

Intro 3b — New Classical model

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Description

In this example, we solve a New Classical model similar to the one in [King and Rebelo \(1999\)](#). We also demonstrate how to compare a model's theoretical predictions under different parameter values using IRFs.

Remarks and examples

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Remarks are presented under the following headings:

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The model

In this model, output, consumption, investment, employment, and other variables are driven by state variables linked to production and demand. The model is similar to the one in [King and Rebelo \(1999\)](#) and is referred to as a real business cycle model.

The nonlinear form of the model is

$$\frac{1}{C_t} = \beta E_t \left\{ \frac{1}{C_{t+1}} (1 + R_{t+1} - \delta) \right\} \quad (1)$$

$$H_t^\eta = \frac{W_t}{C_t} \quad (2)$$

$$Y_t = C_t + X_t + G_t \quad (3)$$

$$Y_t = K_t^\alpha (Z_t H_t)^{1-\alpha} \quad (4)$$

$$W_t = (1 - \alpha) \frac{Y_t}{H_t} \quad (5)$$

$$R_t = \alpha \frac{Y_t}{K_t} \quad (6)$$

$$K_{t+1} = (1 - \delta)K_t + X_t \quad (7)$$

Equation (1) specifies consumption C_t as a function of expected future consumption and the expected future interest rate $E_t(R_{t+1})$. Equation (2) specifies labor hours H_t as a function of the wage W_t and consumption; it is a labor supply equation. Equation (3) is the national income accounting identity for a closed economy, specifying output Y_t as the sum of consumption, investment X_t , and government spending G_t . Equation (4) is a production function that specifies output as a function of labor input H_t , capital input K_t , and productivity Z_t . Equations (5) and (6) specify labor demand and capital demand, respectively. Equation (7) specifies the equation for capital accumulation. The model is completed when we add state transition equations for Z_t and G_t . These state transition equations are conventionally specified after the model has been linearized.

The linearized form of the model is

$$\begin{aligned}c_t &= E_t(c_{t+1}) - (1 - \beta + \beta\delta)E_t(r_{t+1}) \\ \eta h_t &= w_t - c_t \\ \phi_1 x_t &= y_t - \phi_2 c_t - g_t \\ y_t &= (1 - \alpha)(z_t + h_t) + \alpha k_t \\ w_t &= y_t - h_t \\ r_t &= y_t - k_t \\ k_{t+1} &= \delta x_t + (1 - \delta)k_t \\ z_{t+1} &= \rho_z z_t + \epsilon_{t+1} \\ g_{t+1} &= \rho_g g_t + \xi_{t+1}\end{aligned}$$

The model has six control variables and three state variables. Two of the state variables, z_{t+1} and g_{t+1} , are modeled as first-order autoregressive processes. The state equation for k_{t+1} depends on the current value of a control variable, namely, x_t .

Solving the model

The `solve` option of `dsge` places the model in state-space form without estimating parameters; it is similar to `iterate(0)` but is faster because it does not calculate standard errors. Using `solve` for different parameter values of your model is a useful way to explore the model's theoretical properties.

The parameter values used here are similar to those used in [King and Rebelo \(1999\)](#). Each has an interpretation. `(1 - alpha)` is labor's share of national income. `delta` is the depreciation rate of capital. `eta` is the slope of the labor supply curve. `phi1` and `phi2` are share parameters related to investment's share of national income and consumption's share of national income, respectively. `rhoz` and `rhog` are autoregressive parameters on the state variables.


```
. estat transition
Transition matrix of state variables
```

		Delta-method		z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]
		Coef.	Std. Err.			
F.k	k	.9256785
	z	.1078282
	g	-.1070547
F.z	k	0	(omitted)	.	.	.
	z	.8
	g	2.22e-16
F.g	k	0	(omitted)	.	.	.
	z	0	(omitted)	.	.	.
	g	.3

Note: Standard errors reported as missing for constrained transition matrix values.

The value of the state variables z and g in the next period depends only on their value in the current period, but the value of the capital stock k in the next period depends on the current value of all three state variables. This feature means that, for example, a shock to the z state variable has two effects: it increases future values of z , because z is autoregressive, but it also increases future values of k . Interrelationships among the state variables can generate more interesting patterns in the IRFs than the AR(1) dynamics that we saw in [DSGE] Intro 3a.

Impulse responses

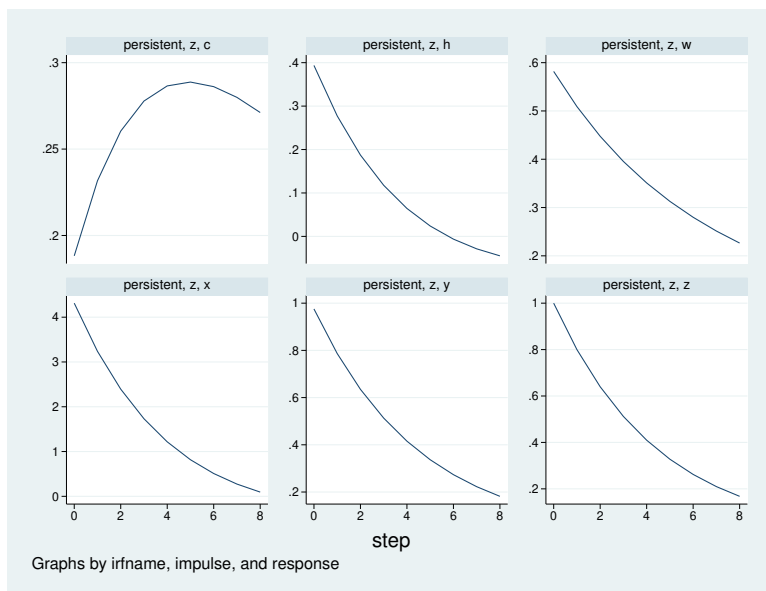
One way to compare two parameter sets is to graph the impulse response of model variables to a shock under each parameter set. We first set the impulse–response file with `irf set` and then add impulse responses named `persistent` to the file with `irf create`.

```
. irf set rbcirf
(file rbcirf.irf created)
(file rbcirf.irf now active)

. irf create persistent
(file rbcirf.irf updated)
```

