

# Approximating the Zero Lower Bound with a Hyperbola<sup>\*</sup>

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## Abstract

This paper illustrates the usefulness of the hyperbola in solving and simulating DSGE models with a zero lower bound. Rather than relying on an occasionally-binding constraint, a modeler can impose a hyperbola transformation on the interest rate target which guarantees it never drops below zero. The transition from a normal interest rate rule to a zero lower bound can be made as smooth as desired by altering a single parameter in the transformation.

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# 1 Introduction

Guerrieri and Iacoviello (2015) show how to impose occasionally-binding constraints using Dynare.

## 2 A Hyperbola Transformation

In this section we use the formula for a hyperbola to transform the interest rate target from a targeting rule ( $x$ ) into a truncated form that cannot be negative ( $y$ ).

A cutoff function would do this easily, but it is not differentiable at  $x = 0$  and this can lead to computational problems.

$$y = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise—} \end{cases}$$

A hyperbola transformation like that illustrated in Figure 1 would also ensure that  $y$  is never below zero, but does so with a smooth transition which make computation much more straightforward.

The formula for a hyperbola in conic form is given below.

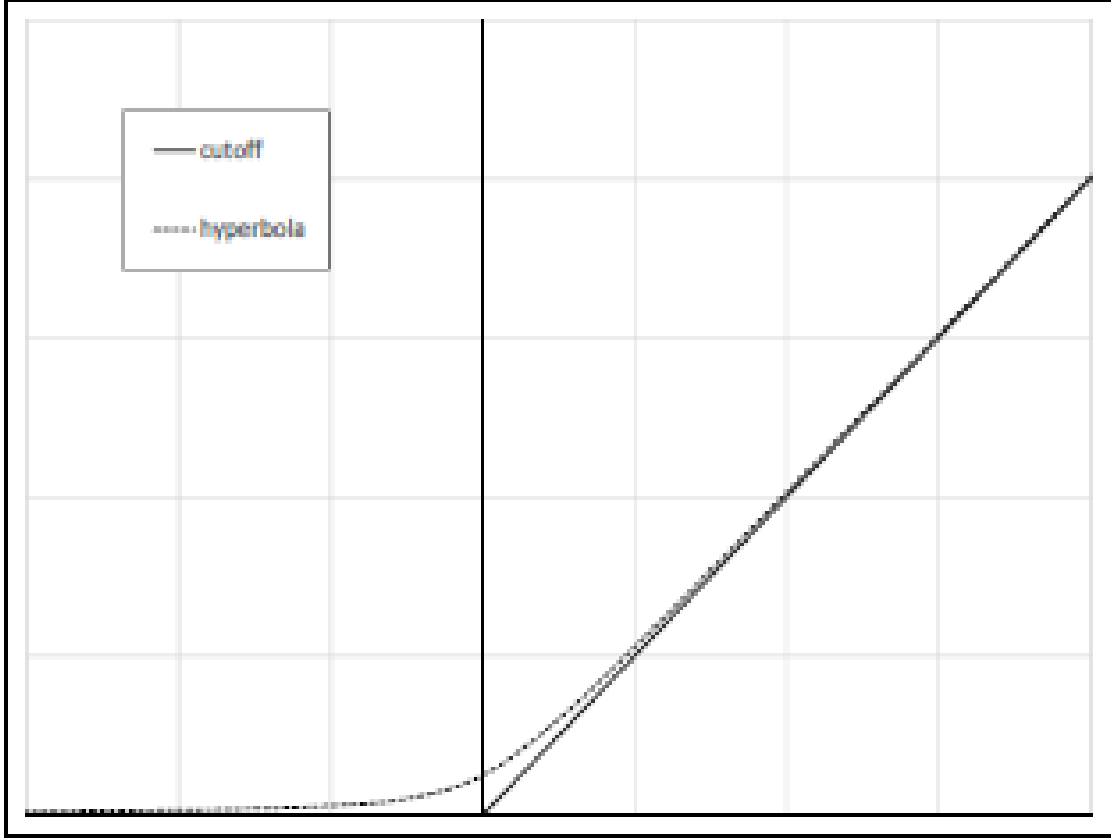
$$\left(\frac{y-k}{a}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{x-h}{b}\right)^2 = c^2$$

Since our cutoff occurs at the origin we set  $k = h = 0$  and solve for  $y$ .

