

A crash course of Bayesian DSGE estimation

II. Some applications

Takeki Sunakawa

Hitotsubashi University

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What will be covered today

- Random-walk MH algorithm and its application to New-Keynesian model (HS, ch. 4)
- Solving real business cycle model with Dynare (Miao, chs. 14, 15)

A bird's-eye view: How it works?

- Taking a set of model parameters θ as given, put the REE solution and observation equation together to form a state-space representation.

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= A(\theta) + B(\theta)x_t + e_t, & e_t &\sim N(0, H(\theta)) \\x_t &= P(\theta)x_{t-1} + Q(\theta)\epsilon_t, & \epsilon_t &\sim N(0, S_e(\theta))\end{aligned}$$

- Then having the data Y , we calculate the likelihood function of the parameters, $L(Y|\theta)$, from the state-space representation using the Kalman filter.
- We conjecture some form of the prior distribution of the parameters, $p(\theta)$.

- Using the Bayes' theorem, we have the posterior distribution of the parameters.

$$p(\theta|Y) \propto p(\theta)L(Y|\theta)$$

- We use the Metropolis-Hasting algorithm, a Monte-Carlo sampling method, to approximate the shape of the posterior distribution.
- We do inferences based on the posterior distribution.

RWMH algorithm

Random-Walk MH algorithm

- The most widely used method to generate draws from posterior distributions of a DSGE model.
- The proposal distribution $q(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1})$ is expressed as the random walk

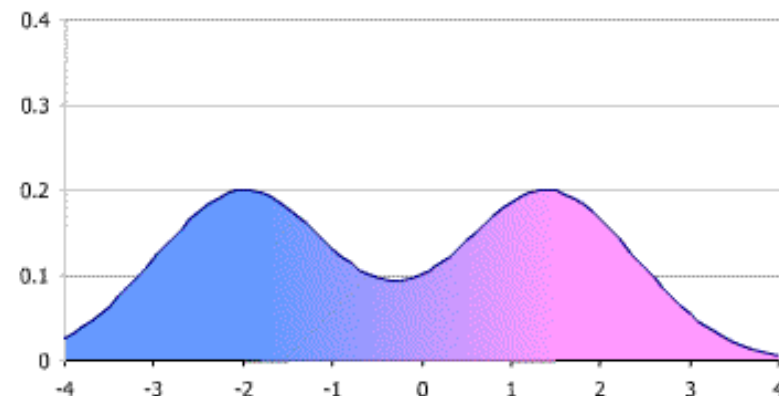
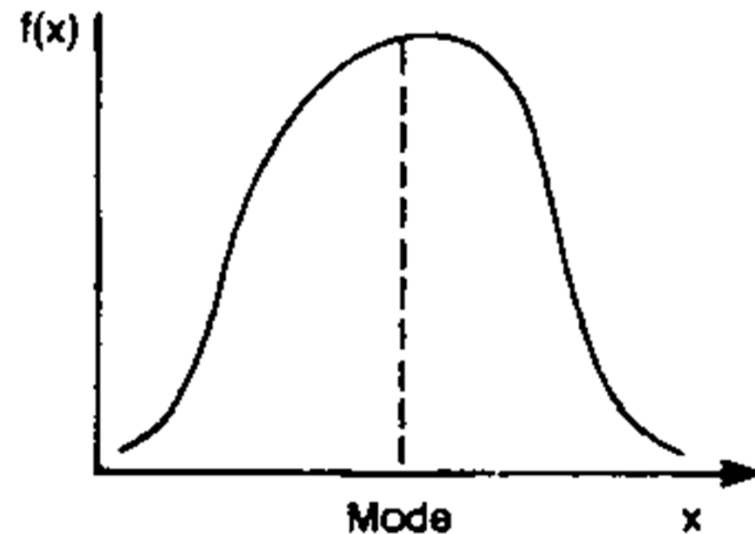
$$\vartheta = \theta^{i-1} + \eta$$

where η is drawn from a distribution with mean zero.

- With a prior distribution typically used, the posterior distribution (hopefully) has a well-behaved elliptical shape.

Identification problems

- The posterior distributions could be very non-elliptical.
- This is due to identification problems
 - *Very flat* posteriors:
Local identification problems
(see the earlier example)
 - *Multimodal* posteriors:
Inflation persistence can be generated by either persistent cost-push shocks or firm's inability to re-optimize prices.



Generic MH algorithm

(Generic MH Algorithm) For $i = 1, \dots, N$:

1. Draw ϑ from a **proposal density** $q(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1})$.
2. Set $\theta^i = \vartheta$ with probability

$$\alpha(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1}) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(Y|\vartheta)p(\vartheta)/q(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1})}{p(Y|\theta^{i-1})p(\theta^{i-1})/q(\theta^{i-1}|\vartheta)} \right\}$$

and $\theta^i = \theta^{i-1}$ otherwise, where

$p(\theta)$ is the prior density and

$p(Y|\theta)$ is the likelihood of data Y computed by Kalman filter
for a given parameter set θ .

- We replace the posterior densities by $p(\theta)p(Y|\theta)$, which does not require the marginal data density $p(Y)$. Note that $p(\theta|Y) = \frac{p(\theta)p(Y|\theta)}{p(Y)}$.

RWMH algorithm

- The mean and variance of $q(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1})$ are θ^{i-1} and $c^2\hat{\Sigma}$, then the drawn parameter can be written as

$$\vartheta = \theta^{i-1} + \eta$$

where η follows a mean zero with variance $c^2\hat{\Sigma}$.

- Given the symmetric nature of $q(\vartheta|\theta^{i-1})$, the acceptance probability becomes

$$\alpha = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{p(Y|\vartheta)p(\vartheta)}{p(Y|\theta^{i-1})p(\theta^{i-1})} \right\}$$

Tuning the algorithm

- We use a multivariate normal proposal distribution for η ,
$$\eta \sim N(0, c^2 \hat{\Sigma})$$

or equivalently,

$$\vartheta \sim q(\vartheta | \theta^{i-1}) = N(\theta^{i-1}, c^2 \hat{\Sigma})$$

- We have two parameters for tuning the algorithm, c and $\hat{\Sigma}$.

- $\hat{\Sigma}$ controls the relative variance and correlations in the proposal distribution. For example:
 - Suppose parameters in θ are highly correlated.
 - If $\hat{\Sigma}$ does not capture this correlation, e.g., using a diagonal matrix for $\hat{\Sigma}$, then the proposal ϑ is unlikely to reflect the correlation.
 - Draws θ are more likely rejected, and to raise the acceptance rate, c is tuned to small values.
 - The chain will be very highly correlated and will have high variance, which is not desirable.

- Obtaining a good $\hat{\Sigma}$ is difficult.
 - Usually, $\hat{\Sigma}$ is set to be the negative of the inverse Hessian of logged probability density function at the mode.
 - If the posterior distribution is multivariate normal, it is the covariance matrix.

$$\ln p(\theta) \propto -\frac{1}{2}(\theta - \bar{\theta})' \Sigma^{-1}(\theta - \bar{\theta}), \quad \left[\frac{\partial \ln p(\theta)}{\partial \theta \partial \theta'} \bigg|_{\theta = \bar{\theta}} \right]^{-1} = \Sigma$$

Thus, the inverse Hessian might be a good approximation to the covariance matrix.

- Hessian can be obtained by running a numerical optimization routine before MCMC. However, The numerical approximation of the Hessian may be inaccurate.

- A partially adaptive approach may work well:
 - First, generate a set of posterior draws based on a reasonable initial choice for $\hat{\Sigma}$ (say, the covariance matrix for the prior distribution).
 - Compute the sample covariance matrix from the first draws and use it as $\hat{\Sigma}$ in a second run, and so on.

- c is adjusted to ensure a “reasonable” acceptance rate.
 - If the sampler accepts too frequently, it may make very small movements. Then c should be *larger*.
 - if the sampler rejects too frequently, it may be got stuck in one region of the parameter space. Then c should be *smaller*.
- Most practitioners target an acceptance rate between 0.20 and 0.40.
 - Roberts et al. (1997) has derived a limit optimal rate of 0.234 for the special case of multivariate normal.

Applications:

A New Keynesian model

A log-linearized New Keynesian model (Herbst and Schorfheide, 2015)

- Now we are ready to apply our techniques to the small-scale New Keynesian model.
- The equilibrium conditions are

$$\hat{c}_t = E_t \hat{c}_{t+1} - \tau^{-1} (\hat{R}_t - E_t \hat{\pi}_{t+1} - \rho_z \hat{z}_t)$$

$$\hat{\pi}_t = E_t \hat{\pi}_{t+1} + \kappa \hat{c}_t$$

$$\hat{R}_t = \rho_R \hat{R}_{t-1} + (1 - \rho_R) (\psi_1 \hat{\pi}_t + \psi_2 \hat{c}_t) + \epsilon_{R,t}$$

$$\hat{y}_t = \hat{c}_t + \hat{g}_t$$

$$\hat{g}_t = \rho_g \hat{g}_{t-1} + \epsilon_{g,t}$$

$$\hat{z}_t = \rho_z \hat{z}_{t-1} + \epsilon_{z,t}$$

State equation

- The equilibrium conditions are summarized into

$$\mathcal{A}E_t\{x_{t+1}\} + Bx_t + Cx_{t-1} + \mathcal{E}\epsilon_t = 0$$

where

$$x_t = [\hat{c}_t, \hat{\pi}_t, \hat{R}_t, \hat{y}_t, \hat{g}_t, \hat{z}_t]'$$
$$\epsilon_t = [\epsilon_{z,t}, \epsilon_{g,t}, \epsilon_{R,t}]'$$

- The REE solution to the equilibrium condition

$$x_t = Ps_{t-1} + Q\epsilon_t, \quad \epsilon_t \sim N(0, S_e)$$

This is **the state equation**.

