

Dynamic Macroeconomic Models

Lecture 2

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Notation

- **State variables** (backward-looking):
 - Endogenous: k_t, m_t, b_t
 - Exogenous: A_t, z_t, g_t
- **Control variables** (forward-looking): c_t, n_t
- Static/redundant variables: w_t, r_t, y_t

Recipe to solve DSGE models

- Solving DSGE models with *linear* approximations.
- **Step 1:** Find first-order conditions.
- **Step 2:** list all equilibrium conditions:
 - FOCs
 - Budget constraints
 - Market clearing equations.
- **Step 3:** Find deterministic steady-state
 - Without shocks, economy converges to a steady-state where all endogenous variables are constant:

$$\varepsilon_t = 0, \forall t \implies \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x_t = \bar{x}.$$

Recipe to solve DSGE models

- **Step 4:** Linear approximation around deterministic steady-state
 - Log-linearized variables $\tilde{x}_t = \log x_t - \log \bar{x} \simeq (x_t - \bar{x})/\bar{x}$.
- **Step 5:** Solve linearized system of equations obtained in step 4. Several methods in the liter., the most popular are:
 - **Blanchard-Kahn** based on eigenvalue-eigenvector (Jordan) decomposition. Reference: Blanchard and Kahn (1980).
 - **Undetermined coefficients** based on matrix quadratic equations. Reference: Uhlig (1999).
- **Step 6:** With solution at hand, compute simulated time series and impulse-responses to shocks.

Roadmap

- In Problem Set 1 you went through steps 1-4 for a prototypical RBC model (Hansen 1985).
- Today's lecture: focus on Step 5, i.e. solving linearized system of stochastic difference equations, also known as linearized rational expectation models (LREM).
- Next, we will cover *simulation* and *impulse-response* analysis.

Solving LREM: General Setup

- Denote vector of **control** variables as u_t and the **state** vector as s_t .
- Partition state vector as $s_t = [s_t^1, s_t^2]$, where 1→**endogenous**, 2→**exogenous**
- Assume

$$s_{t+1}^2 = \rho s_t^2 + \varepsilon_{t+1},$$

where ε_{t+1} is a vector of i.i.d. innovations with mean zero and var-cov matrix Σ .

- Linearized equilibrium equations can be written as

$$\underbrace{A}_{n \times n} \cdot E_t x_{t+1} = \underbrace{B}_{n \times n} \cdot x_t$$

where

$$\underbrace{x_t}_{n \times 1} = \begin{bmatrix} s_t \\ u_t \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} n_s \times 1 \\ n_c \times 1 \end{matrix}$$

and $n = n_s + n_c$.

Solving LREM: An Example

- Stochastic growth model seen in Lecture 1.
- Deterministic steady-state:

$$\bar{k} = \left(\frac{\alpha\beta}{1 - \beta(1 - \delta)} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}, \quad \bar{c} = k^\alpha - \delta k, \quad \bar{z} = 1$$

- Log-linearized equations:

$$\sigma \tilde{c}_t - \sigma E_t \tilde{c}_{t+1} + [1 - \beta(1 - \delta)] \rho \tilde{z}_t - (1 - \alpha) [1 - \beta(1 - \delta)] \tilde{k}_{t+1} = 0$$

$$\frac{\bar{c}}{\bar{k}} \tilde{c}_t + \tilde{k}_{t+1} - \frac{1}{\beta} \tilde{k}_t - \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \delta \right) \tilde{z}_t = 0$$

$$\tilde{z}_{t+1} = \rho \tilde{z}_t + \varepsilon_{t+1} \implies E_t \tilde{z}_{t+1} = \rho \tilde{z}_t$$

