

# ECON-GA 1025 Macroeconomic Theory I

## Lecture 6

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# Today's Lecture

- Markov chains continued
- deterministic linear dynamics
- vector autoregressions

# Markov Chains: Probabilistic Properties

Let  $\Pi$  be a stochastic kernel on  $X$  and let  $x, y$  be states

We say that  $y$  is **accessible** from  $x$  if  $x = y$  or

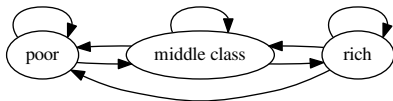
$$\exists k \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } \Pi^k(x, y) > 0$$

**Equivalent:** Accessible in the induced directed graph

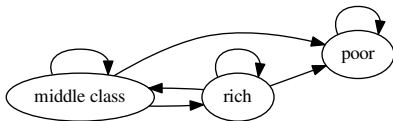
A stochastic kernel  $\Pi$  on  $X$  is called **irreducible** if every state is accessible from any other

**Equivalent:** The induced directed graph is strongly connected

Irreducible:



Not irreducible:



# Aperiodicity

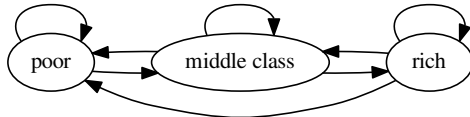
Let  $\Pi$  be a stochastic kernel on  $X$

State  $x \in X$  is called **aperiodic** under  $\Pi$  if

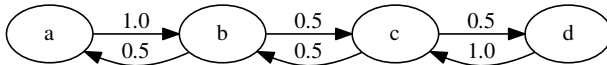
$$\exists i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } k \geq i \implies \Pi^k(x, x) > 0$$

A stochastic kernel  $\Pi$  on  $X$  is called **aperiodic** if every state in  $X$  is aperiodic under  $\Pi$

Aperiodic?

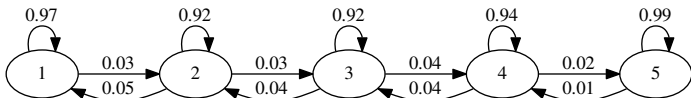


Aperiodic?



# Stability of Markov Chains

Recall the distributions generated by Quah's model



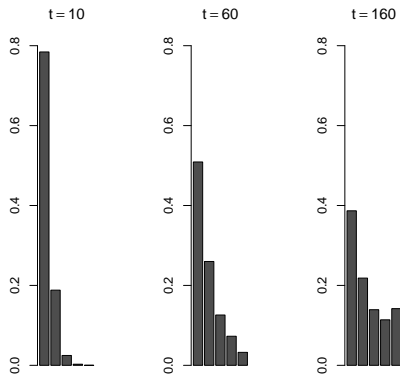


Figure:  $X_0 = 1$



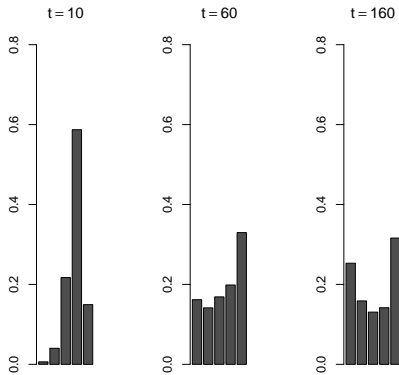


Figure:  $X_0 = 4$

What happens when  $t \rightarrow \infty$ ?

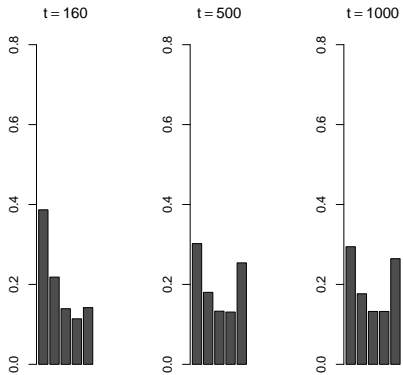


Figure:  $X_0 = 1$

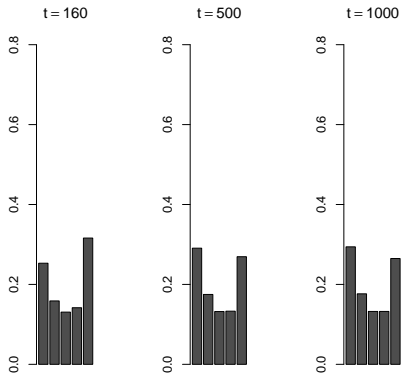


Figure:  $X_0 = 4$

At  $t = 1000$ , the distributions are almost the same for both starting points

This suggests we are observing a form of stability

- is  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  globally stable?

