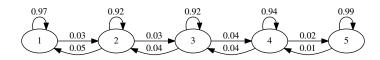


Aperiodic?



Stability of Markov Chains

Recall the distributions generated by Quah's model



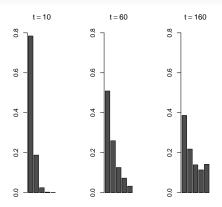


Figure: $X_0 = 1$

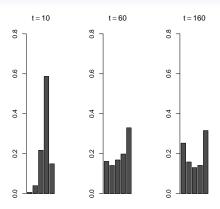


Figure: $X_0 = 4$

What happens when $t \to \infty$?

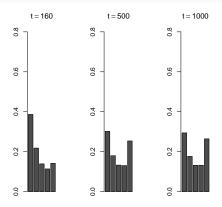


Figure: $X_0 = 1$

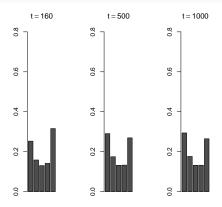


Figure: $X_0 = 4$

At t=1000, the distributions are almost the same for both starting points

This suggests we are observing a form of stability

• is $(\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X}),\Pi)$ globally stable?

Not all stochastic kernels are globally stable

Example. Let $X = \{1,2\}$ and consider the periodic Markov chain

$$\Pi = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

Ex. Show $\psi^* = (0.5, 0.5)$ is stationary for Π

Ex. Show that

$$\delta_0 \Pi^t = egin{cases} \delta_1 & ext{if } t ext{ is odd} \ \delta_0 & ext{if } t ext{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Conclude that global stability fails

Proving Stability

Fact. The operator Π is always nonexpansive:

$$\|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_1 \leqslant \|\varphi - \psi\|_1 \quad \forall \, \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X})$$

Proof:

$$\|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_1 = \sum_y \left| \sum_x \Pi(x, y) [\varphi(x) - \psi(x)] \right|$$

$$\leqslant \sum_y \sum_x \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)|$$

$$= \sum_x \sum_y \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| = \|\varphi - \psi\|_1$$

With some more conditions we might be able to apply this result:

Theorem. If (M, ρ) is a compact metric space and $T: M \to M$ is a strict contraction, then (M, T) is globally stable

- strict contraction means $\rho(Tx, Ty) < \rho(x, y)$ when $x \neq y$
- a variation on the Banach CMT

X is finite, so $\mathcal{P}(X)$ is compact

We just need to boost nonexpansiveness to strict contractivity

Lemma. If $\Pi(x,y)>0$ for all x,y, then Π is a strict contraction on $\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X})$ under the metric d_1

The proof uses two lemmas:

Fact. If $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ and $\varphi \neq \psi$, then

$$\exists\, x,x'\in \mathsf{X} \text{ such that } \varphi(x)>\psi(x) \text{ and } \varphi(x')<\psi(x')$$

Fact. If $g \in \mathbb{R}^{X}$ and $\exists x, x' \in X$ s.t. g(x) > 0 and g(x') < 0, then

$$|\sum_{y\in \mathsf{X}} g(y)| < \sum_{y\in \mathsf{X}} |g(y)|$$

Ex. Prove both

Under the conditions of the theorem, if $\phi \neq \psi$, then

$$\|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_{1} = \sum_{y} \left| \sum_{x} \Pi(x, y) \varphi(x) - \sum_{x} \Pi(x, y) \psi(x) \right|$$

$$= \sum_{y} \left| \sum_{x} \Pi(x, y) [\varphi(x) - \psi(x)] \right|$$

$$< \sum_{y} \sum_{x} |\Pi(x, y) [\varphi(x) - \psi(x)]|$$

$$= \sum_{y} \sum_{x} \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)|$$

$$= \sum_{x} \sum_{y} \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| = \|\varphi - \psi\|_{1}$$

We have prove the following:

Proposition. If $\Pi \gg 0$, then $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$ is globally stable

