

Nonconvex Factor Adjustments and the Business Cycle: Do Nonlinearities Matter?

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1 Introduction

We evaluate the aggregate implications of discrete and occasional capital adjustment in an equilibrium business cycle model. In our model economy, nonconvex costs of capital adjustment vary across establishments and lead to periods of investment inactivity. Thus, the model generates a distribution of plants over capital. This distribution evolves over the business cycle in response to changes in productivity which affect not only the levels of investment undertaken by active plants but also the number of plants that are actually engaged in actively adjusting their capital stock. Our objective is to evaluate the contribution of such distributional changes to the aggregate business cycle.

Recent studies of establishment level investment provide evidence of lumpy capital adjustment. Examining a 17-year sample of large, continuing U.S. manufacturing plants, Doms and Dunne (1999) ...nd that typically more than half of a plant's cumulative investment occurs in a single episode. Long periods of relatively small changes are interrupted by investment spikes. This has been widely interpreted as evidence of (S,s) type investment decisions at the establishment level. Perhaps due to non-convexities in the costs of capital adjustment, plants invest only when their actual capital stock deviates sufficiently far from a target value. Supporting evidence is provided by Cooper, Haltiwanger and Power (1999) who ...nd that the probability of an establishment undergoing a large investment episode is rising in the time since its last such episode.

Exploring the aggregate implications of establishment level lumpy investment, Caballero, Engel and Haltiwanger (1995) focus on the effect of interaction between the rising adjustment hazard, the probability of capital adjustment as a function of an establishment's gap between actual and target capital stocks, and the resultant distribution of capital.¹ They argue that shifts in the hazard, in response to large shocks to demand or productivity, magnify fluctuations in aggregate investment demand and cause a time-varying elasticity of aggregate investment with respect to shocks.

¹See Caballero (1999) for a survey.

This emphasis on aggregate nonlinearities arising through micro-level nonconvexities is also found in Cooper, Haltiwanger and Power (1999) who stress that movements in the distribution of capital are important in explaining unusually large deviations in total investment. Moreover, Caballero and Engel (1999) note that “the nonlinear model we estimate has the potential to generate brisker expansions than its linear counterparts. It is also this feature that largely explains its enhanced forecasting properties.” (p. 785, paragraph 1)

These and related papers, all of which abstract from the effect of equilibrium price changes, suggest a potentially important role for lumpy investment in propagating the business cycle. However, when Thomas (1999) evaluates the effects of nonconvex capital adjustment costs in an equilibrium business cycle model, she finds that standard price movements offset the tendency for large changes in the distribution of capital. Solving the model using a system of linear difference equations, she finds that aggregate quantity responses are virtually unaffected by the presence of lumpy investment patterns.²

Noting the above emphasis on aggregate nonlinearities, we re-evaluate the equilibrium lumpy investment model of Thomas (1999) using a solution method designed to preserve such phenomenon. Our first step is to fix prices and confirm that the introduction of nonconvex capital adjustment costs does indeed imply aggregate nonlinearities in the model. Next, we explore whether these nonlinearities in aggregate investment demand survive equilibrium price determination. Finally, we analyze the aggregate implications of lumpy investment in the context of an equilibrium business cycle model containing an additional source of cyclical fluctuations. In addition to the conventional exogenous changes in total factor productivity, we allow for movements in the productivity of investment itself. The recent work of Christiano and Fisher (1998) and Greenwood, Hercowitz and Krusell (2000) suggests that such investment-specific productivity shocks are an important source of cyclical fluctuations. Since, in the context of a model of lumpy investment, transitory movements in the benefit from investment expenditures are more likely to shift the adjustment hazard than

²Veracierto (1998), examining investment irreversibilities, finds similar results.

shocks to total factor productivity, we explore their contribution to the generation of aggregate nonlinearities.

The economies we study involve state vectors that are sufficiently large to make unmodified non-linear solution methods impractical. Therefore, we approximate the aggregate state vector, which involves a distribution of plants across capital, with a smaller object and solve the model using a method that is closely related to the approaches of Den Haan (1996,1997) and Krusell and Smith (1997,1998). In our context, this method itself presents information on the importance of changes in the distribution for the overall business cycle. Despite such efforts, our results provide little support for the importance of discrete and occasional investment for the business cycle. This finding holds for both the original model of Thomas (1999) and the model with separate shocks to output and investment goods production.

2 The Model

The model, taken from Thomas (1999), is an extension of the basic equilibrium business cycle model which introduces costs associated with undertaking capital adjustment. In order to match the observed empirical distribution of investment rates across establishments, we assume a large number of production units, each of which faces time-varying costs of undertaking capital adjustment. Within any period, these costs are fixed at the plant-level, being independent of the level of capital adjustment. Given differences in fixed costs across production units, at any point in time, some plants will adjust their capital while others will not. As a result, there is heterogeneity across production units, and the model is generally characterized by a distribution of plants over capital.³

At any point in time, a production unit is identified by its capital stock, k , and its current fixed cost of capital adjustment, $\kappa \in [0; B]$. This fixed cost is denominated in hours of labor and drawn from a time-invariant distribution $G(\kappa)$ common across

³Given that most available data on establishment level capital adjustment focuses on continuing plants, we abstract from entry and exit by assuming a constant unit measure of production units.

plants. Capital and labor, n , are the sole factors of production, and output at the plant is determined by

$$y = zF(k; n),$$

where z is stochastic total factor productivity. For convenience, we assume that productivity follows a Markov Chain, $z \in \{z_1, \dots, z_J\}$, where

$$\Pr\{z^0 = z_j | z = z_i\} = \varphi_{ij} \geq 0,$$

and $\sum_{j=1}^J \varphi_{ij} = 1$ for each $i = 1, \dots, J$. Note that both z and F are common across plants; the only source of heterogeneity in production arises from differences in plant level capital.

After production, the plant must decide whether to absorb its current cost in which event it is able to adjust capital. However, it may avoid this cost by setting investment to 0 and allowing capital to passively depreciate. We denote investment by i , and, measuring adjustment costs in units of output using the wage rate, ω , summarize the salient features of this choice below.^{4;5}

$i \in 0,$	cost = ωi ,	$k^0 = (1 - \delta)k + i$
$i = 0,$	cost = 0,	$k^0 = (1 - \delta)k$

Let capital be defined upon $K \subset \mathbb{R}_+$ and let $\pi : K \rightarrow [0; 1]$ be a Borel measure that represents the distribution of plants over capital in the current period. The aggregate state of the economy is described by $(z; \pi)$, and the distribution of plants evolves over time according to a mapping, π^0 , which varies with the aggregate state of the economy, $\pi^0 = \pi^0(z; \pi)$. We will define this mapping below.

In addition to the aggregate state, an establishment is affected by its individual level of capital and adjustment cost. Let $v^1(k; \omega; z; \pi)$ represent the expected dis-

⁴Primes indicate one-period-ahead values.

⁵All variables measured in units of output are detrended by the trend level of technology, which grows exogenously at the rate $\omega^1 = \omega \mu > 1$, where μ is capital's share of output. For details, see King and Rebelo (1999).

counted value of a plant having current capital k and fixed adjustment cost α when the aggregate state of the economy is $(z; \pi)$.

We state the dynamic optimization problem for the typical plant using a functional equation, which is defined by (1) and (2) below. First we define the beginning of period expected value of a plant, prior to the realization of its fixed cost draw, but after the determination of $(k; z; \pi)$.

$$v^0(k; z; \pi) = \int_0^1 v^1(k; \alpha; z; \pi) G(d\alpha) \quad (1)$$

Assume that $d_j(z; \pi)$ is the discount factor applied by plants to their next period expected discounted value if productivity at that time is z_j and current productivity is z_i . (Except where necessary for clarity, we suppress the index for current productivity below.) Their profit maximization problem, which takes as given the evolution of the distribution of plants over capital, $\pi^0 = \pi(z; \pi)$, is then described by the following functional equation.

$$v^1(k; \alpha; z; \pi) = \max_n zF(k; n) - \alpha(z; \pi)n + (1 - \delta)k \quad (2)$$

$$+ \max_{k^0} \int_0^1 \alpha! (z; \pi) + \max_{k^0} \int_0^1 \alpha! \alpha^0 k^0 + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{2} d_{ij} d_j(z; \pi) v^0(k^0; z_j; \pi^0) A_j;$$

$$- \int_0^1 (1 - \delta) k + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{2} d_{ij} d_j(z; \pi) v^0\left(\frac{(1 - \delta)k}{\alpha}; z_j; \pi^0\right);$$

Let $n^f(k; z; \pi)$ describe the common choice of employment by all type k plants and $k^f(k; \alpha; z; \pi)$ the choice of capital next period by plants of type k with adjustment cost α .

The economy is populated by a unit measure of identical households. Households' wealth is held as one-period shares in plants, which we denote using the measure μ . They must determine their current consumption, C , hours worked, N , as well as what number of new shares, $\mu^0(k)$ to purchase at price $\frac{1}{2}(k; z; \pi)$. Their lifetime expected utility maximization problem is described below.

$$W(z; 1) = \max_{C; N; z^0} U(C; 1; N) + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{4} W^j(z; 1) \quad (3)$$

subject to

$$C + \int_K \frac{1}{2} (k; z; 1) dz^0 \cdot (z; 1) N + \int_K v^0(k; z; 1) dz$$

Let $c(z; 1)$ describe their choice of current consumption, $n^h(z; 1)$ their current allocation of time to working and $\alpha(k; z; 1)$ the quantity of shares they purchase in plants that end the current period with capital stock k :

A Recursive Competitive Equilibrium is a set of functions

$$\{ (d_j)_{j=1}^J; v^1; n^f; k^f; W; c; n^h; \alpha \}$$

such that:

1. v^1 satisfies 1 - 2 and $n^f; k^f$ are the associated policy functions for plants.
2. W satisfies 3 and $c; n^h; \alpha$ are the associated policy functions for households.
3. $\alpha(k^0; 1; z; 1) = v^0(k^0) = \int_{f(k; z; 1) k^0 = k^f(k; z; 1)} G(d) dz^0$.
4. $n^h(1; z; 1) = \int_K n^f(k; z; 1) dz + \int_0^1 J(x) k_j k^f(k; z; 1) G(d) dz^0$,
where $J(x) = 0$ if $x = 0$; $J(x) = 1$ if $x \neq 0$.
5. $c(1; z; 1) = \int_K z F(k; n^f(k; z; 1)) dz + \int_0^1 k_j k^f(k; z; 1) G(d) dz^0$

Using C and N , as given by 4 and 5, to now describe the market-clearing values of consumption and hours worked by the household, it is straightforward to show that equilibrium requires $\lambda(z; 1) = \frac{D_2 U(C; 1; N)}{D_1 U(C; 1; N)}$ and that $d_j(z; 1) = \frac{-D_1 U(C; 1; N^0)}{D_1 U(C; 1; N)}$. It is then possible to compute equilibrium by solving a single Bellman equation that combines plants' profit maximization problem with the equilibrium implications of household utility maximization. Let p denote the price plants use to value current output, where

$$p(z; 1) = D_1 U(C; 1; N), \quad (4)$$

$$! (z; 1) = \frac{D_2 U(C; 1; N)}{p(z; 1)}. \quad (5)$$

A reformulation of (2) yields an equivalent description of a plant's dynamic problem. Suppressing the arguments of the price functions,

$$V^1(k; \mu; z; 1) = \max_{\substack{n \\ 0 < n < 1}} [zF(k; n) - !n + (1 - \mu)k]p \quad (6)$$

$$+ \max_{k^0} \left[\mu k^0 p + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{2} V^0(k^0; z_j; 1) A_j \right]$$

$$- \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{2} V^0 \left(\frac{(1 - \mu)k}{\mu}; z_j; 1 \right);$$

where

$$V^0(k; z; 1) = \max_{0 < d < 1} V^1(k; \mu; z; 1) G(d). \quad (7)$$

Equations 6 and 7 will be the basis of our numerical solution of the economy. This solution exploits several results which we now derive. First, note that plants choose labor $n = n^f(k; z; 1)$ to solve

$$zD_2 F(k; n) = ! (1; z).$$

Next, we examine the capital choice of establishments undertaking active adjustment decisions. Define the value of undertaking such capital adjustment, given the second line of (6), as

$$E(z; 1) = \max_{k^0} \left[\mu k^0 p + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{1}{2} V^0(k^0; z_j; 1) A_j \right], \quad (8)$$

and note that the target capital stock which solves the maximization problem will be independent of both k and μ . Hence all plants that actively adjust their capital stock choose a common level of capital for the next period, $k^0 = k^a(z; 1)$ given by the right hand side of (8).