Solving LREM: An Example

- Let $x_t = [\tilde{k}_t, \tilde{z}_t, \tilde{c}_t]'$, with $s_t = [\tilde{k}_t, \tilde{z}_t]'$ and $u_t = \tilde{c}_t$.
- Linearized equations can be written in matrix form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \left(\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \delta\right)(1 - \alpha) & 0 & \frac{1}{\beta}\sigma \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{k}_{t+1} \\ E_t \tilde{z}_{t+1} \\ E_t \tilde{c}_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \left(\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \delta\right)\rho & \frac{1}{\beta}\sigma \\ \frac{1}{\beta} & \frac{1}{\alpha}\left(\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 + \delta\right) & -\frac{\bar{c}}{\bar{k}} \\ 0 & \rho & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{k}_t \\ \tilde{z}_t \\ \tilde{c}_t \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note: $E_t s_{t+1}^1 = s_{t+1}^1$, since endogenous states are *predetermined*. So here $E_t k_{t+1} = k_{t+1}$.

Solving LREM

- We need to solve

$$\underset{n \times n}{A} \cdot E_t x_{t+1} = \underset{n \times n}{B} \cdot x_t$$

- *Provided that A is invertible*, can write

$$E_t x_{t+1} = \underbrace{A^{-1} B}_M \cdot x_t \quad (1)$$

- Remark: the system above is not a solution yet!
- M only tells us how the variables x_t will evolve *given* initial starting point.
- We only have initial conditions for the state variables.
- Where do we “start” the control variables?

Solving LREM

- Decouple the system using the Jordan decomposition of M

$$MD = D\Lambda \rightarrow M = D\Lambda D^{-1}$$

where Λ is diagonal matrix with **eigenvalues** on the main diagonal. D is matrix with corresponding **eigenvectors**.

Math review

- Arrange eigenvalues from smallest to largest in absolute value.
- Reorder eigenvectors accordingly:
 - the i -th column of D corresponds with the i -th eigenvalue of position (i, i) in Λ .

Solving LREM

- Λ can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ \text{\textit{es}} \times \text{\textit{es}} & \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \\ & \text{\textit{eu}} \times \text{\textit{eu}} \end{bmatrix}$$

where *es*: # of stable eigenvalues (i.e. smaller than one in absolute value) and *eu*: # of unstable eigenvalues.

- Write (1) as

$$\begin{aligned} E_t x_{t+1} &= D \Lambda D^{-1} \cdot x_t \\ \underbrace{D^{-1} E_t x_{t+1}}_{E_t \hat{x}_{t+1}} &= \Lambda \underbrace{D^{-1} \cdot x_t}_{\hat{x}_t} \end{aligned}$$

- Hence

$$\begin{bmatrix} E_t \hat{s}_{t+1} \\ E_t \hat{u}_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda_1 & 0 \\ \text{\textit{es}} \times \text{\textit{es}} & \\ 0 & \Lambda_2 \\ & \text{\textit{eu}} \times \text{\textit{eu}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_t \\ \hat{u}_t \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving LREM

- Further, define

$$D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & d_{11} \\ es \times ns & es \times nu \\ d_{21} & d_{22} \\ eu \times ns & eu \times nc \end{bmatrix}$$

so that the transformed variables are related to the original variables as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{s}_t \\ \hat{u}_t \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d_{11} & d_{11} \\ es \times ns & es \times nu \\ d_{21} & d_{22} \\ eu \times ns & eu \times nc \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_t \\ u_t \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

- After decoupling, our task is much easier! We now have an independent system of two equations:

$$E_t \hat{s}_{t+1} = \Lambda_1 \hat{s}_t$$

$$E_t \hat{u}_{t+1} = \Lambda_2 \hat{u}_t$$

Solving LREM

- Iterating forward yields

$$E_t \hat{s}_{t+T} = \Lambda_1^T \hat{s}_t$$

$$E_t \hat{u}_{t+T} = \Lambda_2^T \hat{u}_t$$

- Eigenvalues in Λ_1 are all less than 1 in abs. value $\implies E_t \hat{s}_{t+T} \rightarrow 0$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$.
- Eigenvalues in Λ_2 are all larger than 1 in abs. value $\implies E_t \hat{u}_{t+T} \rightarrow \pm\infty$ as $T \rightarrow \infty$, **unless we impose** $\hat{u}_t = 0$.
- (In a deterministic model) This restriction basically pins down the **saddle-path** equations.
- Recalling (2), condition $\hat{u}_t = 0$ can be stated as

$$0 = \underset{eu \times ns}{d_{21}} s_t + \underset{eu \times nc}{d_{22}} u_t \tag{3}$$

