# Solving DSGE models <br> Macro II - Fluctuations - ENSAE, 2023-2024 

Pablo Winant

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## Introduction

What is the main specificity of economic modeling? In (macro)economics, we model the behaviour of economic agents by specifying:
$>$ their objective

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\max _{c_{t}} E_{t} \sum_{s \geq t} \beta^{s} U\left(c_{s}\right)
$$

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\max \pi_{t}
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their constraints (budget constraint, econ. environment...)

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their constraints (budget constraint, econ. environment...)
This has important implications:
macro models are forward looking

- macro models need to be solved

In many cases, there is not closed form for the solution -> we need numerical techniques

## Dynare

- 1996: Michel Juillard created an opensource software to solve DSGE models
- It has been widely adopted:
- early version in Gauss
then Matlab/Octave/Scilab
- latest version in Julia


Figure 1: Michel Juillard

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## DSGE Models in institutions

Nowadays most DSGE models built in institutions have a Dynare version (IMF/GIMF, EC/Quest, ECB/, NYFed/FRBNY)
they are usually based on the midsize model from Smets \& Wouters (10 equations)

- but have grown up a lot (»100 equations)


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Institutions (led by researchers) are (slowly) diversifying their model

- Computational General Equilibrium Models
- Agent-based
- Semi-structural models
- Heterogenous Agents Models


## Solving a model

## Model

A very concise representation of a model

$$
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[f\left(y_{t+1}, y_{t}, y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)\right]=0
$$

The problem:

- $y_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ : the vector of endogenous variables
> $\epsilon_{t} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_{e}}$ : the vector of exogenous variables
- we assume that $\epsilon_{t}$ is a zero-mean gaussian process
$>f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}:$ the model equations

The solution:

- $g$ such that

$$
\forall t, y_{t}=g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)
$$

## The timing of the equations

- Tip

In dynare the model equations are coded in the model; ... ; end; block.

New information arrives with the innovations $\epsilon_{t}$.
At date $t$, the information set is spanned by
$\mathcal{F}_{t}=\mathcal{F}\left(\cdots, \epsilon_{t-3}, \epsilon_{t-2}, \epsilon_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)$
By convention an endogenous variable has a subscript $t$ if it is known first at date $t$.

## Example

## The timing of equations

Using Dynare's timing conventions:

- Write the production function in the RBC

Write the law of motion for capital $k$, with a depreciation rate $\delta$ and investment $i$
when is capital known?
when is investment known?

- Add a multiplicative investment efficiency shock $\chi_{t}$. Assume it is an $A R 1$ driven by innovation $\eta_{t}$ and autocorrelation $\rho_{\chi}$


## Steady-state

The deterministic steady-state satisfies:

$$
f(\bar{y}, \bar{y}, \bar{y}, 0)=0
$$

Often, there is a closed-form solution.
Otherwise, one must resort to a numerical solver to solve

$$
\bar{y} \rightarrow f(\bar{y}, \bar{y}, \bar{y}, 0)
$$

9 Tip
In dynare the steady-state values are provided in the steadystate_model; ... ; end; block. One can check they are correct using the check; statement.
To find numerically the steady-state: steady;

## The implicit system

Replacing the solution

$$
y_{t}=g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)
$$

in the system

$$
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[f\left(y_{t+1}, y_{t}, y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)\right]=0
$$

we obtain:

$$
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[f\left(g\left(g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right), \epsilon_{t+1}\right), g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right), y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)\right]=0
$$

It is an equation defining implicitly the function $g()$

## The state-space

$$
\mathbb{E}_{t}\left[f\left(g\left(g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right), \epsilon_{t+1}\right), g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right), y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)\right]=0
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In this expression, $y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}$ is the state-space.

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$$

In this expression, $y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}$ is the state-space.
Dropping the time subscripts, the equation must be satisfied for any realization of $(y, \epsilon)$

$$
\forall(y, \epsilon) \Phi(g)(y, \epsilon)=\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon^{\prime}}\left[f\left(g\left(g(y, \epsilon), \epsilon^{\prime}\right), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon\right)\right]=0
$$

It is a functional equation $\Phi(g)=0$

## Expected shocks

First order approximation:
$>$ Assume $\left|y_{t}-\bar{y}\right| \ll 1,|\epsilon| \ll 1,\left|\epsilon^{\prime}\right| \ll 1$
Perform a Taylor expansion with respect to future shock:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon^{\prime}}\left[f\left(g\left(g(y, \epsilon), \epsilon^{\prime}\right), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon\right)\right] \\
=\quad \mathbb{E}_{\epsilon^{\prime}}[f(g(g(y, \epsilon), 0), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon)] \\
\approx \quad+\mathbb{E}_{\epsilon^{\prime}}\left[f_{y_{t+1}}^{\prime}(g(g(y, \epsilon), 0), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon) g_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \epsilon^{\prime}\right]+o\left(\epsilon^{\prime}\right) \\
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$$

This uses the fact that $\mathbb{E}\left[\epsilon^{\prime}\right]=0$.
At first order, expected shocks play no role.
To capture precautionary behaviour (like risk premia), we would need to increase the approximation order.