$$y = \sqrt{\frac{a^2}{b^2}x^2 + a^2c^2}$$

We will need to rotate our hyperbola and want to have asymptotic slopes of zero and one. This means that the unrotated hyperbole will have slopes of  $\pm\frac{1}{2}$ , which implies that

Figure 1: Comparison of Cutoff with Hyperbola Transformation



$\frac{a}{b} = \pm \frac{1}{2}$ . By a normalization we set  $a = 1$  and choose the positive square root. This gives us the following.

$$y = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}x^2 + c^2}$$

To rotate the hyperbola we subtract the negative asymptote  $y = -\frac{1}{2}x$  to get our final hyperbola transform function.

$$y = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}x^2 + c^2} + \frac{1}{2}x$$

This transform has only one parameter,  $c$ , which determines how close the transform lies to the cutoff function. Lower values of  $c$  put it closer, with  $c = 0$  yielding the cutoff function itself.

### 3 A Simple DSGE Model

#### 3.1 The Model

Consider the following household problem.

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, m_t; \Omega_t) &= \max_{k_{t+1}, m_{t+1}} u(c_t, \frac{m_t}{P_t}) + \beta E\{V(k_{t+1}, m_{t+1}; \Omega_{t+1})\} \\ c_t &= w_t + (1 + r_t - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1} + \frac{m_t}{P_t} + \frac{\Delta M_t}{P_t} - \frac{m_{t+1}}{P_t} \\ u(c, \frac{m_t}{P_t}) &= \frac{c^{1-\gamma} - 1}{1-\gamma} + \chi \frac{(\frac{m_t}{P_t})^{1-\theta} - 1}{1-\theta} \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

The Euler equations from this problem are:

$$c_t^{-\gamma} = \beta E \{ c_{t+1}^{-\gamma} (1 + r_{t+1} - \delta) \} \tag{3.2}$$

$$c_t^{-\gamma} = \beta E \left\{ \left[ c_{t+1}^{-\gamma} + \chi \left( \frac{m_{t+1}}{P_{t+1}} \right)^{-\theta} \right] \frac{P_t}{P_{t+1}} \right\} \tag{3.3}$$

Solving the firms problem with a Cobb-Douglas production function gives:

$$Y_t = k_t^\alpha \exp z_t^{1-\alpha} \tag{3.4}$$

$$r_t = \alpha \frac{Y_t}{k_t} \tag{3.5}$$

$$w_t = (1 - \alpha)Y_t \tag{3.6}$$

The central bank chooses an interest rate according to a Taylor rule.

$$i_{t+1}^* = (1 + \bar{i}) \left( \frac{Y_t}{\bar{Y}} \right)^{\phi_y} \left( \frac{1 + \pi_t}{1 + \bar{\pi}} \right)^{\phi_\pi} e^{x_t} - 1 \quad (3.7)$$

$$i_t = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}(i_t^*)^2 + \xi^2} + \frac{1}{2}i_t^* \quad (3.8)$$

The Fisher equation gives:

$$\pi_t = \frac{1 + i_t}{1 + r_t} - 1 \quad (3.9)$$

The labor and capital markets clear by choice of notation. Money market clearing gives the following:

$$\Delta M_t = m_{t+1} - m_t \quad (3.10)$$

The inflation rate is defined by:

$$\pi_{t+1} = \frac{P_{t+1}}{P_t} - 1 \quad (3.11)$$

The exogenous laws of motion are:

$$z_{t+1} = \rho z_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}; \quad \varepsilon_{t+1} \sim iid(0, \sigma^2) \quad (3.12)$$

$$x_{t+1} = \psi x_t + \nu_{t+1}; \quad \nu_{t+1} \sim iid(0, \omega^2) \quad (3.13)$$

Equations (3.1) - (3.13) are a system of 13 equations and 13 unknowns:

$c, k, m, Y, r, w, i^*, i, \pi, \Delta M, P, z, x$ .