But this condition is rather strict

- · Hamilton's matrix fails it
- Quah's matrix fails it

$$\Pi_Q = \left(\begin{array}{ccccc} 0.97 & 0.03 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.05 & 0.92 & 0.03 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.04 & 0.92 & 0.04 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.04 & 0.94 & 0.02 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.01 & 0.99 \end{array} \right)$$

Let's see if we can do better

Preliminary observation:

Fact. If $(\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X}),\Pi^i)$ is globally stable for some $i\in\mathbb{N}$, then $(\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X}),\Pi)$ is also globally stable

Recall: If

- 1. dynamical system (M,g^i) is globally stable for some $i\in\mathbb{N}$
- 2. g is continuous at the fixed point of g^i

then (M,g) is also globally stable

Moreover, $\psi \mapsto \psi \Pi$ is everywhere continuous as already discussed

Theorem. If X is finite and Π is both aperiodic and irreducible, then Π is globally stable

Proof: It suffices to show that

$$\forall x, y \in X \times X, \quad \exists i_{x,y} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } k \geqslant i_{x,y} \implies \Pi^k(x,y) > 0$$

Indeed, if this statement holds, then

$$i := \max\{i_{x,y}\} \implies \Pi^i(x,y) > 0 \text{ for all } (x,y) \in X \times X$$

Implies that

- $(\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X}),\Pi^i)$ is globally stable
- and hence $(\mathcal{P}(\mathsf{X}),\Pi)$ is globally stable

So fix $x, y \in X \times X$ and let's try to show that

$$\exists i = i_{x,y} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } k \geqslant i \implies \Pi^k(x,y) > 0$$

Since Π is irreducible, $\exists j \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\Pi^j(x,y) > 0$ Since Π is aperiodic, $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

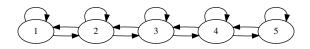
$$\ell \geqslant m \implies \Pi^{\ell}(y,y) > 0$$

Picking $\ell \geqslant m$ and applying the Chapman–Kolmogorov equation, we have

$$\Pi^{j+\ell}(x,y) = \sum_{z \in \mathsf{X}} \Pi^j(x,z) \Pi^\ell(z,y) \geqslant \Pi^j(x,y) \Pi^\ell(y,y) > 0$$

QED

Example. Quah's stochastic kernel is both irreducible and aperiodic



And therefore globally stable

Same with Hamilton's business cycle model



```
In [1]: import quantecon as qe
In [2]: P = [[0.971, 0.029, 0],
   \dots: [0.145, 0.778, 0.077],
   \dots: [0 , 0.508 , 0.492]]
In [3]: mc = qe.MarkovChain(P)
In [4]: mc.is aperiodic
Out[4]: True
In [5]: mc.is irreducible
Out[5]: True
In [6]: mc.stationary_distributions
Out[6]: array([[ 0.8128 , 0.16256, 0.02464]])
```

A Weaker Set of Conditions

Let Π be a stochastic kernel on (finite set) X

Theorem. The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. Π^k has a strictly positive column for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$
- 2. For any $x,x'\in X$, there exists a $k\in \mathbb{N}$ and a $y\in X$ such that $\Pi^k(x,y)>0 \text{ and } \Pi^k(x',y)>0$
- 3. $(\mathcal{P}(X),\Pi)$ is globally stable

Intuition for sufficiency

We know a stationary distribution exists, just need to prove convergence

Suppose that, for any $x, x' \in X$, there exists a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and a $y \in X$ such that

$$\Pi^k(x,y) > 0$$
 and $\Pi^k(x',y) > 0$

Wherever we are now, we can meet up again

Hence no one is stuck at a local attractor

Initial conditions don't matter in the long run

Hence $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$ is globally stable

Application: Inventory Dynamics

Let X_t = inventory of a product, obeys

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} (X_t - D_{t+1})^+ & \text{if } X_t > s \\ (S - D_{t+1})^+ & \text{if } X_t \leqslant s \end{cases}$$

Assume $\{D_t\} \stackrel{ ext{\scriptsize IID}}{\sim}$ the geometric distribution, say

