Macroeconomics II

Lesson 01 — Preliminaries. Stylized Facts and Measurement of Business Cycles

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Preliminaries

The Course

- Macroeconomics II
- Check the syllabus
- Instructors: Alessandro Di Nola and Rafa Serrano-Quintero.

Me

- o rafael.serrano@ub.edu
- o Office hours: Send me an email and we can arrange a meeting.

Syllabus Highlights

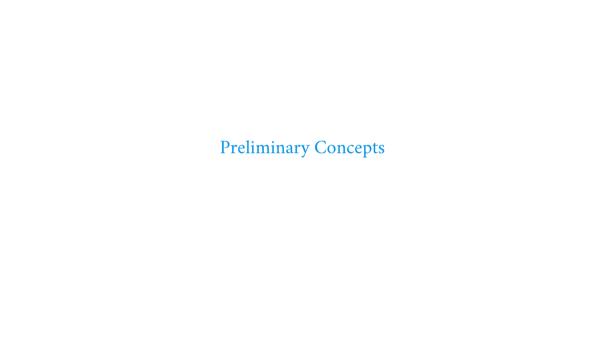
What you have to do

- 1. Three problem sets
- 2. Midterm exam. 50% of the grade of the final exam. Other 50% will be Alessandro's part.

Materials

- o In class notes and slides. Most of the work will be in the blackboard.
- Useful references:
 - o Cooley (1995)
 - •
 - o Judd (1998)

- King and Rebelo (1999)
- Ljungqvist and Sargent (2004)



Preliminary Concepts

Modern macroeconomics is

- o dynamic: things change and are related over time.
- **stochastic:** there are random events. Expectations matter.
- We denote X_t the realization of variable X at time t.
- Models are stochastic and people try to guess what will happen in the future. We call that expectations.

Notation and Expectations

- If we do not know anything about the current state of the system, we call it **unconditional expectation** and express it as $\mathbb{E}(X_{t+1})$.
- If we condition on what we know at time t, we call the **conditional expectation** and we express it as $\mathbb{E}(X_{t+1}|\Omega_t)$ where Ω_t is what we know at time t. Usually, we shorten it by writing $\mathbb{E}_t(X_{t+1})$.
- Note that $\mathbb{E}_t(X_t) = X_t$ and $\mathbb{E}_t(X_{t-k}) = X_{t-k}$ for all k > 0.

Theorem 1 (Law of Iterated Expectations)

Let Y and Z be two arbitrary random variables, then

$$\mathbb{E}(Y) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(Y|Z))$$

i.e. the expected value of the conditional expected value of Y given Z is the same as the expected value of Y.

Notation and Expectations

• The LIE (Theorem 1) has the following implication

$$\mathbb{E}_t(\mathbb{E}_{t+1}(X_{t+2})) = \mathbb{E}_t(X_{t+2})$$

- Rational expectations (Muth, 1961) is a stronger than simple expectations. Two
 conditions on expectations of future realizations of variables
 - 1. Correct on average.
 - 2. Unpredictable forecasting errors given current info.
- This implies the agents "know the model and use it to act."
- Does this imply agents do not make mistakes? No!!

Stochastic Processes

Definition 1 (Markov Property)

A stochastic process has the Markov property if

$$\Pr[X_t = x | X_0, \dots, X_{t-1}] \equiv \Pr[X_t = x | X_{t-1}]$$

i.e. that the conditional probability of future states depends upon the present state only. If you know X_{t-1} knowing X_0, \ldots, X_{t-2} does not give you extra information.

Definition 2 (ARMA(p, q) Process)

An ARMA(p, q) process can be expressed as

$$X_t = c + \sum_{i=1}^p \rho_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^q \theta_i \varepsilon_{t-i}$$

where c is a constant, ρ_i are the autorregressive parameters, and θ_i are the moving average parameters.