Observation equation

- We have observed variables, which linked to model variables by

$$\Delta y_t^{obs} = \gamma^{(Q)} + (\hat{y}_t - \hat{y}_{t-1} + \hat{z}_t)$$

$$\pi_t^{obs} = \pi^{(A)} + 4\hat{\pi}_t$$

$$R_t^{obs} = \pi^{(A)} + r^{(A)} + 4\gamma^{(Q)} + 4\hat{R}_t$$

- These equations are summarized into

$$y_t = A + Bx_t + e_t, \quad e_t \sim N(0, H)$$

This is **the observation equation**.

State-space representation

- Then we have a state-space representation:

$$\begin{aligned}y_t &= A(\theta) + B(\theta)x_t + e_t, & e_t &\sim N(0, H(\theta)) \\x_t &= P(\theta)x_{t-1} + Q(\theta)\epsilon_t, & \epsilon_t &\sim N(0, S_e(\theta))\end{aligned}$$

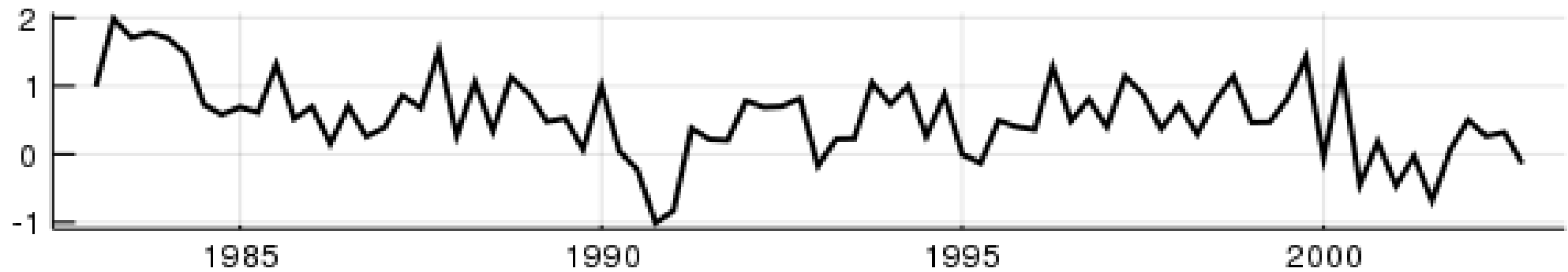
where $\theta = [\tau, \kappa, \psi_1, \psi_2, \rho_R, \rho_g, \rho_z, r^{(A)}, \pi^{(A)}, \gamma^{(Q)}, \sigma_R, \sigma_g, \sigma_z]'$.

- We can apply Kalman filter to obtain the likelihood function $p(Y|\theta)$ at θ given the data Y .

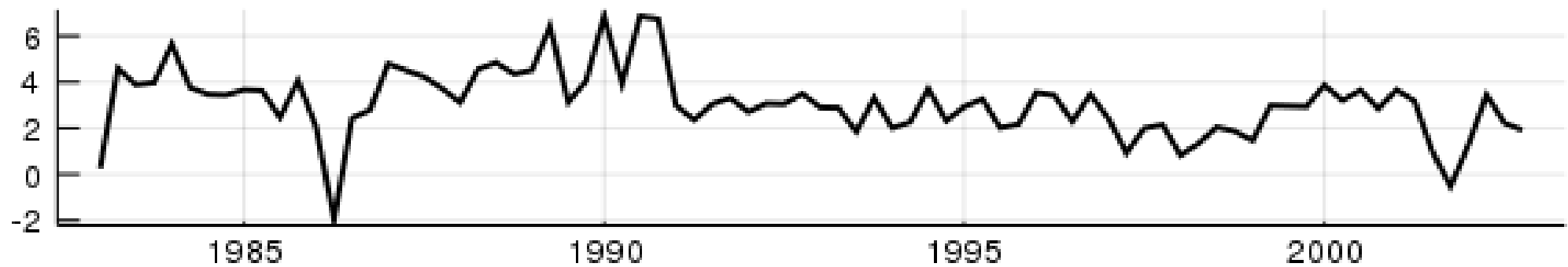
Data

- We use three observables: $\{\Delta y_t^{obs}, \pi_t^{obs}, R_t^{obs}\}$
 - quarterly per capita GDP growth
 - quarterly inflation
 - the annualized federal funds rate
- The sample period is from 1983:I to 2002:IV (in the period of the great moderation), giving us a total of 80 observations.

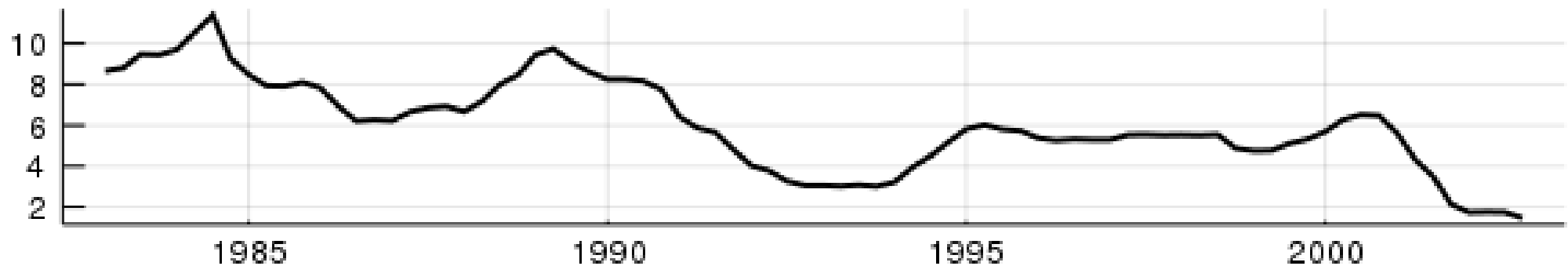
Output Growth



Inflation (ann.)



Policy Rate (ann.)



Bayesian inference

- Recall that we need the prior $p(\theta)$ and likelihood $p(Y|\theta)$ to obtain the posterior distribution of the parameters

$$p(\theta|Y) \propto p(\theta)p(Y|\theta)$$

- Priors are based on the information on parameters from micro data and other presumptions by the econometrician.
- Priors are also useful to avoid identification problems.

Priors (somewhat diffused)

- Para(1) and Para(2) are:
 - the means and standard deviations for Beta, Gamma, and Normal distributions;
 - the upper and lower bound for Uniform distributions
 - s and ν for Inverse Gamma distributions

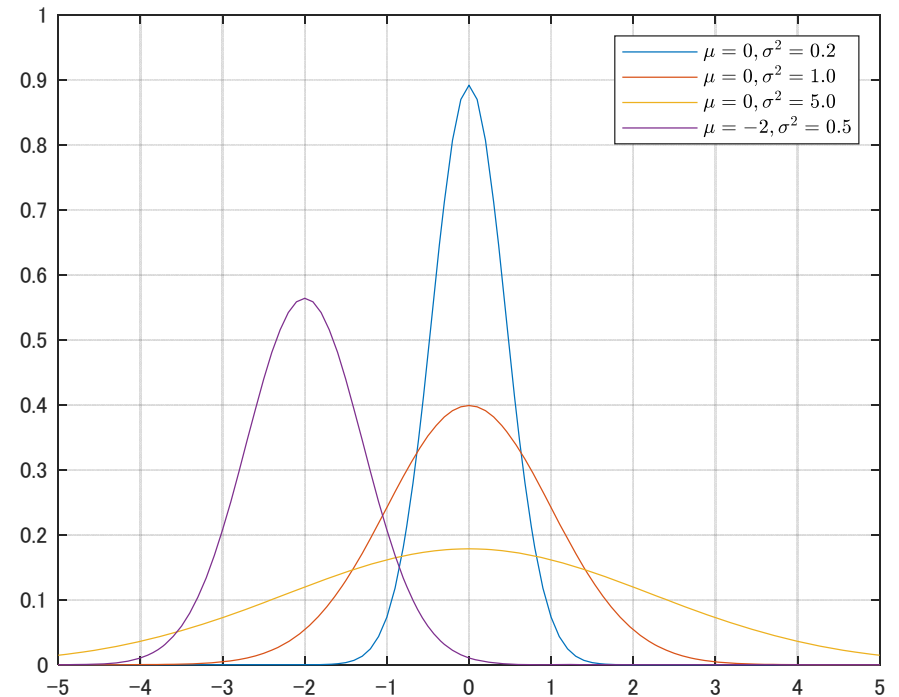
Name	Domain	Density	Prior	
			Para (1)	Para (2)
τ	\mathbb{R}^+	Gamma	2.00	0.50
κ	\mathbb{R}^+	Uniform	0.00	1.00
ψ_1	\mathbb{R}^+	Gamma	1.50	0.25
ψ_2	\mathbb{R}^+	Gamma	0.50	0.25
ρ_R	$[0, 1)$	Uniform	0.00	1.00
ρ_G	$[0, 1)$	Uniform	0.00	1.00
ρ_Z	$[0, 1)$	Uniform	0.00	1.00
$r^{(A)}$	\mathbb{R}^+	Gamma	0.50	0.50
$\pi^{(A)}$	\mathbb{R}^+	Gamma	7.00	2.00
$\gamma^{(Q)}$	\mathbb{R}	Normal	0.40	0.20
$100\sigma_R$	\mathbb{R}^+	InvGamma	0.40	4.00
$100\sigma_G$	\mathbb{R}^+	InvGamma	1.00	4.00
$100\sigma_Z$	\mathbb{R}^+	InvGamma	0.50	4.00

Normal distribution: $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

- PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

where μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation of the distribution.