The response of model variables to a shock to z is graphed by typing

```
. irf graph irf, irf(persistent) impulse(z) response(y c x h w z) noci
> byopts(yrescale)
```



Each graph is labeled with the IRF name, the impulse variable, and the response variable. For instance, the top-left graph shows the response of consumption to a shock to the z_t state variable. The bottom-right graph shows the response of the state variable z_t itself. The state is persistent, which is not surprising: we set the autoregressive parameter in the z_t equation to 0.8.

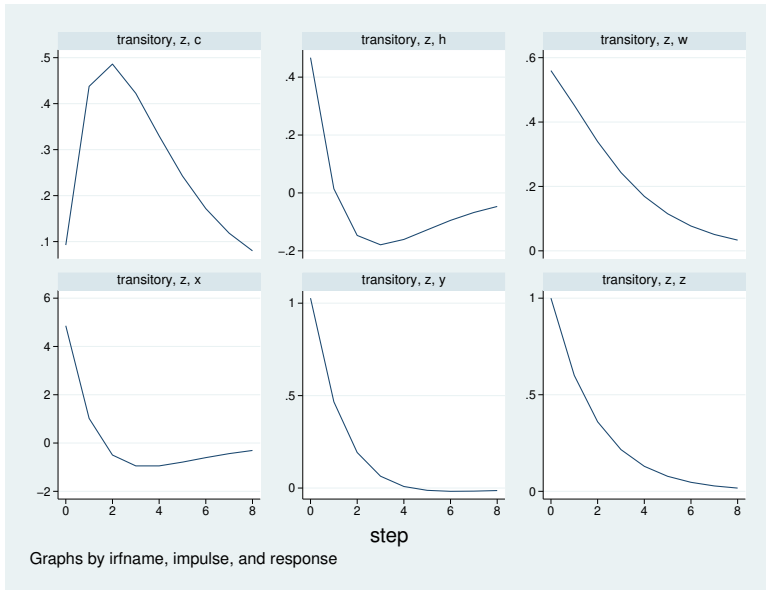
In the top-left graph, we see that consumption c rises over time before returning to steady state. The time unit is quarters, so a value of about 0.27, 4 periods after the shock, indicates that consumption is 0.27% above its steady-state value one year after the shock. Hours worked h are shown in the top center graph and rise initially before falling below steady state. The real wage w , output y , and investment x all rise.

Sensitivity analysis

The responses of variables to a shock to z are persistent. Some variables, like consumption and the wage, show dynamics beyond the simple autoregressive behavior of z itself. To evaluate the role of persistence in z on the persistence of other model variables, we rerun the `dsge` command. This time, we set the persistence of z to a smaller value of 0.6.

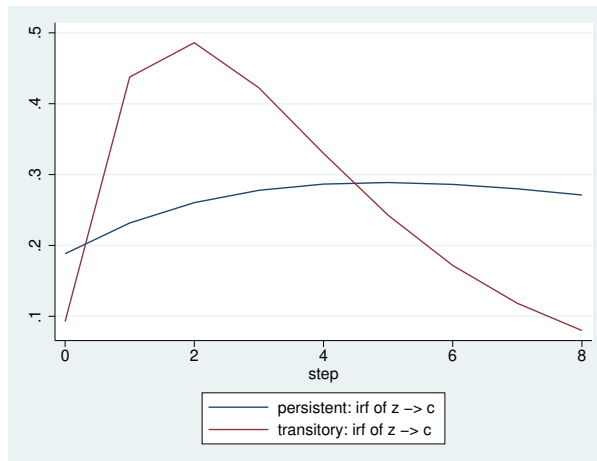
and graph them.

```
. irf graph irf, irf(transitory) impulse(z) response(y c x h w z) noci
> byopts(yrescale)
```



Model variables are much less persistent. We can use `irf ograph` to overlay the IRF for a variable under the two calibrations. This way we can view the differences across calibrations directly.

```
. irf ograph (persistent z c irf) (transitory z c irf)
```



When the shock itself is persistent, consumption responds persistently. When the shock is transitory, consumption returns to its steady-state value quickly.

Reference

King, R. G., and S. T. Rebelo. 1999. Resuscitating real business cycles. In *Handbook of Macroeconomics: Volume 1A*, ed. J. B. Taylor and M. Woodford, 927–1007. New York: Elsevier.

Also see

[DSGE] [Intro 1](#) — Introduction to DSGEs

[DSGE] [Intro 3a](#) — New Keynesian model

[DSGE] [Intro 3c](#) — Financial frictions model

[DSGE] [Intro 3e](#) — Nonlinear New Classical model

[DSGE] [dsge](#) — Linear dynamic stochastic general equilibrium models

[DSGE] [dsge postestimation](#) — Postestimation tools for dsge