A Markov chain on $X := \{0, 1, \dots, S\}$ with kernel

$$\Pi(x,y) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{P}\{(x - D_{t+1})^+ = y\} & \text{if } x > s \\ \mathbb{P}\{(S - D_{t+1})^+ = y\} & \text{if } x \leqslant s \end{cases}$$

Proposition The pair $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$ is globally stable

Proof: Suppose that $D_{t+1} \geqslant S$

Then

$$0 \leqslant X_{t+1} \leqslant (S - D_{t+1})^+ = 0$$

Hence $\mathbb{P}\{D_{t+1}\geqslant S\}>0$ implies $\Pi(x,0)>0$ for all x

Moreover $\mathbb{P}\{D_{t+1}\geqslant S\}>0$ holds for the geometric distribution

Hence $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$ is globally stable

The Law of Large Numbers

Fix $h \in \mathbb{R}^{X}$ and let $\{X_t\}$ be a Markov chain generated by Π

Theorem. If X is finite and Π is globally stable with stationary distribution ψ^* , then

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^n h(X_t) = \sum_{x\in\mathsf{X}} h(x)\psi^*(x)\right\} = 1$$

Intuition: $\{X_t\}$ "almost" identically distributed for large t

Also, stability means that initial conditions die out — a form of long run independence

An approximation of the IID property used in the classical LLN

LLN provides a new interpretation for the stationary distribution

Using the LLN with $h(x) = 1\{x = y\}$, we have

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} \mathbb{1}\{X_t = y\} \to \sum_{x \in X} \mathbb{1}\{x = y\} \psi^*(x) = \psi^*(y)$$

Turning this around,

 $\psi^*(y) pprox \,$ fraction of time that $\{X_t\}$ spends in state y

This is **not** always valid **unless** the chain in question is stable

Deterministic Linear Models

Linear vector valued dynamic models — workhorse of macro

- Often used as a building block for more complex models
- Even nonlinear models can often be mapped into linear systems (at cost of higher dimensionality)

Our generic (deterministic) linear model specification on \mathbb{R}^n is

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b \tag{1}$$

where

- x_t is $n \times 1$, a vector of state variables
- A is $n \times n$ and b is $n \times 1$

Maps to the dynamical system (\mathbb{R}^n,g) with g(x)=Ax+b When is it stable?

Example. Consider n=1 and g(x)=ax+b for scalars a and b If $a\neq 1$, then g has a unique fixed point $x^*=b/(1-a)$ Moreover, iterating backwards,

$$x_t = a^t x_0 + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} a^i$$

- Converges to b/(1-a) whenever |a|<1
- Hence (\mathbb{R}, g) is globally stable whenever |a| < 1

In the general n dimensional case,

$$x_t = Ax_{t-1} + b = A(Ax_{t-2} + b) + b = A^2x_{t-2} + Ab + b = \cdots$$

Leads to

$$x_t = g^t(x_0) = A^t x_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A^i b$$
 (2)

Does this sequence converge as t gets large?

Does g have a fixed point?

What is the correct generalization of the condition |a| < 1 from the scalar case?

Fact. If r(A) < 1, then (\mathbb{R}^n, g) is globally stable with steady state

$$x^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b \tag{3}$$

Proof: $r(A) < 1 \implies (I - A)^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i$

Hence x^* in (3) is the unique solution to x = Ax + b

Regarding stability, given x_0 and y_0 in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$||x_t - y_t|| = ||A^t(x_0 - y_0)|| \le ||A^t|| \cdot ||x_0 - y_0||$$

- But $||A^t|| \to 0$, so $||x_t y_t|| \to 0$
- Taking $y_0 = x^*$ completes the proof

Example. The Samuelson multiplier-accelerator model

Consumption obeys

$$C_t = \alpha Y_{t-1} + \gamma$$

Aggregate investment increases with output growth:

$$I_t = \beta(Y_{t-1} - Y_{t-2})$$

Letting G be a constant level of government spending and using the accounting identity

$$Y_t = C_t + I_t + G$$

Combining equations gives

$$Y_t = (\alpha + \beta)Y_{t-1} - \beta Y_{t-2} + G + \gamma \tag{4}$$

This is not a first order system

But we can map it to the first order framework by taking

$$x_t := \begin{pmatrix} Y_t \\ Y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}$$
, $A := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \beta & -\beta \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, and $b := \begin{pmatrix} G + \gamma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