## First order perturbation

We are left with the system:

$$
F(y, \epsilon)=f(g(g(y, \epsilon), 0), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon)=0
$$

We can now use a variant of the implicit function theorem to recover a first approximation of $g$ as:

$$
g(y, \epsilon)=\bar{y}+g_{y}^{\prime}(y-\bar{y})+g_{e}^{\prime} \epsilon_{t}
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$$

We can obtain the unknown quantities $g_{y}^{\prime}$, and $g_{e}^{\prime}$ using the method of undeterminate coefficients:

Plug the first approximation into the system and write the conditions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F_{y}^{\prime}(\bar{y}, 0)=0 \\
& F_{\epsilon}^{\prime}(\bar{y}, 0)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

## Computing $g_{y}^{\prime}$

Recall the system:

$$
F(y, \epsilon)=f(g(g(y, 0), \epsilon), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon)=0
$$

We have

$$
F_{y}^{\prime}(\bar{y}, 0)=f_{y_{t+1}}^{\prime} g_{y}^{\prime} g_{y}^{\prime}+f_{y_{t}}^{\prime} g_{y}^{\prime}+f_{y_{t-1}}^{\prime}=0
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This is a specific Riccatti equation

$$
A X^{2}+B X+C
$$

where $A, B, C$ and $X=g_{y}^{\prime}$ are square matrices $\in \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$

## First Order Deterministic Model

Let's pause a minute to observe the first order deterministic model:

$$
A X^{2}+B X+C
$$

From our intuition in dimension 1, we know there must be multiple solutions
how do we find them?
D how do we select the right ones?
I the absence of shocks the dynamics of the model are given by

$$
y_{t}=X y_{t-1}
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What is the condition for the model to be stationary?

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What is the condition for the model to be stationary?
-> the biggest eigenvalue of $X$ should be smaller than 1

## Multiplicity of solution

It is possible to show that the system is associated with $2 n$ generalized eigenvalues:

$$
\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \leq \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{2 n}\right|
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For each choice $C$ of $n$ eigenvalues $(|C|=n)$, a specific recursive solution $X_{C}$ can be constructed. It has eigenvalues $C$.

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This yields at least $\binom{2 n}{n}$ different combinations.
A model is well defined when there is exactly one solution that is non divergent.

This is equivalent to:

$$
\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \leq \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{n}\right| \leq 1<\left|\lambda_{n+1}\right| \leq \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{2 n}\right|
$$

## Example 1

Forward looking inflation:

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\pi_{t}=\alpha \pi_{t+1}
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with $\alpha<1$.
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The uniaue stable solution is $\pi_{t}=0 \pi_{t}$,

## Example 2

Debt accumulation equation by a rational agent:

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b_{t+1}-\left(1+\frac{1}{\beta}\right) b_{t}+\frac{1}{\beta} b_{t-1}=0
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Is it well-defined?
Two generalized eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}=1<\lambda_{2}=\frac{1}{\beta}$
The unique non-diverging solution is $b_{t}=b_{t-1}$.
it is a unit-root: any initial deviation in $b_{t-1}$ has persistent effects

## Example 3

Productivity process:

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z_{t}=\rho z_{t-1}
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$z_{t+1}$.
To see why consider the system associated with eigenvalues $m$ and $\rho$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& z_{t+1}-(m+\rho) z_{t}+m \rho z_{t-1}=0 \\
& \frac{1}{m} z_{t+1}-\left(1+\frac{\rho}{m}\right) z_{t}+\rho z_{t-1}=0
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Which corresponds to the initial model when $m=\infty$
The generalized eigenvalues are $\lambda_{1}=\rho \leq 1<\lambda_{2}=\infty$
More generally, any variable that does not appear in $t+1$ creates one infinite generalized eigenvalue.

## A criterium for well-definedness

Looking again at the list of eigenvalues we set aside the infinite ones.

The model is well specified iff we can sort the eigenvalues as:

$$
\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \leq \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{n}\right| \leq 1<\left|\lambda_{n+1}\right| \leq \cdots\left|\lambda_{n+k}\right| \leq \underbrace{\left|\lambda_{n+k+1}\right| \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{2 n}\right|}_{\text {infinite eigenvalues }}
$$

i Blanchard-Kahn criterium
The model satisfies the Blanchard-Kahn criterium if the number of eigenvalues greater than one, is exactly equal to the number of variables appearing in $t+1$.
In that case the model is well-defined.