We now examine the determination of plants' decision to undertake capital adjustment. A plant of type k will undertake capital adjustment if its fixed adjustment cost, κ , falls below some threshold value. Let $\bar{b}_k = \bar{b}(k; z; \tau)$ describe that level of κ , given current k , which leaves a plant indifferent between capital adjustment and allowing its capital stock to passively depreciate.

$$\begin{aligned} & \int p(z; K) \bar{b}_k! (z; \tau) + E(z; \tau) \\ & = \int p(z; \tau) (1 - \delta)k + \sum_{j=1}^J \frac{\mu_j}{V^0} \frac{(1 - \delta)k}{k; z_j; \tau} \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Plants with adjustment costs at or below \bar{b}_k will adjust their capital stock. Formally, define $\bar{\kappa}(k; z; \tau) = \min\{B; \max\{0; \bar{b}_k\}\}$ so that $0 \leq \bar{\kappa}(k; z; \tau) \leq B$. Plants described by the plant-level state vector $(k; \kappa; z; \tau)$ will begin the subsequent period with capital stock given by:

$$k^0 = k^f(k; \kappa; z; \tau) = \begin{cases} k^a(z; \tau) & \text{if } \kappa \leq \bar{\kappa}(k; z; \tau), \\ \frac{(1 - \delta)k}{\delta} & \text{if } \kappa > \bar{\kappa}(k; z; \tau). \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

Given (10), we are now able to more precisely describe the evolution of the distribution of plants over capital, $\tau^0 = \tau(k; z; \tau)$. For $k \geq K$ such that $k \in k^a(z; \tau)$,

$$\tau^0(k) = \int \frac{\mu_j}{V^0} \frac{\tau^0(k; z_j; \tau)}{\delta} + \int \frac{\mu_j}{V^0} \frac{\tau^0(k; z_j; \tau)}{\delta} \quad (11)$$

while for $k \geq K$ such that $k = k^a(z; \tau)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \tau^0(k) &= \int_K^Z G[\bar{\kappa}(k; z; \tau)]^{\delta} \tau^0(k; z; \tau) dk \\ &+ \int \frac{\mu_j}{V^0} \frac{\tau^0(k; z_j; \tau)}{\delta} + \int \frac{\mu_j}{V^0} \frac{\tau^0(k; z_j; \tau)}{\delta} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

It then follows that the market clearing levels of consumption and hours, required to determine p and l using (4) and (5) are given by

$$C = \int_K z F_k(k; n^f(k; z; 1)) \int_0^1 G_k^i(k; z; 1) \phi^h \circ k^a(z; 1) \int_0^1 (1 - \alpha) k^{-1}(dk) \quad (13)$$

$$N = \int_K n^f(k; z; 1) + \int_0^1 \int_{\bar{z}(k; z; 1)} G(d) \int_0^1 (dk) \quad (14)$$

3 Model Solution

Given our focus on nonlinearities arising due to the presence of nonconvex adjustment costs, we adapt existing nonlinear solution methods to solve the model. The solution algorithm involves solving for V^0 by repeated application of the contraction mapping implied by (6) and (7), given the price functions (4) - (5).

Numerical approximation of plants' value functions is accomplished using tensor product splines. Johnson et al (1993) have found multivariate spline approximation to be relatively efficient when compared to multilinear grid approximation. These tensor product splines are multivariate functions generated as the product of univariate functions, there is one such univariate function corresponding to each argument of the value function. Each such univariate function is itself a spline constructed piecewise using a grid of values, or knots, on the space of its argument. Each piece of the spline is a polynomial, and adjacent pieces meet at the interior knot points. We use cubic splines constructed using third-order polynomials. Each univariate spline is determined as follows. (i) the spline is required to exactly equal the approximated function at each knot point, and (ii) it must be twice-continuously differentiable at each interior knot point. Two additional conditions, commonly referred to as endpoint conditions, are required to determine all 4 coefficients of each polynomial piece. We use the not-a-knot endpoint conditions that require thrice differentiability at the first and last interior knot.⁶ In using these tensor product splines, we increase

⁶Additional details on univariate splines are available in De Boor (1978) and Van Loan (2000). De Boor also provides details on implementing the multivariate splines using the B-form; however we implement these using the pp-form by developing the algorithm outlined in Johnson (1989).

the number of knots used for each variable until there is no noticeable change in the approximation.

A difficulty with using non-linear methods is that the curse of dimensionality restricts the number of arguments that are feasible. We adopt the method of Krusell and Smith (1997,1998) to approximate the state vector of the economy $(z; \mu)$, which contains a large object, the distribution of production units over capital, with a smaller object $(z; m)$ where m is a vector of elements derived from μ . For example, Krusell and Smith use statistical moments derived from the original distribution, in particular the mean and standard deviation. For our problem, we have found that it is more efficient to use a set of conditional means. Specifically, when m has I elements, they are derived by partitioning the distribution μ into I equal-measure parts and then setting $m = (m_1; \dots; m_I)$, where m_i is the mean of the i th partition. Given the discrete nature of our distribution, arising from the uniformity of target capital across adjusting plants, it follows that m_i converges monotonically to μ .

Given m_i , we assume functional forms that yield current equilibrium prices, p , and next period's proxy endogenous state, m^0 , as functions of the current state, $p = p(z; m; \hat{A}_i^p)$ and for $m^0 = \hat{p}(z; m; \hat{A}_i^m)$ where \hat{A}_i^p and \hat{A}_i^m are parameters that are determined iteratively using a procedure explained below and I indexes these iterations. For the class of utility functions we use, the wage is immediate once p is specified; hence there is no need to assume a wage function.

Given p and \hat{p} , the first step of the solution method uses $\hat{A}_i^p; \hat{A}_i^m$, having replaced μ with m in (6) - (7) and μ with \hat{p} , to solve for V^0 on each point on a grid of values for $(k; z; m)$. In the second step, we simulate the economy for T periods. At each point in time; $t = 1; \dots; T$, we record the actual distribution of plants over capital, μ_t , which is a large but finite-dimensional object in our economy.⁷ We determine m directly from this actual distribution and then use \hat{p} to specify expectations of $m^0 = \hat{p}(z; m; \hat{A}_i^m)$. This determines $\bar{p} = \sum_{j=1}^J \mu_{ij} V^0(k^0; z_j; m^0)$, and, given any arbitrary current price of output, \bar{p} , allows us to solve for $k^a(z; \mu)$ and $\bar{w}(k; z; \mu)$, as well as $n^f(k; z; \mu)$. Fur-

⁷The method is easily extended to cases where μ is countable or larger using a polynomial approximation.

thermore, this also generates \bar{y}_{t+1} through (11) - (12). The equilibrium current price of output, p , is determined through (13) as follows. p is that value which leads to plant decision rules, k^a , n^f and \bar{y} that in turn imply market-clearing levels of consumption and hours worked, for the household, such that $p = D_1 U(C; 1 - N)$. After the completion of the simulation, the resulting data, $(p_t; m_t)_{t=1}^T$ is used to re-estimate $\hat{A}_{t+1}^p; \hat{A}_{t+1}^m$ using OLS.⁸

We repeat this two-step process, first determining V^0 given $\hat{A}_1^p; \hat{A}_1^m$; next using our solution to plants' value functions to determine equilibrium decision rules over a simulation, aggregating these rules to obtain $(p_t; m_t)_{t=1}^T$, and updating \hat{A}^p and \hat{A}^m ; until these parameters converge.

The simulation step may be used to compute errors implied by the use of the set of conditional means, m , instead of \bar{y} , and the functional forms \hat{p} and \hat{p} . In each period, we compare the equilibrium price to the forecasted price and the actual values of the conditional means to their predicted values. Given any functional form, we increase the number of partitions, (the number of conditional means used to approximate the distribution of plants over capital,) until these differences are small. We also experiment with different functional forms. Below, we report these expectational errors and use them to determine I .

4 Parameter Choices

We evaluate the importance of aggregate nonlinearities arising from nonconvex capital adjustments through a series of comparisons. Specifically, we contrast the dynamic behavior of the lumpy investment economy with that present in an otherwise identical economy characterized by frictionless investment, using the nonlinear solution approach outlined above. This use of the frictionless neoclassical model as a reference model is appealing both due to its common usage in business cycle studies, and because it provides a benchmark against which to measure nonlinearities, as it has

⁸Note that the second step of our solution method, which involves simulation, does not make use of \hat{p} .

been shown to respond approximately linearly to reasonable-sized shocks.⁹ Toward our comparison, we specify identical functional forms in utility and production across models. We follow Hansen (1985) and Rogerson (1988) in assuming indivisible labor, so that the representative household's momentary utility function is linear in leisure and additively separable: $u(c; L) = \log c + s_L L$. Establishment-level production functions take a Cobb-Douglas form, $zF(k; N) = zk^\mu N^\nu$, as consistent with the observation that capital and labor shares of output have remained roughly constant in US time series.

Our solution of each model economy also requires the specification of several parameters governing preferences and technology. We fix the length of a period to correspond to one year; this allows us to use evidence on establishment-level investment in the parameterization of the adjustment cost function below. The model's parameters are selected to ensure agreement between the reference model and observed long-run values for key postwar US aggregates. In particular, we choose the mean growth rate of technological progress, ρ , to imply a 1.6 percent average annual growth rate of real per-capita output, the discount factor, β , to yield an average annual interest rate of 6.5 percent, (King and Rebelo 1999,) and the rate of capital depreciation to match an average investment-to-capital ratio of 7.6 percent (Cooley and Prescott 1995). Given these values, capital's share of output is determined such that the average capital-to-output ratio is 2.6 (Prescott 1986). Labor's share of output is consistent with direct estimates from postwar data, while the parameter governing the preference for leisure, s_L , is taken to imply an average of 20 percent of available time spent in market work (King, Plosser and Rebelo 1988).

To complete our calibration of the reference model, we first estimate parameters for a continuous shock and then assume an equivalent discretized shock process. Specifically, we assume an exogenous productivity process of the form,

$$z^0 = z^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{\epsilon^0}; \quad \epsilon^0 \sim n(0; \frac{3}{4}\sigma^2),$$

⁹This follows from Christiano (1990), who shows that the LQ approximation of Kydland and Prescott (1982) is highly accurate for this class of models.

selecting the persistence term $\frac{1}{2}$ and the variability of the log normal innovations, $\frac{3}{4}$, to be consistent with measured Solow residuals from the US economy 1953-1997, using the Stock and Watson (1999) data set. Next, we discretize this productivity process, using a grid of 5 possible shock realizations. We select this grid of values, along with the transition matrix \mathbb{P} (with typical element $\mathbb{P}_{ij} = \text{pr}(z^0 = z_j | z = z_i)$), to match the required shock persistence and variability, following a method developed by Rouwenhorst (1995).

Table 1 and equation (15) together summarize the parameter set for the reference model.

Table 1

σ	τ	\pm	μ	ρ	s_L	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
1:016	:954	:06	:325	:58	3:614	:9225	:0134

$$\begin{aligned}
 & Z = [:9328 \quad :9658 \quad 1:0000 \quad 1:0354 \quad 1:0720] & (15) \\
 & \begin{matrix} 2 & & & & & 3 \\ & 0:8537 & 0:1377 & 0:0083 & 0:0002 & 0:0000 \\ & 0:0344 & 0:8579 & 0:1035 & 0:0042 & 0:0001 \\ & 0:0014 & 0:0690 & 0:8593 & 0:0690 & 0:0014 \\ & 0:0001 & 0:0042 & 0:1035 & 0:8579 & 0:0344 \\ & 0:0000 & 0:0002 & 0:0083 & 0:1377 & 0:8537 \end{matrix} \\
 & \mathbb{P} = \begin{matrix} \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \end{matrix} \end{matrix}
 \end{aligned}$$

As this set of parameters is also used for the lumpy investment model, only the properties of adjustment costs remain to be determined. We assume that adjustment costs are uniformly distributed, with cumulative distribution $G(x) = \frac{x}{B}$. The distribution's upper support, B , is selected to maximize the model's agreement with three stylized facts noted in Doms and Dunne's (1998) study of establishment-level investment: (i) In the average year, plants raising their real capital stocks by more than 30 percent, (lumpy investors,) are responsible for 25 percent of aggregate investment, (ii) these lumpy investors constitute 8 percent of plants, while (iii) 80 percent of plants are low-level investors exhibiting annual capital growth below 10 percent. Setting $B = :002$ roughly matches these observations, with lumpy investments com-

prising 27 percent of aggregate investment, and lumpy investors (low-level investors) representing 6 percent (78 percent) of plants.