Not all stochastic kernels are globally stable

**Example.** Let  $X = \{0, 1\}$  and consider the periodic Markov chain

$$\Pi = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Ex.** Show  $\psi^* = (0.5, 0.5)$  is stationary for  $\Pi$

**Ex.** Show that

$$\delta_0 \Pi^t = \begin{cases} \delta_1 & \text{if } t \text{ is odd} \\ \delta_0 & \text{if } t \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Conclude that global stability fails

# Proving Stability

**Fact.** The operator  $\Pi$  is always nonexpansive:

$$\|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_1 \leq \|\varphi - \psi\|_1 \quad \forall \varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{P}(X)$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_1 &= \sum_y \left| \sum_x \Pi(x, y) [\varphi(x) - \psi(x)] \right| \\ &\leq \sum_y \sum_x \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| \\ &= \sum_x \sum_y \Pi(x, y) |\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| = \|\varphi - \psi\|_1 \end{aligned}$$

With some more conditions we might be able to apply this result:

**Theorem.** If  $(M, \rho)$  is a compact metric space and  $T: M \rightarrow M$  is a strict contraction, then  $(M, T)$  is globally stable

- **strict contraction** means  $\rho(Tx, Ty) < \rho(x, y)$  when  $x \neq y$
- a variation on the Banach CMT

$X$  is finite, so  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  is compact

We just need to boost nonexpansiveness to strict contractivity



**Lemma.** If  $\Pi(x, y) > 0$  for all  $x, y$ , then  $\Pi$  is a strict contraction on  $\mathcal{P}(X)$  under the metric  $d_1$

The proof uses two lemmas:

**Fact.** If  $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{P}(X)$  and  $\varphi \neq \psi$ , then

$$\exists x, x' \in X \text{ such that } \varphi(x) > \psi(x) \text{ and } \varphi(x') < \psi(x')$$

**Fact.** If  $g \in \mathbb{R}^X$  and  $\exists x, x' \in X$  s.t.  $g(x) > 0$  and  $g(x') < 0$ , then

$$\left| \sum_{y \in X} g(y) \right| < \sum_{y \in X} |g(y)|$$

**Ex.** Prove both

Under the conditions of the theorem, if  $\varphi \neq \psi$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\|\varphi\Pi - \psi\Pi\|_1 &= \sum_y \left| \sum_x \Pi(x, y)\varphi(x) - \sum_x \Pi(x, y)\psi(x) \right| \\ &= \sum_y \left| \sum_x \Pi(x, y)[\varphi(x) - \psi(x)] \right| \\ &< \sum_y \sum_x |\Pi(x, y)[\varphi(x) - \psi(x)]| \\ &= \sum_y \sum_x \Pi(x, y)|\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| \\ &= \sum_x \sum_y \Pi(x, y)|\varphi(x) - \psi(x)| = \|\varphi - \psi\|_1\end{aligned}$$

We have prove the following:

**Proposition.** If  $\Pi \gg 0$ , then  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

But this condition is rather strict

- Hamilton's matrix fails it
- Quah's matrix fails it

$$\Pi_Q = \begin{pmatrix} 0.97 & 0.03 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.05 & 0.92 & 0.03 & 0.00 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.04 & 0.92 & 0.04 & 0.00 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.04 & 0.94 & 0.02 \\ 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.00 & 0.01 & 0.99 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let's see if we can do better

Preliminary observation:

**Fact.** If  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi^i)$  is globally stable for some  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is also globally stable

Recall: If

1. dynamical system  $(M, g^i)$  is globally stable for some  $i \in \mathbb{N}$
2.  $g$  is continuous at the fixed point of  $g^i$

then  $(M, g)$  is also globally stable

Moreover,  $\psi \mapsto \psi\Pi$  is everywhere continuous as already discussed

**Theorem.** If  $X$  is finite and  $\Pi$  is both aperiodic and irreducible, then  $\Pi$  is globally stable

Proof: It suffices to show that

$$\forall x, y \in X \times X, \quad \exists i_{x,y} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } k \geq i_{x,y} \implies \Pi^k(x, y) > 0$$

Indeed, if this statement holds, then

$$i := \max\{i_{x,y}\} \implies \Pi^i(x, y) > 0 \quad \text{for all } (x, y) \in X \times X$$

Implies that

- $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi^i)$  is globally stable
- and hence  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

So fix  $x, y \in X \times X$  and let's try to show that

$$\exists i = i_{x,y} \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } k \geq i \implies \Pi^k(x, y) > 0$$

Since  $\Pi$  is irreducible,  $\exists j \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\Pi^j(x, y) > 0$

Since  $\Pi$  is aperiodic,  $\exists m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

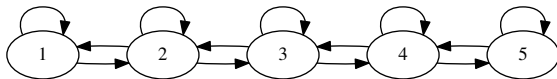
$$\ell \geq m \implies \Pi^\ell(y, y) > 0$$

Picking  $\ell \geq m$  and applying the Chapman–Kolmogorov equation, we have

$$\Pi^{j+\ell}(x, y) = \sum_{z \in X} \Pi^j(x, z) \Pi^\ell(z, y) \geq \Pi^j(x, y) \Pi^\ell(y, y) > 0$$