Gamma distribution: $x \in (0, \infty)$

- PDF is

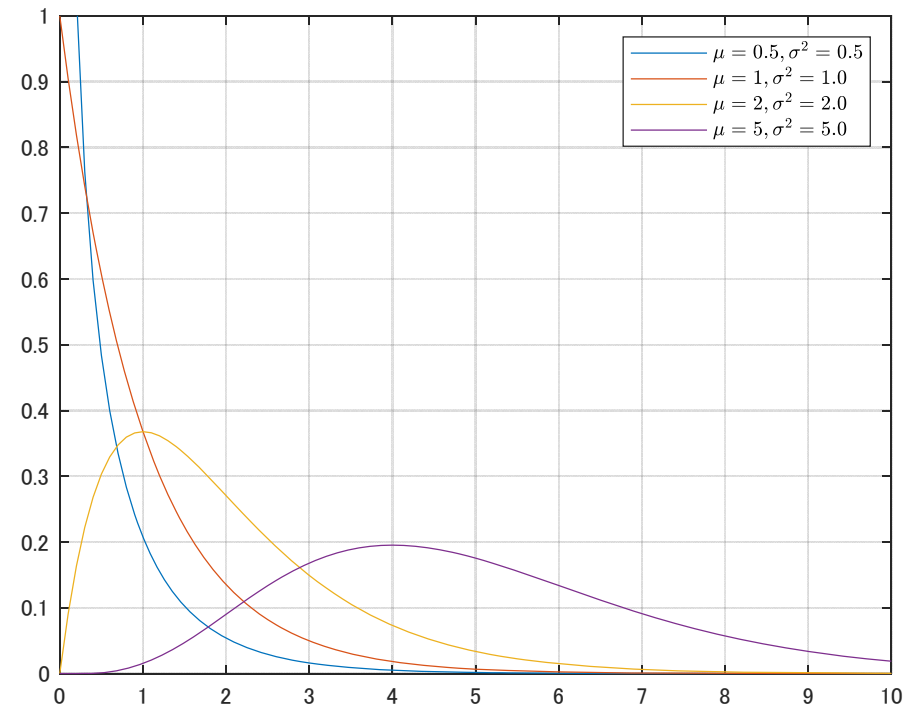
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(k)\theta^k} x^{k-1} e^{-\frac{x}{\theta}}$$

where $k > 0, \theta > 0$, and $\Gamma(k)$ is the Gamma function.

- Mean and variance are

$$E[x] = k\theta,$$
$$Var[x] = k\theta^2$$

- When $\theta = 1$, it is called the standard Gamma distr.



Beta distribution: $x \in (0,1)$

- PDF is

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha, \beta)}$$

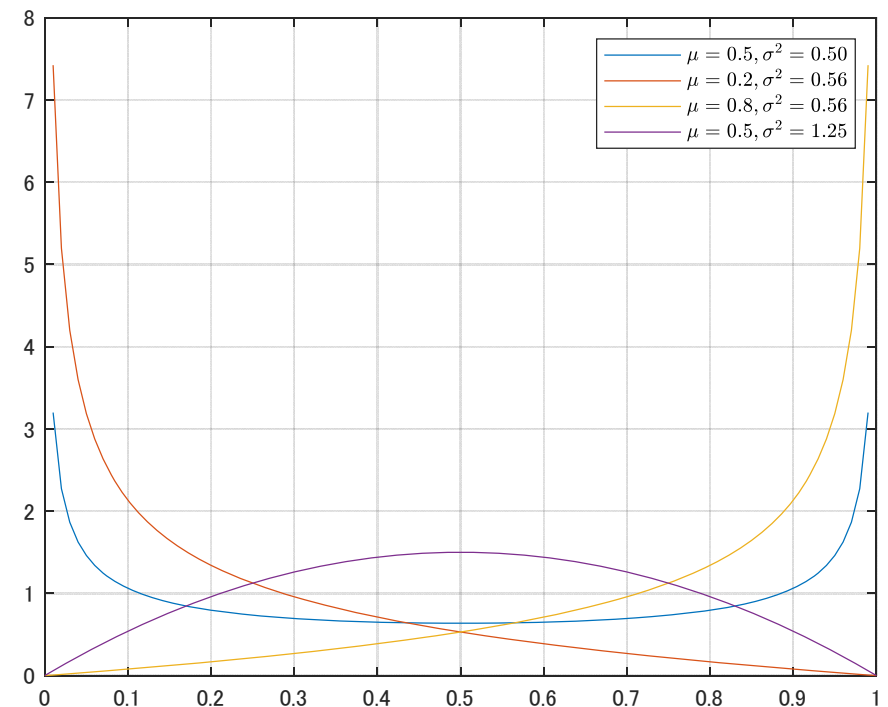
where $\alpha > 0, \beta > 0$, and

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(\beta)}{\Gamma(\alpha+\beta)}$$

- Mean and variance are

$$E[x] = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta},$$

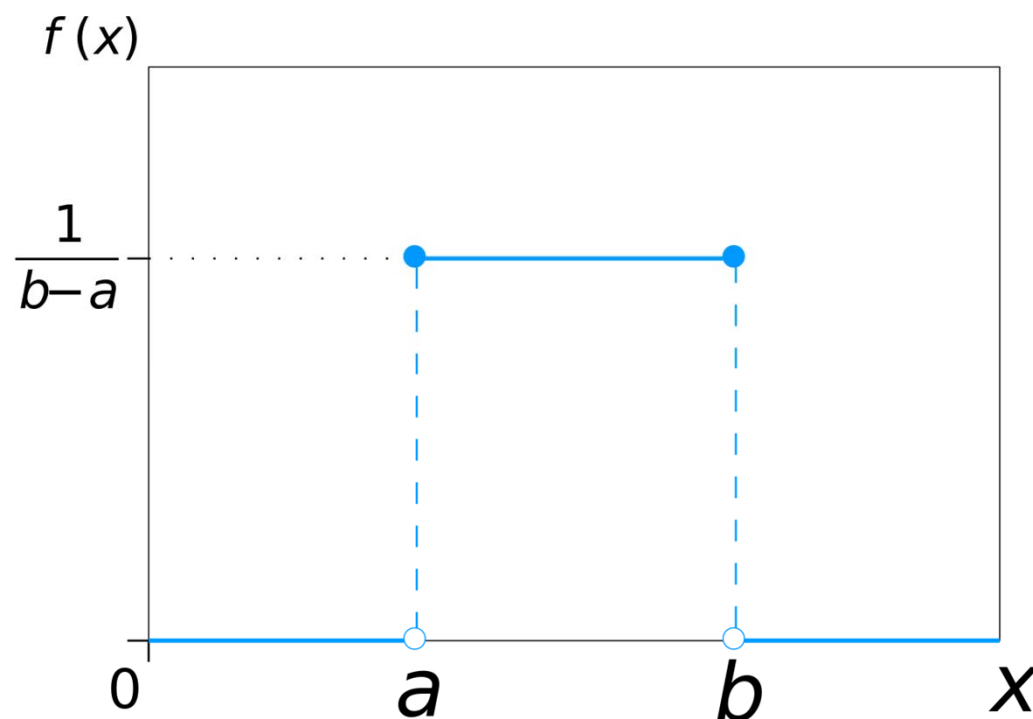
$$Var[x] = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}$$



Uniform distribution: $x \in [a, b]$

- PDF is

$f(x) = \frac{1}{b-a}$ for $x \in [a, b]$ and
0 otherwise.



https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Continuous_uniform_distribution

Inverse Gamma: $x \in (0, \infty)$

- Compared to Gamma, the distribution is fat-tailed.
- PDF is (Dynare uses a bit non-standard one; see Ingvar Strid's note)

$$p(\sigma|a, b) = 2C_g^{-1} \left(\frac{b}{2}, \frac{2}{ba^2} \right) \sigma^{-b-1} e^{-\frac{ba^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
$$\propto \sigma^{-\nu-1} e^{-\frac{ba^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

where $C_g \left(\frac{b}{2}, \frac{2}{ba^2} \right) = \Gamma \left(\frac{b}{2} \right) \left(\frac{2}{ba^2} \right)^{\frac{b}{2}}$. (see p. 27 in the textbook with $b = \nu$ and $a = s$)

The log density is

$$\ln p(\sigma|a, b) = \ln(2) - \ln \Gamma \left(\frac{b}{2} \right) - \frac{b}{2} \ln \left(\frac{2}{ba^2} \right) - (b + 1) \ln(\sigma) - \frac{ba^2}{2\sigma^2}$$