Stochastic Processes

- ARMA processes can sometimes be approximated with sufficiently long AR processes.
- An AR(p) process does not strictly have the Markov property. However

$$\begin{pmatrix} s_t \\ s_{t-1} \\ \vdots \\ s_{t-p+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \rho_1 & \rho_2 & \cdots & \rho_p \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} s_{t-1} \\ s_{t-2} \\ \vdots \\ s_{t-p} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_t \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

which reduces to

$$\mathbf{s}_t = \Lambda \mathbf{s}_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

Impulse Response Functions

If we give a shock to some exogenous variable. How do the endogenous variables react?

$$IRF(h) = \mathbb{E}_t(X_{t+h}|\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon) - \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(X_{t+h})$$

Example 1

Take the AR(1) process

$$X_t = \rho X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$$

suppose $\varepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ and suppose at time t there is a shock of $\varepsilon_t = 1$. Compute the IRF after h periods.

Impulse Response Functions

Take a multivariate process and assume **X** is a 2×1 vector

$$\mathbf{X}_t = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{X}_{t-1} + \mathbf{B}\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_t$$

Assume also that off-diagonals elements of **A** and **B** are not zero. The IRF is now a vector

$$IRF_1(h) = \mathbf{A}^{h-1}\mathbf{B}_1$$
$$IRF_2(h) = \mathbf{A}^{h-1}\mathbf{B}_2$$



5 Ingredients of a Dynamic Model

- 1. **State variables:** what summarizes the information from the past.
- 2. Control variables: what the agent chooses.
- 3. **Return function:** what evaluates the sequence of choices.
- 4. **Transition function:** how the state variables change from one period to the next. (Also called law of motion)
- 5. Planning/time horizon: how long the agent needs to make decisions.

State and Control Variables

State variables:

- The agents take the information from the states as given.
- We can distinguish between **endogenous** and **exogenous** state variables.
 - 1. **Endogenous** if they are determined by the decision of the agent in previous period(s).
 - 2. Exogenous if they are determined by the conditions of the problem but **not** by the decisions of the agent.

Control variables:

- These are the variables the agent actually chooses.
- Their choice will determine the future state of the endogenous state variables.

Example

Consumption-Savings Problem

$$\max_{\substack{\{c_t, a_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty} \\ \text{subject to}}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t)$$

$$a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t$$

$$a_{t+1} \ge 0$$
(1)
(2)

Example

Consumption-Savings Problem

$$\max_{\{c_t, a_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t) \tag{1}$$

subject to
$$a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t$$
 (2)

$$a_{t+1} \ge 0 \tag{3}$$

• State variable(s): $\{a_t\}$.

Example

Consumption-Savings Problem

$$\max_{\{c_t, a_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t)$$
 (1)

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$$a_{t+1} \ge 0 \tag{3}$$

 \circ Control variable(s): $\{c_t, a_{t+1}\}.$

Example

Consumption-Savings Problem

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subject to
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$$a_{t+1} \ge 0 \tag{3}$$

• Transition equation: equation (2).

Example

Consumption-Savings Problem

$$\max_{\{c_t, a_{t+1}\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t u(c_t)$$
 (1)

subject to
$$a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t$$
 (2)

$$a_{t+1} \ge 0 \tag{3}$$

• Return function: $u(c_t)$.

Solution through the Lagrangian

- A solution consists of a sequence $\{a_t, c_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$ that yields the maximum lifetime utility.
- We write the (current value) Lagrangian as

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^{t} \left\{ u(c_{t}) - \lambda_{t} \left[c_{t} + a_{t+1} - (1+r)a_{t} \right] - \mu_{t} a_{t+1} \right\}$$
 (3)

- What are μ_t and λ_t ? They are sometimes called co-state variables or Lagrange multipliers
- The budget constraint must be satisfied at all periods so, in fact, we have a problem with infinitely many constraints (one for each t) and infinitely many Lagrange multipliers or co-state variables $\{\lambda_t, \mu_t\}_{t=0}^{\infty}$.

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions

• At each $t \ge 0$ it must be satisfied:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial c_t} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_t = u'(c_t) \tag{4}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a_{t+1}} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_t + \mu_t = (1+r)\beta \lambda_{t+1}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda_t} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t$$
(5)

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda_t} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t \tag{6}$$

$$\mu_t a_{t+1} = 0 \tag{7}$$

Equation (4) is the first-order condition with respect to our control variable c_t .

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions

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$$\frac{\partial a_{t+1}}{\partial \lambda_t} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t \tag{6}$$

$$\mu_t a_{t+1} = 0 \tag{7}$$

• Equation (5) is the first-order condition with respect to our second control a_{t+1} because our choice of c_t affects a_{t+1} which becomes next period's state.