QED

Example. Quah's stochastic kernel is both irreducible and aperiodic



And therefore globally stable

Same with Hamilton's business cycle model





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```
In [1]: import quantecon as qe
```

```
In [2]: P = [[0.971 , 0.029 , 0],  
...:       [0.145 , 0.778 , 0.077],  
...:       [0 , 0.508 , 0.492]]
```

```
In [3]: mc = qe.MarkovChain(P)
```

```
In [4]: mc.is_aperiodic
```

```
Out[4]: True
```

```
In [5]: mc.is_irreducible
```

```
Out[5]: True
```

```
In [6]: mc.stationary_distributions
```

```
Out[6]: array([[ 0.8128 ,  0.16256,  0.02464]])
```

## A Weaker Set of Conditions

Let  $\Pi$  be a stochastic kernel on (finite set)  $X$

**Theorem.** The following statements are equivalent:

1.  $\Pi^k$  has a strictly positive column for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$
2. For any  $x, x' \in X$ , there exists a  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and a  $y \in X$  such that

$$\Pi^k(x, y) > 0 \text{ and } \Pi^k(x', y) > 0$$

3.  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

## Intuition for sufficiency

We know a stationary distribution exists, just need to prove convergence

Suppose that, for any  $x, x' \in X$ , there exists a  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and a  $y \in X$  such that

$$\Pi^k(x, y) > 0 \text{ and } \Pi^k(x', y) > 0$$

Wherever we are now, we can meet up again

Hence no one is stuck at a local attractor

Initial conditions don't matter in the long run

Hence  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

## Application: Inventory Dynamics

Let  $X_t$  = inventory of a product, obeys

$$X_{t+1} = \begin{cases} (X_t - D_{t+1})^+ & \text{if } X_t > s \\ (S - D_{t+1})^+ & \text{if } X_t \leq s \end{cases}$$

Assume  $\{D_t\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim}$  the geometric distribution, say

A Markov chain on  $X := \{0, 1, \dots, S\}$  with kernel

$$\Pi(x, y) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{P}\{(x - D_{t+1})^+ = y\} & \text{if } x > s \\ \mathbb{P}\{(S - D_{t+1})^+ = y\} & \text{if } x \leq s \end{cases}$$

**Proposition** The pair  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

Proof: Suppose that  $D_{t+1} \geq S$

Then

$$0 \leq X_{t+1} \leq (S - D_{t+1})^+ = 0$$

Hence  $\mathbb{P}\{D_{t+1} \geq S\} > 0$  implies  $\Pi(x, 0) > 0$  for all  $x$

Moreover  $\mathbb{P}\{D_{t+1} \geq S\} > 0$  holds for the geometric distribution

Hence  $(\mathcal{P}(X), \Pi)$  is globally stable

# The Law of Large Numbers

Fix  $h \in \mathbb{R}^X$  and let  $\{X_t\}$  be a Markov chain generated by  $\Pi$

**Theorem.** If  $X$  is finite and  $\Pi$  is globally stable with stationary distribution  $\psi^*$ , then

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n h(X_t) = \sum_{x \in X} h(x) \psi^*(x) \right\} = 1$$

Intuition:  $\{X_t\}$  “almost” identically distributed for large  $t$

Also, stability means that initial conditions die out — a form of long run independence

An approximation of the IID property used in the classical LLN

LLN provides a new **interpretation** for the stationary distribution

Using the LLN with  $h(x) = \mathbb{1}\{x = y\}$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n \mathbb{1}\{X_t = y\} \rightarrow \sum_{x \in X} \mathbb{1}\{x = y\} \psi^*(x) = \psi^*(y)$$

Turning this around,

$$\psi^*(y) \approx \text{fraction of time that } \{X_t\} \text{ spends in state } y$$

This is **not** always valid **unless** the chain in question is stable

# Deterministic Linear Models

Linear vector valued dynamic models — workhorse of macro

- Often used as a building block for more complex models
- Even nonlinear models can often be mapped into linear systems (at cost of higher dimensionality)

Our generic (deterministic) linear model specification on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b \quad (1)$$

where

- $x_t$  is  $n \times 1$ , a vector of **state variables**
- $A$  is  $n \times n$  and  $b$  is  $n \times 1$



Maps to the dynamical system  $(\mathbb{R}^n, g)$  with  $g(x) = Ax + b$

When is it stable?

**Example.** Consider  $n = 1$  and  $g(x) = ax + b$  for scalars  $a$  and  $b$

If  $a \neq 1$ , then  $g$  has a unique fixed point  $x^* = b/(1 - a)$

Moreover, iterating backwards,

$$x_t = a^t x_0 + b \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} a^i$$

- Converges to  $b/(1 - a)$  whenever  $|a| < 1$
- Hence  $(\mathbb{R}, g)$  is globally stable whenever  $|a| < 1$