Solving LREM: Solution for Controls

- Provided that d_{22} is invertible,

$$(3) \quad \underbrace{d_{21}}_{eu \times ns} s_t + \underbrace{d_{22}}_{eu \times nc} u_t = 0 \implies u_t = \underbrace{-d_{22}^{-1} d_{21}}_U \cdot s_t \quad (4)$$

- A necessary condition for d_{22} being invertible is that $eu = nc$.
- This means **# unstable eigenvalues = # control/forward-looking variables**. (BK conditions).
- Case $eu > nc$: system (3) has no solution
 - Intuition: we have too many restrictions on the initial values of the control variables.
- Case $eu < nc$: system (3) has infinitely many solutions
 - Intuition: there are too few restrictions on the initial values of the control variables \rightarrow infinitely many solutions may satisfy those restrictions.

Blanchard-Kahn Conditions: A Summary

Proposition

If the number of eigenvalues of M larger than one in absolute value is equal to the number of forward-looking variables, then there is a unique solution to the system.

Proposition

If the number of eigenvalues of M larger than one in absolute value is greater than the number of forward-looking variables, then there is no solution to the system.

Proposition

If the number of eigenvalues of M larger than one in absolute value is less than the number of forward-looking variables, then there is an infinity of solutions.¹

¹You will also find this case referred to as “indeterminate” in the literature.

Solving LREM: Solution for States

- If BK conditions are satisfied, we can uniquely determine the "policy function" for controls: equation (4), i.e. $u_t = U \cdot s_t$.
- But we also need a transition equation for the state vector s_t .
- Go back to $E_t x_{t+1} = M \cdot x_t$, with $x_t = [s_t, u_t]'$.
- Decompose M into blocks:

$$\begin{bmatrix} E_t s_{t+1} \\ E_t u_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ ns \times ns & ns \times nc \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \\ nc \times ns & nc \times nc \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} s_t \\ u_t \end{bmatrix}$$

- Given partitioning, the first row of this system is

$$E_t s_{t+1} = m_{11} s_t + m_{12} u_t.$$

- Replacing (4) into the above equation yields:

$$E_t s_{t+1} = \underbrace{(m_{11} - m_{12} d_{22}^{-1} d_{21})}_{\Pi} s_t$$

Solving LREM: Solution for States

- Note:

$$s_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} s_{t+1}^1 \\ E_t s_{t+1}^2 + \varepsilon_{t+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$E_t s_{t+1}^2 = \rho s_t^2.$$

- Hence:

$$s_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} s_{t+1}^1 \\ E_t s_{t+1}^2 + \varepsilon_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \Pi_{ns \times ns} \begin{bmatrix} s_t^1 \\ s_t^2 \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ n_{s1} \times n_{s2} \\ I \\ n_{s2} \times n_{s2} \end{bmatrix}}_W \varepsilon_{t+1}$$

Solving LREM: Solution

- Summing up, we can write the solution in a recursive form as:

$$s_{t+1} = \prod_{n_s \times n_s} s_t + \frac{W}{n_s \times n_{s2}} \varepsilon_{t+1} \quad (5)$$

$$u_t = \frac{U}{n_c \times n_s} s_t \quad (6)$$

- Given initial conditions for the states, s_0 , compute the equilibrium sequence $\{s_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ iterating on (5) for a given sequence of innovations $\{\varepsilon_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$.
- Finally, use (6) to determine $\{u_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$.
- Terminology: in the language of state-space systems, (5) is called **transition** or **state equation**, whereas (6) is called **observation** or **measurement equation**.