5 Results

In this section, we examine the dynamic implications of establishment-level lumpy investment, with particular emphasis on aggregate nonlinearities. As indicated above, we present companion results for the frictionless investment counterpart throughout as a reference against which to isolate these effects. In some cases, results for an identically parameterized traditional partial adjustment model are also included to aid in our comparisons. This partial adjustment model is distinguished by a convex adjustment cost function, $\frac{\lambda}{2} \left(\frac{i}{k} - i^s \right)^2 k$. Here, i^s represents the economy's steady state investment-to-capital ratio, and deviations from this average investment rate entail the payment of a quadratic cost of capital adjustment. Following Kiyotaki and West (1996), we set the parameter λ governing the magnitude of this quadratic cost at $\lambda = 2.2$, which implies a steady-state elasticity of the investment-to-capital ratio to Tobin's marginal q of 5.98. In all other respects, this alternative model is identical to our reference model.

Before proceeding further, we stress one feature of steady state that will be helpful in understanding the behavior of aggregate investment demand below. An immediate and important implication of the model is the rising adjustment hazard described by Caballero, Engel and Haltiwanger (1995). It is simple to show that V^0 is increasing in k , plant level capital. It follows that

$$E(z; 1) \left(\frac{1 - i^s}{k} \right) k p + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4^j} V^0 \left(\frac{1 - i^s}{k} \right) k; z_j; 1^0$$

is increasing in $\left(\frac{1 - i^s}{k} \right) k = k^\alpha (z; 1)$. In other words, the larger is the difference between non-adjusted capital and target capital, the greater is the net value of adjustment. It then follows from (6) and (8) that $\bar{g}(k; z; 1)$ is also increasing in the gap between nonadjusted and target capital. Hence the probability that a production unit of type k undertakes capital adjustment, $G \bar{g}(k; z; 1)$, is increasing in its capital deviation,

as seen in the upper panel of Figure 1. Notice that the hazard is centered at the capital level associated with target capital, $\frac{\sigma k^{\alpha}(z;1)}{1_i \pm}$, and as capital deviates to the left or right of this value, probabilities of adjustment monotonically rise. Note further that, in steady state, all plants are positioned along the left ramp of the hazard, given depreciation and trend technological progress, having capital levels at or below that associated with the target. The implication of this is a monotonically rising steady state distribution of plants that peaks at the target, as shown by the solid curve of the figure's lower panel. The lower, dashed, curve depicts the measure of plants at each capital level that do not adjust their capital stocks. Thus, the area between represents the steady state measure of adjusting plants, here roughly 30 percent.

5.1 Dynamics under fixed prices

We begin with a series of fixed price experiments designed to gauge lumpy investment's potential for generating aggregate nonlinearities. In these examples, we study aggregate factor demand responses to aggregate productivity fluctuations under the assumption that wages and interest rates faced by the economy's establishments remain fixed at their steady state values. We view this as a useful way of exploring the ability that our model has for producing the sorts of features uncovered by previous partial equilibrium studies, as discussed in section 1 above. Perhaps more importantly, this series of examples helps us to clarify the mechanism through which heterogeneous capital adjustments may act to produce such features.

In the following stylized example, we consider the effects of temporary shocks to productivity. The first panel of Figure 2 displays an initial adjustment hazard for the lumpy investment model, centered around the capital value associated with steady state target capital. In the face of a one standard deviation rise in productivity that is expected to persist, establishments' desired capital holdings increase sharply; this re-centers the adjustment hazard, shifting it rightward. Recall that, on average, most plants are positioned along the left ramp of the hazard, due to capital depreciation and trend productivity growth. When those plants associated with initial capital holdings below 1.18 experience a rise in desired capital, they find that their current

capital lies sufficiently far below their (raised) target that they are willing to suffer large adjustment costs to correct this shortfall. In this particular example, as the economy begins at its deterministic steady state, all plants lie along the left ramp on the initial hazard. Here, the rise in productivity generates such a large rise in desired capital that even the highest adjustment cost draw does not dissuade such plants from investing, and adjustment probabilities rise to 1. Thus, in Figure 2's lower panel, we see that all establishments adjust away from their initial capital holdings, with the total measure of adjusters rising dramatically from .295 to 1.

Next, consider the converse, the effects of a one standard deviation drop in productivity, as depicted in Figure 3. In this case, the fall in target capital implies a substantial leftward shift in the adjustment hazard. Those plants with very low capital holdings, initially associated with high adjustment probabilities, now find their current capital much closer to the desired value, and hence are less likely to undertake costly adjustment. At the same time, plants with current capital roughly between 1 and 1.2 find that, rather than having a minor capital shortfall, they now have substantial excess. For these plants, adjustment probabilities rise. On balance, this left-shifting adjustment hazard implies only a minor rise in the number of active capital adjusters, from .295 to .308, as depicted in the lower panel of the figure. Thus, while positive productivity shocks have the potential to generate substantial external-margin effects on aggregate investment demand, negative productivity shocks do not.

The significance of this distributional asymmetry becomes apparent in Figure 4. Here, we consider deviations from trend growth rates in response to the positive shock of Figure 2, occurring in period 6, followed by 14 periods of average productivity during which the economy resettles, and then the negative shock of Figure 3. From panel A, we see that target capital's deviation from steady state behaves roughly symmetrically, and matches the approximately linear reference model closely. However, in response to the positive shock, the rise in target capital is substantially amplified by a large rise in the measure of investors, as is apparent from panel B, where the growth rate of aggregate capital demand under lumpy investment rises roughly 18 percent more than in the reference model. By contrast, when the negative shock occurs,

changes along the external margin play only a minor role for the lumpy investment economy. There, the fall in target capital is mitigated by the fact that only about 30% of establishments actually disinvest to the new target; consequently, the growth rate of aggregate capital demand exhibits less than half the decline seen in the reference model (where all plants disinvest). We conclude from this example that: (i) our model of lumpy investment does have the potential to generate aggregate nonlinearities; (ii) these nonlinearities may take the form of asymmetric responses to shocks - sharper expansions and dampened contractions - as suggested by the findings of previous authors; (iii) these features result entirely from the asymmetric effects of rightward and leftward shifts in the adjustment hazard upon the total number of adjusters, and hence subsequent distributions of plants; (iv) the dynamics of adjustment along the intensive margin are roughly unaffected by the presence of nonconvexities in plant-level adjustment technologies.

The discussion above illustrates the powerful distributional effects possible in the lumpy investment model. We next assess these effects over a 2500 period simulation of the economy, again holding prices fixed. Figures 5 and 6, along with table 2, summarize the results. First, in the upper panels of figure 5, we rank the deviations in aggregate investment relative to trend for the lumpy investment and reference models. Here, we use the horizontal axis to represent 5 broad categories of investment episodes, ranging from extremely low to extremely high, with the vertical axis measuring the fraction of dates spent in each of these ranges. From the upper left panel, note that, within the reference economy, the fraction of investment periods away from near-trend is distributed perfectly evenly. By contrast, the lumpy investment economy displays a disproportionate fraction of extremely high, relative to high, investment episodes, and has fewer extremely low, relative to low, observations. Specifically, while times of near-average investment occur with roughly equal frequency, the inclusion of nonconvex capital adjustments shifts 2.5 percent of very low investment realizations upward into the low range, while nearly 2 percent (50 periods) of high investment episodes are pushed into the extremely high range. This evidence of lumpy investment's dampened contractions and heightened expansions

over the simulation is summarized in the figure’s lower right-hand panel, which isolates the differences between the two upper panel histograms. Finally, at lower left, we align these histograms alongside results for the partial adjustment model, which by comparison displays far less dispersion in investment, given the convexifying force of quadratic adjustment costs.

For a more detailed examination of the fixed price simulation results, we next construct series containing differences in the relative deviations in investment and capital from trend, between the lumpy investment versus reference economies, for each date in the simulation. Table 2 provides several measures of the absolute values of the gaps in investment, along with the results for the Partial Adjustment versus Reference.

Table 2: Reference deviations in Investment Demand

	<u>minimum</u>	<u>mean</u>	<u>median</u>	<u>maximum</u>
Lumpy Inv.	.00010	.463	.1590	2.053
Partial Adj.	.00008	.690	.0907	11.630

Note that average differences from the reference economy are substantial, 46 percent for lumpy investment and 69 percent for partial adjustment.

We present a cumulative ranking of the proportion of all observations represented by each difference, (Lumpy Inv. minus Reference,) for capital in the upper panel of figure 6. Note that this ranking is highly asymmetric around zero. To the left, we see substantial mass for dates where lumpy investment’s percentage deviations from trend lie between zero and 25 percent below the reference model. By contrast, the right tail, reflecting higher capital growth in the lumpy investment economy, is both long and thin, with fewer observations distributed over a much wider range. These features are particularly apparent when contrasted with the near-perfect symmetry of the partial adjustment versus reference model differences in the figure’s lower panel. From these closer inspections of the fixed price simulation results, we conclude that lumpy establishment-level investments can substantially reshape the distribution of investment and capital growth rates, relative to economies with smooth underlying

investment patterns yielding approximately linear aggregate dynamics, when movements in factor demands are unconstrained by changes in prices.

5.2 Equilibrium dynamics

We begin this section with a discussion of the accuracy of the forecasting rules, \hat{p} and \hat{p} , used by agents. Table 3 displays the equilibrium forecasting functions, conditional on current productivity, when the distribution is approximated by only a single partition.^{10,11} The standard errors and R^2 s associated with each regression indicate that the statistical mean alone is an efficient proxy for the distribution. This is confirmed in table 4, where we re-solve the economy using two partitions to approximate the distribution. Note that there are only marginal reductions in the standard errors on equilibrium price regressions, indicating little additional relevant information. Since it is difficult to draw inferences from the relative magnitudes of the errors in forecasting future conditional means, as neither m_1^0 nor m_2^0 in table 4 corresponds to the mean in table 3, we use figure 7 to present the aggregate capital series from each lumpy investment economy over the same 2500 period history. We find no discernible differences, and take this as strong evidence that we need not partition the distribution further.¹² A comparison of table 3 with corresponding results from an economy whose distribution is exactly its mean is still more compelling. Specifically, when we solve for equilibrium forecasting functions in the reference economy, we find minimal changes in the regression coefficients and standard errors. As an illustration of this, the reference economy's standard errors for m_1^0 and p are $1.22e^{-4}$ and $2.63e^{-5}$ respectively when productivity is at its highest value z_5 , and $2.49e^{-4}$ and $5.36e^{-5}$ for $z = z_3$. Comparing these values with the corresponding errors of table 3 foreshadows the remaining results of this section.

¹⁰Partitions here refer to I , the number of elements in m .

¹¹We have experimented with a variety of functional forms, including, for example, higher order terms. These produce similar results to the log linear form reported here. In the extension of the model, in section 6 below, we use quadratic forms.

¹²The maximum difference in these series is $2.1e^{-4}$. However, except where explicitly noted otherwise, the lumpy investment results below correspond to the the 2-partition economy.

We now re-examine the productivity simulation of our fixed price experiments in general equilibrium. We begin with an overview of second moments in table 5. Panel A displays percentage standard deviations in the growth rates of output, investment, consumption, employment, wages and interest rates across model economies. From these results, it is clear that the variability under lumpy investment is virtually identical to the reference economy, regardless of whether we use one partition of the distribution (row 3), or two (row 2). This similarity is further emphasized by comparison with the partial adjustment model, where the cycle is dampened by the sluggish responsiveness of investment demand. The similarities between Lumpy Investment and Reference economies are also evident in the comovements with output reported in panel B. By contrast, aggregate quantities move more closely with the cycle in the partial adjustment results.

From table 5, it is evident that lumpy investment fails to reshape the aggregate cycle in equilibrium. In what follows, we explore this further. In figure 8, we present histograms of the relative deviations in investment from trend over the simulation, the equilibrium counterpart to figure 5. Two features of this figure are noteworthy. First, investment in both the lumpy investment and reference economies exhibits far less dispersion than was evident in figure 5, as changes in factor prices largely offset the swings in investment demand seen under fixed prices. Second, while the reference economy's investment series continues to be approximately symmetric around zero, the distribution is now closer to the Normal. Here again, the effects of equilibrium price movements offset plants' desires for large capital adjustments, shifting substantial mass away from extreme investment episodes inward toward levels corresponding to more moderate changes. This same force removes the lumpy investment economy's tendency for sharp expansions, shifting mass from the highest investment deviations downward. As a result, the differences in these two histograms essentially disappear in equilibrium; the largest difference is in the zero band, where the lumpy investment economy displays about 0.5 percent fewer realizations than the reference economy.