We can recover (4) from the first entry in

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b$$

Stability depends on r(A)

Step 1: Solve $det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

Letting $\rho_1:=a+b$ and $\rho_2:=-b$, the two solutions are the roots of

$$\lambda^2 - \rho_1 \lambda - \rho_2 = 0$$

Hence

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\rho_1 \pm \sqrt{\rho_1^2 + 4\rho_2}}{2}$$
 $i = 1, 2$

If both are interior to the unit circle in \mathbb{C} , then r(A) < 1

In the next fig, $\alpha = 0.6$ and $\beta = 0.7$, so $r(A) \approx 0.837$

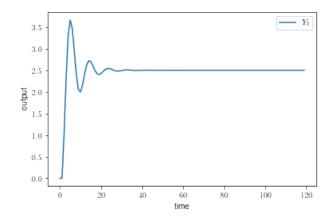


Figure: Time series of output

Adding Stochastic Components

Now we wish to add shocks to the model — get closer to data

Before that let's review some building blocks:

- Conditional expectations
- Martingales
- Martingale difference sequences

Let Y and $\mathscr{G} := \{X_1, \dots, X_k\}$ be random variables with finite second moments

Problem: Predict Y given $\mathscr G$

• In this context, $\mathscr G$ is called an information set

Thus, we seek a function $f \colon \mathbb{R}^k \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\hat{Y} := f(X_1, \dots, X_k)$$
 is a good predictor of Y

"Good" defined to mean that $\mathbb{E}[(\hat{Y}-Y)^2]$ is small

Thus, we seek \hat{f} that solves

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}[(Y - f(X_1, \dots, X_k))^2]$$

Fact. There exists an (almost everwhere) unique \hat{f} in the set of Borel measurable functions from \mathbb{R}^k to \mathbb{R} that solves

$$\hat{f} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{f} \mathbb{E}[(Y - f(X_1, \dots, X_k))^2]$$

We call the resulting variable

$$\hat{Y} := \hat{f}(X_1, \dots, X_k)$$

the conditional expectation of Y given $\mathscr G$

Common alternative notation:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y :=: \mathbb{E}[Y | \mathscr{G}] :=: \mathbb{E}[Y | X_1, \dots, X_k]$$

The definition extends to RVs with finite first moment — details omitted

We say that Y is \mathscr{G} -measurable if there exists a Borel measurable function f such that $Y = f(X_1, \dots, X_k)$

ullet Meaning: Y is perfectly predictable given the data in ${\mathscr G}$

Fact. Let X and Y be random variables with finite first moment, let α and β be scalars, and let $\mathscr G$ and $\mathscr H$ be information sets

The following properties hold:

- 1. $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}[\alpha X + \beta Y] = \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}} X + \beta \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}} Y$
- 2. If $\mathscr{G}\subset\mathscr{H}$, then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}[\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{H}}Y]=\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y$ and $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y]=\mathbb{E}Y$
- 3. If Y is independent of the variables in \mathscr{G} , then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y=\mathbb{E}Y$
- 4. If Y is \mathscr{G} -measurable, then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y = Y$
- 5. If X is \mathscr{G} -measurable, then $\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}[XY] = X\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}Y$

Let

- $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_m)$ be a vector
- \mathcal{G}
 be an information set

The (vector valued) conditional expectation of Y given $\mathscr G$ is just the vector containing the conditional expectation of each element

Thus, written as column vectors,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}}\begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mathscr{G}} Y_m \end{pmatrix}$$

(Same as ordinary unconditional expectation for vectors)

Martingales

A **filtration** is an increasing sequence of information sets $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}_{t\geqslant 0}$

• Increasing in set inclusion, so that $\mathscr{G}_t \subset \mathscr{G}_{t+1}$ for all $t \geqslant 0$

Example. If $\{\xi_t\}_{t\geqslant 0}$ is a stochastic process, then the **filtration** generated by $\{\xi_t\}_{t\geqslant 0}$ is

$$\mathscr{G}_t = \{\xi_0, \dots, \xi_t\} \qquad t \geqslant 0$$

A stochastic process $\{\eta_t\}$ is said to be **adapted** to filtration \mathcal{G}_t if η_t is \mathcal{G}_t -measurable for all t

• time t value is revealed by time t information.