In the general  $n$  dimensional case,

$$x_t = Ax_{t-1} + b = A(Ax_{t-2} + b) + b = A^2x_{t-2} + Ab + b = \dots$$

Leads to

$$x_t = g^t(x_0) = A^t x_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} A^i b \quad (2)$$

Does this sequence converge as  $t$  gets large?

Does  $g$  have a fixed point?

What is the correct generalization of the condition  $|a| < 1$  from the scalar case?

**Fact.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then  $(\mathbb{R}^n, g)$  is globally stable with steady state

$$x^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b \quad (3)$$

Proof:  $r(A) < 1 \implies (I - A)^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i$

Hence  $x^*$  in (3) is the unique solution to  $x = Ax + b$

Regarding stability, given  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\|x_t - y_t\| = \|A^t(x_0 - y_0)\| \leq \|A^t\| \cdot \|x_0 - y_0\|$$

- But  $\|A^t\| \rightarrow 0$ , so  $\|x_t - y_t\| \rightarrow 0$
- Taking  $y_0 = x^*$  completes the proof

Example. The Samuelson **multiplier–accelerator model**

Consumption obeys

$$C_t = \alpha Y_{t-1} + \gamma$$

Aggregate investment increases with output growth:

$$I_t = \beta(Y_{t-1} - Y_{t-2})$$

Letting  $G$  be a constant level of government spending and using the accounting identity

$$Y_t = C_t + I_t + G$$

Combining equations gives

$$Y_t = (\alpha + \beta)Y_{t-1} - \beta Y_{t-2} + G + \gamma \quad (4)$$

This is **not** a first order system

But we **can** map it to the first order framework by taking

$$x_t := \begin{pmatrix} Y_t \\ Y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha + \beta & -\beta \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad b := \begin{pmatrix} G + \gamma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can recover (4) from the first entry in

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b$$

Stability depends on  $r(A)$

Step 1: Solve  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$

Letting  $\rho_1 := a + b$  and  $\rho_2 := -b$ , the two solutions are the roots of

$$\lambda^2 - \rho_1\lambda - \rho_2 = 0$$

Hence

$$\lambda_i = \frac{\rho_1 \pm \sqrt{\rho_1^2 + 4\rho_2}}{2} \quad i = 1, 2$$

If both are interior to the unit circle in  $\mathbb{C}$ , then  $r(A) < 1$

In the next fig,  $\alpha = 0.6$  and  $\beta = 0.7$ , so  $r(A) \approx 0.837$

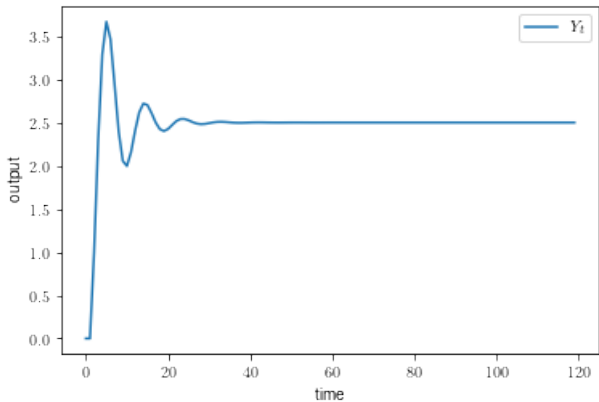


Figure: Time series of output

# Adding Stochastic Components

Now we wish to add shocks to the model — get closer to data

Before that let's review some building blocks:

- Conditional expectations
- Martingales
- Martingale difference sequences



Let  $Y$  and  $\mathcal{G} := \{X_1, \dots, X_k\}$  be random variables with finite second moments

Problem: Predict  $Y$  given  $\mathcal{G}$

- In this context,  $\mathcal{G}$  is called an **information set**

Thus, we seek a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\hat{Y} := f(X_1, \dots, X_k) \text{ is a good predictor of } Y$$

“Good” defined to mean that  $\mathbb{E}[(\hat{Y} - Y)^2]$  is small

Thus, we seek  $\hat{f}$  that solves

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}[(Y - f(X_1, \dots, X_k))^2]$$

**Fact.** There exists an (almost everywhere) unique  $\hat{f}$  in the set of Borel measurable functions from  $\mathbb{R}^k$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that solves

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathbb{E}[(Y - f(X_1, \dots, X_k))^2]$$

We call the resulting variable

$$\hat{Y} := \hat{f}(X_1, \dots, X_k)$$

the **conditional expectation** of  $Y$  given  $\mathcal{G}$

Common alternative notation:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y := \mathbb{E}[Y | \mathcal{G}] := \mathbb{E}[Y | X_1, \dots, X_k]$$

The definition extends to RVs with finite **first** moment — details omitted

We say that  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -**measurable** if there exists a Borel measurable function  $f$  such that  $Y = f(X_1, \dots, X_k)$

- Meaning:  $Y$  is perfectly predictable given the data in  $\mathcal{G}$

**Fact.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables with finite first moment, let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be scalars, and let  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  be information sets

The following properties hold:

1.  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}}[\alpha X + \beta Y] = \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} X + \beta \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y$