- Mean and variance of $x = \sigma$ is

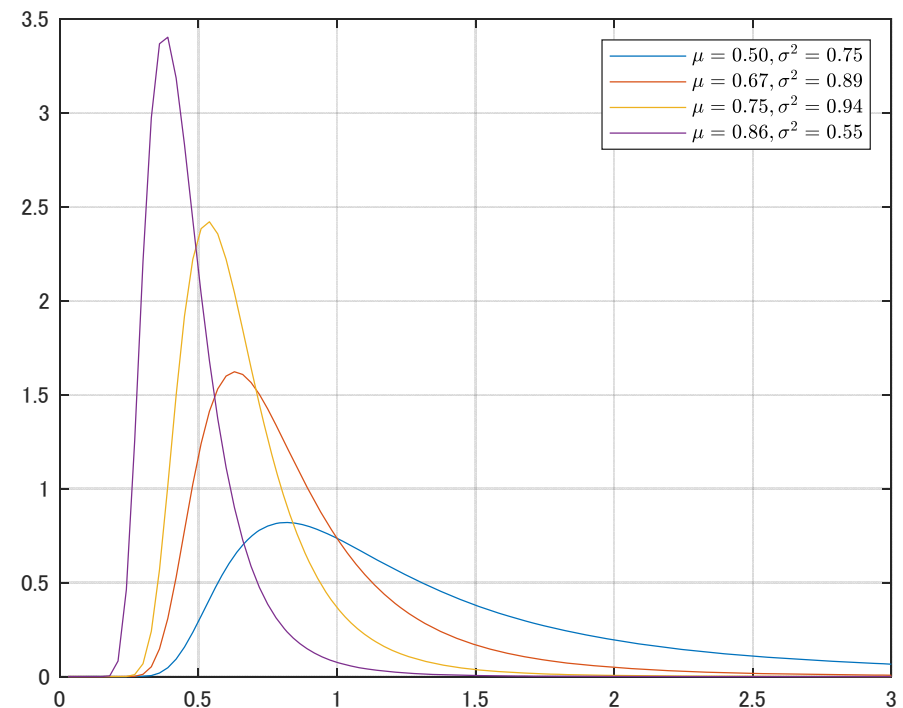
$$E[x] = \sqrt{\frac{ba^2}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{b-1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)}, b > 1$$

and

$$Var[x] = \frac{ba^2}{b-2} - E(x)^2, b > 2$$

- **Note:** Dynare requires the mean and standard deviation for inputs.

For example, if $a = 0.4$ and $b = 4$,
 $E[x] = 0.501$ and $Var[x] = 0.262^2$.



Dynare code: as_est.mod

```
var notr yy dp nomr gshk zshk rshk dy_obs pi_obs  
r_obs;  
varexo errgshk errzshk errrshk;  
parameters tau kappa psi1 psi2 rho_R rho_g  
rho_z rA piA gammaQ;  
  
varobs dy_obs pi_obs r_obs;
```

- First, we define variables and set parameters.
 - **varobs**: the list of observed variables, which are also a part of the endogenous variables.
- Now, parameters are to be estimated.

```
model;
```

```
#bet = 1/(1+rA/400);
```

```
yy + (1/tau)*nomr - (1-rho_g)*gshk - rho_z/tau*zshk - yy(+1)  
- (1/tau)*dp(+1) = 0;
```

```
dp = kappa*(yy-gshk) + bet*dp(+1);
```

```
nomr = rho_R*nomr(-1) + (1-rho_R)*psi1*dp + (1-  
rho_R)*psi2*(yy-gshk) + rshk;
```

```
gshk = rho_g*gshk(-1) + errgshk;
```

```
zshk = rho_z*zshk(-1) + errzshk;
```

```
rshk = errrshk;
```

- Then we input the log-linearized equations.

```
dy_obs = 1*(yy - yy(-1) + zshk) + gammaQ;  
pi_obs = 4*dp + piA;  
r_obs = 4*nomr + (piA+rA+4*gammaQ);
```

```
end;
```

- We also have observation equations.


```
shocks;  
var dy_obs;  
stderr 0.1159;  
var pi_obs;  
stderr 0.2941;  
var r_obs;  
stderr 0.4475;  
end;
```

- When estimating the model, a measurement error for each observed variable is between **shocks;** and **end;**
 - We multiply 0.2 by the standard deviation of each observed variable.

```
estimated_params;
```

```
tau, gamma_pdf, 2.0, 0.5;
```

```
kappa, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;
```

```
psi1, gamma_pdf, 1.50, 0.25;
```

```
psi2, gamma_pdf, 0.50, 0.25;
```

```
rho_R, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;
```

```
rho_g, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;
```

```
rho_z, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;
```

```
rA, gamma_pdf, 0.5, 0.5;
```

```
piA, gamma_pdf, 7.0, 2.0;
```

```
gammaQ, normal_pdf, 0.4, 0.2;
```

```
stderr errrshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 0.5013, 0.2620;
```

```
stderr errgshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 1.2533, 0.6551;
```

```
stderr errzshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 0.6266, 0.3275;
```

```
end;
```

- Prior distributions are specified between **estimated_params;** and **end;**
- Dynare requires the mean and standard deviation for inputs of Inverse Gamma distribution.

$$E[x] = \sqrt{\frac{ba^2}{2}} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{b-1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{b}{2}\right)}, b > 1$$

and

$$Var[x] = \frac{ba^2}{b-2} - E(x)^2, b > 2$$

```
estimated_params_init;
```

```
tau    , 2.09;
```

```
kappa  , 0.98;
```

```
psi1    , 2.25;
```

```
psi2    , 0.65;
```

```
rho_R   , 0.81;
```

```
rho_g   , 0.98;
```

```
rho_z   , 0.93;
```

```
rA      , 0.34;
```

```
piA     , 3.16;
```

```
gammaQ  , 0.51;
```

```
stderr errrshk , 0.19;
```

```
stderr errgshk , 0.65;
```

```
stderr errzshk , 0.24;
```

```
end;
```

- The mode of parameters are obtained by maximizing the prior and likelihood.
- Initial values for optimization are between `estimated_params_init;` and `end;`

```

estimation(
datafile = us,
mode_compute = 6, // set to 6 for diffused prior
//mode_compute = 0,
//mode_file = as_est_mode,
mode_check,
mh_replic = 20000,
mh_drop = 0.25,
mh_jscale = 0.6
);

```

- **Estimation** command has many options:

datafile: the name of the data file

mode_compute: the algorithm used to compute the mode.

For example,

4: (default) Chris sims' csminwel

6: A Monte-Carlo based optimization (**very powerful**)

7: fminsearch based on simplex method

mode_file: the mode previously computed (with mode_compute = 0, it is used without optimization routine).

The filename is usually [mod file name]_mode.mat

mode_check: check the curvature of the objective function around the mode

mh_replic: the length of the MCMC chain (i.e., sampling period)

mh_drop: the ratio of the burn-in period in the MCMC chain.

mh_jscale: scaling parameter for the proposal distribution

Priors

estimated_params;

tau, gamma_pdf, 2.0, 0.5;

kappa, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;

psi1, gamma_pdf, 1.50, 0.25;

psi2, gamma_pdf, 0.50, 0.25;

rho_R, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;

rho_g, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;

rho_z, uniform_pdf, , , 0.0, 1.0;

rA, gamma_pdf, 0.5, 0.5;

piA, gamma_pdf, 7.0, 2.0;

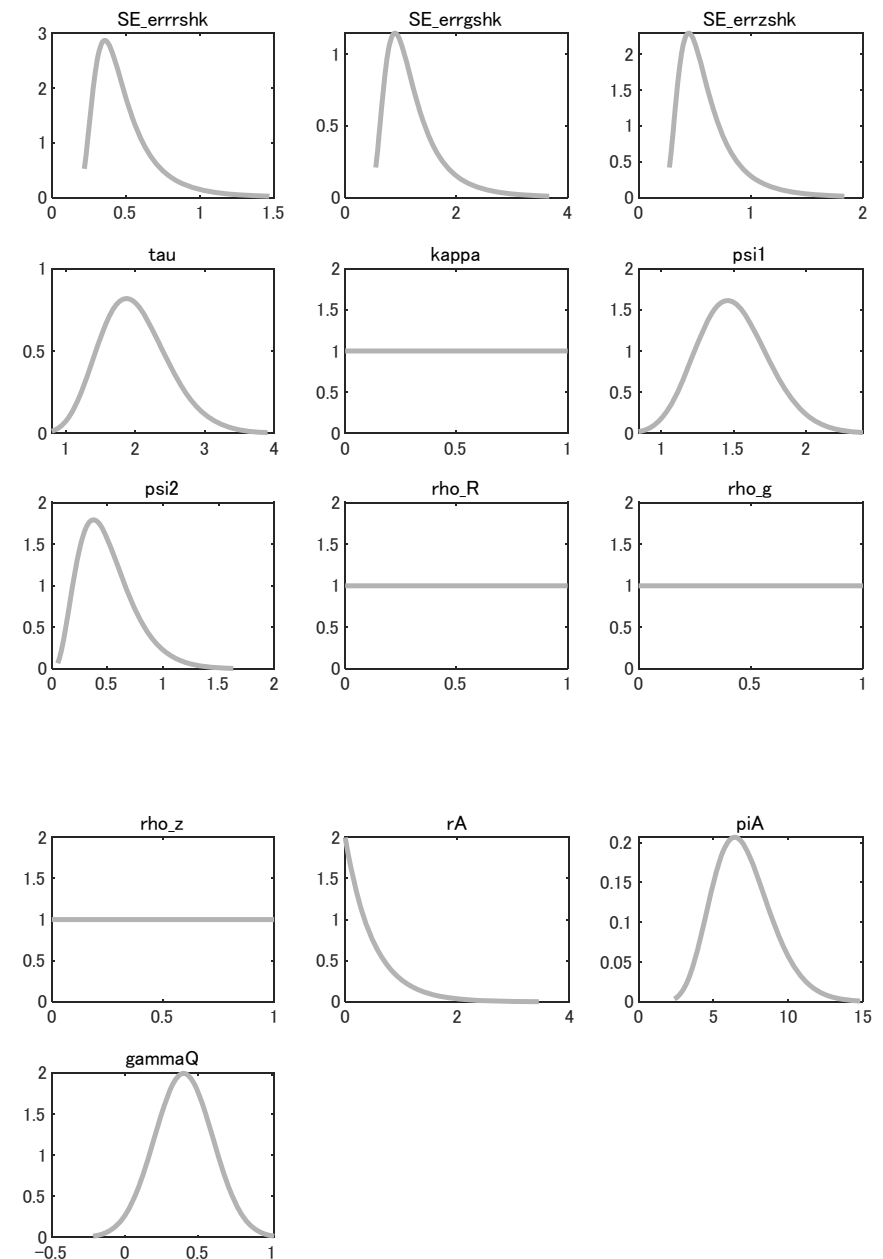
gammaQ, normal_pdf, 0.4, 0.2;