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions

• At each $t \ge 0$ it must be satisfied:

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$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda_t} = 0 \Rightarrow a_{t+1} + c_t = (1+r)a_t \tag{6}$$

$$\mu_t a_{t+1} = 0 \tag{7}$$

Equation (6) determines the feasibility of the choices.

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Conditions

• At each $t \ge 0$ it must be satisfied:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial c_t} = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_t = u'(c_t) \tag{4}$$

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$$\mu_t a_{t+1} = 0 \tag{7}$$

Equation (7) is the complementary slackness condition.

Remarks

- Note that $c_t \ge 0$ implies that assets will never go to 0. Suppose that at some $t = \tau$ it happens that $a_\tau = 0$, this implies that $c_t = 0 \ \forall t \ge \tau$.
- Why is this not optimal? We have not said this, but typically, utility functions will satisfy

$$\lim_{c\to 0} u'(c) = +\infty$$

This implies that you will consume at least some part of your wealth.

Remarks

- By previous point, for all $t \ge 0$, we know that $a_{t+1} > 0$, but this implies from equation (7) that $\mu_t = 0$ for all $t \ge 0$.
- Therefore, it must be that

$$\lambda_t = \beta(1+r)\lambda_{t+1}$$

and using (4) we have

$$u'(c_t) = \beta(1+r)u'(c_{t+1})$$
(8)

which is the **Euler equation**. This condition characterizes the optimal consumption path.

Is that all?

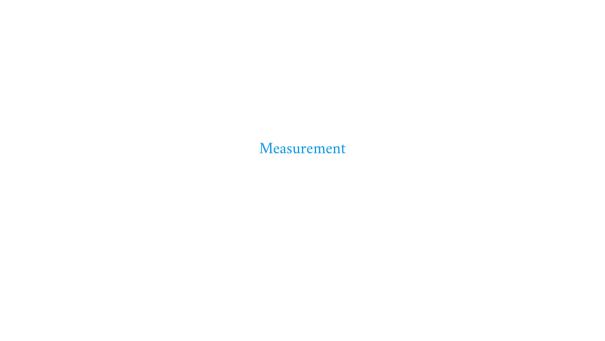
Remarks

- We are missing one last necessary condition for optimality! The **transversality** condition.
- o Intuitively, we do not want to leave wealth unused for a period that will never arrive.

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \beta^T \lambda_{T+1} a_{T+1} = 0 \tag{9}$$

- If time was finite (suppose T is the final period) it makes no sense to leave $a_{T+1} > 0$ since I could consume it and achieve higher utility at time T 1.
- The dynamic problem of the household is fully characterized by three conditions. The Euler equation (8), the budget constraint (2) that determines the law of motion for a_t , and the transversality condition (9).





Trend and Cycle

- o In Macro I you have studied the macroeconomics of the long-run. Why countries grow.
- Now we will focus on booms and busts or expansions and recessions.
- We first need to separate trend and cycle. Then, identify what are expansion and recession periods and define them formally.

Trend and Cycle

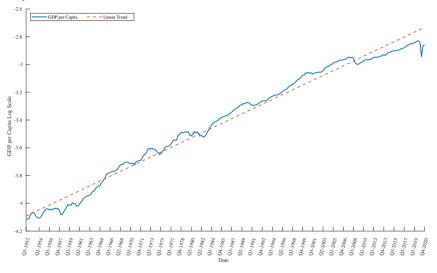


Figure 1: U.S. GDP per capita in Log Scale

Trend and Cycle

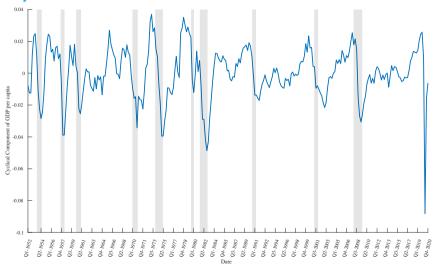


Figure 2: Cycles of U.S. GDP per capita in Log Scale

Trend and Cycle — Identification

- How can we go from trend to cycle? How do we remove this?
- Let y_t be GDP per capita and decompose it into a trend and a cycle component.

$$y_t = y_t^c + y_t^g$$

- How can we estimate these two? Several options:
 - Spectral analysis (Hamilton, 1994, see Chapter 6)
 - Describe y_t as a weighted sum of periodic functions like $\cos(\omega t)$ and $\sin(\omega t)$. Identify peaks and troughs and call that a cycle.
 - Detrending methods.
 - Linear detrending, first differences...
 - Filters: band-pass (Baxter and King, 1999; Hodrick and Prescott, 1997).