2. If  $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{H}$ , then  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}}[\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{H}} Y] = \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y$  and  $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y] = \mathbb{E} Y$
3. If  $Y$  is independent of the variables in  $\mathcal{G}$ , then  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y = \mathbb{E} Y$
4. If  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, then  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y = Y$
5. If  $X$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, then  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}}[XY] = X \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y$

Let

- $Y = (Y_1, \dots, Y_m)$  be a vector
- $\mathcal{G}$  be an information set

The **(vector valued) conditional expectation** of  $Y$  given  $\mathcal{G}$  is just the vector containing the conditional expectation of each element

Thus, written as column vectors,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} \begin{pmatrix} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ Y_m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{G}} Y_m \end{pmatrix}$$

(Same as ordinary unconditional expectation for vectors)

# Martingales

A **filtration** is an increasing sequence of information sets  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$

- Increasing in set inclusion, so that  $\mathcal{G}_t \subset \mathcal{G}_{t+1}$  for all  $t \geq 0$

**Example.** If  $\{\tilde{\zeta}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  is a stochastic process, then the **filtration generated by**  $\{\tilde{\zeta}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$  is

$$\mathcal{G}_t = \{\tilde{\zeta}_0, \dots, \tilde{\zeta}_t\} \quad t \geq 0$$

A stochastic process  $\{\eta_t\}$  is said to be **adapted** to filtration  $\mathcal{G}_t$  if  $\eta_t$  is  $\mathcal{G}_t$ -measurable for all  $t$

- time  $t$  value is revealed by time  $t$  information.

A stochastic process  $\{w_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  taking values in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called a **martingale** with respect to a filtration  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$  if

- $\mathbb{E}\|w_t\|_1 < \infty$  and
- $\{w_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  is adapted to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$
- and

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] = w_t, \quad \forall t \geq 1$$

**Example.** Consider a scalar **random walk**  $\{w_t\}$  defined by

$$w_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \tilde{\zeta}_{i,r} \quad \{\tilde{\zeta}_t\} \text{ is IID with } \mathbb{E}[\tilde{\zeta}_t] = 0$$

This process is a martingale with respect to the filtration generated by  $\{\tilde{\zeta}_t\}$ , since

1. adapted
2. satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] = \mathbb{E}[w_t + \tilde{\zeta}_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] = \mathbb{E}[w_t | \mathcal{G}_t] + \mathbb{E}[\tilde{\zeta}_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t]$$

The martingale property now follows (why?)

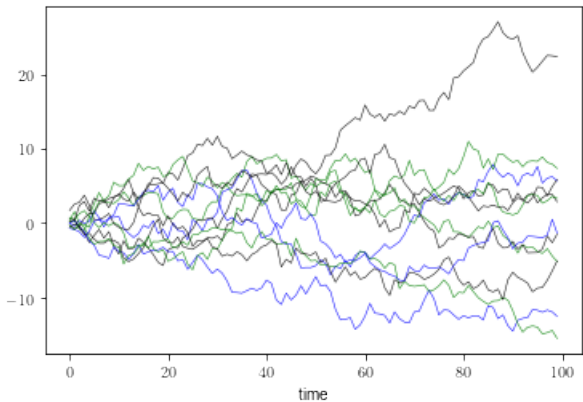


Figure: Twelve realizations of a random walk



A stochastic process  $\{w_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called a **martingale difference sequence** (MDS) with respect to a filtration  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$  if

- $\mathbb{E}\|w_t\|_1 < \infty$  and
- $\{w_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  is adapted to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$
- and

$$\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} \mid \mathcal{G}_t] = 0, \quad \forall t \geq 1$$

**Example.** If  $\{v_t\}$  is a martingale with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$  then  $w_t := v_t - v_{t-1}$  is an MDS with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$

Proof: For any  $t$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[w_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] &= \mathbb{E}[v_{t+1} - v_t | \mathcal{G}_t] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[v_{t+1} | \mathcal{G}_t] - \mathbb{E}[v_t | \mathcal{G}_t] = v_t - v_t = 0\end{aligned}$$