A stochastic process $\{w_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ taking values in \mathbb{R}^n is called a martingale with respect to a filtration $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}$ if

- $\mathbb{E}\|w_t\|_1 < \infty$ and
- $\{w_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ is adapted to $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}$
- and

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathscr{G}_t] = w_t, \quad \forall \, t \geqslant 1$$

Example. Consider a scalar **random walk** $\{w_t\}$ defined by

$$w_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \xi_i, \qquad \{\xi_t\} ext{ is IID with } \mathbb{E}[\xi_t] = 0$$

This process is a martingale with respect to the filtration generated by $\{\xi_t\}$, since

- 1. adapted
- 2. satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} \,|\, \mathcal{G}_t] = \mathbb{E}[w_t + \xi_{t+1} \,|\, \mathcal{G}_t] = \mathbb{E}[w_t \,|\, \mathcal{G}_t] + \mathbb{E}[\xi_{t+1} \,|\, \mathcal{G}_t]$$

The martingale property now follows (why?)

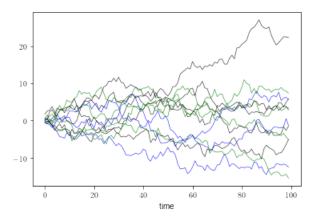


Figure: Twelve realizations of a random walk

A stochastic process $\{w_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is called a **martingale** difference sequence (MDS) with respect to a filtration $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}$ if

- $\mathbb{E}\|w_t\|_1 < \infty$ and
- $\{w_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ is adapted to $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}$
- and

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathscr{G}_t] = 0, \quad \forall \, t \geqslant 1$$

Example. If $\{v_t\}$ is a martingale with respect to $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$ then $w_t := v_t - v_{t-1}$ is an MDS with respect to $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$

Proof: For any t,

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] = \mathbb{E}[v_{t+1} - v_t | \mathcal{G}_t]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[v_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] - \mathbb{E}[v_t | \mathcal{G}_t] = v_t - v_t = 0$$

Example. If $\{v_t\}$ is IID with zero mean and $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$ is the filtration generated by $\{v_t\}$, then $\{v_t\}$ is an MDS with respect to $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$

Ex. Check it

An MDS is additive white noise:

Fact. If $\{w_t\}$ is an MDS with respect to $\{\mathscr{G}_t\}$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[w_t] = 0$$
 for all $t \geqslant 0$

Ex. Check it

Fact. If $\{w_t\}$ is an MDS with respect to $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$, then w_s and w_t are **orthogonal**, in the sense that

$$\mathbb{E}[w_s w_t'] = 0$$
 whenever $s \neq t$

Ex. Check it

Linear Vector Systems with Noise

Next consider

- $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$ with x_0 given
- $\{\xi_t\}_{t\geqslant 1}$ is an \mathbb{R}^j -valued MDS satisfying

$$\mathbb{E}[\xi_{t}\xi_{t}'] = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}\xi_{1t}\xi_{1t} & \mathbb{E}\xi_{1t}\xi_{2t} & \cdots & \mathbb{E}\xi_{1t}\xi_{jt} \\ \mathbb{E}\xi_{2t}\xi_{1t} & \mathbb{E}\xi_{2t}\xi_{2t} & \cdots & \mathbb{E}\xi_{2t}\xi_{jt} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}\xi_{jt}\xi_{1t} & \mathbb{E}\xi_{jt}\xi_{2t} & \cdots & \mathbb{E}\xi_{jt}\xi_{jt} \end{pmatrix} = I$$

An example of a vector autoregressive (VAR) process

Given

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$$

What are the dynamics of the state process $\{x_t\}$?