stderr errrshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 0.5013, 0.2620;

stderr errgshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 1.2533, 0.6551;

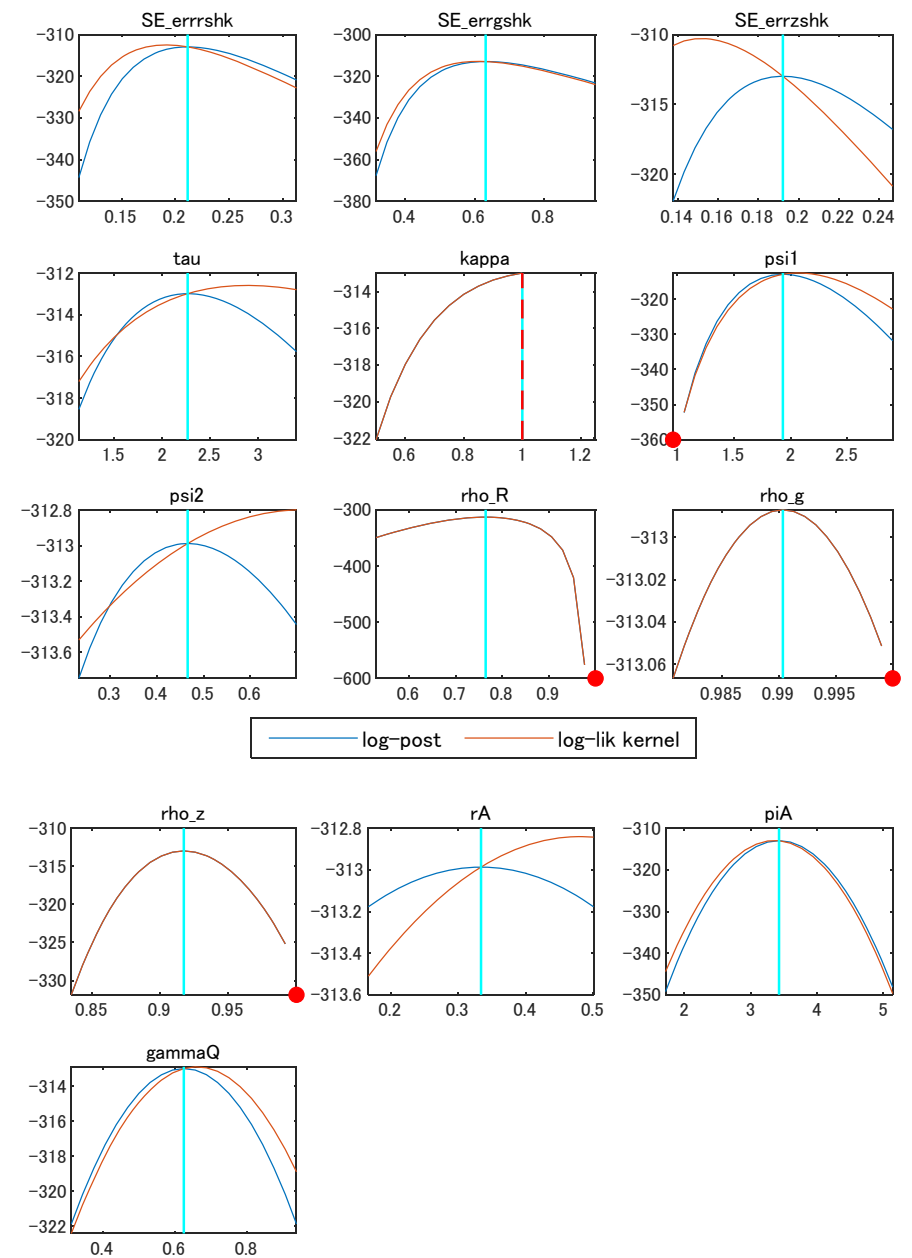
stderr errzshk, inv_gamma_pdf, 0.6266, 0.3275;

end;



Posterior mode

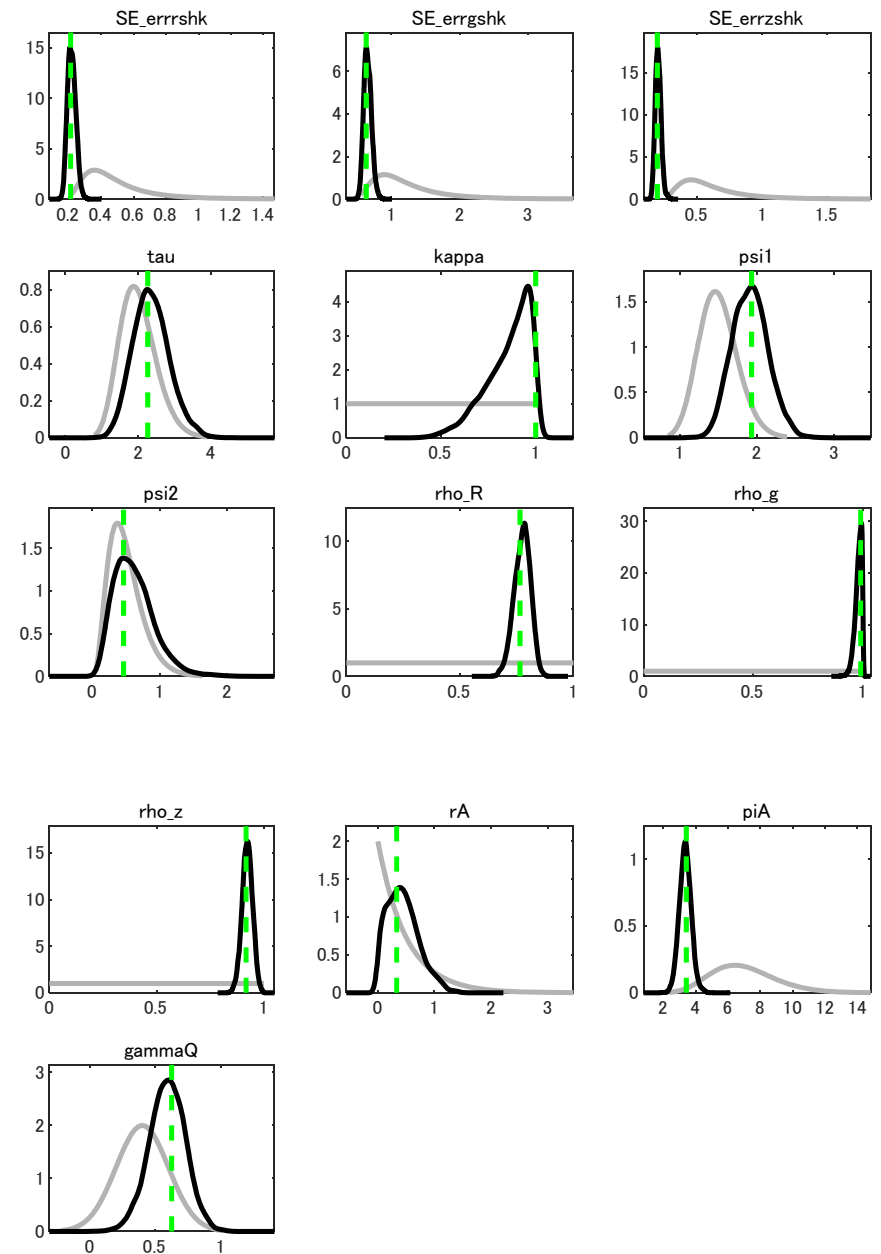
- With `mode_check`, check if the log posterior is maximized at the mode



Posterior

- Check if the posterior are prior are different so that the data has some information on the parameters

$$p(\theta|Y) \propto p(\theta)p(Y|\theta)$$



Posterior mode

RESULTS FROM POSTERIOR ESTIMATION

parameters

	prior mean	mode	s.d.	prior	pstdev
tau	2.0000	2.2640	0.5489	gamm	0.5000
kappa	0.5000	1.0000	0.1183	unif	0.2887
psi1	1.5000	1.9323	0.2304	gamm	0.2500
psi2	0.5000	0.4658	0.3025	gamm	0.2500
rho_R	0.5000	0.7645	0.0358	unif	0.2887
rho_g	0.5000	0.9903	0.0162	unif	0.2887
rho_z	0.5000	0.9173	0.0236	unif	0.2887
rA	0.5000	0.3335	0.2785	gamm	0.5000
piA	7.0000	3.4278	0.3917	gamm	2.0000
gammaQ	0.4000	0.6247	0.1404	norm	0.2000

standard deviation of shocks

	prior mean	mode	s.d.	prior	pstdev
errrshk	0.5013	0.2116	0.0274	invga	0.2621
errgshk	1.2533	0.6322	0.0543	invga	0.6551
errzshk	0.6267	0.1922	0.0227	invga	0.3276

- First, we compute the posterior mode, which maximizes the marginal density.

