

Macroeconomics II

Stochastic Recursive Models

Prof. McCandless

June 21, 2022

- A probability space is a triplet:

$$(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$$

- Where

- Ω is a set of all states of nature that can occur
 - \mathcal{F} is a collection of subsets of Ω , each subset is called an "event"
 - P is a probability measure over events, i.e. \mathcal{F}
- Note that I said a probability **measure**. Measures tell you how big or far apart (in some mathematical sense) points or sets are.
 - These can be used in integration, for example, let $p(x)$ be the probability of event x , in this case with elements of x taken from a line between 0 and 10, then

$$\int_0^{10} p(x) dx = 1$$

Probability for finite states of nature

- Suppose that Ω is a finite set
- We can sometimes impose the probability measure directly on elements of Ω
 - if each state of nature can be considered an event
- Define p_i = probability that event A_i will occur
- If the probabilities are independent (A_i and A_j do not intersect, have no states in common)
 - $p(A_i, A_j) = p_i + p_j$
- We can have non-independent events (where events share possible states)
 - $E_1 = (A_1, A_2)$
 - $E_2 = (A_2, A_3)$
 - Then $p(E_1 \cup E_2) = p_1 + p_2 + p_3 < p(E_1) + p(E_2)$

Probability for finite states of nature

- Let $\Omega = \{A_1, A_2\}$
- Then the largest possible \mathcal{F} is
 - $\{\emptyset, [A_1], [A_2], [A_1, A_2]\}$
- A possible probability measure is
 - $p(\emptyset) = 0$, $p([A_1]) = \bar{p}$, $p([A_2]) = 1 - \bar{p}$, and $p([A_1, A_2]) = 1$
- Another possible is
 - $p(\emptyset) = \hat{p}_1$, $p([A_1]) = \bar{p}$, $p([A_2]) = 1 - \hat{p}_1 - \bar{p}$, and $p([A_1, A_2]) = 1 - \hat{p}_1$

Probability for continuous states of nature

- Let $\Omega = [0, 300]$, all the points on the line from 0 to 300 (inclusive)
- Let \mathcal{F} be all measurable sets of Ω
- P assigns probabilities to these measurable sets
- $p([45, 46.1])$ is the probability of the value falling between 45 and 46.1
- $p(\pi, 4)$ is the probability of the value falling between π and 4
- In general, $p(x) = 0$, where x is a specific number
 - Not always the case
 - $p(x)$, where x is the daily rainfall in Buenos Aires
 - $p(0)$ is the probability it won't rain
 - $p(0) > 0$

A simple stochastic model

- Robinson Crusoe model with stochastic technology
- Production function

$$y_t = A^t f(k_t),$$

with the technology A^t determined by

$$A^t = \begin{cases} A_1 & \text{with probability } p_1 \\ A_2 & \text{with probability } p_2 \end{cases}$$

and we assume that $A_1 > A_2$ and that $p_2 = 1 - p_1$

- RC's utility function is

$$E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t)$$

subject to the budget constraint

$$k_{t+1} = A^t f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - c_t.$$

- This is an **expected** utility function: that is what E_0 means

Stochastic Value function

- The value of discounted expected utility at time 0 when the realized technology shock is A_1 is

$$V(k_0, A_1) = \max_{\{c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t),$$

subject to the budget constraint for $t = 0$,

$$k_1 = A_1 f(k_0) + (1 - \delta)k_0 - c_0,$$

and those for $t \geq 1$,

$$k_{t+1} = A^t f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - c_t,$$

and the independent realizations of $A^t = [A_1, A_2]$ with probabilities $[p_1, p_2]$

- There is a similar expression for $V(k_0, A_2)$

Stochastic Value function: recursive format

- The value function is

$$V(k_0, A^0) = \max_{c_0} u(c_0) + \beta E_0 V(k_1, A^1)$$

subject to the budget constraint

$$k_1 = A^0 f(k_0) + (1 - \delta)k_0 - c_0.$$

- Here we are taking c_0 as the control
- The states are k_0 and A^0
- Notice the expectations operator
 - In the second part of the value function
 - E_0 operator says we don't know the value of time 1 variables, but we know their probabilities
 - we do not know the realization of A^1 but we know their possible values

Stochastic Value function: with $k(t+1)$ as control

- The value function is

$$V(k_t, A^t) = \max_{k_{t+1}} u(A^t f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) + \beta E_t V(k_{t+1}, A^{t+1})$$

and the budget constraint is

$$k_{t+1} = G(x_t, y_t) = k_{t+1}$$

- The control at time t is the state at time $t + 1$
- We solve for a **plan**, a function such that

$$k_{t+1} = H(k_t, A^t)$$

- A plan solves (without maximization)