From the results presented thusfar, it is apparent that lumpy investment does not produce the stronger expansions and dampened recessions suggested by the fixed

price results of Figure 4, at least on average. Table 6 indicates that differences in the Lumpy Investment versus Reference investment series are never of quantitative significance in equilibrium, reaching only 0.3 percent at their maximum. We also see that the gaps present in the second row are reduced when price changes are present to dampen fluctuations in the Reference investment series.

Table 6: Reference deviations in Equilibrium Investment

	<u>minimum</u>	<u>mean</u>	<u>median</u>	<u>maximum</u>
Lumpy Inv.	1.6 e-7	5.9 e-4	4.8 e-4	.0030
Partial Adj.	3.6 e-6	3.3 e-2	2.5 e-2	.1672

In Figure 9, we display cumulative rankings of the differences between capital deviations relative to trend for both Lumpy Investment and Partial Adjustment with Reference economies, the equilibrium analogue of Figure 6. The distributions here exhibit greater symmetry around zero than was the case with prices held fixed. Much more importantly, though, note the scale of the horizontal axis in the figure's upper panel. Capital's percentage deviations from trend in the lumpy investment economy are never so much as 0.1 percent away from those of the reference economy. We take this as further evidence that the implications of nonconvex establishment-level capital adjustment for aggregate dynamics are unimportant.

Based on the discussion above, it would appear that changes in extensive-margin capital adjustment within the lumpy investment economy must be quite minor in equilibrium. We close this section by verifying this lack of distributional shifts for our original example. In Figure 10, we reconsider the asymmetric shock history which illustrated lumpy investment's potential for nonlinearities when real wages and interest rates were constant. We find that, even in this example, the equilibrium lumpy investment economy exhibits no greater evidence of an asymmetric response than does the approximately linear reference economy.

6 Extension: Investment Shocks

The results of the preceding section indicate that nonconvex capital adjustments can generate important nonlinearities in an environment with unchanging prices, but fail to do so when markets clear. It is tempting, then, to conclude that lumpy investment is not particularly important to the business cycle. However, this conclusion may rely on the assumption that business cycles are generated by a single driving force - an aggregate productivity shock that affects all production units in the economy.

Recent work by Christiano and Fisher (1998) and Greenwood, Hercowitz and Krusell (2000) suggests that, in fact, fluctuations in the price of investment goods may explain a substantial portion of the business cycle. Identifying the relative price of new equipment as a measure of the price of investment goods, Greenwood et al present evidence that shocks shifting the price of investment above and below its long-run downward trend can account for 30 percent of the cyclical variation in output. Measuring investment good prices more broadly, Christiano and Fisher find that investment-specific shocks explain 75 percent of output fluctuations at business cycle frequencies.¹³

The importance of investment-specific shocks in the economy raises questions about the generality of the results of the previous section. We reason as follows. A shock that is specific to the productivity of investment necessarily affects only those establishments currently adjusting capital stocks, unlike the shock to overall production examined above. All plants benefit from the effects of a positive total factor productivity shock, regardless of whether they expand their factors of production; to better exploit these benefits, some plants increase capital. By contrast, a positive investment-specific shock provides a more direct incentive for capital adjustment, since it benefits only those establishments that invest. Thus such shocks have the potential to yield much larger shifts in the economy's adjustment hazard, which may be sufficient to overcome the convexifying forces of equilibrium. To explore this pos-

¹³Fluctuations in the price of investment goods may be interpreted as the result of shocks to the productivity of investment, or investment-specific technology shocks. Throughout this section, we follow this interpretation.

sibility, we now extend our previous description of the lumpy investment model, (as well as the reference model,) to allow for exogenous fluctuations in the productivity of investment.

Our extension of the model incorporates a one-sector hybrid of the approaches taken by Christiano and Fisher (1998) and Greenwood et al (2000), which involves the following modifications to our previous specification.¹⁴ We assume that investment-specific productivity follows a first order Markov process with average growth rate $G_i > 1$. Plant-level capital accumulation is now governed by $\hat{A}k^0 = (1 - \delta)k + z^3i$, where z^3 denotes the current level of detrended investment-specific productivity, and $\hat{A} > 1$ denotes the long-run growth rate of aggregate capital, which is $(\delta G)^{\frac{1}{1-\mu}} > 1$.¹⁵ The exogenous aggregate state is given by z^3 , and we follow the previous authors in assuming that shocks to total factor productivity and investment-specific productivity are independently distributed. Transition probabilities are

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{ij} &= \Pr(z^0 = z_j | z = z_i) \\ \lambda_{ls} &= \Pr(z^0 = z_s | z = z_l) \end{aligned}$$

With these alterations, equations (6) and (7) describing the plant's dynamic problem in section 2 change as shown below.

$$\begin{aligned} V^1(k; z; z^3; 1) &= \max_{n, i} zF(k; n) - \lambda n + \frac{(1 - \delta)k}{3} p \\ &+ \max_{z^0} \lambda_{ij} p + \max_{k^0} \lambda_{ls} \frac{\hat{A}k^0}{3} p + \sum_{j,s} \lambda_{ij} \lambda_{ls} V^0(k^0; z_j; z_s; 1) \hat{A} \\ &+ \sum_{j,s} \lambda_{ij} \lambda_{ls} V^0\left(\frac{(1 - \delta)k}{\hat{A}}; z_j; z_s; 1\right) \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

¹⁴We analogously adapt the reference model.

¹⁵As before, all variables denominated in units of output are detrended by trend output. With the inclusion of investment-specific productivity growth, and trend output now grows at rate $(\delta G)^{\frac{1}{1-\mu}} > 1$, rather than $(\delta G)^{\frac{1}{1-\mu}} > 1$. We recalibrate the household's discount factor β to maintain the steady state interest rate at 6.5 percent.

$$V^0(k; z; \beta; 1) = \int_0^Z V^1(k; z; \beta; 1) G(dz). \quad (17)$$

Equations (8) and (9) determining the target capital and threshold adjustment costs change accordingly, z being replaced with $z; \beta$, and \tilde{A} replacing α , and the evolution of the distribution of plants over capital $f^0 = f(z; \beta; 1)$ is given by the following.

$$f^0(k) = \int_0^Z G \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\beta} \frac{\tilde{A}}{k}; z; \beta; 1 \right) f^1 \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\beta} \frac{\tilde{A}}{k}; z; \beta; 1 \right) dz; \quad k \in k^{\beta}(z; \beta; 1) \quad (18)$$

$$f^0(k) = \int_0^Z G \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\beta} \frac{\tilde{A}}{k}; z; \beta; 1 \right) f^1(dk) + \int_0^Z G \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\beta} \frac{\tilde{A}}{k}; z; \beta; 1 \right) f^1 \left(\frac{\mu}{1-\beta} \frac{\tilde{A}}{k}; z; \beta; 1 \right) dz; \quad k = k^{\beta}(z; \beta; 1) \quad (19)$$

The equations describing equilibrium consumption and hours, (13) - (14), are similarly modified. Finally, we assume that shocks to the investment productivity process take the form,

$$z^0 = z^{\beta} e^{\epsilon^0}; \quad \epsilon^0 \sim n(0; \sigma_{\epsilon^0}^2), \quad (20)$$

then discretize the state space using the procedure outlined above in section 4.¹⁶

Note that the output-growth-deflated relative price of a unit of investment is simply $\frac{1}{\beta}$. As such, we are able to use a relative price series for aggregate investment, from 1982 through 1998, to directly estimate the parameters of (20), β and σ_{ϵ^0} , as well as the trend growth parameter G .¹⁷ This yields $G = 1.022$, $\beta = .706$, and $\sigma_{\epsilon^0} = .017$.

We now examine the effect of lumpy investment in an economy subject to both fluctuations in aggregate productivity and investment-specific shocks.¹⁸ In table 6, we see that adding the investment shock raises overall volatility in both the lumpy

¹⁶For this exercise, we discretize the $[z; \beta]$ state space on a 3×3 grid of values.

¹⁷We follow Christiano and Fisher (1998), section 2.2, closely in constructing this price series, adapting their method only as required to translate the quarterly series to an annual frequency.

¹⁸As standard errors in forecasting regressions continue to be small, averaging roughly $6e-4$ for m_1 and $8e-4$ for p , we present results only for the $l = 1$ partition economy.

investment and reference economies. This is particularly true for investment and employment, and consequently interest rates, whose relative standard deviations rise substantially, as is consistent with our reasoning above. Note that there is a more pronounced difference between the two economies, though the results remain very close; this is also true for the output correlations shown in the table's lower panel. Turning to Figure 11, we examine the histograms of investment deviations relative to trend. In comparison to Figure 8, where only the TFP shock was present, there are no more pronounced differences with the inclusion of the investment shock; this is evident from the scale of the lower right panel.

We have hypothesized that the investment shock is more likely to affect the distribution of plants than does the total productivity shock. Thus, it is possible that the latter is acting to dampen nonlinearities. In table 7 and Figure 12, we explore this possibility by eliminating variation in total factor productivity. Beginning with the table, it is apparent that the investment shock alone is insufficient to drive the cycle; output variability is reduced nearly half relative to the results of table 5. However, now relative volatilities in investment and employment are at their highest; in the case of employment, the rise is dramatic. In both panels, we begin to see slightly larger differences between R and L rows, particularly for investment, as expected. Nonetheless, these differences remain negligible. It is worthy of note that, beyond the difficulty of reduced output volatility in both models, the consumption, wage and interest rate series have become countercyclical in absence of the TFP shock. Hence, while this example may be useful in studying the aggregate effects of lumpy investment, it is not a plausible model for business cycle analysis.¹⁹

Finally, examining Figure 12, we find that the histograms for investment deviations do exhibit greater differences when the productivity shock is removed. This is clearest when they are viewed together in the lower left panel, and confirmed by the differences plotted at lower right. Nonetheless, the variations across the lumpy investment versus

¹⁹Christiano and Fisher (1998) avoid these problems within our reference model by allowing for two sectors in the economy and assuming that labor input must be determined prior to the investment shock's realization.

reference economies continue to be small, with only about 2.8 percent more dispersion away from near-average investment episodes in the former than the latter. From this and the previous set of results, we conclude that the conjecture which prompted our inclusion of an investment-specific driving process was correct, but quantitatively irrelevant.

7 Concluding Remarks

To be added.

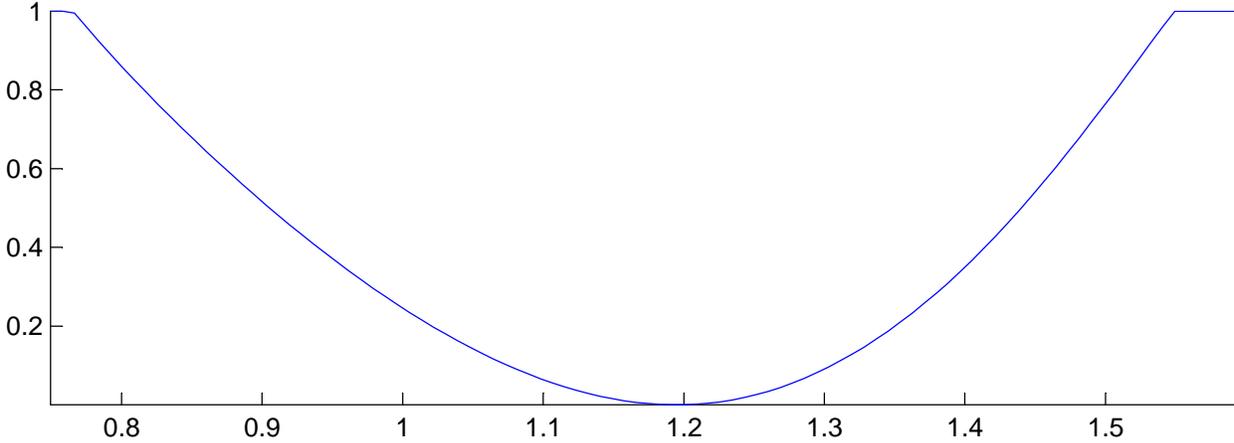
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Figure 1: THE STATIONARY ADJUSTMENT HAZARD



ADJUSTMENT ACROSS THE DISTRIBUTION (TOTAL = 0.295)