This is a multi-layered question so let's start with an easy component

What is the time path of the first two moments?

These are

- $\mu_t := \mathbb{E}[x_t]$
- $\Sigma_t := \operatorname{var}[x_t] := \mathbb{E}[(x_t \mu_t)(x_t \mu_t)']$

Dynamics of the Mean

First, regarding μ_t , take expectations over

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$$

to get

$$\mu_{t+1} = A\mu_t + b$$

Fact. If r(A) < 1, then $\{\mu_t\}$ converges to the unique fixed point

$$\mu^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b$$

regardless of μ_0

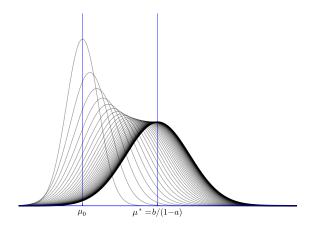


Figure: Convergence of μ_t to μ^* in the scalar model

Dynamics of the Variance

Consider again

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$$

We want a similar law of motion for $\Sigma_t := \mathrm{var}[x_t]$

We will use the fact that $\mathbb{E}[x_t \xi'_{t+1}] = 0$

Ex. Show this follows from the assumptions above

By definition,

$$var[x_{t+1}] = \mathbb{E}[(x_{t+1} - \mu_{t+1})(x_{t+1} - \mu_{t+1})']$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[(A(x_t - \mu_t) + C\xi_{t+1})(A(x_t - \mu_t) + C\xi_{t+1})']$$

The right hand side is equal to

$$\mathbb{E}[A(x_{t} - \mu_{t})(x_{t} - \mu_{t})'A'] + \mathbb{E}[A(x_{t} - \mu_{t})\xi'_{t+1}C'] + \mathbb{E}[C\xi_{t+1}(x_{t} - \mu_{t})'A'] + \mathbb{E}[C\xi_{t+1}\xi'_{t+1}C']$$

Some further manipulations (check) lead to

$$\Sigma_{t+1} = A\Sigma_t A' + CC'$$

To repeat

$$\Sigma_{t+1} = g(\Sigma_t)$$
 where $S(\Sigma) := A\Sigma A' + CC'$

Variance is a trajectory of the dynamical system $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), S)$

A steady state of this system is a Σ satisfying

$$\Sigma = A\Sigma A' + CC'$$

Fact. If r(A) < 1, then $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), S)$ is globally stable

ullet distance is generated by the (spectral) norm on $\mathcal{M}(n imes n)$

In the proof, we use the following extension of Banach's fixed point theorem

Theorem. Let T be a self-mapping on complete metric space M such that

- 1. T^k is a Banach contraction mapping on M for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$
- 2. T is continuous on M

Then (M,T) is globally stable

Ex. Verify this based on our results for dynamical systems

Consider the discrete Lyapunov equation

$$\Sigma = A\Sigma A' + M$$

• all matrices are in $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$ and Σ is the unknown

Given A and M, let ℓ be the **Lyapunov operator**

$$\ell(\Sigma) = A\Sigma A' + M$$

Ex. Show that ℓ is continuous on $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$

Fact. If r(A) < 1, then $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), \ell)$ is globally stable

Proof: Suffices to show that ℓ^k is a Banach contraction on $(\mathcal{M}(n\times n),\|\cdot\|)$ for some $k\in\mathbb{N}$

From the definition,

$$\ell^{k}(\Sigma) = A^{k}\Sigma(A^{k})' + A^{k-1}M(A^{k-1})' + \dots + M$$

Hence, for any Σ , Λ in $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$, we have

$$\begin{split} \|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| &= \left\| A^k \Sigma (A^k)' - A^k \Lambda (A^k)' \right\| \\ &= \left\| A^k (\Sigma - \Lambda) (A^k)' \right\| \\ &\leq \|A^k\| \cdot \|\Sigma - \Lambda\| \cdot \|(A^k)'\| \end{split}$$

Transposes don't change norms, so $\|(A^k)'\| = \|A^k\|$ and hence

$$\|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| \leqslant \|A^k\|^2 \|\Sigma - \Lambda\|$$