Solving LREM: Example

- Go back to our example with stochastic growth model.
- Recall: state variables are $s_t = [k_t, z_t]'$ and controls are $u_t = c_t$.
- Hence solution in state-space form is:

$$\begin{bmatrix} k_{t+1} \\ z_{t+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \pi_{kk} & \pi_{kz} \\ 0 & \rho_z \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k_t \\ z_t \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \varepsilon_{t+1}$$
$$c_t = \begin{bmatrix} u_{ck} & u_{cz} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k_t \\ z_t \end{bmatrix}$$

- In this example, there are two state variables and one control/forward-looking variable, i.e. $n_s = 2$, $n_c = 1$,
- Among the state variables, one is endogenous (capital) and the other one (technology) is exogenous, i.e. $n_{s1} = 1$, $n_{s2} = 1$.

Blanchard-Kahn: Matlab implementation

- All you have to do is writing the system of stochastic linear difference equations in the setup $A \cdot E_t x_{t+1} = B \cdot x_t$.
- Then call matlab function
`[outputs] = fun_blanchar_kahn1(inputs)`.
- This function takes as inputs the matrices A and B and returns the state-space matrices Π , U and W .
- Also returns an error flag, `err`. `err` is negative if Blanchard-Kahn condition for saddle-path stability is violated.

```
[ PI,U,W,err ] = fun_blanchar_kahn1(A,B);
```

Blanchard-Kahn: Results

Steady-state values for k, c and z :

2.2931

1.1077

1

Num. of stable eig: 2

Num. of unstable eig: 1

System is saddle-path stable

Blanchard-Kahn: Results, cont'd

Matrix Π is:

0.9061	0.2078
0	0.9500

Matrix W is:

0

1

Matrix U is:

0.3033	0.4726
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Simulation: Matlab implementation

- Produce simulated time series iterating on the **state-space form**.
- Pseudo-code to generate a simulated series of length T periods, given sequence of random shocks $\{\varepsilon_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$.

```
Define ns, ns_endo, ns_exo, nc, P, W, U
s0 = zeros(ns,1); %initial conditions states
epsi = sigmae*randn(ns_exo,T); %random numbers
s = zeros(ns,T); s(:,1) = s0;
u = zeros(nc,T);
for t=2:T % start for-loop
    s(:,t) = P*s(:,t-1) + W*epsi(t);
    u(:,t) = U*s(:,t);
end % close for-loop
```

Impulse Response Functions: Matlab implementation

- Produce impulse responses iterating on the **state-space form**.
- Pseudo-code to generate impulse responses, of length T periods, to a one stdev shock to TFP, i.e. $\varepsilon_1 = \sigma_e$ and $\varepsilon_t = 0, \forall t \geq 2$.

```
Define ns, ns_endo, ns_exo, nc, P, W, U
s0 = zeros(ns,1); % initial conditions states
epsi = zeros(ns_exo,T); epsi(1,2) = sigmae;
s = zeros(ns,T); s(:,1) = s0;
u = zeros(nc,T);
for t=2:T % start for-loop
s(:,t) = P*s(:,t-1) + W*epsi(t);
u(:,t) = U*s(:,t);
end % close for-loop
```


Results I

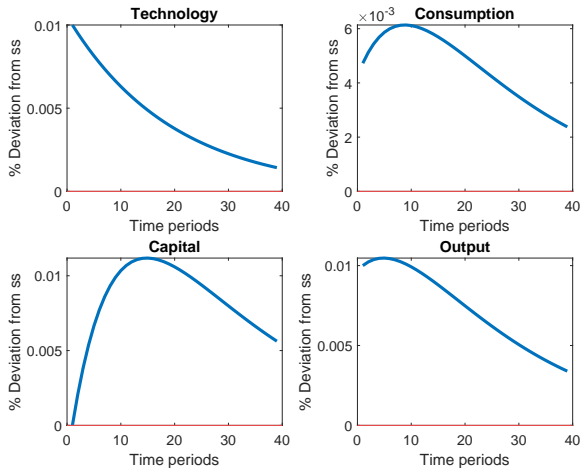


Figure: IRF of z , c , k , y to a one st. dev. positive shock to technology.