Hodrick-Prescott Filter

The method separates the trend component from the solution of the problem

$$\min_{\{y_t^g\}_{t=0}^{\infty}} \quad \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (y_t - y_t^g)^2 + \lambda \left[(y_{t+1}^g - y_t^g) - (y_t^g - y_{t-1}^g) \right]^2$$

where λ is a smoothing parameter. The cycle is thus

$$y_t^c = y_t - y_t^g$$

Widely used method but with many critiques. From Hamilton (2018):

- 1. Introduces spurious dynamic relations w/o basis in the underlaying DGP and filtered values at the end are very different from the middle.
- 2. Choosing λ from a statistical formalization implies \neq to the typically applied.
- 3. Not good for prediction, double-sided.

Hodrick-Prescott Filter

Alternatives

- Hamilton (2018) proposes instead a regression approach.
- How different is the value at date t + h from the expected value at t?
- Suggests to estimate by OLS

$$y_{t+h} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_t + \beta_2 y_{t-1} + \beta_3 y_{t-2} + \beta_4 y_{t-3} + \nu_{t+h}$$

The residuals

$$\hat{v}_{t+h} = y_{t+h} - \hat{\beta}_0 - \hat{\beta}_1 y_t - \hat{\beta}_2 y_{t-1} - \hat{\beta}_3 y_{t-2} - \hat{\beta}_4 y_{t-3}$$

Filtering Techniques

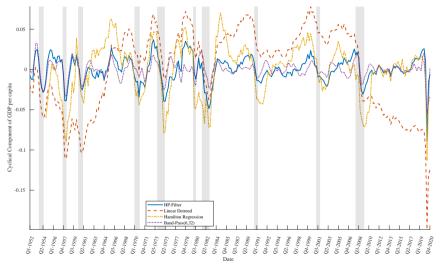


Figure 3: Cycles of U.S. GDP per capita in Log Scale



Business Cycle Statistics

When we study empirical properties of business cycles we typically look at three moments of the data

- 1. **Volatility:** Relative standard deviation sd(x)/sd(gdp). Amplitude of fluctuations of x_t relative to GDP.
- 2. Cyclicality: the correlation between x_t and GDP $\rho(x_t, GDP)$
 - If $\rho(x_t, GDP) > 0$ then x_t is **procyclical**.
 - If $\rho(x_t, GDP) < 0$ then x_t is **countercyclical**.
 - If $\rho(x_t, GDP) = 0$ then x_t is **acyclical**.
- 3. **Persistence:** autocorrelation $\rho(x_t, x_{t-1})$

Business Cycle Statistics

Table 1: Business Cycle Statistics — Sims (2017)

Series	Std. Dev.	Rel. Std. Dev.	Corr w/y_t	Autocorr	Corr w/Y_{t-4}	Corr w/Y_{t+4}
Output	0.017	1.00	1.00	0.85	0.07	0.11
Consumption	0.009	0.53	0.76	0.79	0.07	0.22
Investment	0.047	2.76	0.79	0.87	-0.10	0.26
Hours	0.019	1.12	0.88	0.90	0.29	-0.03
Productivity	0.011	0.65	0.42	0.72	-0.50	0.35
Wage	0.009	0.53	0.10	0.73	-0.10	0.10
1+ Interest Rate	0.004	0.24	0.00	0.42	0.27	-0.25
Price Level	0.009	0.53	-0.13	0.91	0.09	-0.41
TFP	0.012	0.71	0.76	0.75	-0.34	0.34

Business Cycle Stylized Facts

Volatility:

○ Investment \gg GDP. Consumption \ll GDP . Hours \approx GDP. Prices \ll GDP.

Cyclicality:

- Consumption, investment, hours are procyclical.
- Real wages and real interest rate acyclical. If used other expectations, real interest rate
 is slightly countercyclical. Moder macro models struggle to match this feature of the
 data.

Persistence: typically, all variables are strongly persistent.

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