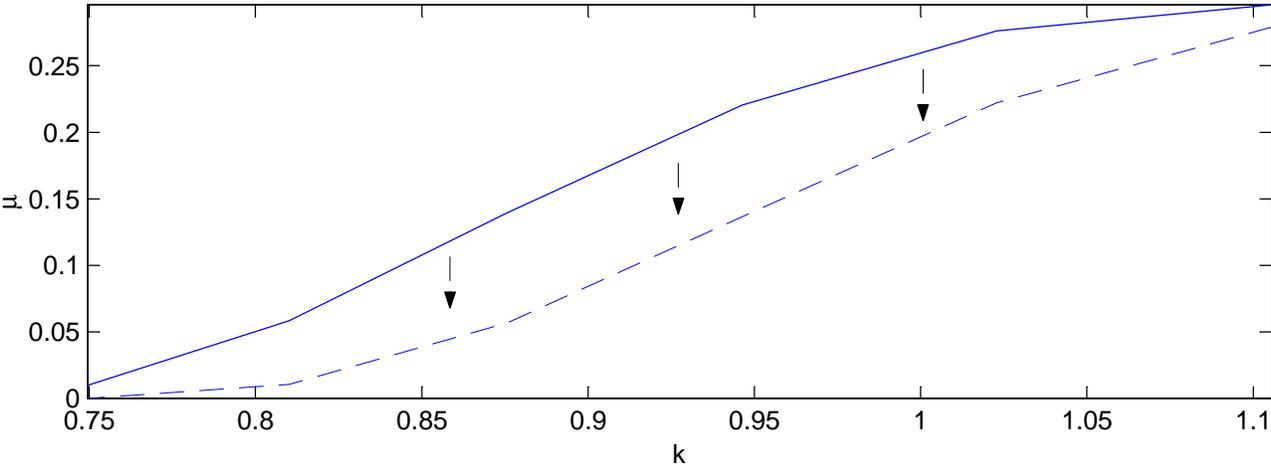
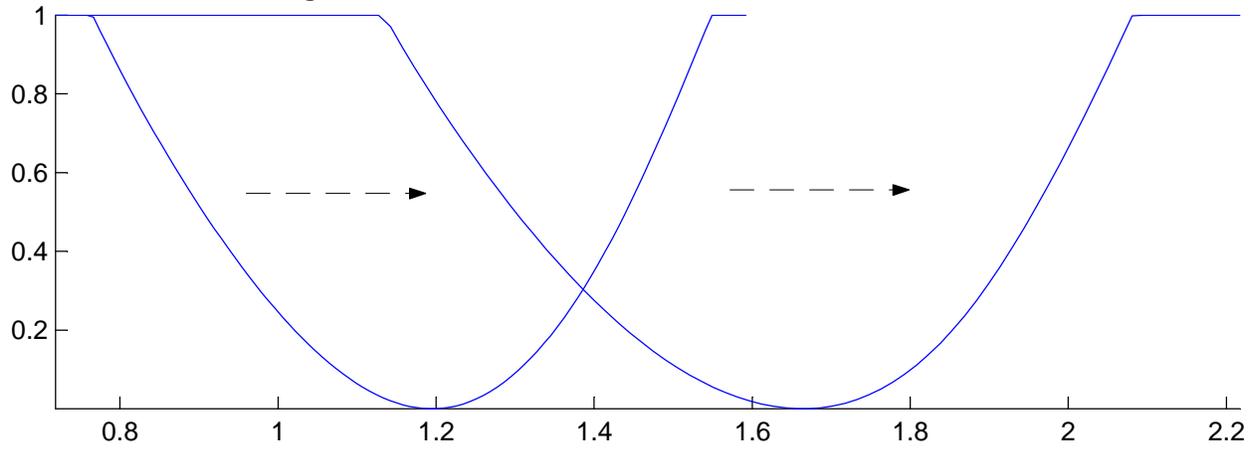


Figure 2: RISE IN PRODUCTIVITY: HAZARD SHIFTS RIGHT



ADJUSTMENT ACROSS THE DISTRIBUTION (TOTAL = 1)

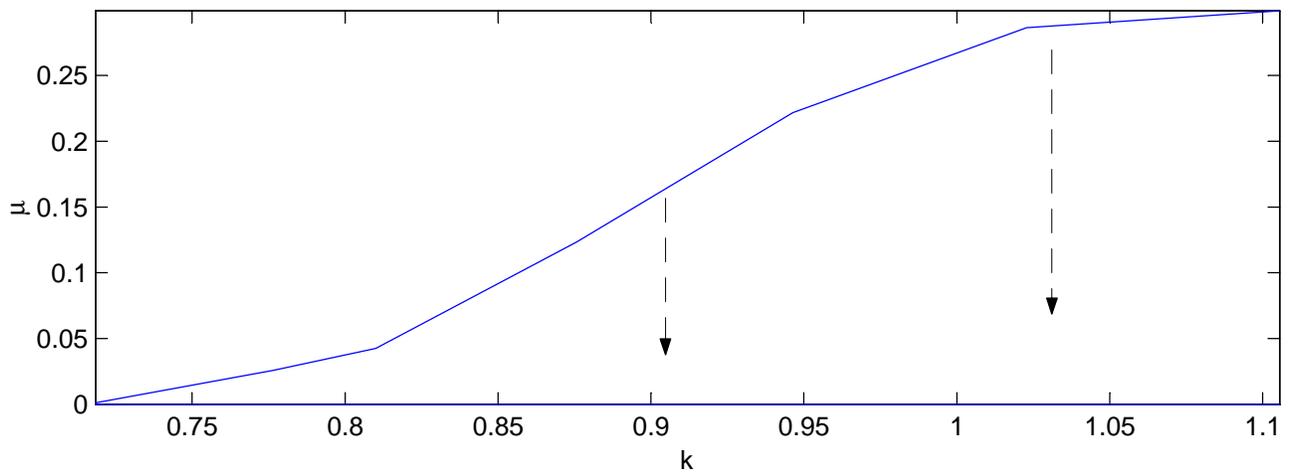
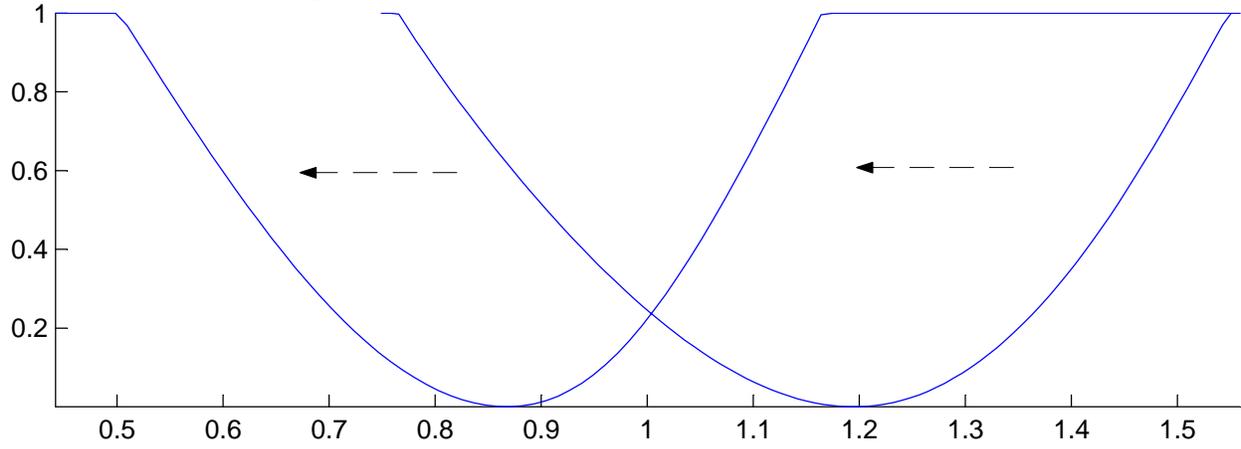


Figure 3: FALL IN PRODUCTIVITY: HAZARD SHIFTS LEFT



ADJUSTMENT ACROSS THE DISTRIBUTION (TOTAL = 0.308)