Results II

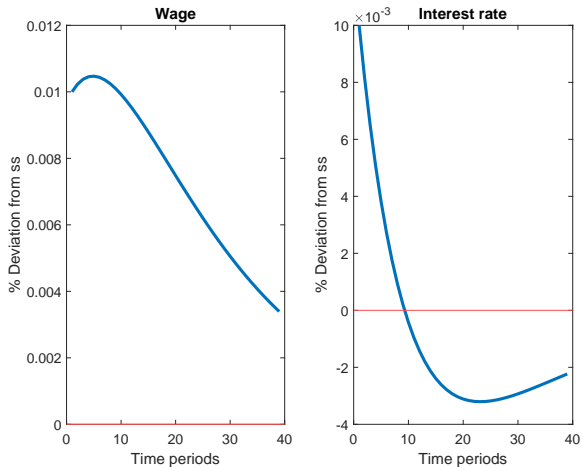


Figure: IRF of w, r to a one st. dev. positive shock to technology.

Results III

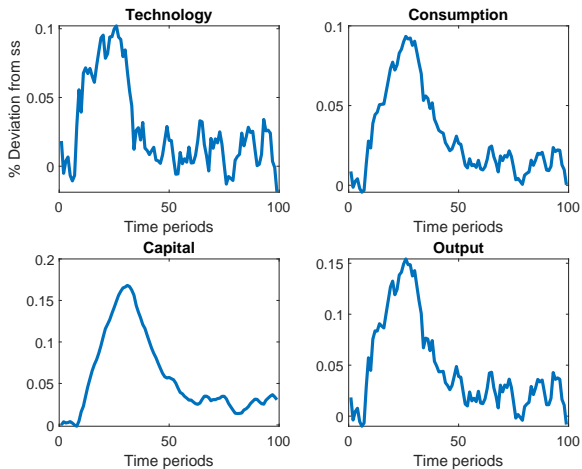


Figure: Simulated time series, given random sequence $\{\varepsilon_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$.

Final remarks

- Matlab codes to replicate material on these notes can be found in ILIAS:
 - main file: `main_stochastic_growth_model.m`;
 - auxiliary file: `fun_blanhard_kahn1.m`.

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 - main file: `main_stochastic_growth_model.m`;
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- We solved the model for $(\tilde{k}_t, \tilde{z}_t, \tilde{c}_t)_{t=0}^{\infty}$. What if we are interested in other variables such as output, wage rate, etc.?
 - Either add them in the system $A \cdot E_t x_{t+1} = B \cdot x_t$ or compute the simulated series $(\tilde{y}_t, \tilde{w}_t, \tilde{r}_t)_{t=0}^{\infty}$ *after* solving the system.

Final remarks

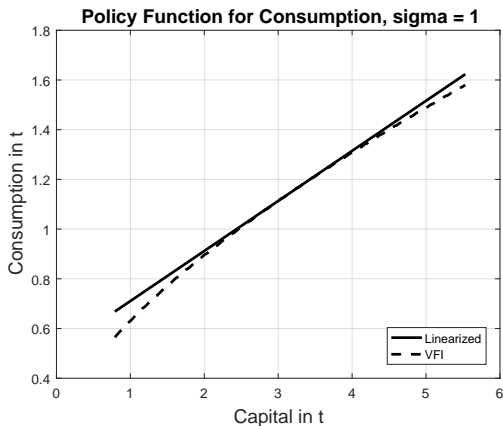
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 - Either add them in the system $A \cdot E_t x_{t+1} = B \cdot x_t$ or compute the simulated series $(\tilde{y}_t, \tilde{w}_t, \tilde{r}_t)_{t=0}^{\infty}$ *after* solving the system.
- Did we obtain the “true” solution?
 - We computed a local approximation around a particular point (i.e. deterministic steady state).
 - Whether such local approximation is accurate enough depends on the model and on the research question at hand.