**Example.** If  $\{v_t\}$  is IID with zero mean and  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$  is the filtration generated by  $\{v_t\}$ , then  $\{v_t\}$  is an MDS with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$

**Ex.** Check it

An MDS is additive white noise:

**Fact.** If  $\{w_t\}$  is an MDS with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[w_t] = 0 \text{ for all } t \geq 0$$

**Ex.** Check it

**Fact.** If  $\{w_t\}$  is an MDS with respect to  $\{\mathcal{G}_t\}$ , then  $w_s$  and  $w_t$  are **orthogonal**, in the sense that

$$\mathbb{E}[w_s w_t'] = 0 \text{ whenever } s \neq t$$

**Ex.** Check it

# Linear Vector Systems with Noise

Next consider

- $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\zeta_{t+1}$  with  $x_0$  given
- $\mathcal{G}_t = \{x_0, \zeta_0, \zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_t\}$
- $\{\zeta_t\}_{t \geq 1}$  is an  $\mathbb{R}^j$ -valued MDS with respect to  $\mathcal{G}_t$  satisfying

$$\mathbb{E}[\zeta_t \zeta_t'] = I$$

An example of a **vector autoregressive (VAR) process**

What are the dynamics of the state process  $\{x_t\}$ ?

This is a multi-layered question so let's start with an easy component

What is the time path of the first two moments?

These are

- $\mu_t := \mathbb{E}[x_t]$
- $\Sigma_t := \text{var}[x_t] := \mathbb{E}[(x_t - \mu_t)(x_t - \mu_t)']$

# Dynamics of the Mean

First, regarding  $\mu_t$ , take expectations over

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\zeta_{t+1}$$

to get

$$\mu_{t+1} = A\mu_t + b$$

**Fact.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then  $\{\mu_t\}$  converges to the unique fixed point

$$\mu^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b$$

regardless of  $\mu_0$

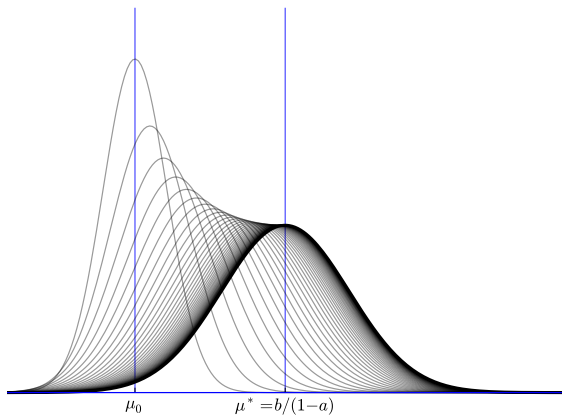


Figure: Convergence of  $\mu_t$  to  $\mu^*$  in the scalar model

# Dynamics of the Variance

Consider again

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1}$$

We want a similar law of motion for  $\Sigma_t := \text{var}[x_t]$

We will use the fact that  $\mathbb{E}[x_t \xi'_{t+1}] = 0$

**Ex.** Show this follows from the assumptions above



By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}[x_{t+1}] &= \mathbb{E}[(x_{t+1} - \mu_{t+1})(x_{t+1} - \mu_{t+1})'] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[(A(x_t - \mu_t) + C\tilde{\xi}_{t+1})(A(x_t - \mu_t) + C\tilde{\xi}_{t+1})']\end{aligned}$$

The right hand side is equal to

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[A(x_t - \mu_t)(x_t - \mu_t)'A'] &+ \mathbb{E}[A(x_t - \mu_t)\tilde{\xi}_{t+1}'C'] \\ &+ \mathbb{E}[C\tilde{\xi}_{t+1}(x_t - \mu_t)'A'] &+ \mathbb{E}[C\tilde{\xi}_{t+1}\tilde{\xi}_{t+1}'C']\end{aligned}$$

Some further manipulations (check) lead to

$$\Sigma_{t+1} = A\Sigma_t A' + CC'$$

To repeat

$$\Sigma_{t+1} = g(\Sigma_t) \quad \text{where} \quad S(\Sigma) := A\Sigma A' + CC'$$

Variance is a trajectory of the dynamical system  $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), S)$

A steady state of this system is a  $\Sigma$  satisfying

$$\Sigma = A\Sigma A' + CC'$$

**Fact.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then  $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), S)$  is **globally stable**

- distance is generated by the (spectral) norm on  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$

In the proof, we use the following extension of Banach's fixed point theorem

**Theorem.** Let  $T$  be a self-mapping on complete metric space  $M$  such that

1.  $T^k$  is a Banach contraction mapping on  $M$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$
2.  $T$  is continuous on  $M$

Then  $(M, T)$  is globally stable

**Ex.** Verify this based on our results for dynamical systems

Consider the **discrete Lyapunov equation**

$$\Sigma = A\Sigma A' + M$$

- all matrices are in  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$  and  $\Sigma$  is the unknown

Given  $A$  and  $M$ , let  $\ell$  be the **Lyapunov operator**

$$\ell(\Sigma) = A\Sigma A' + M$$

**Ex.** Show that  $\ell$  is continuous on  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$

**Fact.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then  $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), \ell)$  is globally stable

Proof: Suffices to show that  $\ell^k$  is a Banach contraction on  $(\mathcal{M}(n \times n), \|\cdot\|)$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$

From the definition,

$$\ell^k(\Sigma) = A^k \Sigma (A^k)' + A^{k-1} M (A^{k-1})' + \dots + M$$