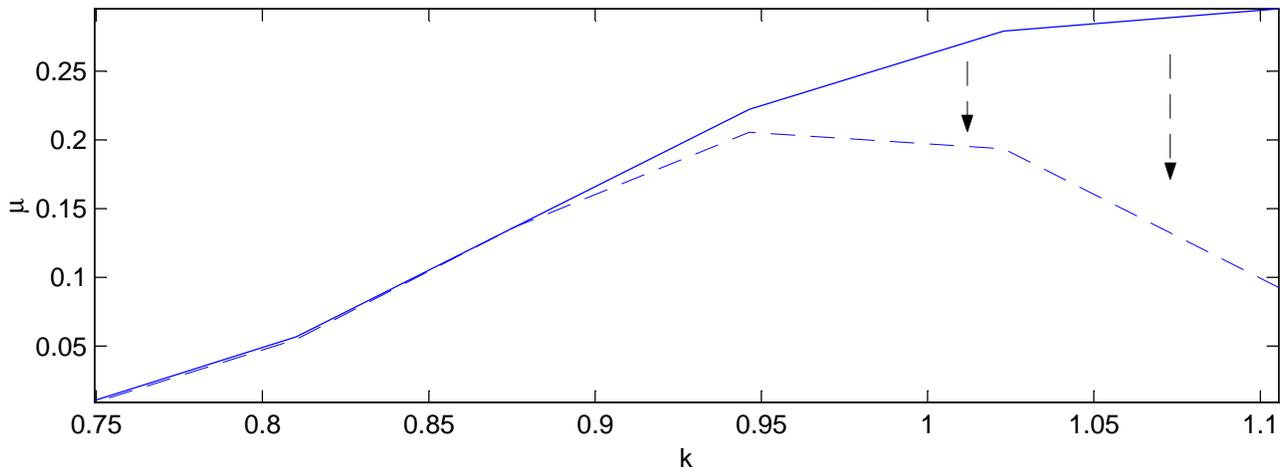


Figure 4A: Target Capital in Reference and Lumpy Inv. models

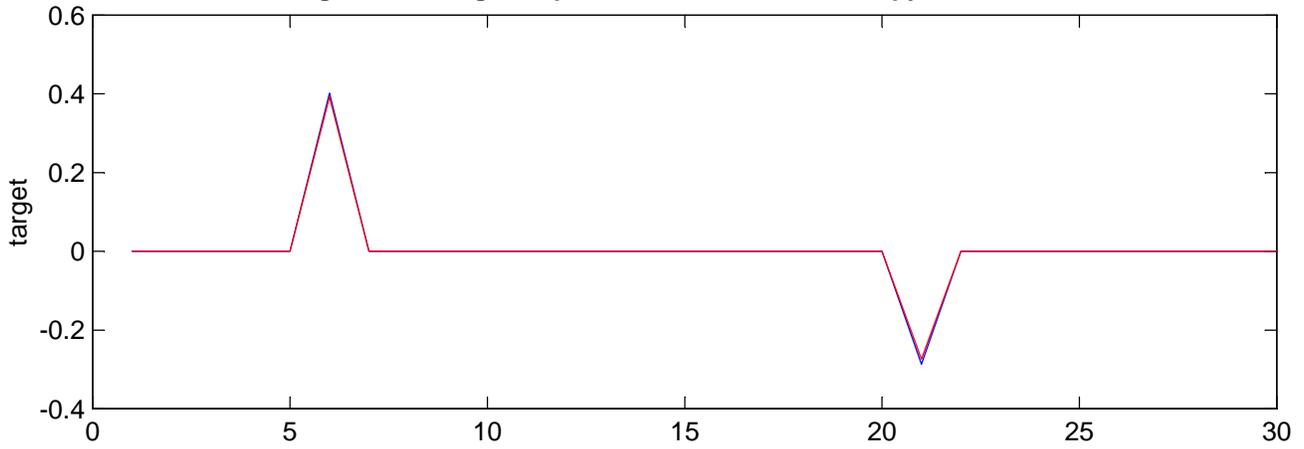


Figure 4B: Aggregate Capital in Reference and Lumpy Inv. models

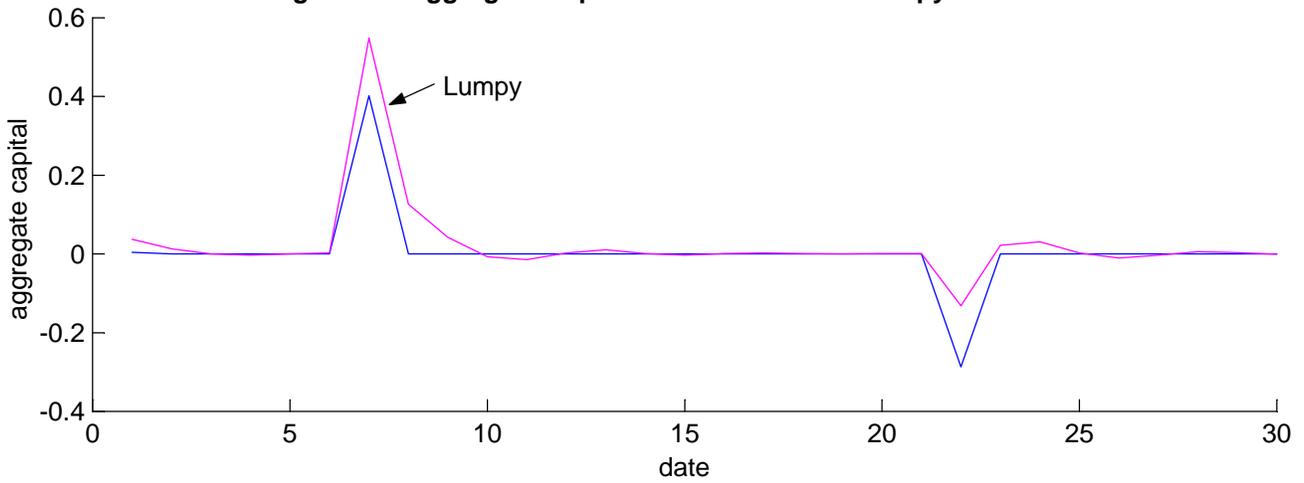


Figure 5: Distribution of Investment Deviations

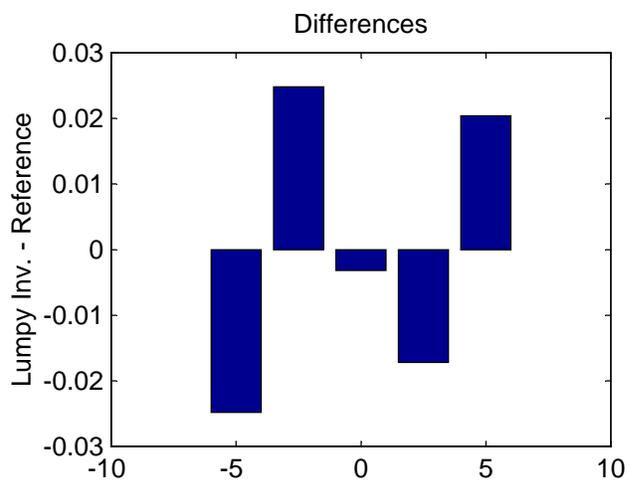
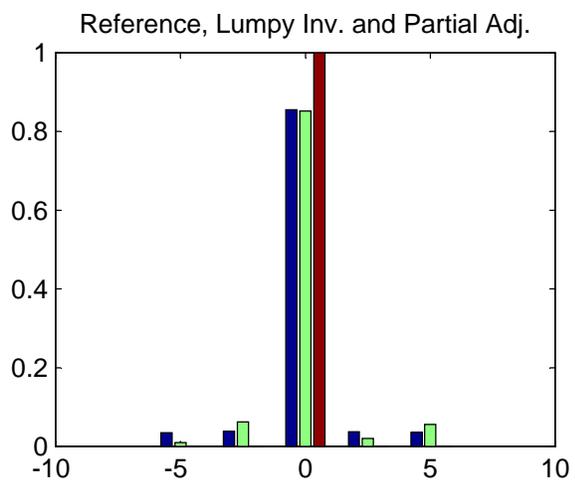
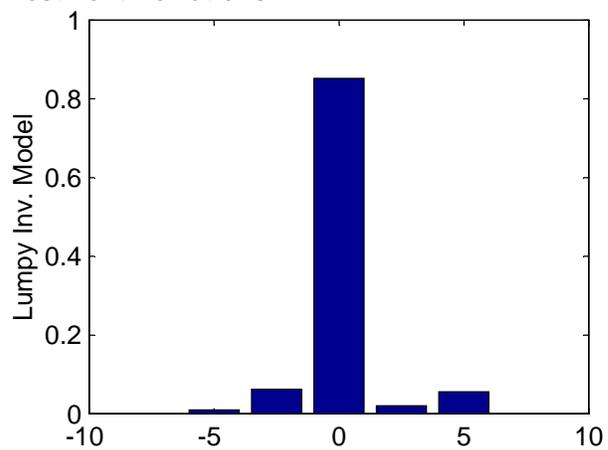
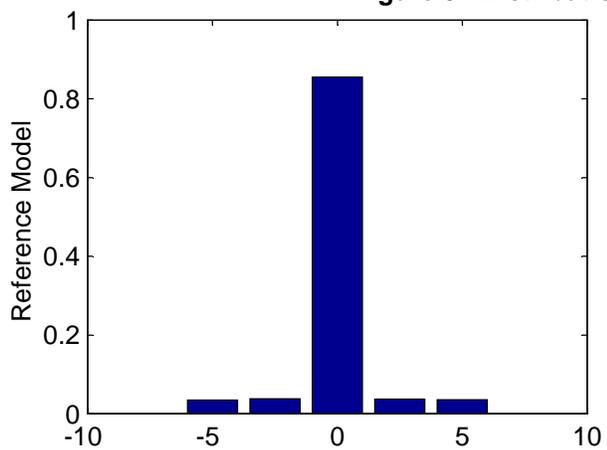


Figure 6: Ranked Fixed Price Capital Differences from Reference

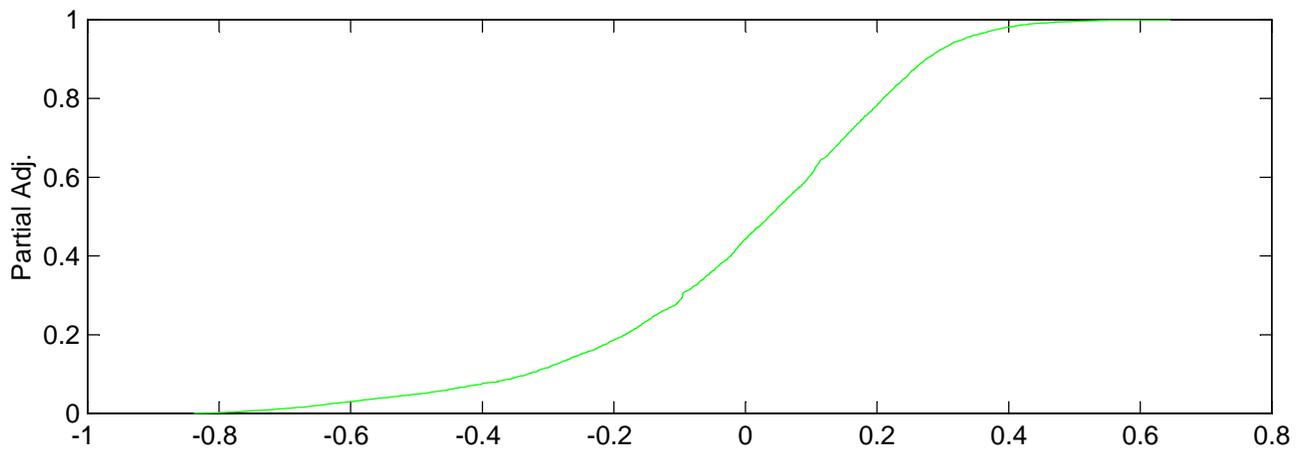
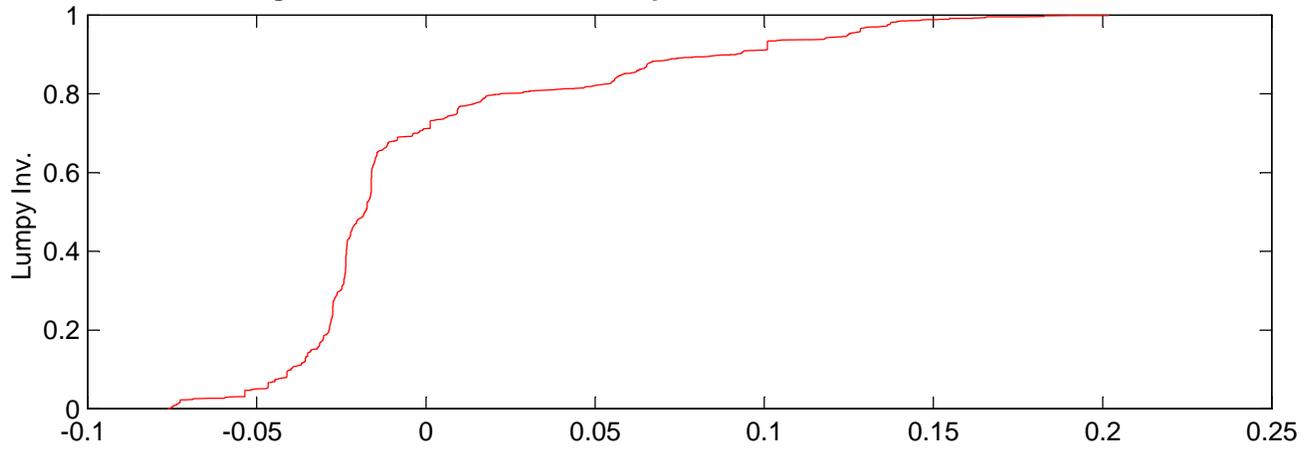