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, A^t) &= u(A^t f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - H(k_t, A^t)) \\ &\quad + \beta E_t V(H(k_t, A^t), A^{t+1}) \end{aligned}$$

General version of the problem

- Write the value function as

$$V(x_t, z_t) = \max_{\{y_s\}_{s=t}^{\infty}} E_t \sum_{s=t}^{\infty} \beta^{s-t} F(x_s, y_s, z_s),$$

subject to

$$x_{s+1} = G(x_s, y_s, z_s) \text{ for } s \geq t$$

- x_t is the set of "regular", predetermined, state variables
- z_t is the set of state variables determined by nature
 - these are the stochastic state variables.
- y_t are the control variables
- Both $F(x_s, y_s, z_s)$ and $G(x_s, y_s, z_s)$ can contain the stochastic state variables.

General version of the problem

- The recursive version of this problem is

$$V(x_t, z_t) = \max_{y_t} [F(x_t, y_t, z_t) + \beta E_t V(x_{t+1}, z_{t+1})]$$

subject to

$$x_{t+1} = G(x_t, y_t, z_t)$$

- A solution is a plan,

$$y_t = H(x_t, z_t)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} V(x_t, z_t) &= F(x_t, H(x_t, z_t), z_t) \\ &\quad + \beta E_t V(G(x_t, H(x_t, z_t), z_t), z_{t+1}) \end{aligned}$$

General version of the problem: first order conditions

- The first order conditions are

$$0 = F_y(x_t, y_t, z_t) + \beta E_t [V_x(G(x_t, y_t, z_t), z_{t+1}) G_y(x_t, y_t, z_t)]$$

- The Benveniste-Scheinkman condition is

$$V_x(x_t, z_t) = F_x(x_t, y_t, z_t) + \beta E_t [V_x(G(x_t, y_t, z_t), z_{t+1}) G_x(x_t, y_t, z_t)]$$

- If we can choose the controls so that $G_x(x_t, y_t, z_t) = 0$, this becomes

$$V_x(x_t, z_t) = F_x(x_t, y_t, z_t)$$

- One can write the **stochastic Euler equation** as

$$0 = F_y(x_t, y_t, z_t) + \beta E_t [F_x(G(x_t, y_t, z_t), y_{t+1}, z_{t+1}) G_y(x_t, y_t, z_t)]$$

Solving for the value function

- One can find an approximation of the value function from

$$V_{j+1}(x_t, z_t) = \max_{y_t} [F(x_t, y_t, z_t) + \beta E_t V_j(G(x_t, y_t, z_t), z_{t+1})]$$

- Beginning with some function $V_0(\cdot)$ (frequently a constant)
- Need to solve over sufficiently dense set of $X \times Z$
 - where X is the domain of the state variables, x_t
 - Z is the domain of the states of nature, z_t
 - sufficient depends on the level of precision we need

Problem of dimensionality

- Problem of dimensionality is worse than in the deterministic case
- In the deterministic case is based on
 - the number of predetermined state variables
 - the size of the sufficiently dense subset of each state variable we use
- In the stochastic state
 - these two problems continue
 - add
 - the dimension of the shocks (if finite)
 - the sufficiently dense subset of the shocks (if continuous)

Finding the value function for our simple economy

- In the growth economy, the technology level can be $[A_1, A_2]$
- This gives two value functions of the form

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, A_1) = & \max_{k_{t+1}} u(A_1 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ & + \beta [p_1 V(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_2 V(k_{t+1}, A_2)] \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, A_2) = & \max_{k_{t+1}} u(A_2 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ & + \beta [p_1 V(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_2 V(k_{t+1}, A_2)] \end{aligned}$$

- Notice how the probabilities enter
- because the shocks have one of two values, we need to find two functions, $V(\cdot, A_1)$ and $V(\cdot, A_2)$

The recursive approximation

- Same recursive approximation as before (as in the deterministic version)
- Difference is that we need to find two equations at each iteration
- Given $V_0(\cdot, A_1)$ and $V_0(\cdot, A_2)$, we find

$$V_1(k_t, A_1) = \max_{k_{t+1}} u(A_1 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ + \beta [p_1 V_0(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_2 V_0(k_{t+1}, A_2)],$$

and

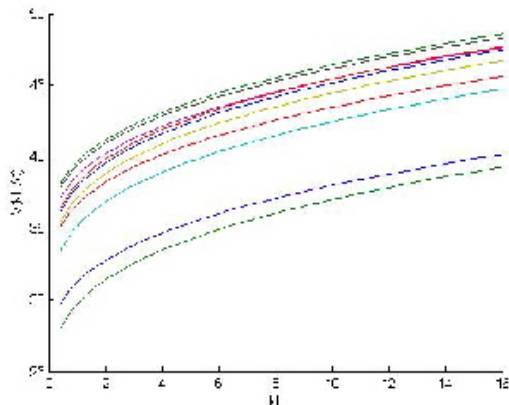
$$V_1(k_t, A_2) = \max_{k_{t+1}} u(A_2 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ + \beta [p_1 V_0(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_2 V_0(k_{t+1}, A_2)],$$