Hence, for any  $\Sigma, \Lambda$  in  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| &= \left\| A^k \Sigma (A^k)' - A^k \Lambda (A^k)' \right\| \\ &= \left\| A^k (\Sigma - \Lambda) (A^k)' \right\| \\ &\leq \|A^k\| \cdot \|\Sigma - \Lambda\| \cdot \|(A^k)'\| \end{aligned}$$

Transposes don't change norms, so  $\|(A^k)'\| = \|A^k\|$  and hence

$$\|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| \leq \|A^k\|^2 \|\Sigma - \Lambda\|$$

Since  $r(A) < 1$ , we can find  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lambda < 1$  such that

$$\|\ell^k(\Sigma) - \ell^k(\Lambda)\| \leq \lambda \|\Sigma - \Lambda\| \quad \text{for all } \Sigma, \Lambda \in \mathcal{M}(n \times m)$$

Now apply Banach contraction mapping theorem

Note: Gives an algorithm for computing  $\Sigma^*$

## Application: Log Output

Kydland and Prescott (1980) study detrended log output via

$$y_{t+1} = \alpha_1 y_t + \alpha_2 y_{t-1} + \epsilon_{t+1}, \quad \{\epsilon\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0, \sigma) \quad (5)$$

We can map it to our VAR framework  $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\zeta_{t+1}$  via

$$x_t := \begin{pmatrix} y_t \\ y_{t-1} \end{pmatrix}, \quad A := \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C := \begin{pmatrix} \sigma \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

along with  $\zeta_t := \frac{1}{\sigma}\epsilon_t$

Estimated values:  $\hat{\alpha}_1 = 1.386$  and  $\hat{\alpha}_2 = -0.477$

Implies  $r(A) \approx 0.75$

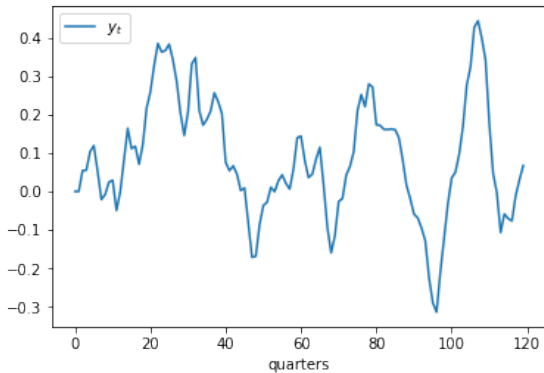


Figure: Time series of detrended log output



# Distribution Dynamics: The Gaussian Case

We have obtained the moment dynamics of

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\xi_{t+1} \quad (6)$$

They were

- $g^t(\mu_0)$  where  $g(\mu) := A\mu + b$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- $S^t(\Sigma_0)$  where  $S(\Sigma) := A'\Sigma A + CC'$  on  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$

Now we want to learn about the distributions themselves

That is, we wish to track  $\{\psi_t\}$  where

$$\psi_t := \text{the distribution of } x_t$$

This is straightforward if the model is Gaussian

- Gaussian distributions described by their first two moments

We can give a complete analytical description of the marginal distributions  $\{\psi_t\}$

Works because

- Linear combinations of multivariate Gaussians are Gaussian
- Our law of motion  $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + b + C\tilde{\zeta}_{t+1}$  is linear

A scalar random variable  $z$  has a (univariate) **standard normal distribution** if

$$z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \varphi \text{ where } \varphi(s) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-s^2}{2}\right) \quad (s \in \mathbb{R})$$

We write  $z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} N(0, 1)$ .

Scalar random variable  $x$  has **normal distribution**  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  for some  $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\sigma \geq 0$  if

$$x \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} \mu + \sigma z, \text{ for some } z \text{ with } z \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} N(0, 1)$$

Note that we allow  $\sigma = 0$ , in which case  $x$  is a point mass on  $\mu$

A random vector  $x$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is called **multivariate Gaussian** with distribution  $N(\mu, \Sigma)$  if

- $\mu$  is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- $\Sigma$  is a positive semidefinite element of  $\mathcal{M}(n \times n)$  and
- $h'x \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} N(h'\mu, h'\Sigma h)$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  for any  $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$

**If**  $\Sigma$  is positive definite, then  $x$  has density

$$\varphi(s) = \det(2\pi\Sigma)^{-1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(s - \mu)'\Sigma^{-1}(s - \mu)\right)$$

Question: If  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are normally distributed in  $\mathbb{R}$ , is  $x = (x_1, x_2)$  multivariate Gaussian?

To shift to the Gaussian case we assume that

- $\{\xi_t\}_{t \geq 1} \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} N(0, I)$  and
- $x_0 \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} N(\mu_0, \Sigma_0)$