Figure 7: Aggregate Capital in 1 Partition v. 2 Partition Lumpy Inv. Models

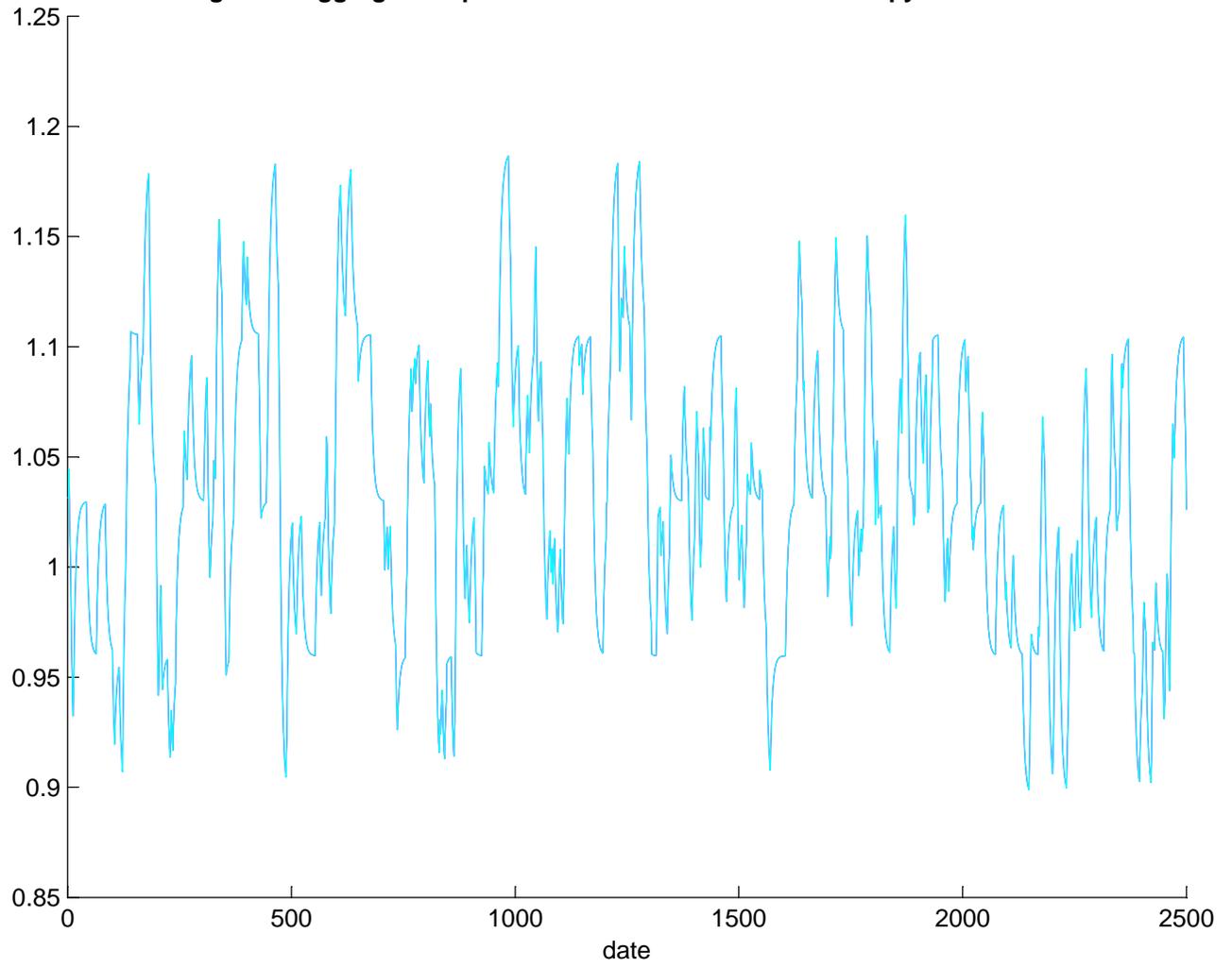


Figure 8: Distribution of Equilibrium Investment Deviations

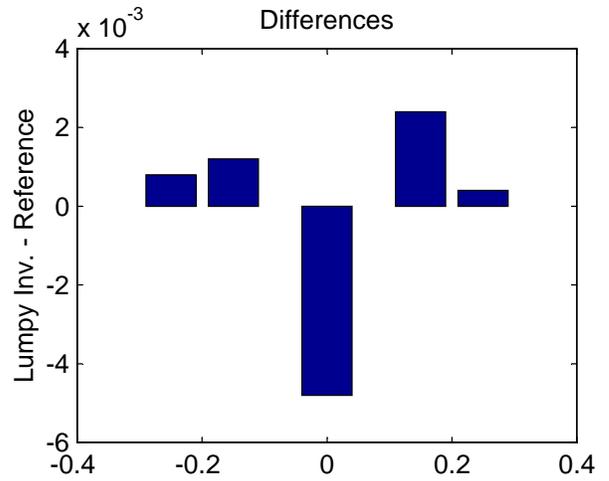
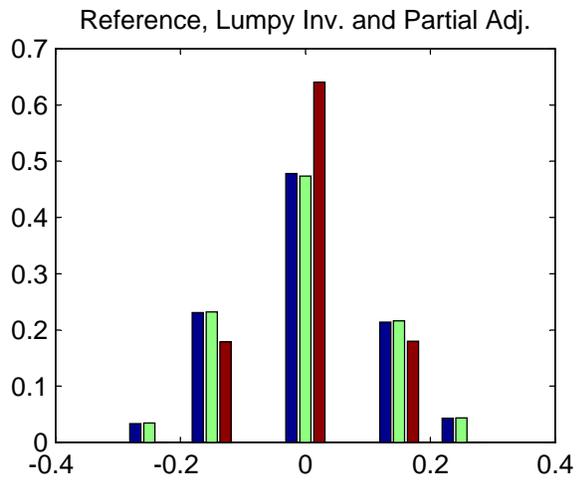
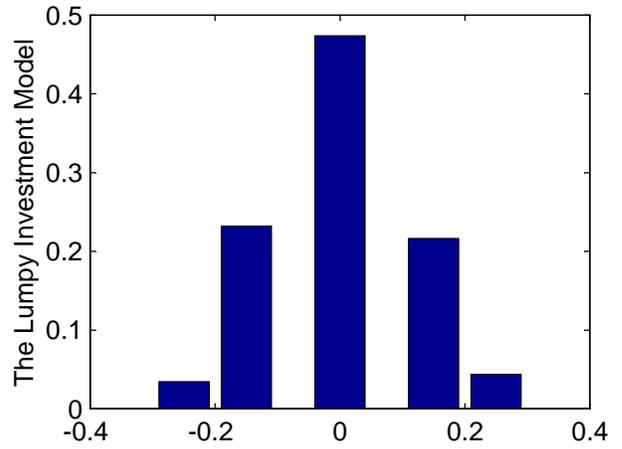
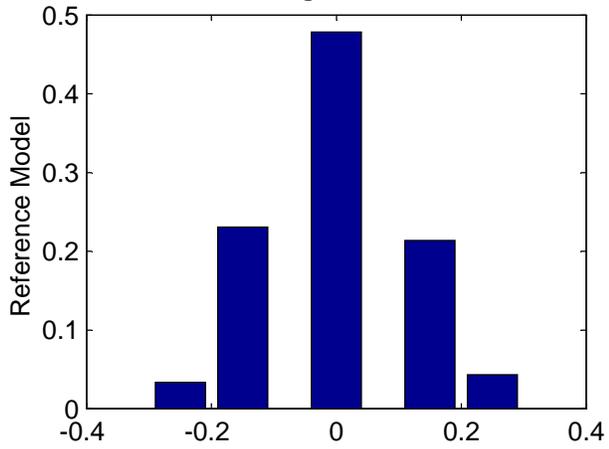


Figure 9: Ranked Equilibrium Capital Differences from Reference

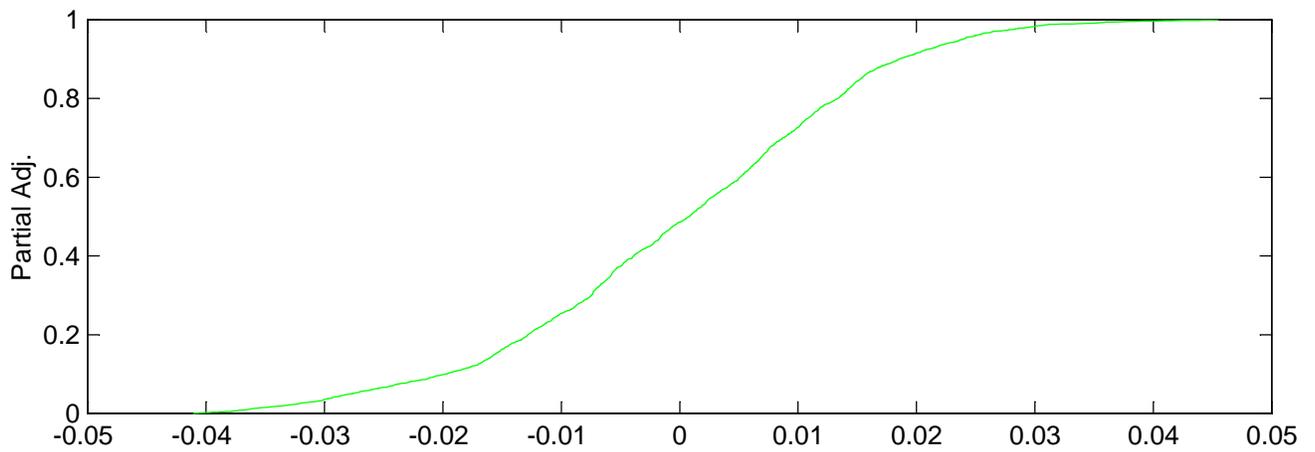
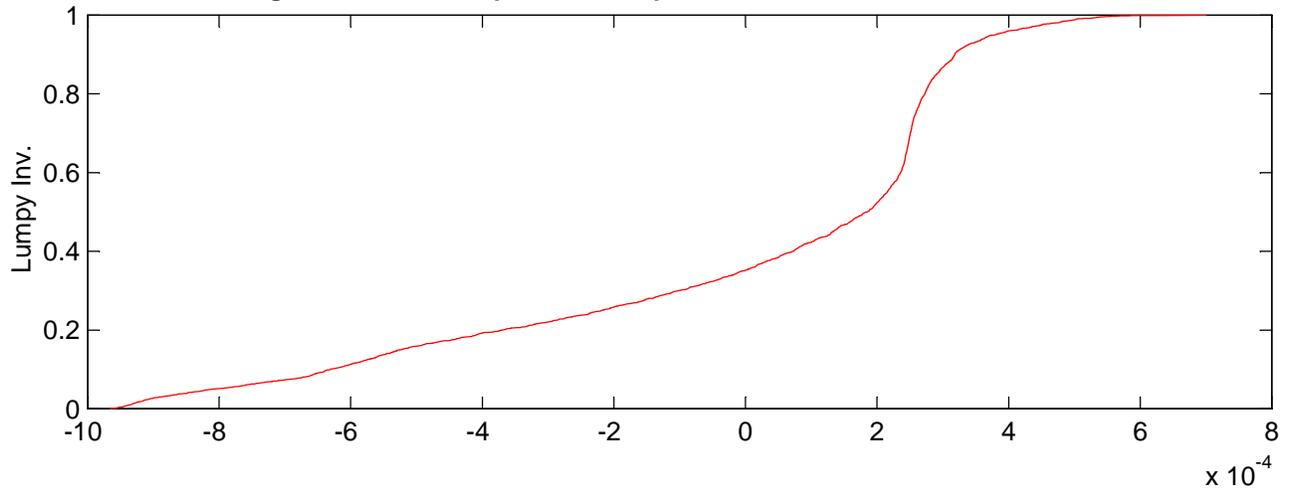


Figure 10: The Absence of Nonlinearities in Equilibrium

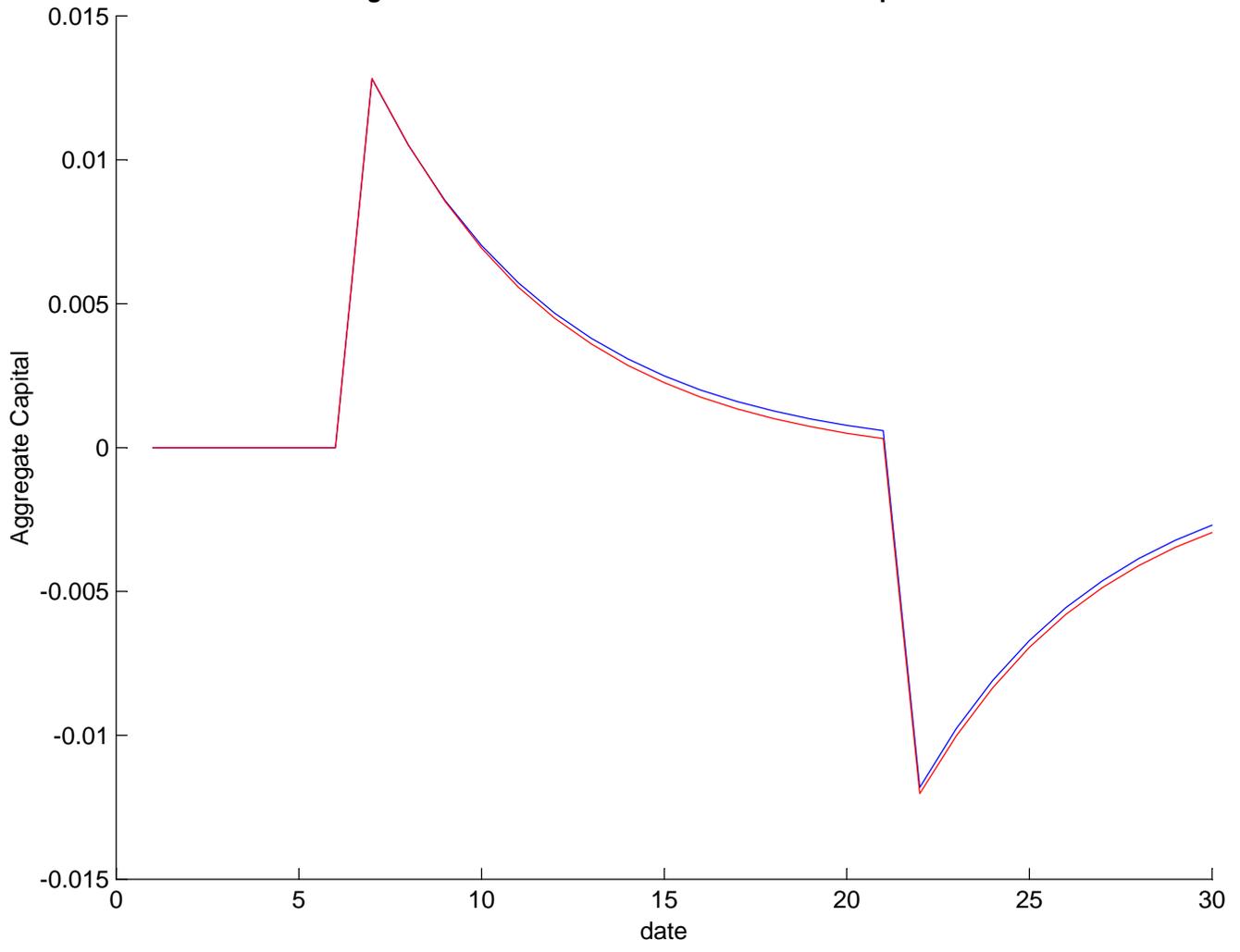


Figure 11: Distribution of Equilibrium Investment Deviations (w/ z and ζ shocks)