Posterior

ESTIMATION RESULTS

Log data density is -334.721071.

parameters

	prior mean	post. mean	90% HPD interval		prior	pstdev
tau	2.000	2.3524	1.5341	3.1374	gamm	0.5000
kappa	0.500	0.8542	0.6801	0.9998	unif	0.2887
psi1	1.500	1.9108	1.5280	2.2749	gamm	0.2500
psi2	0.500	0.6180	0.1444	1.0347	gamm	0.2500
rho_R	0.500	0.7741	0.7183	0.8331	unif	0.2887
rho_g	0.500	0.9797	0.9583	1.0000	unif	0.2887
rho_z	0.500	0.9226	0.8833	0.9629	unif	0.2887
rA	0.500	0.4429	0.0028	0.8189	gamm	0.5000
piA	7.000	3.3612	2.7668	3.9488	gamm	2.0000
gammaQ	0.400	0.5889	0.3581	0.8063	norm	0.2000

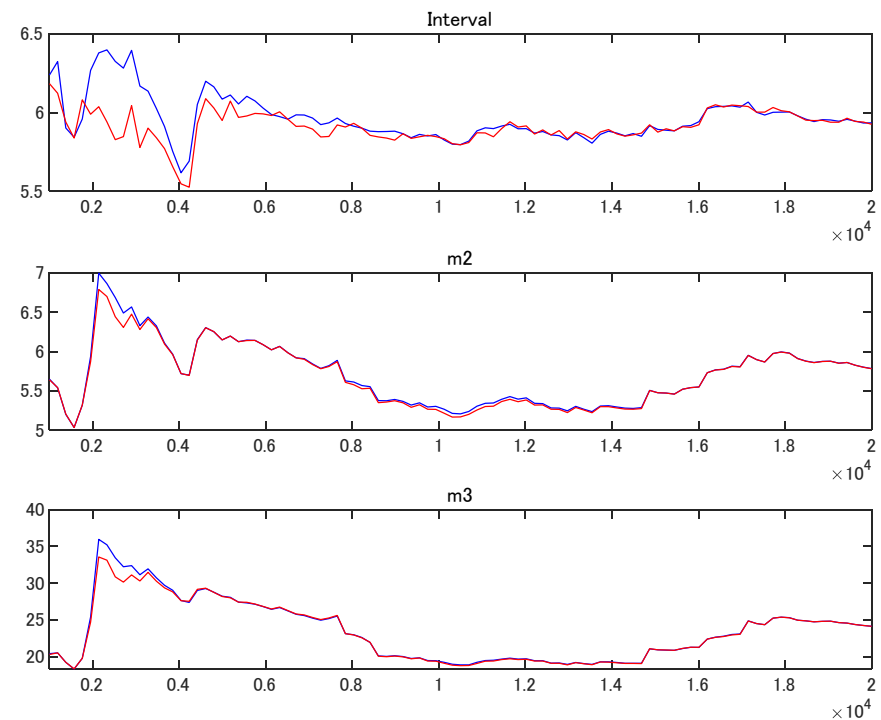
standard deviation of shocks

	prior mean	post. mean	90% HPD interval		prior	pstdev
errrshk	0.501	0.2180	0.1781	0.2587	invga	0.2621
errgshk	1.253	0.6533	0.5585	0.7370	invga	0.6551
errzshk	0.627	0.1990	0.1626	0.2344	invga	0.3276

- Then we do MCMC to infer the posterior distribution: Posterior mean and 90% credible intervals

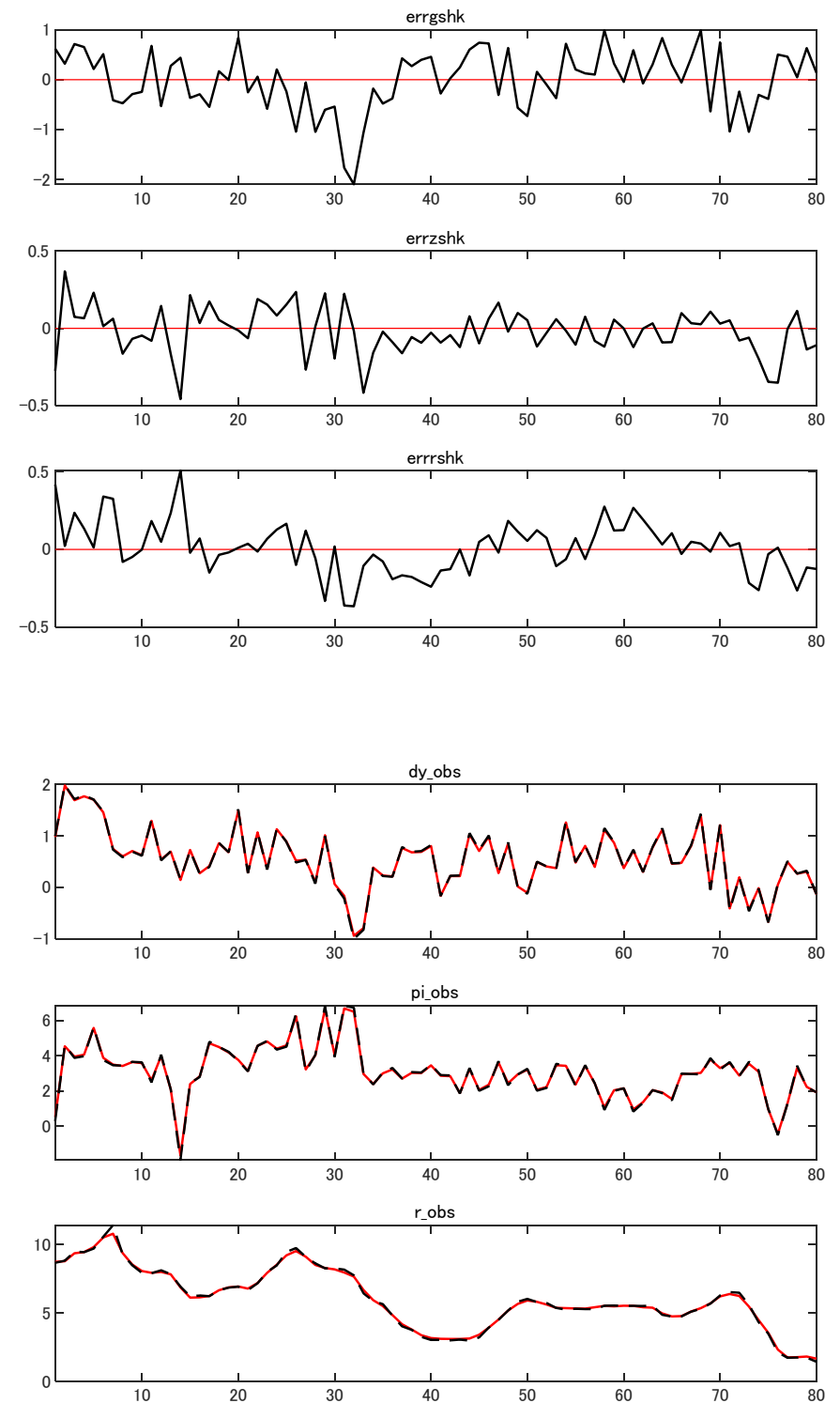
Convergence

- The Brooks and Gelman (1998) convergence diagnostics (with two chains):
- There may be a lot of draws before the sample has “converged” that is when a draw from the chain is indistinguishable from a draw from the (invariant) posterior.
- The first $N_0 = 5000$ draws of the MH chain are dropped.



Shocks

- “Smoothed” shocks and observed variables at the posterior mean



Smoothed and filtered variables

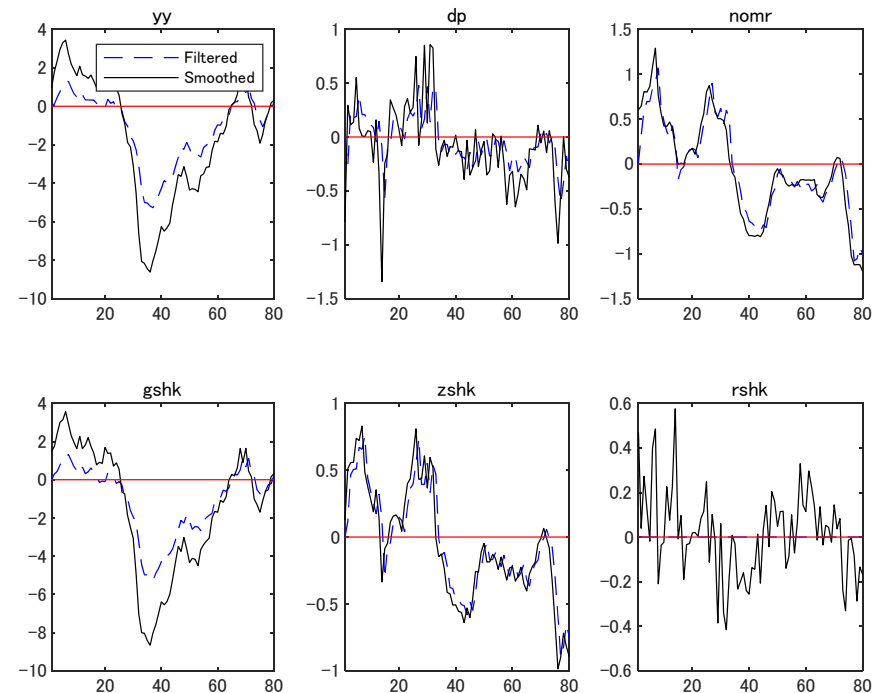
- **calib_smoother** calculates smoothed and filtered (option) variables.