We can simplify this system by substituting (3.10) into (3.1) to eliminate  $\Delta M$  from the system. We can also rewrite (3.9) and (3.11) in more convenient forms and combine (3.7) and (3.8) into a single equation. To ensure stationarity we define the following:  $\hat{m}_t \equiv m_t(1 + \bar{\pi})^{-t}$  and  $\hat{P}_t \equiv P_t(1 + \bar{\pi})^{-t}$

$$c_t = w_t + (1 + r_t - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1} \quad (3.14)$$

$$c_t^{-\gamma} = \beta E \{ c_{t+1}^{-\gamma} (1 + r_{t+1} - \delta) \} \quad (3.15)$$

$$c_t^{-\gamma} = \beta E \left\{ \left[ c_{t+1}^{-\gamma} + \chi \left( \frac{m_{t+1}}{P_{t+1}} \right)^{-\gamma} \right] \frac{1 + r_t}{1 + i_t} \right\} \quad (3.16)$$

$$Y_t = k_t^\alpha \exp z_t^{1-\alpha} \quad (3.17)$$

$$r_t = \alpha \frac{Y_t}{k_t} \quad (3.18)$$

$$w_t = (1 - \alpha)Y_t \quad (3.19)$$

$$i_{t+1} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4}\Gamma^2 + \xi^2} + \frac{1}{2}\Gamma \quad (3.20)$$

$$\Gamma \equiv (\bar{r} + \bar{\pi}) + \phi_y \ln \left( \frac{Y_t}{\bar{Y}} \right) + \phi_\pi (\pi_t - \bar{\pi}) + x_t$$

$$\pi_t = \frac{1 + i_t}{1 + r_t - \delta} \quad (3.21)$$

$$\hat{P}_t = \hat{P}_{t-1} \frac{1 + \pi_t}{1 + \bar{\pi}} \quad (3.22)$$

$$z_{t+1} = \rho z_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}; \quad \varepsilon_{t+1} \sim iid(0, \sigma^2) \quad (3.23)$$

$$x_{t+1} = \psi x_t + \nu_{t+1}; \quad \nu_{t+1} \sim iid(0, \omega^2) \quad (3.24)$$

In the 11 equation system above the endogenous state variables are  $\{k_t, m_t, i_t, P_t\}$ , the exogenous state variables are  $\{z_t, x_t\}$ , and  $\{Y_t, r_t, w_t, c_t, \pi_t\}$  are given as definitions. The parameters are  $\{\delta, \beta, \gamma, \chi, \theta, \alpha, \xi, \phi_y, \phi_\pi, \bar{\pi}, \rho, \psi, \sigma, \omega\}$ .

Recognizing that  $\bar{z}$  and  $\bar{x}$  are zero and normalizing  $\bar{P}$  to one we can solve for the steady state of this system.

The steady state value for  $\bar{r}$  comes from equation (3.15).

$$\bar{r} = \beta^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} + \delta - 1 \quad (3.25)$$

Equations (3.17), (3.18), (3.19), and (3.14) then give  $\bar{Y}, \bar{k}, \bar{w}, and \bar{c}$ .

$$\bar{k} = \frac{\alpha^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}}{\bar{r}} \quad (3.26)$$

$$\bar{Y} = \bar{k}^\alpha \quad (3.27)$$

$$\bar{w} = (1 - \alpha)\bar{Y} \quad (3.28)$$

$$\bar{c} = \bar{w} + (\bar{r} - \delta)\bar{k} \quad (3.29)$$

Equation (3.21) gives  $\bar{i}$ .

$$\bar{i} = (1 + \bar{r})(1 + \bar{\pi}) - 1 \quad (3.30)$$

And finally, (3.16) can be solved for  $\bar{m}$ .

$$\bar{m} = \left[ \frac{\bar{c}^{-\gamma}}{\chi} \left( \frac{1 + \bar{\pi}}{\beta} - 1 \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{\theta}} \quad (3.31)$$

## 3.2 Simulation Results

Cannot rely on Dynare, since even 3rd-order approximations don't match the cutoff very well. Instead, we use the method from Judd et al. (2011)

## 4 Results

## 5 Discussions

## 6 Conclusion

## References

- Guerrieri, Luca and Matteo Iacoviello (2015) “OccBin: A toolkit for solving dynamic models with occasionally binding constraints easily,” *Journal of Monetary Economics*, Vol. 70, pp. 22–38.
- Judd, Kenneth L, Lilia Maliar, and Serguei Maliar (2011) “Numerically stable and accurate stochastic simulation approaches for solving dynamic economic models,” *Quantitative Economics*, Vol. 2, No. 2, pp. 173–210.



# Tables

# Figures

## Appendix A. Placeholder