Since r(A) < 1, we can find $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\lambda < 1$ such that

$$\|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| \leqslant \lambda \|\Sigma - \Lambda\|$$
 for all $\Sigma, \Lambda \in \mathcal{M}(n \times m)$

Now apply Banach contraction mapping theorem

Note: Gives an algorithm for computing Σ^*

Application: Log Output

Kydland and Prescott (1980) study detrended log output via

$$y_{t+1} = \alpha_1 y_t + \alpha_2 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t+1}, \qquad \{\epsilon\} \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma)$$
 (5)

We can map it to our VAR framework $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$ via

$$x_t := \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C := \begin{pmatrix} \sigma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

along with $\xi_t := rac{1}{\sigma} \epsilon_t$

Estimated values: $\hat{\alpha}_1 = 1.386$ and $\hat{\alpha}_2 = -0.477$

Implies $r(A) \approx 0.75$

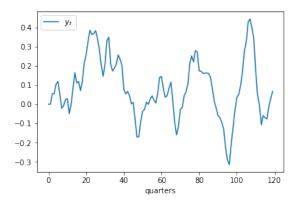


Figure: Time series of detrended log output

Distribution Dynamics: The Gaussian Case

We have obtained the moment dynamics of

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1} \tag{6}$$

They were

- $g^t(\mu_0)$ where $g(\mu) := A\mu + b$ on \mathbb{R}^n
- $S^t(\Sigma_0)$ where $S(\Sigma) := A'\Sigma A + CC'$ on $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$

Now we want to learn about the distributions themselves

That is, we wish to track $\{\psi_t\}$ where

 $\psi_t :=$ the distribution of x_t

This is straightforward if the model is Gaussian

Gaussian distributions described by their first two moments

We can give a complete analytical description of the marginal distributions $\{\psi_t\}$

Works because

- Linear combinations of mutivariate Gaussians are Gaussian
- Our law of motion $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$ is linear

A scalar random variable z has a (univariate) **standard normal distribution** if

$$z \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} \varphi \text{ where } \varphi(s) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-s^2}{2}\right) \qquad (s \in \mathbb{R})$$

We write $z \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} N(0,1)$.

Scalar random variable x has normal distribution $N(\mu,\sigma)$ for some $\mu\in\mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma\geqslant 0$ if

$$x \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} \mu + \sigma z$$
, for some z with $z \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} N(0,1)$

Note that we allow $\sigma=0$, in which case x is a point mass on μ

A random vector x in \mathbb{R}^n is called **multivariate Gaussian** with distribution $N(\mu, \Sigma)$ if

- μ is a vector in \mathbb{R}^n
- ullet Σ is a positive semidefinite element of $\mathcal{M}(n imes n)$ and
- $h'x \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} N(h'\mu, h'\Sigma h)$ on \mathbb{R} for any $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$

If Σ is positive definite, then x has density

$$\varphi(s) = \det(2\pi\Sigma)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(s-\mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(s-\mu)\right)$$

Question: If x_1 and x_2 are normally distributed in \mathbb{R} , is $x=(x_1,x_2)$ multivariate Gaussian?

To shift to the Gaussian case we assume that

- ullet $\{\xi_t\}_{t\geqslant 1} \stackrel{ ext{IID}}{\sim} N(0,I)$ and
- $x_0 \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} N(\mu_0, \Sigma_0)$
- μ_0 is any vector in \mathbb{R}^j and Σ_0 is positive semidefinite

The random vector x_0 is assumed to be independent of $\{\xi_t\}$

Under these Gaussian conditions we have

$$x_t \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} N\left(g^t(\mu_0), S^t(\Sigma_0)\right) \text{ for all } t \geqslant 0$$
 (7)

Ex. Check normality using the definition of multivariate Gaussians

Proposition. If r(A) < 1, then under the Gaussian conditions we have

$$\psi_t \stackrel{w}{\to} N(\mu^*, \Sigma^*) \qquad (t \to \infty)$$
 (8)

where

- $\stackrel{w}{\rightarrow}$ means weak convergence (convergence "in distribution")
- $\psi_t \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} x_t$
- $\mu^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b$ and
- Σ^* is the unique fixed point of $\Sigma := A'\Sigma A + CC'$