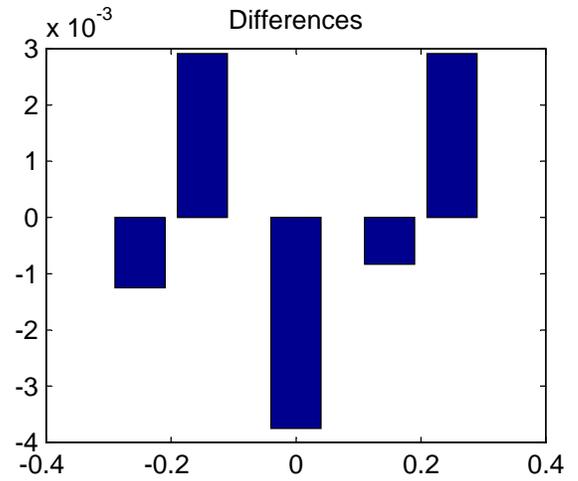
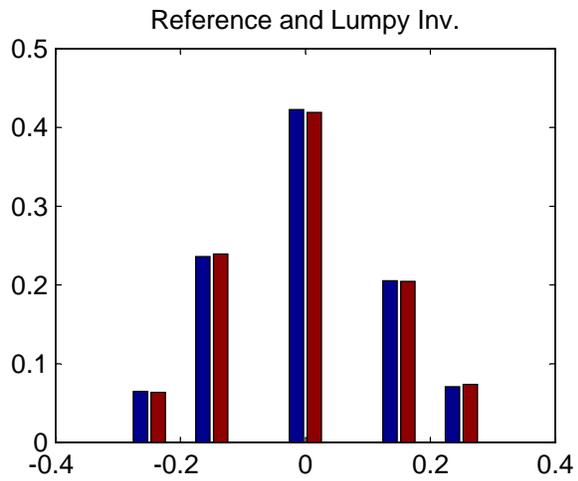
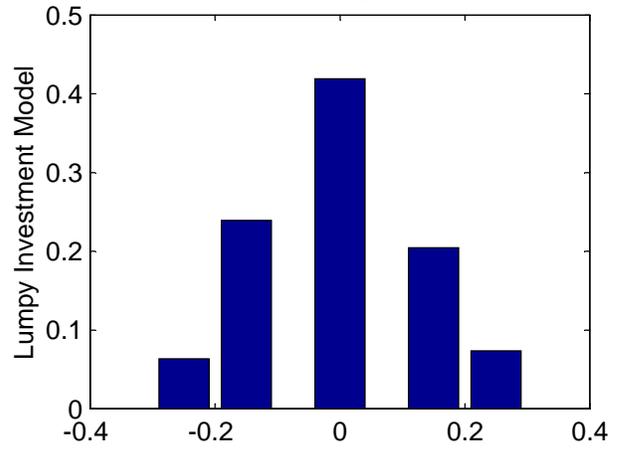
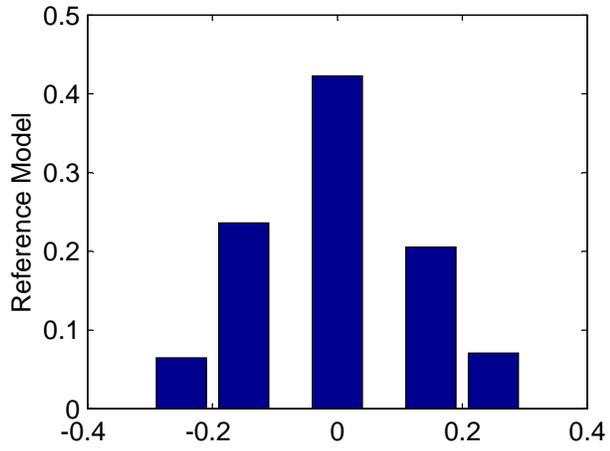


Figure 12: Distribution of Equilibrium Investment Deviations (w/ only ζ shock)

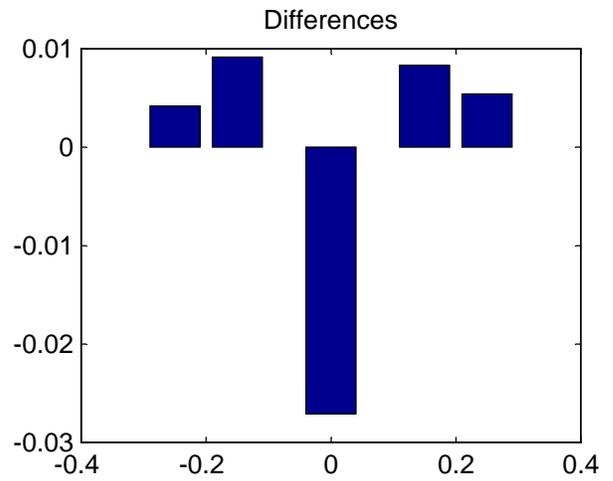
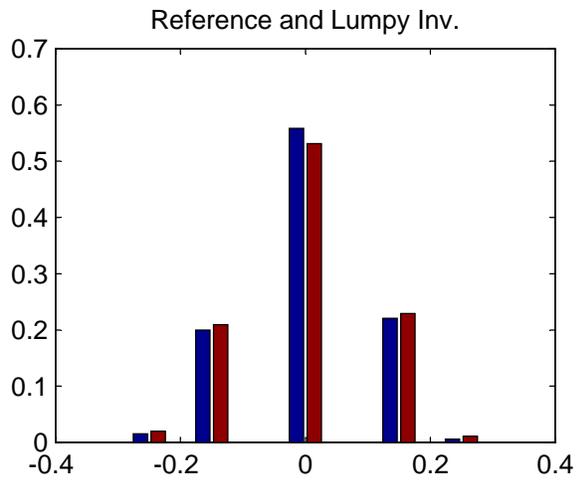
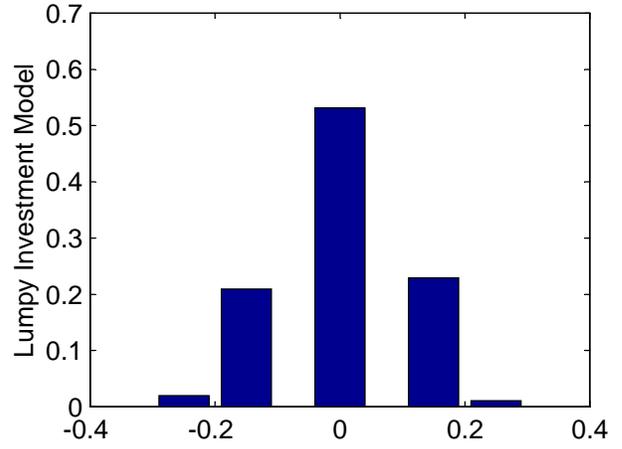
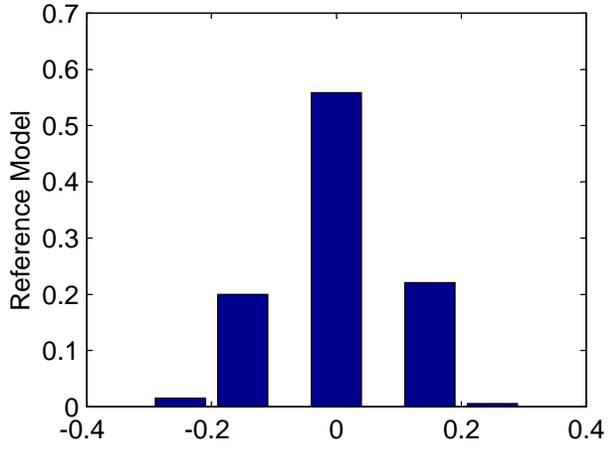


Table 3: Forecasting Rules with One Partition

$$\log(y) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 [\log(m_1)]$$

z1 (161 obs)	β_1	β_2	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0195	+0.8255	1.8739e-004	0.999950
p	+1.2034	-0.4855	1.0004e-004	0.999958

z2 (647 obs)	β_1	β_2	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0071	+0.8251	2.3579e-004	0.999936
p	+1.1810	-0.4807	8.3050e-005	0.999977

z3 (903 obs)	β_1	β_2	SE	R^2
m_1'	+0.0054	+0.8224	2.5248e-004	0.999933
p	+1.1584	-0.4787	7.0519e-005	0.999985

z4 (626 obs)	β_1	β_2	SE	R^2
m_1'	+0.0181	+0.8206	2.1888e-004	0.999942
p	+1.1355	-0.4768	6.8577e-005	0.999983

z5 (163 obs)	β_1	β_2	SE	R^2
m_1'	+0.0308	+0.8201	1.2563e-004	0.999977
p	+1.1123	-0.4736	4.2475e-005	0.999992

Table 4: Forecasting Rules with Two Partitions

$$\log(y) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 [\log(m_1)] + \beta_3 [\log(m_2)]$$

z1 (161 obs)	β_1	β_2	β_3	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.1041	+0.4827	+0.3115	1.0291e-003	0.998355
m_2'	-0.1864	+0.4305	+0.4314	1.0662e-003	0.998509
p	+0.8664	-0.2488	-0.2368	7.2610e-005	0.999978

z2 (647 obs)	β_1	β_2	β_3	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0750	+0.4252	+0.3749	8.8943e-004	0.999033
m_2'	-0.1904	+0.4670	+0.3864	1.0688e-003	0.998772
p	+0.8474	-0.2479	-0.2330	7.4008e-005	0.999982

z3 (903 obs)	β_1	β_2	β_3	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0632	+0.3389	+0.4391	7.2543e-004	0.999392
m_2'	-0.1804	+0.5580	+0.3145	8.8844e-004	0.999257
p	+0.8263	-0.2469	-0.2318	6.3122e-005	0.999988

z4 (626 obs)	β_1	β_2	β_3	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0528	+0.3625	+0.4141	9.1506e-004	0.998874
m_2'	-0.1715	+0.5659	+0.3072	7.9795e-004	0.999306
p	+0.8053	-0.2495	-0.2272	5.4232e-005	0.999989

z5 (163 obs)	β_1	β_2	β_3	SE	R^2
m_1'	-0.0241	+0.3216	+0.4653	9.0684e-004	0.998743
m_2'	-0.1763	+0.5945	+0.2640	8.8826e-004	0.998964
p	+0.7844	-0.2484	-0.2252	3.2380e-005	0.999996

Table 5: Business Cycle Moments

Standard Deviations

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	1.906	6.373	0.935	1.101	0.935	0.793
L2	1.906	6.386	0.933	1.102	0.933	0.793
L1	1.905	6.373	0.933	1.100	0.933	0.795
PA	1.547	3.458	1.094	0.473	1.094	1.068

Contemporaneous Correlations with Output

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	1.000	0.971	0.924	0.946	0.924	0.685
L2	1.000	0.972	0.925	0.947	0.925	0.683
L1	1.000	0.972	0.926	0.947	0.926	0.681
PA	1.000	0.990	0.995	0.972	0.995	0.545

R = Reference; L2 =Lumpy Investment w/ I=2; L1 = Lumpy Investment w/ I=1; PA = Partial Adjustment.

All series log HP-filtered.

**Table 6: Business Cycle Moments:
Shocks to Both Production and Investment Technology Active**

Standard Deviations

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	2.172	8.575	1.374	2.251	1.374	1.410
L1	2.182	8.670	1.373	2.265	1.373	1.407

Contemporaneous Correlations with Output

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	1.000	0.884	0.258	0.808	0.258	0.243
L1	1.000	0.885	0.253	0.810	0.253	0.242

R = Reference; L1=Lumpy Investment (1 partition)

All series log HP-filtered.

Table 7: Business Cycle Moments:
Only Investment-Specific Shock Active

Standard Deviations

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	1.128	7.037	1.042	2.021	1.042	1.140
L1	1.152	7.222	1.062	2.060	1.062	1.156

Contemporaneous Correlations with Output

	Output	Investment	Consumption	Employment	Wage	Interest Rate
R	1.000	0.953	-0.733	0.936	-0.733	-0.203
L1	1.000	0.952	-0.732	0.936	-0.732	-0.200

R = Reference; L1=Lumpy Investment (1 partition)

All series log HP-filtered.