- Filtering

$$\hat{\alpha}_{t|t} = E[\alpha_t | \Omega_t]$$

- Smoothing

$$\hat{\alpha}_{t|N} = E[\alpha_t | \Omega_N]$$

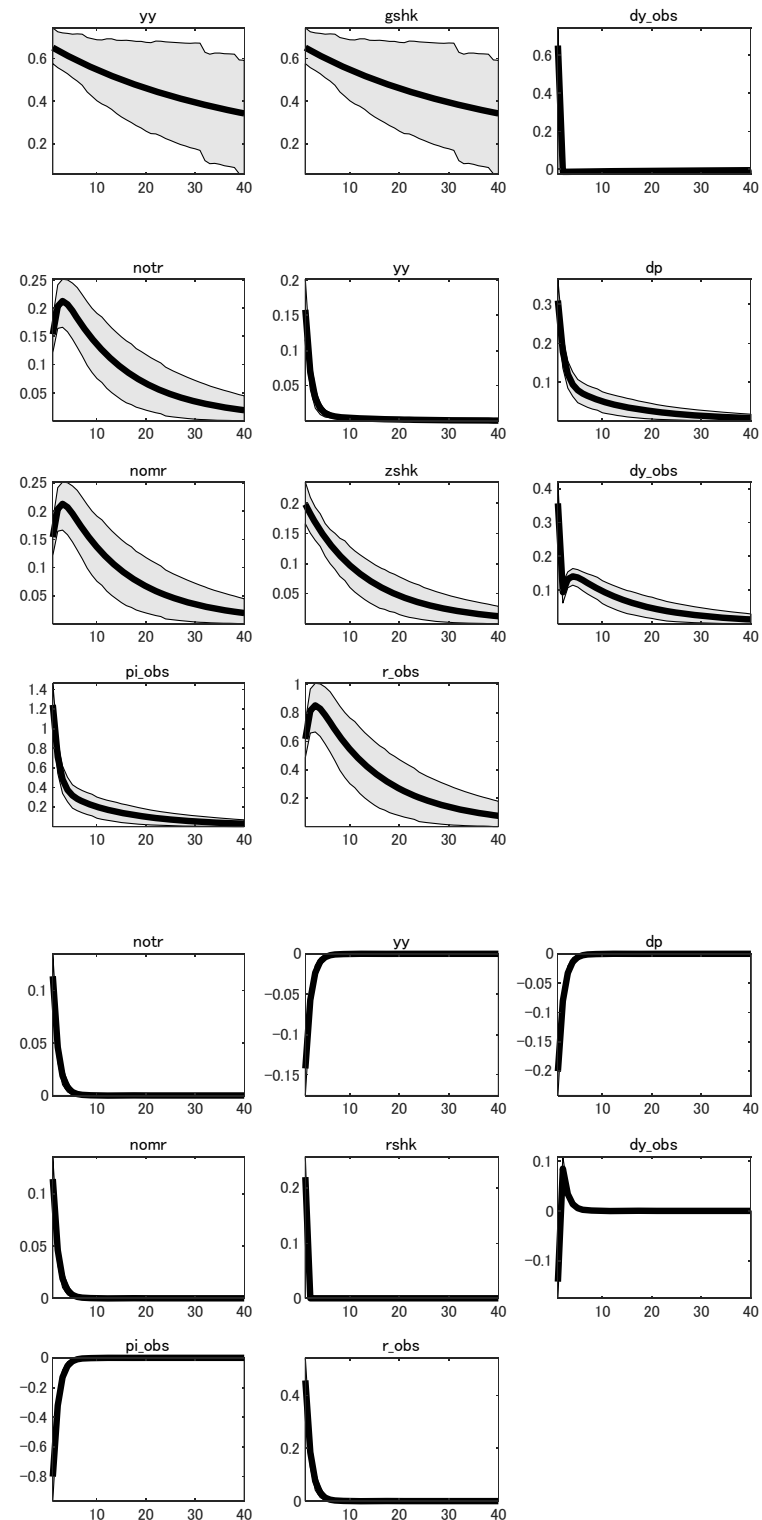


```
calib_smoother(datafile = us, filtered_vars);
```

Bayesian IRFs

- The parameter draws can be transformed into other statistics of interest $h(\theta)$.
 - Bayesian inference for IRFs can be implemented first converting each θ to $h(\theta)$ and computing means and credible intervals.

```
estimation(  
...  
  irf = 40,  
  bayesian_irf  
);
```



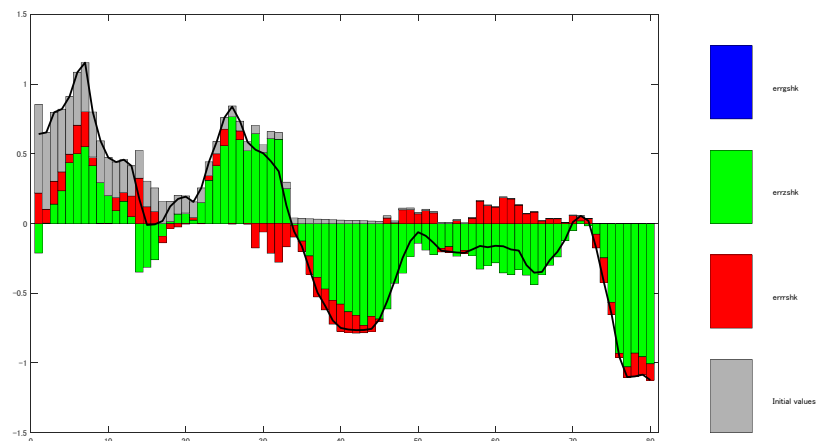
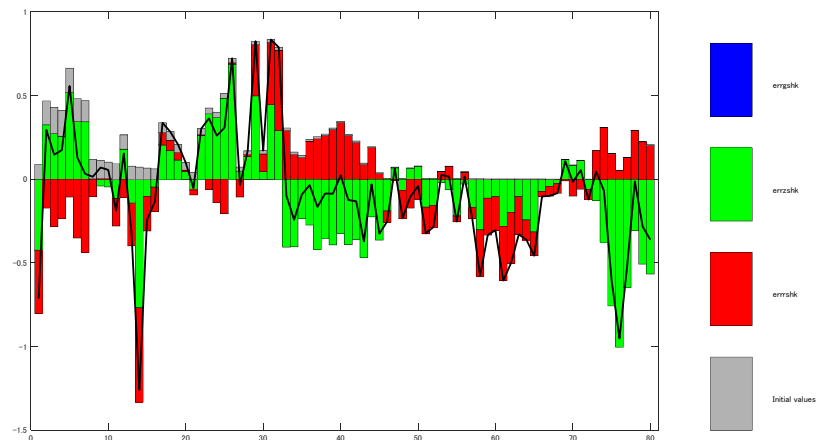
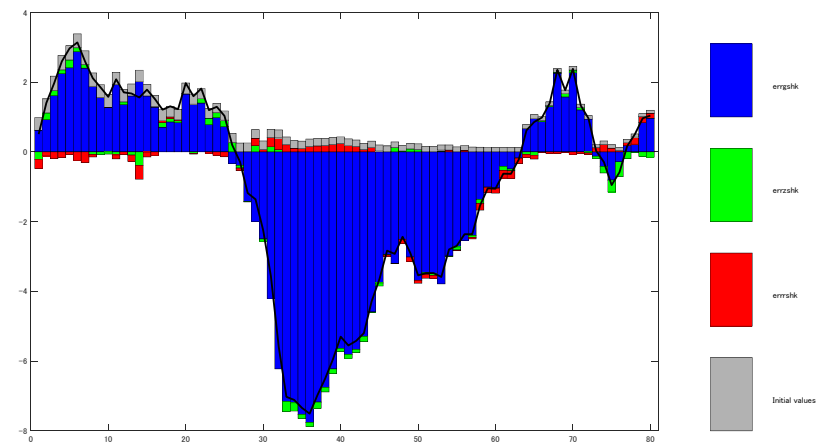
Historical decomposition

- Each state variable at t can be decomposed into the sequence of each shock

$$x_t = P(\theta)^t x_0 + Q(\theta) \sum_{i=1}^t P(\theta)^{t-i} \epsilon_i$$

- Note that the effect of initial values of x_0 diminishes as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

shock_decomposition yy dp nomr;



A basic RBC model

A Basic RBC Model

- The social planner's problem is given by

$$\max_{\{C_t, N_t, I_t\}} E_0 \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \beta^t [\ln C_t + \chi \ln(1 - N_t)]$$

subject to

$$C_t + I_t = z_t K_t^\alpha N_t^{1-\alpha} = Y_t$$

$$K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta)K_t + I_t$$

$$\ln z_t = \rho \ln z_{t-1} + \sigma \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t \sim iid \mathcal{N}(0,1)$$

for $t = 0, 1, \dots$, taking K_0 and z_{-1} as given.