Linearization vs VFI

- Compare linearized solution we have seen so far with a “global” solution method such as VFI.
- VFI delivers a global solution, i.e. a policy function for consumption and next-period capital *specified over the entire state space*.
- Linearization, instead, provides a solution that is accurate enough only in a (small) neighborhood around the approximation point.

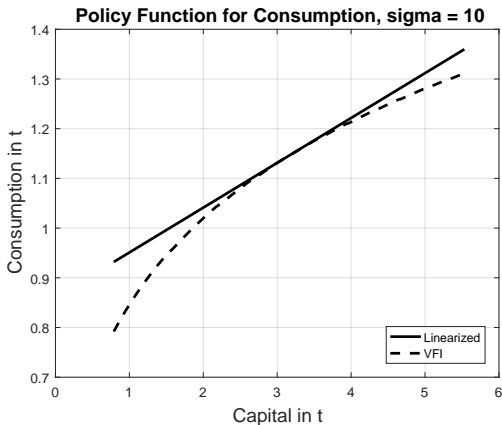
Accuracy I

- The fit is good, especially near the steady state.



Accuracy II

- The approximation gets worse as CRRA σ gets bigger (the policy function becomes more concave).



Appendix

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition

Let A be a square matrix and let λ be a scalar. If $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ for some nonzero vector \mathbf{v} , then we say that λ is an **eigenvalue** of A and \mathbf{v} is the corresponding **eigenvector**.

Intuition: In general $A\mathbf{v}$ is not proportional to \mathbf{v} . But if it is, then the proportionality factor, λ , is called eigenvalue and \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector of A corresponding to λ .

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors: Properties

Theorem

Let A be a square matrix and let λ be a scalar. The following statements are equivalent:

- (a) λ is an eigenvalue of A and \mathbf{v} is the corresponding eigenvector.
- (b) $A - \lambda I$ is a singular matrix.
- (c) $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

Remarks: (a) is the definition of eigenvalue. (c) implies that λ is an eigenvalue of A if it is a zero of the **characteristic polynomial** of A . **Eigenvectors are not unique:** if \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector, then also any multiple $\alpha\mathbf{v}$, with $\alpha \neq 0$, is an eigenvector. Most softwares standardize an eigenvector to have unit length, i.e. $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$.

Jordan decomposition

For simplicity, let's assume that the $n \times n$ matrix A has n distinct real eigenvalues. Then we can state the following theorem.

Theorem

Form the matrix D

$$D = [v_1 \ v_2 \ \dots \ v_n]$$

whose columns are the n eigenvectors corresponding to the n distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$. Then $D^{-1}AD = \Lambda$ where

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example

Let matrix A be

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^2 + \lambda - 6 = 0$ whose roots are $\lambda_1 = -3$ and $\lambda_2 = 2$. The eigenvector(s) for $\lambda_1 = -3$ solve $Av = -3v$ hence

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -2/3)^\top$$

for example is an eigenvector. The eigenvector(s) for $\lambda_2 = 2$ solve $Av = 2v$ hence

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 1)^\top$$

is an eigenvector. Ordering eigenvalues from smallest to largest (in absolute value) we get

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix}, D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -2/3 \end{bmatrix}, D^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2/5 & 3/5 \\ 3/5 & -3/5 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Verify that $D^{-1}AD = \Lambda$.