- Repeat, finding $V_N(\cdot, A_1)$ and $V_N(\cdot, A_2)$ until sufficiently close

Example

- Used $\delta = .1$, $\beta = .98$, $A_1 = 1.75$, $p_1 = .8$, $A_2 = .75$,
- and $p_2 = .2$, $V_0(\cdot, A_1) = 20$ and $V_0(\cdot, A_2) = 20$
- Graph of iterations

fun sto

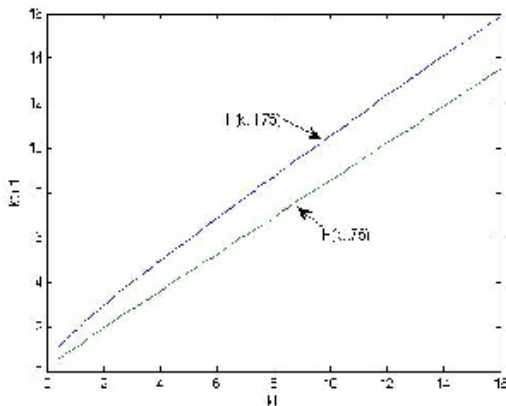


1.jpg

Figure: Iterations on the value function

The two policy functions (the plans)

function sto

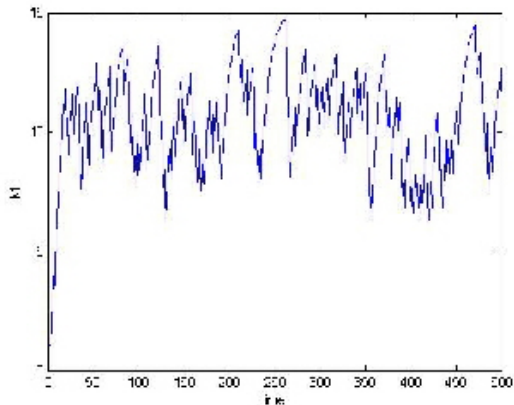


2.jpg

Figure: The plans

A simulation of the economy

exp



3.jpg

Figure: A simulated time path

Markov chains

- The above simulation shows relatively little persistence
- Markov chains are a way of adding persistence to the shocks
 - Note that the persistence is in the stochastic variable
 - The **economic** model is not generating this persistence
- Structure of a Markov chain: conditional probabilities
 - The probabilities at time t of the time $t + 1$ states of nature
 - depend on the state of nature at time t
- Consider our example with two states of nature $[A_1, A_2]$
- Let the probabilities be

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

where p_{ij} is the probability of going to state j given you are in state i

Probabilities in Markov chains

- These are **conditional probabilities**
- If one is in state of nature 1 at time t
 - The probabilities for time $t + 1$ are

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \end{bmatrix}$$

- If one is in state of nature 2 at time t
 - The probabilities for time $t + 1$ are

$$\begin{bmatrix} p_{21} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Example with a lot of persistence

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} .97 & .03 \\ .1 & .9 \end{bmatrix}$$

Unconditional probabilities

- What is the probability that one will be in state of nature j at some far distant date
- Does this depend on the current state of nature
- Given the state at time 0, the distribution for period 1 is
$$p_0 = \begin{bmatrix} p_{01} & p_{02} \end{bmatrix}$$
- Then the distribution for period 2 is

$$p_0 P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{01} & p_{02} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The distribution for period 3 is

$$p_0 P P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{01} & p_{02} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- The distribution for period N is

$$p_0 P^{N-1}$$

Converge to an unconditional probability

- What happens as N gets large
- Use our example probability matrix (leave p_0 out for the moment)
- Start with

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} .97 & .03 \\ .1 & .9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- $PP = P^2$ is

-

$$P^2 = \begin{bmatrix} .97 & .03 \\ .1 & .9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} .97 & .03 \\ .1 & .9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9439 & 0.0561 \\ 0.1870 & 0.8130 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using a doubling algorithm (which saves time)

$$P^4 = P^2 P^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.944 & 0.056 \\ 0.187 & 0.813 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.944 & 0.056 \\ 0.187 & 0.813 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.901 & 0.099 \\ 0.328 & 0.672 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^8 = P^4 P^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8450 & 0.1550 \\ 0.5168 & 0.4832 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{16} = P^8 P^8 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7941 & 0.2059 \\ 0.6864 & 0.3136 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{32} = P^{16} P^{16} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7719 & 0.2281 \\ 0.7603 & 0.2397 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{64} = P^{32} P^{32} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7693 & 0.2307 \\ 0.7691 & 0.2309 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{128} = P^{64} P^{64} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7692 & 0.2308 \\ 0.7692 & 0.2308 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why the initial distribution does not matter