- The optimal allocation $\{C_t, N_t, K_{t+1}, I_t, Y_t\}$ satisfies the following system of nonlinear difference equations:

$$\frac{1}{C_t} = E_t \left\{ \frac{\beta}{C_{t+1}} [\alpha z_{t+1} K_{t+1}^{\alpha-1} N_{t+1}^{1-\alpha} + 1 - \delta] \right\}$$

$$\frac{\chi C_t}{1-N_t} = (1-\alpha) z_t K_t^{\alpha} N_t^{-\alpha}$$

and

$$C_t + I_t = Y_t$$

$$Y_t = z_t K_t^{\alpha} N_t^{1-\alpha}$$

$$K_{t+1} = (1-\delta)K_t + I_t$$

- The usual transversality condition also holds.
- In a decentralized equilibrium in which households own capital and make real investment, the rental rate and the wage rate are given by

$$R_{kt} = \alpha z_t K_t^{\alpha-1} N_t^{1-\alpha}$$
$$w_t = (1 - \alpha) z_t K_t^{\alpha} N_t^{-\alpha}$$

Steady State

- We solve for the non-stochastic steady state in which $z_t = 1$ for all t .
- By the Euler equation,

$$1 = \beta[\alpha K^{\alpha-1} N^{1-\alpha} + 1 - \delta]$$

which follows that

$$\frac{K}{N} = \left(\frac{\alpha}{1/\beta - (1 - \delta)} \right)^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$$

- Also,

$$I = \delta K = \frac{\delta K}{N} N \text{ and } Y = \left(\frac{K}{N} \right)^{\alpha} N$$

- Thus, given N , we can solve for K , I , and Y . Finally, C comes from the resource constraint.
- We use the remaining equation for χ :

$$\chi = (1 - \alpha) \left(\frac{K}{N} \right)^\alpha \frac{1 - N}{C}$$

Given other parameter values, there is a one-to-one mapping between χ and N . We calibrate a parameter using an endogenous variable as the input.

- By this approach, we can avoid solving a system of nonlinear equations for endogenous variables (Even though Dynare can solve it numerically)

Calibration

- To parameterize and solve the model numerically, we use a calibration methodology.
- We assign parameter values based on either long-run steady-state relationship or moments from other studies such as microeconomic evidence.
 - $\alpha = 0.33$: consistent with the fact that labor share is about $2/3$ in the U.S.
 - $\beta = 0.99$: the annual interest rate is $\frac{1}{\beta} - 1 = 4\%$.
 - $\delta = 0.025$: the annual depreciation rate is about 10%.
 - $N = 0.33$: households work 8 out of 24 hours a day.
 - Given N and other parameter values, we can pin down $\chi = 1.75$ and all other steady-state values.

An example with Dynare

- We solve and estimate the basic RBC model using Dynare.
- We set the parameter values

$$\alpha = 0.33, \beta = 0.99, \delta = 0.025, \chi = 1.75,$$

$$\rho = 0.95, \sigma = 0.01$$

which implies $N = 0.33$.

- We then solve the model using Dynare by log-linearization and obtain simulated data.

Log-linearization by Dynare

- We use a change of variable $y_t = \ln x_t$, and Taylor expansion $f(x_t) = f(e^{y_t}) = 0$ around the steady state.

$$\begin{aligned} f(e^{y_t}) &\approx f(e^y) + f'(e^y)e^y(y_t - y) \\ \Leftrightarrow f(x_t) &\approx f(x) + f'(x)x(\ln x_t - \ln x) \end{aligned}$$

- Dynare computes the deviation from the steady state as the output of `stoch_simul`

$$\hat{x}_t = \ln x_t / x = \ln x_t - \ln x$$

Note: Dynare cannot deal with a variable if its steady state is zero. Thus, we use a change of variable

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{z}_t &= \exp z_t \\ \Leftrightarrow z_t &= \ln \tilde{z}_t\end{aligned}$$

If the steady state of z_t is 0, that of \tilde{z}_t is 1

Let $A_t = \exp a_t = e^{a_t} \Leftrightarrow a_t = \ln A_t$. Then

$$Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha$$

$$\ln A_{t+1} = \rho_A \ln A_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}^A$$

Or,

$$Y_t = e^{a_t} K_t^\alpha$$

$$a_{t+1} = \rho_A a_t + \varepsilon_{t+1}^A$$

Dynare cannot deal with the latter! ($a = 0$ at the steady state)

Dynare code: rbcdata.mod

```
var ly lc lk li lh lw Rk z;  
varexo e;  
parameters beta delta chi alpha rho;
```

```
[param,ss] = calibration;
```

```
alpha = param(1);  
beta = param(2);  
delta = param(3);  
chi = param(4);  
rho = 0.95;  
sigma = 0.01;
```

- First we define variables and set parameters.
- As a separated file, **Calibration.m** sets the parameters using the steady state conditions.

model;

```
(1/exp(lc)) = beta*(1/exp(lc(+1)))*(1+alpha...  
*(exp(lk)^(alpha-1))*exp(z(+1))*exp(lh(+1))^(1-alpha)-delta);  
chi*exp(lc)/(1-exp(lh)) = exp(lw);  
exp(lw) = exp(z)*(1-alpha)*exp(lk(-1))^alpha*exp(lh)^(-alpha);  
exp(lc)+exp(li) = exp(ly);  
exp(ly) = exp(z)*(exp(lk(-1))^alpha)*(exp(lh))^(1-alpha);  
exp(li) = exp(lk)-(1-delta)*exp(lk(-1));  
exp(Rk) = alpha*exp(ly)/exp(lk(-1));  
z = rho*z(-1)+e;
```

end;

- Then we input model equations.
- We set $\tilde{X}_t = \ln X_t$ so that $X_t = e^{\tilde{X}_t}$

```
initval;
```

```
lk = log(ss(1));
```

```
lc = log(ss(2));
```

```
lh = log(ss(3));
```

```
li = log(ss(4));
```

```
ly = log(ss(5));
```

```
lw=log(ss(6));
```

```
Rk=log(ss(7));
```

```
ly_l = ly-lh;
```

```
z = 0;
```

```
end;
```

```
steady;
```

- We solve for the steady state values numerically.
- Initial values are given so that we find the solution more likely.

```
check;
```

```
shocks;
```

```
var e = sigma^2;
```

```
end;
```

```
stoch_simul(periods=1000, order = 1);
```

```
datatomfile('simuldataRBC',[]);
```

- Check the Blanchard-Khan condition holds and the REE solution is unique.
- Finally, we simulate the model for 1,000 periods and save the simulated data.

Appendix

Notes on Inverse Gamma (Ingvar Strid)

- There are two representations of the inverse Gamma distribution.
- The inverse Gamma-2 distribution is based on the variance

$$\sigma^2 \sim IG_2(s, \nu)$$

with density function

$$p(\sigma^2 | \nu, s) = C_g^{-1} \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) (\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}(\nu+2)} e^{-\frac{s}{2\sigma^2}}$$

where $C_g \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) = \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \left(\frac{2}{s} \right)^{\frac{\nu}{2}}$.

Notes on Inverse Gamma (Ingvar Strid)

- The inverse Gamma-1 distribution is based on the standard deviation

$$\sigma \sim IG_2(s, \nu)$$

The density function can be obtained by change-of variables. If $Y = g(X) = X^{1/2}$, the density of Y is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(y) &= \left| \frac{d}{dy} (g^{-1}(y)) \right| f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \\ &= 2y \times f_X(g^{-1}(y)) \end{aligned}$$

Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} p(\sigma|\nu, s) &= 2\sigma \times C_g^{-1} \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) (\sigma^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}(\nu+2)} e^{-\frac{s}{2\sigma^2}} \\ &= 2C_g^{-1} \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) \sigma^{-\nu-1} e^{-\frac{s}{2\sigma^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Notes on Inverse Gamma (Ingvar Strid)

The log density is

$$\ln p(\sigma|s, \nu) = \ln(2) - \ln \Gamma\left(\frac{\nu}{2}\right) - \frac{\nu}{2} \ln\left(\frac{2}{s}\right) - (\nu + 1) \ln(\sigma) - \frac{s}{2\sigma^2}$$

- By setting $s = ba^2$ and $\nu = b$, we have the one in HS.

Notes on Inverse Gamma (Ingvar Strid)

- In Wikipedia, the inverse Gamma-2 distribution of $x = \sigma^2$ is alternatively parameterized as

$$p(x|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{-(\alpha+1)} e^{-\frac{\beta}{x}}$$

- By setting $\alpha = \frac{\nu}{2}$ and $\beta = s/2$, we get

$$p(x|s, \nu) = C_g \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) x^{-\frac{1}{2}(\nu+2)} e^{-\frac{s}{2x}}$$

where $C_g \left(\frac{\nu}{2}, \frac{2}{s} \right) = \Gamma \left(\frac{\nu}{2} \right) \left(\frac{2}{s} \right)^{\frac{\nu}{2}}$.