- $\mu_0$  is any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^j$  and  $\Sigma_0$  is positive semidefinite

The random vector  $x_0$  is assumed to be independent of  $\{\xi_t\}$

Under these Gaussian conditions we have

$$x_t \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} N(g^t(\mu_0), S^t(\Sigma_0)) \text{ for all } t \geq 0 \quad (7)$$

**Ex.** Check normality using the definition of multivariate Gaussians

**Proposition.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then under the Gaussian conditions we have

$$\psi_t \xrightarrow{w} N(\mu^*, \Sigma^*) \quad (t \rightarrow \infty) \quad (8)$$

where

- $\xrightarrow{w}$  means **weak convergence** (convergence “in distribution”)
- $\psi_t \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} x_t$
- $\mu^* = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A^i b$  and
- $\Sigma^*$  is the unique fixed point of  $\Sigma := A'\Sigma A + CC'$

Equivalent to (8): the characteristic function of  $N(\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$  converges pointwise to that of  $N(\mu^*, \Sigma^*)$

Proof: We must show that, at any fixed  $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \exp \left( is' \mu_t - \frac{1}{2} s' \Sigma_t s \right) = \exp \left( is' \mu^* - \frac{1}{2} s' \Sigma^* s \right) \quad (9)$$

Fixing such an  $s$ , to prove (9) it suffices to show that

$$s' \mu_t \rightarrow s' \mu^* \quad \text{and} \quad s' \Sigma_t s \rightarrow s' \Sigma^* s \quad \text{in } \mathbb{R} \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty \quad (10)$$

From the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality we have

$$|s' \mu_t - s' \mu^*| = |s' (\mu_t - \mu^*)| \leq \|s\| \cdot \|\mu_t - \mu^*\| \rightarrow 0$$

**Ex.** Prove the second part of (10)

**Example.** In the **AR(1)** case,  $\{x_t\}$  is real valued and obeys

$$x_{t+1} = ax_t + b + \sigma\epsilon_{t+1}, \quad \{\epsilon_t\} \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} N(0,1) \quad (11)$$

In this case  $r(A) = |a|$

The stable case  $|a| < 1$  is called **mean-reverting**

The distribution of  $x_t$  converges weakly to

$$\psi^* := N\left(\frac{b}{1-a}, \frac{\sigma^2}{1-a^2}\right) \quad (12)$$



# Dynamical systems formulation

Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be the set of all Gaussian distributions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$

- topology = weak convergence

Let  $\Pi$  be the operator on  $\mathcal{G}$  defined by

$$\psi := N(\mu, \Sigma) \mapsto \psi\Pi := N(g(\mu), S(\Sigma))$$

Then

- $\Pi$  is a self-mapping on  $\mathcal{G}$
- $(\mathcal{G}, \Pi)$  is globally stable whenever  $r(A) < 1$

## Distribution Dynamics: The General Density Case

Let's drop the Gaussian assumptions, replace them with

- $\{\zeta_t\}$  is IID on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with density  $\varphi$
- $C$  is  $n \times n$  and nonsingular

Under these assumptions, each  $\psi_t$  will be a density

To prove this we use

**Fact.** If  $\zeta$  has density  $\varphi$  and  $C$  is nonsingular, then  $y = d + C\zeta$  has density

$$p(y) = \varphi \left( C^{-1}(y - d) \right) |\det C|^{-1} \quad (13)$$

The density of  $x_{t+1}$  conditional on  $x_t = x$  is therefore

$$\pi(x, y) = \varphi \left( C^{-1}(y - Ax - b) \right) |\det C|^{-1}$$

The law of total probability tells us that, for random variables  $(x, y)$  with densities,

$$p(y) = \int p(y | x)p(x) dx$$

Hence the densities  $\psi_t$  and  $\psi_{t+1}$  are connected via

$$\psi_{t+1}(y) = |\det C|^{-1} \int \varphi \left( C^{-1}(y - Ax - b) \right) \psi_t(x) dx$$

Suppose we introduce an operator  $\Pi$  from the set of densities  $\mathcal{D}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to itself via

$$(\psi\Pi)(y) = \int \pi(x, y)\psi(x) dx \quad (14)$$

Then our law of motion for marginals

$$\psi_{t+1}(y) = |\det C|^{-1} \int \varphi \left( C^{-1}(y - Ax - b) \right) \psi_t(x) dx$$

becomes

$$\psi_{t+1} = \psi_t\Pi$$

- a concise description of distribution dynamics

Comments:

- In  $\psi_{t+1} = \psi_t \Pi$  we write the argument to the left following tradition (see Meyn and Tweedie, 2009)
- The set of densities  $\mathcal{D}$  is endowed with the topology of weak convergence

**Proposition.** If  $r(A) < 1$ , then  $(\mathcal{D}, \Pi)$  is globally stable

Moreover, if  $h$  is any function such that  $\int |h(x)|\psi^*(x) dx$  is finite, then

$$\mathbb{P} \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^n h(x_t) = \int h(x)\psi^*(x) dx \right\} = 1$$