## Computing the solution

There are several classical methods to compute the solution to the algebraic Riccatti equation:

$$
A X^{2}+B X+C=0
$$

> qz decomposition
traditionnally used in the DSGE literature since Chris Sims

- a little bit unintuitive
- cyclic reduction
- new default in dynare, more adequate for big models
$>$ linear time iteration of @sec:linear_time_iteration
- conceptually very simple


## Computing $g_{e}^{\prime}$

Now we have $g_{y}^{\prime}$, how do we get $g_{e}^{\prime}$ ?
Recall:

$$
F(y, \epsilon)=f(g(g(y, \epsilon), 0), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon)=0
$$

We have

$$
F_{e}^{\prime}(\bar{y}, 0)=f_{y_{t+1}}^{\prime} g_{y}^{\prime} g_{e}^{\prime}+f_{y_{t}}^{\prime} g_{e}^{\prime}+f_{\epsilon_{t}}^{\prime}=0
$$

Now this is easy:

$$
g_{e}^{\prime}=-\left(f_{y_{t+1}}^{\prime} g_{y}^{\prime}+f_{y_{t}}^{\prime}\right)^{-1} f_{\epsilon_{t}}^{\prime}=0
$$

## The model solution

The result of the model solution:

$$
y_{t}=g_{y} y_{t-1}+g_{e} \epsilon_{t}
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It is an AR1, driven by exogenous shock $\epsilon_{t}$.

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- impulse response functions
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Because it is a well known structure, one can investigate the model with

- impulse response functions
stochastic simulations
Then to compare the model to the data we compute
- implied moments:
- covariances, autocorrelation
- likelihood

Optimizing the fit to the data is called model estimation

## Conclusion

## What can you do with the solution

The solution of a model found by Dynare has an especially simple form: an AR1

- $y_{t}=X y_{t-1}+Y \epsilon_{t}$
where the covariances $\Sigma$ of $\epsilon_{t}$ can be chosen by the modeler


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## Going Further

Taking the model to the data with Dynare

- "estimate" the model: compute the likelihood of a solution and maximize it by choosing the right parameters
"identify" shocks in the data
Other functions
- higher order approximation
(noninear) perfect foresight simulations
- ramsey plan
$\rightarrow$ discretionary policy
$>$...


## Coming Next



Many models

## Appendix: Linear Time Iteration

## Linear Time Iteration

Recall the system to solve:

$$
F(y, \epsilon)=f(g(g(y, \epsilon), 0), g(y, \epsilon), y, \epsilon)=0
$$

but now assume the decision rules today and tomorrow are different:
today: $y_{t}=g\left(y_{t-1}, \epsilon_{t}\right)=\bar{y}+X y_{t-1}+g_{y} \epsilon_{t}$
$>$ tomorrow: $y_{t+1}=\tilde{g}\left(y_{t}, \epsilon_{t+1}\right)=\bar{y}+\tilde{X} y_{t-1}+\tilde{g}_{y} \epsilon_{t}$
Then the Ricatti equation is written:

$$
A \tilde{X} X+B X+C=0
$$

## Linear Time Iteration (2)

The linear time iteration algorithm consists in solving the decision rule $X$ today as a function of decision rule tomorrow $\tilde{X}$.

This corresponds to the simple formula:

$$
X=-(A \tilde{X}+B)^{-1} C
$$

And the full algorithm can be described as:
$\checkmark$ choose $X_{0}$
$\checkmark$ for any $X_{n}$, compute $X_{n+1}=T\left(X_{n}\right)=-\left(A X_{n}+B\right)^{-1} C$

- repeat until convergence


## Linear Time Iteration (3)

It can be shown that, starting from a random initial guess, the linear time-iteration algorithm converges to the solution $X$ with the smallest modulus:

$$
\underbrace{\left|\lambda_{1}\right| \leq \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{n}\right|}_{\text {Selected eigenvalues }} \leq\left|\lambda_{n+1}\right| \cdots \leq\left|\lambda_{2 n}\right|
$$

In other words, it finds the right solution when the model is well specified.

How do you check it is well specified?
> $\lambda_{n}$ is the biggest eigenvalue of solution $X$
$>$ what about $\lambda_{n+1}$ ?

- $\frac{1}{\lambda_{n+1}}$ is the biggest eigenvalue of $(A X+B)^{-1} A$


## Linear Time Iteration (4)

Define

$$
M(\lambda)=A \lambda^{2}+B \lambda+C
$$

For any solution $X, M(\lambda)$ can be factorized as: ${ }^{1}$

$$
M(\lambda)=(\lambda A+A X+B)(\lambda I-X)
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{det}(M(\lambda))=\underbrace{\operatorname{det}(\lambda A+A X+B)}_{Q(\lambda)} \operatorname{det}(\lambda I-X)
$$

By construction $Q(\lambda)$ is a polynomial whose roots are those that are not selected by the solution i.e. $\Lambda \quad S p(X)$.
${ }^{1}$ Special case of Bezout theorem. Easy to check in that case

## Linear Time Iteration (5)

For $\lambda \neq 0$ we have:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\lambda \in S p\left((A X+B)^{-1} A\right) \\
\left.\Leftrightarrow \operatorname{det}\left((A X+B)^{-1}\right) A-I \lambda\right)=0 \\
\Leftrightarrow \operatorname{det}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda} A-I(A X+B)\right)=0 \\
\Leftrightarrow Q\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)=0 \\
\Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} \in G \quad S p(X)
\end{gathered}
$$

In words, $(A X+B)^{-1}$ contains all the eigenvalues that have been rejected by the selection of $X$.

In particular, $\left.\rho\left((A X+B)^{-1}\right) A\right)=1 / \min (G \quad S p(X))$