- Notice the rows of P^{128} ,

$$P^{128} = P^{64} P^{64} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.7692 & 0.2308 \\ 0.7692 & 0.2308 \end{bmatrix}$$

- They are identical
- Let $p_0 = \begin{bmatrix} p_{01} & p_{02} \end{bmatrix}$
- Then, since $p_{01} + p_{02} = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} p_0 P^{128} &= \begin{bmatrix} p_{01} & p_{02} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0.7692 & 0.2308 \\ 0.7692 & 0.2308 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.7692 & 0.2308 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

- Initial distribution does not matter in the long run
 - for the unconditional distribution

Value functions with markov chains

- The value functions for our economy can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, A_1) = & \max_{k_{t+1}} [u(A_1 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ & + \beta [p_{11} V(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_{12} V(k_{t+1}, A_2)]] , \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} V(k_t, A_2) = & \max_{k_{t+1}} [u(A_2 f(k_t) + (1 - \delta)k_t - k_{t+1}) \\ & + \beta [p_{21} V(k_{t+1}, A_1) + p_{22} V(k_{t+1}, A_2)]] , \end{aligned}$$

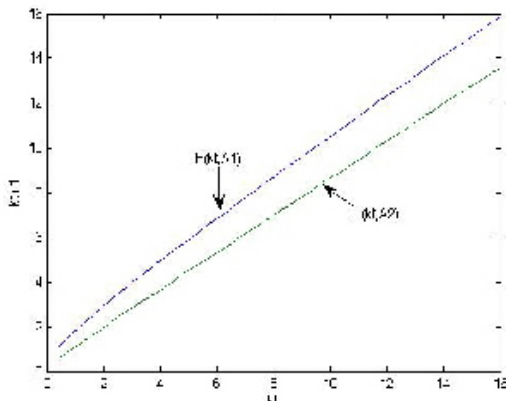
- Note the probabilities in each equation
- These can be solved recursively
 - beginning with some $V_0(\cdot, A_1)$ and $V_0(\cdot, A_2)$
 - just need to keep track of which probabilities to use

Example economy

- We use a markov chain of

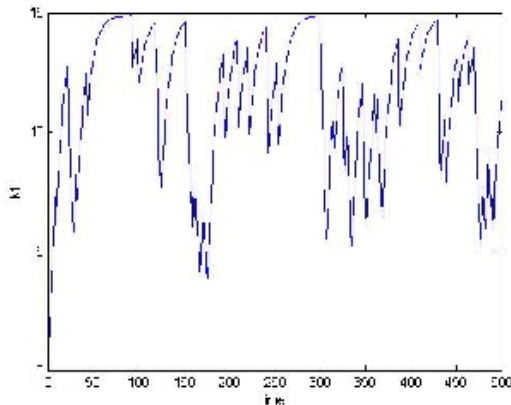
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} .9 & .1 \\ .4 & .6 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Get the plans of (similar but not identical to the last problem)
function sto2



Simulated economy with markov chain (same shocks as in other)

exp



5.jpg

Figure: A simulation with Markov chains

Computer program for Markov chains

```
global vlast1 vlast2 beta delta theta k0 kt At p1 p2
hold off
hold all
vlast1=20*ones(1,40);
vlast2=vlast1;
k0=0.4:0.4:16;
kt11=k0;
kt12=k0;
beta=.98;
delta=.1;
theta=.36;
A1=1.75;
p11=.9;
p12=1-p11;
p21=.4;
p22=1-p21;
A2=.75;
```

```
numits=250;
for k=1:numits
    for j=1:40
        kt=k0(j);
        At=A1;
        p1=p11;
        p2=p12;
        z=fminbnd(@valfunsto,.41,15.99);
        v1(j)=-valfunsto(z);
        kt11(j)=z;
        At=A2;
        p1=p21;
        p2=p22;
        z=fminbnd(@valfunsto,.41,15.99);
        v2(j)=-valfunsto(z);
        kt12(j)=z;
    end
end
```

```
if k/50==round(k/50)
    plot(k0,v1,k0,v2)
    drawnow
end
vlast1=v1;
vlast2=v2;
end
hold off
%plot(k0,kt11,k0,kt12)
```

Subroutine valfunsto

Note that interpolation of the previous value function is linear.

```
function val=valfunsto2(x)
global vlast1 vlast2 beta delta theta k0 kt At p1 p2
k=x;
g1=interp1(k0,vlast1,k,'linear');
g2=interp1(k0,vlast2,k,'linear');
kk=At*kt^theta-k+(1-delta)*kt;
val=log(kk)+beta*(p1*g1+p2*g2);
val=-val;
```