Equivalent to (8): the characteristic function of $N(\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$ converges pointwise to that of $N(\mu^*, \Sigma^*)$

Proof: We must show that, at any fixed $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \exp\left(is'\mu_t - \frac{1}{2}s'\Sigma_t s\right) = \exp\left(is'\mu^* - \frac{1}{2}s'\Sigma^* s\right)$$
 (9)

Fixing such an s, to prove (9) it suffices to show that

$$s'\mu_t \to s'\mu^*$$
 and $s'\Sigma_t s \to s'\Sigma^* s$ in \mathbb{R} as $t \to \infty$ (10)

From the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality we have

$$|s'\mu_t - s'\mu^*| = |s'(\mu_t - \mu^*)| \le ||s|| \cdot ||\mu_t - \mu^*|| \to 0$$

Ex. Prove the second part of (10)

Example. In the **AR(1)** case, $\{x_t\}$ is real valued and obeys

$$x_{t+1} = ax_t + b + \sigma \epsilon_{t+1}, \quad \{\epsilon_t\} \stackrel{\text{IID}}{\sim} N(0,1) \tag{11}$$

In this case r(A) = |a|

The stable case |a| < 1 is called **mean-reverting**

The distribution of x_t converges weakly to

$$\psi^* := N\left(\frac{b}{1-a'}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1-a^2}\right) \tag{12}$$

Dynamical systems formulation

Let \mathscr{G} be the set of all Gaussian distributions on \mathbb{R}^n

topology = weak convergence

Let Π be the operator on $\mathscr G$ defined by

$$\psi := N(\mu, \Sigma) \mapsto \psi \Pi := N(g(\mu), S(\Sigma))$$

Then

- ullet Π is a self-mapping on $\mathscr G$
- (\mathcal{G},Π) is globally stable whenever r(A) < 1

Distribution Dynamics: The General Density Case

Let's drop the Gaussian assumptions, replace them with

- ullet $\{\xi_t\}$ is IID on \mathbb{R}^n with density arphi
- C is $n \times n$ and nonsingular

Under these assumptions, each ψ_t will be a density

To prove this we use

Fact. If ξ has density φ and C is nonsingular, then $y=d+C\xi$ has density

$$p(y) = \varphi\left(C^{-1}(y-d)\right) |\det C|^{-1}$$
 (13)

The density of x_{t+1} conditional on $x_t = x$ is therefore

$$\pi(x,y) = \varphi\left(C^{-1}(y - Ax - b)\right) |\det C|^{-1}$$

The law of total probability tells us that, for random variables (x,y) with densities,

$$p(y) = \int p(y \mid x) p(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$

Hence the densities ψ_t and ψ_{t+1} are connected via

$$\psi_{t+1}(y) = |\det C|^{-1} \int \varphi\left(C^{-1}(y - Ax - b)\right) \psi_t(x) dx$$

Suppose we introduce an operator Π from the set of densities $\mathcal D$ on $\mathbb R^n$ to itself via

$$(\psi\Pi)(y) = \int \pi(x, y)\psi(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \tag{14}$$

Then our law of motion for marginals

$$\psi_{t+1}(y) = |\det C|^{-1} \int \varphi \left(C^{-1}(y - Ax - b) \right) \psi_t(x) dx$$

becomes

$$\psi_{t+1} = \psi_t \Pi$$

a concise description of distribution dynamics

Comments:

- In $\psi_{t+1} = \psi_t \Pi$ we write the argument to the left following tradition (see Meyn and Tweedie, 2009)
- ullet The set of densities ${\mathcal D}$ is endowed with the topology of weak convergence

Proposition. If r(A) < 1, then (\mathcal{D}, Π) is globally stable

Moreover, if h is any function such that $\int |h(x)| \psi^*(x) dx$ is finite, then

$$\mathbb{P}\left\{\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^nh(x_t)=\int h(x)\psi^*(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\right\}=1$$